

DISSERTATION

Titel der Dissertation

English-medium degree programmes in Austrian tertiary business studies: Policies and programme design

Verfasserin

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angestrebter akademischer Grad

Doktorin der Philosophie (Dr. phil.)

Wien, 2014

Studienkennzahl lt. Studienblatt: A 092 343

Dissertationsgebiet lt. Studienblatt: Dr.-Studium der Philosophie Anglistik und Amerikanistik

Betreuerin: Ao. Univ. Prof. Ute Smit

Acknowledgements

This thesis is the product of a long journey and I am grateful to many people who provided with me feedback and support of academic as well as of personal kind. First and foremost I would like to thank my family and especially my lovely parents Martin and Josefine for never doubting that taking this path was the right decision and always encouraging me along the way.

Like my family, my friends have very tolerantly accepted my absences during many social events and occasions. Heartfelt thanks go to Jasmin, Nadja, Elli, Doris, Florian and Sue for listening to my progress reports and for the encouraging emotional support through the ups and downs. Special thanks go to my dear friend and travel companion Nadja who is the very reason I started working at WU and also why I started writing this PhD thesis.

The whole project is closely tied to my workplace, WU Vienna, both academically and emotionally. Colleagues past and present have turned into close and special friends. I was very lucky to work and write in an environment where there would always be someone who cheered me up when I needed it. Thank you Kurt, Miya, Brian and Lauren for making me laugh between teaching classes, marking papers and writing my thesis. You are all inspiring teachers and I have learned so many things from you. Having a group of friends like that at work is something that I will always cherish.

Special thanks go to Miya who is an inspiration in so many respects and who proofread this thesis with an endless supply of patience. Whenever I was piled higher and deeper in data and could not see the big picture anymore, her insightful comments always pointed me in the right direction.

I would also like to thank Mareike for being my personal cheerleader and offering help in many a weekend marking session. Likewise, Gisela has always provided me with pragmatic advice and very often with unsolicited help when it came to teaching or marking. Thanks are also due to Judith who, due to her work ethics and motivation as a researcher, has been a role model for me, especially in my first years at WU. I would also like to thank Tom for egging me on and telling me on a daily basis “you’re done anyway”.

I also feel very fortunate to have had Elisabeth going through the stages of the PhD with me almost simultaneously. Sharing our experiences was very reassuring and I am grateful that we could go through the many late nights and software malfunctions together – just as we will now celebrate together.

I was also very lucky when it came to support from the administrative office: Alruna, Bärbl, Doris and Karin provided me with endless supplies of post-its, notepads and pens – a PhD student’s dream. I am also grateful to Christina Gefaell who helped me transcribe parts of the interview data and to Christina Drimmel for solving formatting issues with me.

Moreover, I would like to express my warmest thanks to Axel and Chris who have always been extremely supportive when it came to managing my responsibilities as a senior lecturer and writing this thesis. Both of them have always found the perfect balance between pushing me to move on and letting me do my thing. Grateful appreciation is also extended to Professor Obenaus who convinced the programme managers to sit down with me and answer all my questions in the interviews.

At University of Vienna, I would like to extend a deep gratitude to Ute Smit and Christiane Dalton-Puffer. It was Christiane who sparked my interest in the topic years ago and she has provided me with insightful feedback ever since. As a PhD student, one can only wish for a supervisor like Ute. Her enthusiasm for applied linguistics research is contagious and I am deeply grateful for the way she has guided me through this project. It is thanks to her encouragement to move off the beaten track with my project and her ability to connect my ideas with her profound expertise that turned this into such a rewarding experience.

Above all, I would like to thank my best friend and favourite person in world, my fantastic boyfriend Michael. Words simply cannot express how grateful I am for his endless patience and incredible support during my PhD project, so this thesis is dedicated to him.

To Michael

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Abstract

Ongoing internationalisation processes have accelerated the implementation of English-medium programmes (EMPs) across European higher education institutions (e.g. Knight 2008). The discipline of business and management studies has been particularly affected by this trend, which is reflected in the increasing number of EMPs implemented each year in this field of study (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 45–48). Despite this growth trend, there is still a lack of awareness of what the implementation of EMPs entails at both organisational and pedagogical levels. This thesis strives to contribute to filling this research gap by capturing the multifaceted nature of EMPs in tertiary business studies. The study combines a national status quo survey on the spread of EMPs with an analysis of internationalisation policies and a case study conducted at Vienna University of Economics and Business (WU), Europe's largest business university.

The study design allows combining macro-level observations (i.e. quantitative, numerical trends at the national level) with micro-level insights (i.e. qualitative, detailed case study findings). As the point of departure for the present study, the status quo survey identifies the total number of EMPs offered in business studies at Austrian state universities in the academic year of 2012/13. It also provides detailed insights into distribution patterns and language-related entry requirements. Additionally, a policy analysis reveals internationalisation developments at national and institutional levels and illuminates the role English-medium education in internationalisation processes. Operating on the micro-level, the course description analysis explores the language learning element in EMPs by focusing on curriculum and course design. Among other aspects, prevalent teaching formats and explicit language learning aims of the programmes can be identified in this data. All these three data sets are complemented by findings derived from interviews with programme designers and instructors. In sum it can be said that the study's combination of macro and micro-level analyses offers an unusually holistic insight into EMPs in tertiary business studies.

The findings of the status quo survey highlight the trend towards EMPs in tertiary business education (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 45–48). The analysis of the language-related entry requirements reveals potentially problematic areas in assigning test scores to CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference) proficiency levels. The findings show that for the majority of EMPs at Austrian business faculties a C1 proficiency level is mandatory for admission.

The analysis of institutional policies indicates that competition among internationalised HEIs stands in direct relation with the increased use of English-medium instruction in general and the growing number of English-taught degree programmes in particular. By contrast, the main rationale underlying the Austrian government's internationalisation activities is the promotion and increase of academic mobility, while the theme of English-medium instruction plays a minor role in these policy documents.

Contrary to common assumptions about language learning aims in EMPs (e.g. Järvinen 2008: 83; Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 67–68), the results of the course description analysis show that 77% of the English-taught courses include explicitly stated language learning aims. However, the programme managers' views expressed in the interviews are clearly divergent from the trends identified in the course description analysis. They largely assume language learning to be a logical consequence of English-medium instruction and consider the development of communication skills an implicit aim of their programmes only. Moreover, they do not consider the language learning aims identified in the course descriptions to be language functions per se as, for them, language teaching equals grammar instruction. Moreover, their awareness of discipline-specific language learning in EMPs and the need for ESP and EAP (English for Specific / Academic Purposes) teaching is rather limited, which is again reflected in the scarcity of ESP / EAP courses in the analysed EMP curricula.

List of abbreviations and acronyms

CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for languages
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
ECTS	European Credit Transfer System
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELF	English as a Lingua Franca
ELFA	English as a Lingua Franca in Academic settings
EMI	English-medium instruction
EMP	English-medium programme
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
HE	Higher Education
HEI	Higher Education Institution
IAU	International Association of Universities
ICL	Integrated Content and Language
ICLHE	Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
L1	First language, mother tongue
L2	Second language
LSP	Languages for Specific Purposes
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language

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1 Introduction

Today's higher education is strongly influenced by ongoing internationalisation processes which exert considerable influence on higher education institutions (HEIs) (e.g. Knight 2008). In Europe, the Bologna Process transformed European higher education in the first decade of the new millennium and thereby paved the way for the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) for which systematic boundaries were gradually removed. Next to the opportunities for the increased mobility of staff and students and cooperation among institutions, internationalisation also added the element of competition to the higher education agenda (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 15). In this new higher education market place, HEIs compete against each other to attract specific target groups of international students and faculty. Critical observers point out that this "marketisation" (Molesworth et al. 2011) or "commercialisation" (Knight 2008: 13) of higher education has reached a point at which degree programmes have become "an internationally tradable service" (Knight 2008: 13).

Regardless of the perspective from which these changes are seen, internationalisation is a reality in today's higher education landscape and more often than not it is realised by implementing English-medium teaching (e.g. Altbach & Knight 2007: 303). Indeed, "the English language is playing a major role in the internationalisation of global HE", making EMI a "strategic response to globalisation" of HEIs (Jenkins 2014: 5). In other words, universities need to offer courses taught in English in order to stay competitive on the higher education market. The implementation of English-medium education has thus become part of university management strategy (Knight 2008: 13; Maiworm & Wächter 2003: 13–14; Wilkinson 2008a: 178).

From a more idealistic point of view, English acts as a lingua franca in academia in order to promote mobility and enable students to move across national borders and study abroad (e.g. Mauranen & Ranta Elina 2008). English can thus be seen as a shared language of instructors and students in internationalised programmes which have a culturally diverse faculty and student body (Smit 2010c: 379).

As a result, English-medium instruction is seen as becoming increasingly commonplace at internationalised European HEIs (van Leeuwen 2007: 7). However, there is the potential danger that external factors such as competition among HEIs lead to a rushed implementation of EMI (e.g. Räisänen & Fortanet-Gómez 2008b: 20). Despite the growth trend, there is still a lack of awareness of what the implementation of EMPs entails at both organisational and pedagogical levels. Therefore, many factors at various levels require careful consideration when implementing EMPs. Among other things, curriculum planners and programme designers need to make decisions regarding the required language proficiency of staff and students and the role of language teaching in the EMPs. It is therefore not surprising that research on the implications of EMI has become a very active field of applied linguistics over the past two decades. This comprises macro-level studies on the spread of EMI (e.g. Ammon & McConnell 2002; Maiworm & Wächter 2002, 2008), as well as implications for students and instructors (e.g. Airey 2004; Dafouz Milne & Núñez Perucha 2010; Hellekjaer 2007; Klaassen 2008; Vinke et al. 1998; Wilkinson 2008a).

However, there is still a lack of research evidence with regards to policy and the programme design of EMPs. This includes a better understanding of the complex and dynamic interplay of internationalisation policies and the implementation of EMPs. Moreover, more research evidence needs to be established to further the understanding of the role which discipline-specific language teaching should ideally assume in EMPs. While previous research has produced valuable insights into this issue (e.g. Airey 2009a; Jacobs 2004; Räisänen & Fortanet-Gómez 2008b; Wilkinson 2008b), there is the need to show how discipline-specific language teaching can be smoothly embedded into EMP curricula. This thesis strives to contribute to filling this research gap by focusing on such aspects in EMP programme and curriculum design.

The study presented in this thesis investigates EMPs in the context of tertiary business studies, which is particularly affected by the English-medium trend and at Austrian HEIs even claims the lion's share of English-taught degree programmes (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 45–48). In order to capture the multifaceted nature of English-medium instruction in business studies at Austrian state universities, the study explores the phenomenon at various layers. It combines a national status quo survey

on the spread of EMPs with an analysis of national and institutional internationalisation policies and a case study conducted at Vienna University of Economics and Business (WU). Given that, with nearly 24,000 students, WU is Europe's largest business university¹, the case study provides detailed insights into the programme and curriculum design of EMPs in business studies. The present study's research design thus combines macro-level observations (i.e. quantitative, numerical trends) with micro-level insights (i.e. qualitative, detailed findings). It is hoped that this combination of macro- and micro-level analyses will offer valuable insights into EMPs and thereby contribute to a better understanding of the phenomenon in terms of policy and programme design.

The first three chapters of this thesis establish the conceptual basis of the study by synthesising previous research and literature on the internationalisation of HE in general and the implications of EMI in particular. Chapter 2 discusses macro-level policies which have shaped and triggered the internationalisation of European HEIs and shows how these processes have promoted the rise of English-medium teaching. Chapter 3 follows with a presentation of relevant studies on the spread and implications of EMI and will show how previous research findings have shaped and inspired the present study. The study's research frame is then further constructed in Chapter 4, which draws on the various conceptualisations of using an L2 as the language of instruction. This includes a detailed discussion of the prevalent terminology used in this context and provides an overview of distinguishing characteristics of the various approaches. Moreover, conceptual considerations on the teaching of discipline-specific language and its relation to EMPs are made.

The construction of the frame sets the scene for the presentation of the study's research design in Chapter 5. As well as discussing the methods used in data collection and analysis, this section aims to illustrate how the four data sets are intertwined with each other. This is then followed by the study's underlying research questions and a detailed presentation of their operationalised sub-questions.

¹ WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business (2013e)

The three following chapters report the findings at the three levels investigated, i.e. the national level, the policy level and the institutional level. Starting with national-level insights, Chapter 6 presents the extensive data generated in the quantitative status quo survey. This includes figures on the spread of EMPs across the degree structure, institutions, and a discussion of how implementation years correlate with important policy events. Moreover, this chapter also presents the extensive data on language-related entry requirements and admission policies.

In Chapter 7, the focus is on the results of an in-depth analysis of national and institutional policy documents on the subject of internationalisation. On the one hand, it aims to identify ongoing internationalisation developments, and on the other, to explore the role of English-medium instruction in these policies. Chapter 8 provides extensive insights into the language learning element generated by the course description analysis. It will discuss the language learning objectives stated in the course descriptions and the discipline-specific language skills students need in EMI courses. It will also show which language skills are part of assessment criteria and identify the role of teaching discipline-specific language. The chapter ends by providing the instructors' views on issues such as the language proficiency of staff and students, as well as their account of the differences between using EMI and teaching in their mother tongue. The concluding chapter will synthesise the most important findings derived from the four data sets and outline the study's significance and limitations, before providing suggestions for future research.

PART I Research frame: Conceptualisations and empirical evidence

2 The internationalisation of higher education

When investigating English-medium education, it is essential to acknowledge interrelations with the overarching phenomenon of globalisation in general and the internationalisation of higher education in particular. The terms 'globalisation' and 'internationalisation' are so omnipresent in popular, political and academic discourses on economy and culture (Block & Cameron 2002: 1) that they are often falsely considered synonyms (Knight 2003: 3; Scott 1998: 122). However, the terms should not be used interchangeably since they refer to two different phenomena. The notion of 'globalisation' can be described as "the intensification of worldwide social relations" (Giddens 1990: 64) which increases "the flow of people, culture, ideas, values, technology, and economy across borders, resulting in a more interconnected and interdependent world" (Knight 2008: x). This exerts a powerful impact on the domain of education and thereby triggers internationalisation processes (Knight 2003: 3). In other words, even if a higher education institution (HEI) might not (yet) be internationally-oriented in terms of its programmes, faculty and students, it is still subject to globalisation (Scott 1998: 122). It is therefore not surprising that most HEIs are want to keep pace with these developments and prepare graduates for their careers in a globalised world (Bhatia 2004: 55). Indeed, it could even be argued that globalising developments are "*forcing* higher education institutions to internationalise" (Wilkinson 2004b: 9; my emphasis).

Knight (2008: 6) identified five elements of globalisation which exert an impact on higher education and have implications for the internationalisation of institutions: *The Knowledge Society, Information and Communication Technologies, Market Economy, Trade Liberalisation and Governance*. Together, they have led to the commercialisation of higher education and the need for institutions to "become more responsive to market demands" (Knight 2008: 6). These developments have brought about change at HEIs which can be observed in many aspects such as the adaption of curricula or the implementation of national and regional policies regarding quality assurance, accreditation and student mobility.

Given this interconnectedness between globalisation and education, a definition of internationalisation needs to take national as well as institutional levels into account (Knight 2003: 2). The present thesis draws on the following definition proposed by Knight, which aims to recognise the different outcomes and motives of the various stakeholders involved: “Internationalisation at the national / sector / institutional levels is the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of higher education at the institutional and national levels” (2008: 21). The three terms ‘purpose’, ‘function’ and ‘delivery’ indicate that the internationalisation of higher education can take various forms and affect all areas and levels of an institution. While the most obvious ones are certainly student and staff mobility, internationalisation activities also takes place at the curriculum and university management levels (Wächter 1999: 25–50). The latter is particularly evident in institutional policies which can be strongly affected by internationalisation developments.²

As already indicated above, the majority of internationalisation activities are strongly influenced and enforced by the increasing competition among HEIs. Institutions compete against each other to attract ‘excellent’ students and faculty (Wilkinson 2008a: 178; Brown 2011: 11–12), and to score high positions in university rankings (Egron-Polak & Hudson 2010: 65), which in turn help to attract more and better students. It could therefore be argued that competition is in fact an integral part of internationalisation. Education is consequently often seen and traded as a commodity or, in GATS (General Agreement on Trade Services) terms, as “an internationally tradable service” (Knight 2008: 13). As Wächter and Maiworm pointedly observed: “Like it or not, there is a global higher education market” (2008: 15).

This “marketisation” (Molesworth et al. 2011) or “commercialisation” (Knight 2008: 13) of higher education is most apparent in current policy and university management discourse. For instance, the students are seen as ‘consumers’, ‘customers’ or ‘clients’

² See Chapter 7 in which the present study’s findings on institutional and national internationalisation policies are discussed.

rather than learners (Maringe 2011) and universities are busy developing a brand image for themselves (Coleman 2006: 3). Some observers warn that this trend reduces universities to merely providers of degrees and the actual expertise and skills gained in a degree programme are no longer valued (Nordensvärd 2011: 159–160). Therefore, an investigation of higher education settings cannot ignore the commercial impact internationalisation has on a large scale:

There is a considerable flux introduced into this marketplace as countries seek to maximise their advantages, increase their influence, and above all earn more money from the trade in degrees. Ancillary industries have emerged around the edges of the flows of international students, seeking to serve specific market niches and to earn a profit as well: for example, [...] a huge English-language industry to provide the language skills needed for international study. (Altbach 2003: 2)

Commercialisation of higher education thus not only affects the institutions in question but can also have far-reaching consequences for the economies of the nations and regions they are located in. In particular, the “ancillary industries” mentioned above make a considerable economic impact.

The impacts of globalisation and internationalisation processes discussed in this section have led to the increased use of English as the language of international trade as well as the language of higher education (e.g. Graddol 1997). Clearly, the increased use of English as the medium of instruction at HEIs can be considered a direct consequence of the ongoing internationalisation of higher education. After all, student mobility requires a shared language for teaching and learning (e.g. Coleman 2006: 4). These interesting parallels will further be illustrated in the following sections which focus on European policies (Chapter 2.1) and how these have promoted the implementation of English-taught programmes (Chapter 2.2).

2.1 Policies promoting internationalisation of European higher education

The internationalisation of European higher education is closely associated the city of Bologna. Indeed, a discussion of the internationalisation of Europe’s higher education cannot take place without a reference to the Italian city. The reason for this is not only

because Bologna hosts the oldest university in the Western world (University of Bologna; accessed 21 June 2014) but because in 1999, 29 European educational ministers signed the Bologna Declaration there (European Ministers of Education 1999). Ever since, Bologna has become eponymous for a lengthy process which transformed European higher education in the first decade of the new millennium. Even though the declaration comprises just four pages and slightly less than a thousand words (excluding the list of signatories), it was immensely influential as it represented the signatory countries' commitment to creating the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) and removing systematic boundaries within this region.

In fact, the signing of the Bologna Declaration can be seen as the reinforcement of a process which had already been initiated in 1988 when 388 rectors met in Bologna to sign the Magna Charta Universitatum, a declaration of the fundamental principles of European higher education (Undersigned Rectors on behalf of their universities 1988). The Bologna Declaration was signed at a time where European nations "were deeply challenged by massification of higher education" (Zgaga 2009: 7, cf. also Scott 1998). Moreover, the tertiary education systems of European nations were "traditionally different" in terms of degree structures, length of study and quality assurance mechanisms (Zgaga 2009: 7). Politically, another challenge was the rapid advance of Europeanisation, fostered by policies such as the Maastricht Treaty (Members of the European Community 1992). These problematic areas were dealt with in the Lisbon Recognition Convention (The Council of Europe & UNESCO 1997) and the Sorbonne Declaration (The Council of Europe & UNESCO 1997), both of which already outlined ways to overcome systematic barriers.

The Sorbonne Declaration was of particular importance for the following Bologna Declaration as it already included the main aims of the Bologna Process, demanding the "progressive harmonisation of the overall framework of our degrees and cycles" (Education Ministers of France 1998: 3). Indeed, Wächter (2004b) points out that the Sorbonne Declaration was actually more influential than its more famous relative in setting the tone of the European education reforms and the creation of the EHEA. He argues that, in contrast to the Bologna Declaration, its predecessor "uses rather straightforward language" and thereby "expresses in much clearer terms the original

thrust and intentions of European higher education reform agenda, now referred to as the Bologna Process". During the process of issuing the Bologna Declaration, the term 'harmonisation' was "highly disputed" among the signatory countries which led to "arduous negotiations on the final wording" (Zgaga 2009: 7). In contrast to its Sorbonne predecessor, the phrasing of the Bologna Declaration is therefore "much more cautious" (Wächter 2004a: 265). Most notably, the term 'harmonisation' was replaced with the phrase "greater compatibility and comparability of the systems of higher education" (European Ministers of Education 1999: 2). As Teichler critically observes, "[w]hile the Sorbonne Declaration advocates the harmonisation of the 'architecture' of the higher education system, the Bologna Declaration favours a convergent solution; i.e. it leaves some room for variety" (2005b: 116).

The overarching aim of the joint declaration of European education ministers was to promote cooperation and thereby foster the mobility of staff and students. This should be achieved by creating "easily readable and comparable degrees", "a system based on two main cycles" and "a system of credits" (European Ministers of Education 1999: 3). As a result, the most visible change the Bologna Process brought about is certainly the implementation of the three-cycle degree structure, i.e. bachelor, master and PhD programmes. It is therefore not surprising that such a macro-level structural change is the centre of the public debate on the Bologna process, to such an extent "that many stakeholders and observers equated the European Higher Education Area with this single feature of structural change" (Wächter 2004b: 266).

For the Austrian context, the realisation and implementation of the Bologna reforms meant that Austrian institutions required two substantial structural changes. The first was of course the switch from diploma and doctoral curricula to the 3-cycle degree structure (Egron-Polak & Hudson 2010: 174). This step introduced a completely new academic degree to the Austrian system, which had not included a bachelor's degree prior to the Bologna reforms. The Austrian ministry of education decided upon a nationwide change to bachelor's and master's degrees and also declared the shortening of the average duration of study and an increase in the number of university graduates as objectives (Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung - bmwf 2007: 32). This first step towards implementing the Bologna reforms required a

change in legislation. The University Act of 2002 states that newly introduced degree programmes have to conform to the bachelor's and master's degree structure (Bundesministerium für Bildung, Wissenschaft und Kultur: 54). In addition, numerous doctoral programmes were converted into PhD programmes (Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung - bmwf 2007: 34).

The second significant development in the transformation of Austrian universities into internationalised institutions can be observed in their efforts towards increased transparency and comparability. These are closely connected to the implementation of the new degree structure and comprised the introduction of the ECTS credit system (Bundesministerium für Bildung, Wissenschaft und Kultur: 51). The credit transfer system caused a substantial structural change of existing curricula as they had to be altered into modular forms. However, while these structural reforms inevitably caused considerable upheaval, they were “designed to increase mobility and to facilitate greater international cooperation between institutions” (Egron-Polak & Hudson 2010: 174).

This emphasis on mobility cannot only be detected in Austria but concerns the whole EHEA. The mobility efforts in the Bologna Process are built on the EU's most popular achievements in tertiary education, namely its immensely successful “flagship activity”, the ERASMUS programme (van der Wende & Huisman 2004: 17). However, while ERASMUS merely focused on academic exchange, the Bologna reforms were intended to take mobility one step further by improving framework conditions for credit transfer, joint degree programmes and the European-wide recognition of degrees. It can therefore be argued that the internationalisation of European higher education has been strongly promoted and enforced by the Bologna Process. However, the use of the term ‘internationalisation’ in this context is somewhat misleading as cooperation is limited to Europe. Strictly speaking, it is even further limited to EU countries and nations participating in the Bologna process (i.e. members of the EHEA). The term ‘Europeanisation’ might therefore be a more accurate choice to describe this development, because the term ‘internationalisation’ carries the connotation that cooperation takes place on a global scale and is not restricted to a particular area. A compromise is proposed by van der Wende, who evades the debate by referring to

Europeanisation as “internationalisation on a regional scale” (2004: 10). Regardless of which label is used to describe it, the intraregional cooperation within the European context is widely regarded as a success. Indeed, Europeanisation of higher education in general and the Bologna Process in particular, has been referred to as “the most successful case of regional collaboration” and “the most striking example of major region-wide reform” (Knight 2008: 7).

After the Bologna Process was officially launched in 1999, Europeanisation was further accelerated by the policy papers that followed the renowned Bologna Declaration, i.e. the Communiqués of Prague (European Ministers of Higher Education 2001), Berlin (European Ministers of Higher Education 2003), Bergen (European Ministers of Higher Education 2005), London (European Ministers of Higher Education 2007) and Leuven (European Ministers of Higher Education 2009). Building on Bologna’s endeavour to establish a comparable degree system across European HE, the communiqués expanded existing objectives and additional ones. The most important aims stated in these policies can be summarised as follows:

- fostering staff and student mobility (London and Leuven)
- promoting cooperation between higher education institutions (Prague, Berlin and Leuven)
- promoting the EHEA’s attractiveness across Europe and beyond (Prague and London)
- introducing national qualification frameworks (Bergen)
- promoting lifelong learning in the EHEA to foster economic competitiveness (Prague)
- improving employability linked to the three-cycle degree structure (London)
- developing joint quality assurance mechanisms (Bergen)
- strengthening research and research-related activities at the doctorate and post-doctorate levels (Berlin)
- awarding and recognising joint degrees (Bergen)
- increasing the link between education, research and innovation (Leuven)

A year after the last Communiqué in Leuven, education ministers signed the Budapest-Vienna Declaration of 2010, which was celebrated as a milestone in the Bologna Process as it represented the official launch of the EHEA (European Commission 2010). Since the creation of the EHEA had been declared the key objective of the Bologna Process, it is not surprising that the official launch was accompanied by considerable self-praise. For instance, the declaration stressed that the EHEA is an "unprecedented [example] of regional [and] cross-border cooperation in higher education" (European Ministers of Higher Education 2010). The Budapest-Vienna Declaration again stressed internationalisation, and this time it was aiming beyond Europe's borders by highlighting the EU's endeavour to make "European higher education more visible on the *global* map" (European Ministers of Higher Education 2010; my emphasis). While the aim to increase EHEA's global competitiveness had already been stated as an objective in the London Communiqué of 2007, it was made even more evident in the Budapest-Vienna Declaration three years later. The EHEA wants to stand for high-quality tertiary education and attract students from around the world. This vision represents the link between Europeanisation and globalisation as European universities unite in the EHEA to compete on the global higher education market (Knight 2008: 7; van der Wende 2004: 10–11).

From a more critical perspective, it has been argued that the strong division between EHEA and the rest of the world might not be favourable for students from non-EHEA member states (Altbach & Knight 2007: 303; Teichler 2005b; Wächter 2004b: 272). Moreover, Europeanisation promotes a "gradual de-nationalisation" (van der Wende 2004: 10), which is described by euphemisms such as 'harmonisation' and 'convergence'. At the same time, this harmonisation is accompanied by increasing competition among European HEIs "to trigger an enormously increased differentiation" (Teichler 2005b: 115). In that respect, the success of the EHEA so far is a double-edged sword and there are still many fronts which require more attention (Zgaga 2009: 9). For instance, critics of the Bologna Process have voiced concerns about the convergence of Europe's higher education which is traditionally diverse in its national systems (e.g. Pellert 2005; Teichler 2003; Wächter 2004b).

One point of criticism which directly concerns this thesis is that even though the Bologna Process was meant to preserve the member states' linguistic diversity and disseminate all European languages (European Commission 2010), it often leads to an English-only policy (e.g. Räisänen & Fortanet-Gómez 2008a: 1; Ritz 2010; Ruiz-Garrido & Fortanet-Gómez 2009: 183; Scott 2005: 20). Scott (2005: 20) argues that if the EHEA aims to compete with renowned Northern American universities, it needs to acknowledge the advantage of multilingualism. Even if it is tempting for institutions to choose an English-only policy to attract international students, "a multi-lingual environment [...] represents a much richer educational environment". He further argues that "English is enriched by its juxtaposition with other languages and [...] impoverished by its isolation from them". However, some argue that the discussion has reached a point where "it seems impossible to separate the Bologna Process from internationalisation, and internationalisation from Englishisation of Higher Education" (Costa & Coleman 2013: 17). In the context of the present thesis, the issue of "Englishisation" (Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas 1999) clearly requires a deeper discussion. The next chapter will therefore explore the link between the internationalisation of higher education, the increased use of English-medium instruction (EMI) and the rising number of English-medium programmes (EMPs).

2.2 Internationalisation and English-medium teaching

The discussion in the previous section has already shown that internationalisation is a reality in today's higher education landscape and more often than not it is realised by implementing English-medium teaching (e.g. Altbach & Knight 2007: 303). There is a variety of arguments and explanations for the increasing number of English-taught courses and programmes. For instance, the spread of EMI can be seen as a result of globalisation processes at large (e.g. Coleman 2006: 1), or as an indicator for the internationalisation and marketisation of HE (e.g. Wilkinson 2008a: 178). As has already been discussed above, these two arguments are clearly linked since the marketisation of the tertiary education sector can be considered a result of globalisation in general and the internationalisation of HE in particular. In other words, "the English language is playing a major role in the internationalisation of global HE", which makes EMI a "strategic response to globalisation" of HEIs (Jenkins 2014: 5). In

other words, universities need to offer courses taught in English in order to stay competitive on the higher education market. The implementation of English-medium education has thus become part of university management strategy (Knight 2008: 13; Maiworm & Wächter 2003: 13–14; Wilkinson 2008a: 178).

This trend is further accentuated by the fact that English is also the dominant language of academic publishing (Ammon 2001a). Indeed, in many disciplines it appears to be crucial for people pursuing a career in academia to publish papers in English in international journals to ensure that research findings are read by a large audience. As Coleman puts it, “international careers depend on a demonstrated ability to teach and publish in English”. He further argues that using English to communicate research can allow scholars from less privileged countries and universities to “improve their career prospects” (2006: 5–6). Publishing in English has become a commonplace, to the extent that the vast majority of English publications are produced “by writers whose first language is not English” (Mauranen 2012: 72). As indicated by Coleman above, the same development which has been taking place for decades in the area of academic publishing can now be observed in teaching. Regardless which discipline, academics nowadays are expected to communicate their expertise in English-taught courses as well. Both developments clearly contribute to “the spread of English as the world lingua franca of science” (Ammon 2001b: x).

Next to boosting academic careers and raising universities’ profiles, another reason for the increasing number of English-taught courses and programmes can be identified. From a more idealistic point of view, there is the argument that English acts as a lingua franca in academia to promote mobility. In order to enable students from all over the world to (theoretically) study wherever they want, there is the need for a common language of teaching and learning. English can thus be seen as a shared language of instructors and students in internationalised programmes which have a culturally diverse faculty and student body (Smit 2010c: 379). Additionally, the implementation of EMI creates the option of ‘internationalisation at home’ (Knight 2008: 22–24). This allows students to be exposed to English-medium teaching and be part of culturally mixed student groups even if they do not leave their home country. Knight emphasises that the concept of internationalisation at home can take many forms. These range

from programmes covering “international themes” to the “involvement of international students”, or “virtual student mobility” in joint projects with institutions abroad (2008: 23).

Clearly, all the motives behind the implementation of EMI discussed so far are intertwined and stand in interdependence to each other. Regardless which perspective one takes, English-medium education is a reality in today’s higher education landscape (e.g. Graddol 1997: 8). Moreover, Chapter 2.1 has shown that internationalisation and thus the use of EMI are closely connected to macro-level policy decisions as well as the overall political and economic climate. Using the example of University of Maastricht, where English-medium instruction has a long history, Wilkinson identified five phases of motives behind the introduction of EMPs (2013: 8–11). As can be seen in Table 1, the reasons why institutions implement EMPs are strongly influenced by external political and economic factors, as well as by the institution’s marketing approaches.

Phases of EMI	Motives behind the implementation of EMPs
Cross-border phase 1987	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Aim to attract students from bordering countries - Multilingualism: exploit geographical advantage - New programmes, not ‘translations’ of existing ones
Europeanisation phase 1991	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Recruitment of international and exchange students - Buzzwords: 'international' and 'European' - Aim to attract students from other European countries - Growing interest in ERASMUS
Consolidation phase 1995	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Internationalisation at home - Official university profile: 'bilingual' - Existing programmes are broadened - Lack of definition of 'bilingual institution' - Bilingual programmes prove to be expensive
Globalisation phase 2002	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Recruitment of students from outside the EU - Buzzwords: 'excellence' and 'expertise' - Official university profile: 'International' - Lack of definition of 'international institution' - Post-Bologna: new degree programmes in English
Monetisation phase 2007	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Raising money through recruitment - Cuts in government funding - International rankings gain in importance - Profile strongly affected by position in rankings - Alumni involvement - Strengthening of links with industry

Table 1 Phases of EMI (adapted from Wilkinson 2013: 8–11)

The *Cross-border* phase is the first of the five periods identified by Wilkinson (2013: 8–11). While this phase marked the introduction of the first English-medium programmes in the late 1980s, the focus was still on multilingualism. This meant that programmes in English as well as other foreign languages existed alongside those taught in the national language. As the name ‘cross-border’ indicates, the aim was to attract students from neighbouring countries with programmes that were newly introduced and not mere translations of existing ones. In the early 1990s, the implementation of EMI was clearly linked to the notion of *Europeanisation*, which was promoted by policies such as the Maastricht Treaty (Members of the European Community 1992; cf. Chapter 2.1). Most notably, this phase preceded the Bologna Process and introduced the notion of Europeanisation to educational discourse. During this period, the emphasis was on the recruitment of international and exchange students. It is therefore not surprising that the number of programmes which included the buzzwords 'international' or 'European' in their titles grew considerably. In this phase, HEIs targeted students from European countries beyond those sharing their borders. Additionally, the implementation of English-taught courses and programmes during this phase was furthered by the growing interest in the ERASMUS mobility programme which was founded in 1987 (Teichler 1998: 90).

During the *Consolidation* phase which followed, the notion of 'internationalisation at home' was introduced, which meant that domestic students did not necessarily need to leave the country in order to experience EMI and be engaged in subjects of global concern. In this phase, universities placed emphasis on being bilingual, even though no definition was provided to outline what being a 'bilingual' institution actually entailed. However, bilingual programmes proved to be rather expensive, leading to institutions realising that offering programmes exclusively taught in English might actually be easier. In the following period of *Globalisation*, target groups for the programmes included students from outside the EU. Moreover, the buzzword 'excellence', which has been widely used in institutional policy statements ever since, was introduced. Along the same lines, “the idea of attracting excellent students from all over the world begins to emerge” in this period. During the globalisation phase institutions were not only concerned about increasing the share of international students, but also wanted “to recruit student expertise” (2013: 10). A shift in university profiles indicated that

institutions considered themselves as 'international' rather than 'bilingual', though again without a proper definition of the notion in institutional policies. Since the implementation of the Bologna reforms was taking place during this period, the new programmes following the Bologna degree structure were frequently introduced in English. From 2007 onwards, the use of EMI has reached the *Monetisation* phase, which is characterised by tight university budgets due to cuts in governmental funding. The aim to raise money through recruitment is accompanied by the institution's aim to boost its international profile and a growing importance of university rankings. English-medium programmes have become crucially important for an institution's inclusion in renowned higher education rankings. Therefore, alumni are increasingly involved in marketing and industry links are established and promoted.

Even though Wilkinson's five phases of EMI (2013: 8–11) describe the development at Maastricht University, it can still be assumed that the motives identified for the implementation of EMPs roughly match those of other European countries.³ The categorisation shows that the motives behind implementing English-taught programmes “are dynamic and reflect the phase during which they are set up” (2013: 10). The analysis of the institutions' reasons for using English as a medium of instruction inevitably triggers the question of “the consequences of EMI and the critical issues arising from the rapid growth of such programmes” (2013: 11). The most passionately debated critical issue in this context is definitely the potential threat to domestic languages, i.e. the concern that English-medium instruction could negatively affect the role of other languages in tertiary education. It has already been indicated in Chapter 2.1 that there are numerous critical voices expressing their concerns about the rapid spread of English as a global language of business and education. Indeed, there is a number of academic publications which all passionately express criticism or concern about the increasing “Englishisation” (Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas 1999) of various domains, despite being published in the dreaded language themselves. In

³ In addition to Wilkinson's five phases, the present study's analysis of institutional internationalisation policies identified another phase of EMI which can be observed at WU (cf. Chapter 7.2).

order to emphasise their point, some scholars have borrowed the term “killer language” from sociolinguistic descriptions of language variation and change (e.g. Trudgill 2002: 140). Moreover, when consulting these academic papers, a surprisingly vast variety of dramatic metaphors and analogies are used to describe the phenomenon. Swales, a key figure in the 1960s EAP movement, wrote a “self-reflective” paper in which he famously referred to English as the “Tyrannosaurus rex” of languages (1997). This conveys a clear image of English as a predator ruthlessly eliminating smaller languages to satisfy its desire for world domination. By using this overly dramatic but widely quoted analogy, Swales poses the question of whether English has become too successful. In a similar sweeping way, the phenomenon has been compared to a tsunami, washing away and drowning other languages like a natural catastrophe (Ritz 2010) and as “a cuckoo in the European higher education nest of languages” (Phillipson 2006).

Coleman, on the other hand, opts for a less dramatic tone when he compared the phenomenon to “the Microsoft effect”. He argues that, similar to the widespread use of the computer software, “once a medium [of instruction] obtains a dominant market share, it becomes less and less practical to opt for another medium, and the dominance is thus enhanced” (2006: 4). Regardless which image is used to illustrate their point, all these scholars seem to agree that the trend towards implementing English-taught courses and programmes may present a threat to local languages. However, “accepting ELF does not mean siding with the imperialists” (Coleman 2006: 3). Just as it is undeniable that there is an accelerating trend towards EMI in HE, it could also be argued that, as a consequence, the importance of learning additional languages has even increased. More than a decade ago, Grin predicted that the importance of language skills other than English would soon be closely linked to employability:

As competence in English spreads [...], the socio-economic relevance of English will increase, and so will the demand for English-language skills [...]. Yet as people are moved to learn it, they will increase the supply of English language skills, making them more banal, as it were. [...] In other words, the rewards for speaking English will be less and less, and other skills will be required to achieve socio-economic success. First and foremost among those skills are languages other than English. The policy implications are clear: English is worth learning,

but restricting foreign/second language acquisition to English only would be a very short-sighted policy. (2001: 75)

It could be argued that since English skills have become commonplace, they are increasingly treated as a prerequisite on the labour market. Graduates therefore have to show that they are proficient in other languages as well in order to increase their employability and stand out from the masses (Wilkinson 2013: 19). Indeed, businesses “send out unambiguous signals” to higher education institutions “to deliver graduates with a thorough command of several languages” (Buysse et al. 2011: 6). Or, as Shohamy puts it, “[i]t is becoming clear that more languages are needed for functioning in global societies” (2013: 209). These observations seem to be particularly true for the context of the present study, i.e. business studies in higher education. Wilkinson (2011: 113–114) observes that especially in tertiary business studies “English has in fact ceased to be a foreign or second language” and has turned into an “international competence” instead. He further argues that this makes English proficiency one of the skills European citizens are required to have, alongside literacy, numeracy and social competencies.

In that respect, rather than trying to fruitlessly block the inevitable, the debate on the increase in EMI should evolve around quality assurance issues such as the pedagogical implications, requirements for lecturers and discipline-specific language teaching in English-taught programmes. In the past two decades, these and related issues were the subject of numerous research studies which investigated EMI from the perspectives of institutions, instructors and students. Before presenting this study’s contribution to this field, Chapter 3 thus provides an overview of selected empirical studies and illustrates how previous research has informed the present study.

3 Empirical perspectives on English-medium instruction in higher education

The discussion of the internationalisation of higher education in the previous sections has shown that English-medium instruction is becoming increasingly commonplace at European HEIs. As van Leeuwen puts it, English-medium education is “more than just a fashion; it is a new reality in hundreds of higher education institutions, which changes the life of thousands of staff and the new generations of students” (2007: 7). However, there is the potential danger that external factors such as university rankings or the aim to recruit large numbers of international students will lead to a rather rushed implementation of EMI (e.g. Räisänen & Fortanet-Gómez 2008b: 20). In such cases, “organisational and pedagogical implications tend to be overlooked” (Unterberger & Wilhelmer 2011: 94). Indeed, the university management’s aim to internationalise an institution fast by using EMI could negatively affect the programme’s quality in many respects. For instance, the teaching staff might require preparation to use English as the language of instruction and the university management needs to decide on the required language proficiency of students. Moreover, curriculum planners and programme designers need to make decisions regarding the role of language teaching in the EMPs.

Clearly, there are many factors at various levels which require careful consideration when implementing EMI. However, some researchers detect a “general lack of awareness about the pitfalls and possibilities of EMI” (Hellekjaer 2007: 68). As a result, research on the implications of English-medium instruction has become a very active field of applied linguistics research over the past two decades. Ideally, these research findings should be considered by institutions implementing EMPs. As Airey and Lindner pointedly note, “we need to base our pedagogical decisions on empirical work rather than gut feeling” (2006: 558). The following sections will therefore set the scene for the present study by providing an overview of the most important empirical studies which have been conducted in this field. They will additionally illustrate how previous research has informed the present study. Chapter 3.1 presents an overview of large-scale studies on the spread of English-medium education and the progress of internationalisation. Chapter 3.2 will then discuss research findings on the implications

of EMI for students and instructors, before Chapter 3.3 presents empirical research concerning discipline-specific teaching language teaching in EMPs.

3.1 Macro-level studies on the spread of EMPs and internationalisation

Given that English-medium instruction today is seen as “a regular feature of European higher education” and experts expect it to increase further (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 91), tracking the spread of EMPs across European HEIs is necessary to fully understand the phenomenon. In this context, the outstanding work of Maiworm and Wächter is of special importance for any research focusing on the organisational or managerial aspects of EMPs. On behalf of the Academic Cooperation Association (ACA), they conducted two large-scale studies on the spread of English-taught degree programmes across all disciplines at European higher education institutions (2002; 2008). Their first extensive data collection in the year 2002 was followed by an even larger one in 2007, which allowed a direct comparison of the figures and a systematic assessment of the development of EMPs across 27 European countries. Their surveys comprise numerous findings which are of direct relevance for the present study, especially those that concern business studies in general and Austrian HE in particular. For instance, they found that at Austrian HEIs, the field of business studies is the discipline in which most English-medium programmes can be found (2008: 45–48). Moreover, their analyses of implementation years and distribution patterns show that English-medium teaching is still a rather new phenomenon and mostly concerns the master’s level of the degree structure (2002: 57; 2008: 48; 51-52).

Since one of the aims of the present study was to determine the spread of EMPs across Austrian business faculties (cf. Chapter 5.2), it can be considered a follow-up of the ACA surveys with a special focus on tertiary business studies in Austria. In particular, Maiworm and Wächter’s work largely informed the present study’s exploration of and the research questions (cf. Chapter 5.3) concerning the institutions’ motives for the introduction of EMPs; language-related entry requirements for students; implementation years and distribution patterns of EMPs; student target groups and quality assurance issues. The discussion of these issues will therefore comprise

detailed comparisons between the ACA surveys and the present study's findings on the status quo of business studies at Austrian universities (cf. Chapter 6).

Another pan-European survey with similar aims to the ACA studies was conducted by Ammon and McConnell in 1999 / 2000 (2002). Like Wächter and Maiworm, Ammon and McConnell also wanted to “provide an overview of the situation” as well as “a current snapshot” of the use of EMI (2002: 6 & 30). However, due to a limited research budget and time constraints, their data on the spread of EMI across 22 European countries is not nearly as comprehensive and extensive than that generated by the ACA surveys (2002: 171). Moreover, the results for Austria are quite fragmentary and could thus not serve as a basis for comparison for the present study (2002: 33–35). Nevertheless, their in-depth study of EMI in Germany and the fragmented overview across European HEIs provided interesting insights into EMI practices. For instance, they found that the main motives behind using EMI is mainly to attract “more foreign students and staff and to equip [domestic] students with language necessary for active participation in globalisation” (2002: 171).

Inspired by the three large-scale studies described above, Costa conducted a “state-of-the-art” survey of EMI in the Italian context (Costa & Coleman 2013: 8). She used an institutional questionnaire to determine the spread of EMI across Italian public and private universities and to identify organisational aspects of EMPs. Some of her most striking findings are that private universities implement EMI more frequently than public institutions as they have more financial resources and are thus “more likely to have international links” (2013: 8). Moreover, the participating institutions pointed out that their main motives for the introduction of EMPs were to improve the international profile of the institution, to attract foreign students and to prepare Italian students for the global labour market (2013: 9–10).

With the increasing use of EMI in higher education, Räisänen and Fortanet-Gómez conducted a study which aimed to capture the spread of ESP teaching across European HEIs (2008b). Even though the survey suffered from a relatively low response rate (2008b: 24), their findings still created an interesting snapshot of the state of ESP in

eight Western European countries. Räisänen's and Fortanet-Gómez' survey is in fact one of the main inspirations for the present study's curricula analysis, which aims to investigate the role of ESP/EAP teaching in EMPs (cf. Chapter 5.2). They found that ESP classes remain exceedingly rare and discipline-specific language skills "are often considered additional and secondary to the main curriculum", generally being "thought of as generic skills" (2008a: 2). These issues also informed several interview questions which aimed to ascertain the programme managers' views on the role of discipline-specific language learning and teaching in EMPs.

So far this chapter has provided an overview of empirical studies concerned with the spread of English-medium instruction in general and that of ESP teaching in particular. In addition, another type of macro-level investigation is of great importance for this thesis, namely that of national and institutional policies connected to EMI. In this context, the surveys conducted by the IAU (International Association of Universities) provide a vast amount of data and information on the internationalisation of higher education across the globe (e.g. Egron-Polak & Hudson 2010; Knight 2008: 187–228). The surveys provide in-depth insights into numerous aspects at the national and institutional levels such as the motives for internationalisation and the strategies employed, as well as the benefits, risks and obstacles involved. Thus far, four global IAU surveys have been conducted.⁴ While the latest global IAU survey of 2014 on the internationalisation of HE was only published shortly before finishing this thesis and thus did not directly inform the present study, its two predecessors of 2005 and 2010 were considerably influential on the policy analysis presented in Chapter 7. For instance, based on the IAU surveys' insights into the rationales underlying current internationalisation developments, the present study also aimed to identify these in national and institutional policy documents. It was therefore possible to illuminate the motives behind internationalisation efforts as well as the anticipated outcomes at both national and institutional levels. In this context, one of the most interesting findings of

⁴ Executive summaries of all IAU surveys are available online (cf. International Association of Universities - IAU 2014). Moreover, Knight, who authored the second IAU global survey, provides a comprehensive summary of the 2005 findings in her book on internationalisation (2008: 187–228).

the IAU surveys is definitely that the motive to increase competitiveness through internationalisation is much more important for the institutions than that of fostering international cooperation (Egron-Polak & Hudson 2010: 64–65; Knight 2008: 195).

Since the present study's research design combines both a macro- and a micro-level analysis of English-medium programmes (cf. Chapter 5), the next chapter moves on to the micro-level. By discussing relevant empirical studies which focus on the stakeholder perspectives, it offers an overview of empirically recorded implications of EMI for students as well as instructors.

3.2 Implications of EMI for the students and instructors

Since English is a first language for the majority of teachers and students in EMPs, it is not surprising that numerous empirical studies have investigated the implications of EMI for these stakeholders. This research area explores a variety of themes. For instance, it investigates the question of whether English-medium teaching creates additional workload, whether it causes language-related problems of some sort, whether there is the need for language support for teachers and/or students. In the following the most important research dealing with such issues will be outlined. As this field is so broad, the discussion here is by no means exhaustive and had to be selective by choosing empirical studies either of immediate relevance to the present study or of particular importance for the field in general.

Starting with workload, Hellekjaer and Wilkinson (2003: 88) found that the time invested by students in self-study is indeed around 10-25% greater in English-medium programmes than in courses taught in their mother tongue. Similar findings were made at an Austrian HEI by Tatzl, who also found that the students' workload increased through EMI (2011: 262). This increased workload is primarily connected to the fact that students are required to do preparatory as well as follow-up work which involves looking up technical terms and filling gaps in their lecture notes. This raises the issue of whether they have problems following the lectures and whether the language of instruction interferes or affects content learning – a critical issue which has been examined in several empirical studies. For instance, Airey found that there is

reduced interaction in English-taught courses as students are less willing to answer questions. Moreover, students pay too much attention to note-taking, which can then lead to reduced content understanding (2011c: 9–11). Similar findings were made by Vinke at Delft University of Technology (1995). She compared student performances in Dutch courses and with those in English ones and discovered that there is “a moderate decrease in student learning” (1995: 150). Regarding the students’ workload, she also concludes that students in English-taught classes have to spend more time studying independently to perform as well as their peers in the courses taught in the domestic language.

In Norway, Hellekjaer compared the lecture comprehension of domestic and international students in courses taught in English and Norwegian (2010). While both groups experienced difficulties, he found that domestic students also have comprehension difficulties during lectures held in their mother tongue and that these issues are then even more problematic in lectures held in English (2010: 240). In a self-assessment questionnaire the students’ replies showed that “unfamiliarity with subject specific terminology and concepts can be problematic irrespective of language” (2010: 241). In the English-taught courses, the students additionally were confronted with unclear pronunciation and words and expressions they could not understand. As in the studies discussed above, the majority of Hellekjaer’s survey participants indicated that English-medium courses involve a greater workload than those in their L1. He concludes that students need visual aids to support lecture comprehension and that the better the students’ English proficiency, the easier they will find it to follow English-taught lectures (2010: 241–243).

In addition to investigating the effects of EMI on the students, several researchers raised the issue of how using English as the medium of instruction affects the teachers. Generally, there tends to be a lack of awareness among instructors about the pedagogical implications of EMI and how it affects their students (e.g. Airey 2004; Räsänen & Klaassen 2006: 269; Unterberger 2012). However, research findings show that using EMI tends to affect the instructors in many ways. The results of several case studies suggest that English-medium teaching increases the instructors’ workload. The majority of the lecturers in a questionnaire study conducted by Vinke et al. report that,

if they teach an EMI course for the first time, it requires “(much) more preparation time” than a new course held in their mother tongue. As well as having to create new teaching materials in English, lecturers have also indicated that they often need to look up the “vocabulary of teaching” (1998: 387). Similarly, Hellekjaer found that lecturers who had not spent a considerable period abroad considered teaching in English “more burdensome and time-consuming” than teaching in their mother tongue and felt that they needed to be well prepared as improvising often left them struggling for words (2007: 72). The teachers reported that this “lack of linguistic flexibility” particularly concerns teaching situations other than lecturing, for instance during group discussions and in classroom management (Hellekjaer 2007: 79).

Certain findings also suggest that these teachers’ constraints in EMI settings can affect the students’ learning. For instance, EMI reduces the speech rate of lecturers, which can, in turn, reduce the amount of content covered in a lecture (Vinke et al. 1998: 390). This observation is confirmed by Tatzl who found that, “[a]s a consequence of extended clarifications during courses [...], English-medium lectures tend to accommodate less content than native-language lectures” (2011: 259). He estimated that the content covered in EMI courses is 20–40% less than in courses held in German. In addition to a reduction in content, it has also been observed that English-medium teaching can lead to fewer summaries and repetition of content, less body language and variation in pace and a greater use of vague expressions (Vinke 1995: 105–112). Moreover, Dafouz Milne and Núñez Perucha (2010: 221–229) found that lecturers in Spain used fewer metadiscursive devices, interaction devices and conclusion markers when teaching in English. This means that in EMI, lecturers tend to be less clear about signalling when they move from one idea to another and less explicit when it comes to summarising the main message of a lesson. The studies of Wilkinson (2010b) as well as Dafouz and Núñez (2009: 104) additionally point towards a lack of nuance and a reduction of idiomatic expressions in the teaching of non-native speakers in English-medium lectures.

When it comes to teaching styles, findings which emerged from an in-depth case study on the teaching performance of a content lecturer at University of Copenhagen

suggest that even for a lecturer with very good English proficiency, teaching in English can be strenuous (Westbrook & Henriksen 2011: 200–202). As part of the training and quality assurance scheme at University of Copenhagen, the lecturer's English proficiency was tested and found to be at a C1 level. Still, she emphasised that her workload increases as she requires more preparation for her classes. Moreover, she noted that her teaching style changes and is "more dominating and authoritarian" in EMI as she wants to avoid deviating from the script (2011: 200). She also feared that her classes might be boring because her lecturing is less spontaneous in English than it is in Danish. While an objective comparison of her lecturing in English and Danish showed no substantial differences, the lecturer's critical self-evaluation and her fears that her English might not be good enough shows that EMI puts pressure on teachers, not only with regards to language but also pedagogically. This is confirmed by the lecturers in the study of Vinke et al. who pointed out that pedagogical and didactic skills are more important in EMI settings than in L1 classes (1998: 387).

Indeed, several case studies investigating lecturer performance in EMI highlight the importance of didactics. Airey indicates that didactical problems observed in English-medium teaching are very likely to exist in the teacher's first language as well. He argues that "changing the lecturing language merely accentuates communication problems that are already present in first-language lectures" (2009b: 84). Airey concludes that in order to avoid students' comprehension problems, English-medium teaching should be very interactive to allow for an explicit discussion of language issues between teachers and students (2011c: 12). Moreover, he suggests that lecturers should ideally use a course book as this makes it easier for students to follow the classes and also prevents students becoming too focused on note-taking.

The discussion in this chapter so far has shown that there are numerous potentially problematic aspects of English-medium teaching, which can concern both the language and didactic skills of an instructor. In an attempt to describe the characteristics teachers need to have in order to successfully operate in English-medium settings Räsänen and Klaassen created a list of required abilities (2006: 274). They believe that teachers in EMI settings need to have the following skills:

- ability to assess the language requirements of one's own domain and discipline [...] and to assess one's own and the students' skills relating to those requirements
- ability to analyse and evaluate the cognitive and background knowledge requirements of one's own domain and to survey related student needs
- ability to assess one's own teaching styles and the language proficiency they presuppose
- ability to teach and structure content and guide student activities in such a way that comprehension and processing are possible at different levels of language proficiency
- ability to assess and monitor learning and to distinguish between a poor mastery of content even though the student's language is fluent and a good mastery of content even though the student's expression is lacking
- ability to facilitate both content and language development through appropriate instructional designs, materials, approaches [...]

Given this complex skills set, it is not surprising that the majority of the research studies presented in this chapter concluded by suggesting specialised training and language support for teachers involved in EMI (e.g. Airey 2004; Hellekjaer 2007; Klaassen 2008; Kling & Hjulmand 2008; Vinke et al. 1998; Wilkinson 2005). For example, Klaassen, in her study of effective lecturing in EMI, claims that advanced didactic skills can compensate for weaker English proficiency. She therefore suggests didactic and language training to improve the lecturers' pronunciation, clarity, fluency and didactic skills (2001: 177–178). Since interactive classes are considered to be the ideal format for EMI settings (e.g. Airey 2011c: 12), Dafouz et al emphasise that interactive teaching requires specialised training of the instructors' productive skills. They argue that instructors need training "in the areas of classroom instructional language [such as] topic introducers, sequencers, exemplifiers [and] recapitulating markers". In addition, EMI also requires teachers to have advanced "interpersonal metadiscourse" skills such as "different strategies to formulate questions, inclusive expressions [and] attitudinal markers" (2007: 99).

In addition to training for EMI, some researchers even came to the conclusion that it might be necessary to actually test the English proficiency of those teaching in English-taught degree programmes. Indeed, some European universities have already implemented mandatory language tests for instructors in English-medium programmes. For instance, when students voiced complaints about the quality of

English-medium instruction, Delft University of Technology decided to test the language proficiency of all lecturers teaching in EMPs (Klaassen & Bos 2010: 61), the result being that now all instructors are required to reach a native-speaker-like C2 level of English proficiency in the IELTS test. In a similar quest for quality assurance, the University of Copenhagen developed the custom-made Test of Oral English Proficiency for Academic Staff (TOEPAS). This test is intended to assess “whether university lecturers have sufficient oral proficiency for coping with the communicative demands of English-medium instruction” (Kling & Staehr 2011: 213). In fact, only instructors who hold the TOEPAS are permitted to teach in the university’s elite COME (Copenhagen Masters of Excellence) programmes, which are all English-taught.

Even though the findings presented in this chapter often derive from small-scale case studies, they still show that the use of EMI impacts students as well as teachers. Most importantly, they show that EMI has pedagogical implications which should not be ignored. While the present study does not examine classroom practices and the students’ and instructors’ English proficiency directly, the issues raised in this chapter still influenced the underlying research questions (cf. Chapter 5.3). For instance, the status quo survey examined national trends in terms of the required English proficiency for EMPs (cf. Chapter 6.3) and interviews with instructors included questions on the students’ English proficiency, the workload involved in EMI and the interactivity of classes (cf. Chapter 8). For the context of the present study, research conducted on the teaching of discipline-specific language skills in English-medium programmes is of particular importance. The following section presents an overview of studies which focus on this issue.

3.3 Implications of EMI for the teaching of discipline-specific language

The research available on the issue of discipline-specific and academic language teaching in English-medium programmes tends to arrive at the shared conclusion that ESP / EAP teaching should ideally be embedded in the programmes and that it should be based on a collaboration between discipline experts and language teachers. Jacobs, for example, explored the implications for academic literacy teaching in HE by

investigating institutional practices at Cape Peninsula University of Technology in South Africa (2004; 2007). She found that content lecturers are not conscious of being part of a certain discourse community even though they know the conventions of their disciplines very well. The discipline experts therefore only have a tacit knowledge of the discipline-specific language of their fields which needs to be brought “into the realm of overt and explicit teaching” when collaborating with a language teacher (2007: 42). As one of the discipline experts in Jacobs’ study pointed out, collaborating with a language specialist made him realise that he was “talking out from the discipline rather than bringing people in” (2007: 43). In other words, the language teachers, as discipline outsiders, can help the content lecturers to assume the students’ perspective and realise which aspects of their discipline require further elaboration. Jacobs concluded that the ideal setting for teaching academic literacy in higher education requires “a collaborative effort between language and content lecturers” (2007: 44). Moreover, she highlighted the fact that this calls for “*sustained* collaboration” and not just “ad hoc collaborative efforts at integration” (2007: 44; original emphasis). This, in turn, requires a new positioning of language teachers in discipline departments as, more often than not, academic literacy teaching tends to be seen “as a service subject/course existing only at the entry level of the curriculum” (2007: 37).⁵

Similar findings emerged from Airey’s case studies on physics lectures which were partly taught in English and Swedish. Airey explored how a dual-language approach affects students’ learning, in particular their acquisition of “bilingual scientific literacy” (2009b: 1). He argues that “the knowledge of the lecturer as a fluent user of disciplinary discourse is often under-exploited in university science” and that content lecturers “at best reconstitute the representations, tools and activities of science in language terms, or at worst even take them for granted” (2009b: 103). Airey thus concludes that content teachers need to be aware of their roles as disciplinary guides

⁵ See Chapter 8.2 for findings of the present study’s curricula analysis which confirm Jacobs’ observation that discipline-specific language teaching tends to have a service function at the entry level of a curriculum.

who should not only model the disciplinary discourse for their students but actively engage them in discussions about it. In the lecturers investigated, he observed that this role was predominantly taken up by fellow students who were “themselves struggling to learn the discourse of the discipline” (2009b: 103). Like Jacobs, Airey argues that content lecturers, as “disciplinary insiders”, are responsible for aiding students’ acquisition of “disciplinary literacy” by disambiguating “disciplinary communicative practices for their students” (2011b). He further argues that successful collaboration with language teachers requires the content teachers to set disciplinary goals which should provide the basis for the language teachers’ course design. In other words, “it is the content lecturers [...] who must make the final decisions about the particular mix of communicative practices that is needed to achieve disciplinary literacy” (2011b).

While other researchers agree with the conclusions drawn by Jacobs and Airey regarding the necessary collaboration of content and language teachers (Räsänen & Fortanet-Gómez 2008b; Wilkinson 2008b), the question still remains as to how such discipline-specific language teaching should be integrated in the curricula of EMPs. In other words, once the decision has been made to include ESP/EAP teaching in a programme, it is necessary to decide whether it should take place in the form of pre-sessional courses, embedded courses, or integrated courses.⁶

In terms of programme design, the latter variety of integrating content and learning teaching can be considered the most challenging option as this would require intensive collaboration between content and language experts. Amongst other things, ICL comprises joint curriculum and lesson planning and team teaching as well as collaborative assessment.⁷ Nevertheless, as already indicated above, Jacobs argues that embedded language courses are greatly preferable to pre-sessional ones. Wilkinson, too, suggests that pre-sessional courses might convey the message that

⁶ See Chapter 4.3 for a categorisation of the different forms of English-medium teaching in higher education and for ‘The English-medium teaching paradigm’ as proposed by this thesis.

⁷ For a detailed discussion of what the integration of content and language actually entails, see Chapters 4.1 and 4.3.

“the language itself is purely instrumental, and that once the minimum level required has been obtained, there is little incentive to enhance language skills further” (2004a: 453). In his study, Wilkinson compared student evaluations of two academic writing courses; one integrated into a content course, the other a two-week intensive skills course. He found that students actually prefer language training which has been integrated into the content courses. It could thus be argued that students are more motivated to work on their discipline-specific language skills if they see the direct relevance for their studies at large. Wilkinson concludes that language teaching in EMPs should be closely integrated with the discipline and should also address the same objectives as the students’ degree programme (2004a: 464). In a recent publication on institutional language policies, he argues that, in order to meet the exit competences expected from graduates of internationalised programmes, there needs to be “explicit LSP teaching and support, embedded with the relevant disciplines” (2014: 26).

The insights gained from previous studies discussed in this section have critically influenced the present study’s research design and research questions (cf. Chapter 5). However, despite these interesting findings generated by previous empirical studies, there is still a notable lack of research on EAP and ESP instruction in English-medium programmes. This concerns issues such as the necessary amount of EAP/ESP teaching, its integration into the curricula of EMPs and the development of discipline-specific course syllabi. Moreover, there is hardly any data investigating how ESP/EAP teaching is actually embedded in EMPs across Europe, and to what extent. This thesis aims to address this lack by providing an analysis of the discipline-specific and academic language skills needed in EMPs, as well as an investigation of the role of ESP and EAP teaching in the programme design of EMPs (cf. Chapter 8.2).

However, before the present study’s contribution can be presented, the terminology and concepts used in the discussion of English-medium teaching require more detailed description. The following chapter will thus present conceptual and terminological considerations of the various forms of English-medium teaching in higher education (Chapter 4.1), including the teaching of discipline-specific language (Chapter 4.2). Moreover, it will also propose a categorisation of these varieties in the form of ‘The

English-medium teaching paradigm' which also features examples of how the categories can be translated into the actual curricula of English-taught programmes (Chapter 4.3).

4 Conceptual and terminological considerations

The discourse on English-medium teaching in higher education uses several terms and concepts to describe practices and approaches, very often synonymously. This chapter aims to identify and discuss relevant approaches and their corresponding terminology, as well as clarify which concepts and labels are most suitable for the context of the present study, i.e. tertiary business education. Since the past decades have seen a substantial rise in the use of English as a teaching language in European compulsory schooling (Dalton-Puffer 2011: 182–183), the discussion in subsequent sections will also draw parallels between the secondary and the tertiary levels of education. The fact that teaching in English has become increasingly popular in secondary education has sparked “global interest” in instructional approaches like CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) which, in turn, are building up momentum as a field of applied linguistics research (Dalton-Puffer 2011: 182). However, Chapter 4.1 will show why insights drawn from research conducted in secondary education cannot simply be transferred to the tertiary level of education. It will furthermore discuss differences in terminology and suggest why certain labels are more suitable than others. As the discussion of educational policies in previous chapters has already shown, ongoing developments in internationalisation cannot be ignored when investigating English-taught degree programmes at university level. These processes have promoted very heterogeneous student groups in terms of the participants’ language backgrounds and thus EMPs can also be seen as educational environments in which English is frequently the “only shared means of communication”, i.e. a lingua franca (Smit 2010b: 60). Therefore, the concepts of ELF and ELFA (English as a Lingua Franca / in Academic settings) will also be taken into account.

In addition to these terminological and conceptual considerations on English-medium education in general, the particular business school context of the present study makes it absolutely necessary to consider the teaching of discipline-specific language. Chapter 4.2 will therefore focus on ESP and EAP (English for Specific / Academic Purposes) teaching approaches. The insights gained from the discussion of the various terms and approaches in Chapters 4.1 and 4.2 will then be synthesised in Chapter 4.3

which provides a description of the various instructional forms in English-medium higher education.

4.1 Teaching in English at the tertiary level: CLIL, ICLHE, EMI, or something in between?

It has already been indicated above that the teaching of curricular subjects such as biology or history through English is enjoying widespread popularity at European schools, to such an extent that the phenomenon has been referred to as an “exponentially exploding teaching approach” (Smit 2003: 3). Indeed, the integration of content and language learning has spread across Europe’s primary and secondary education at a pace which “has surprised even the most ardent advocates” (Maljers et al. 2007: 7). The umbrella term ‘**CLIL**’, which aims to synthesise related approaches⁸ (e.g. Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2007: 7–8; Coyle 2007: 545), has become increasingly popular and the label is readily applied to school programmes across Europe. This popularity is largely rooted in the assumption that CLIL programmes are “environments which provide opportunity for learning through acquisition rather than through explicit teaching” (Dalton-Puffer 2007: 3). Indeed, it is this focus on meaning rather than form which CLIL teachers and researchers believe to be beneficial to learning (Mehisto et al. 2008: 30). The integration of content and language teaching is often seen as a “way to transcend the perceived weaknesses of traditional foreign language teaching” (Dalton-Puffer 2011: 185).

CLIL programmes are thus considered to be “a foreign language enrichment measure packaged into content teaching” (Dalton-Puffer 2011: 184) which is believed to offer several benefits for learners. Amongst these purported benefits are the reduction of

⁸ Note that the label ‘CLIL’ is widely accepted as the umbrella term for educational setting in which a foreign language, most of the time English, is used to teach curricular subjects. It has been argued that the term ‘CLIL’ synthesises other related instructional approaches such as Language Across the Curriculum (LAC), bilingual teaching and immersion education, to name but a few (cf. Coyle (2007: 545); Dalton-Puffer & Smit (2007: 7–8); Lasagabaster (2008: 32); Mehisto et al. (2008: 10–13)). Although it is advantageous for stakeholders and researchers alike to use an umbrella term describing the setting they are operating in, criticism has been voiced that “the term CLIL has been over-generalised in popular use to cover any instruction given in a non-native language” (Saarikoski & Rauto 2008: 15).

students' anxiety and their increased motivation to communicate in the target language (Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2007: 9). CLIL programmes can also be viewed "as the implementation of the principles of the communicative [language teaching] approach on a grand scale" (Dalton-Puffer & Smit 2007: 8–9) as students are exposed to naturalistic learning conditions. This setting allows them to engage in meaningful communication about the subject matter rather than being exclusively exposed to formal L2 instruction in their standard EFL classes (Brinton et al. 2003: 4).

These positive effects of CLIL teaching have been documented by a steadily growing body of empirical research⁹. For instance, studies concur that the lexicon of CLIL students is larger than that of their peers in non-CLIL programmes (e.g. Jexenflicker & Dalton-Puffer 2010), their motivation for language learning is increased (e.g. Unterberger 2008), and they tend to be more spontaneous in their oral contributions (e.g. Lasagabaster 2008). However, together with Wilhelmer, I have already argued in an earlier publication that the findings which emerged from CLIL school programmes cannot be directly applied to the university context:

Although the insights that have been gained are extremely valuable for CLIL practices at the primary and secondary levels of education, these findings cannot and should not simply be transferred to the tertiary level. Higher education is a completely different setting, especially regarding the role that the language of instruction occupies and the way language learning objectives are set. (Unterberger & Wilhelmer 2011: 94–95)

This difference between secondary and tertiary educational settings mainly lies in the fact that English at university principally has a vehicular function (Järvinen 2008: 78), i.e. it is seen as the language of instruction and as a tool to communicate subject matter, rather than as a subject itself.¹⁰ Therefore, while one of the most outstanding characteristics of the CLIL approach is its "[w]idely advertised" dual focus (Dalton-Puffer 2011: 183), this can rarely be identified in tertiary education. In other words, CLIL programmes in secondary education usually claim to pursue both content and

⁹ For an in-depth overview of empirical research on learning outcomes in CLIL programmes in pre-university education, cf. Dalton-Puffer (2011).

¹⁰ The obvious exception to this observation is, of course, degree programmes in English studies in which both the language of instruction and the field of study is the English language.

language learning aims (e.g. Marsh 2009: vii; Mehisto et al. 2008: 9). By contrast, English-taught degree programmes at the tertiary level predominantly aim at the acquisition of subject knowledge. This is also evident in the motives behind the implementation of English-medium programmes as, most of the time, “foreign language learning in itself is NOT the reason why institutions adopt English-medium teaching” (Coleman 2006: 4; original emphasis). Saarikoski and Rauto also identified this as the substantial difference between secondary and tertiary educational settings because the former “always includes a language learning target” while the latter generally does not (2008: 15). By the same token, Unterberger and Wilhelmer (2011: 95) have argued that CLIL in secondary education has *explicit* language *and* content learning aims, whereas in English-medium instruction at the tertiary level, language learning is usually an *implicit* aim next to the superior and explicitly formulated content learning aims. However, it should also be noted that, even at secondary level, the situation is not as clear-cut as this might suggest. As is the case with most labels for educational approaches, the concept of CLIL covers a range of varying approaches and there may indeed be some contexts under the CLIL umbrella where language learning aims are not necessarily pursued. Nevertheless, the ‘CLIL’ label itself stresses the dual focus on both content *and* language learning. Consequently, it does seem necessary to use different labels to describe educational contexts which are distinctly different from each other.

[The lack of explicitly formulated language learning aims] does not necessarily mean that universities do not strive to improve their students’ English, but that they simply perceive it as an implicit aim because it is assumed that English skills will be honed incidentally and, at this educational stage, are often considered to be sufficient. Based on these considerations, it can be argued that the label CLIL is not appropriate for most forms of English-medium education at university level, because the fundamental principle underlying the approach is not realised, namely that content and language learning are of equal importance. (Unterberger & Wilhelmer 2011: 95)

Consequently, the term ‘CLIL’ and its direct counterpart for tertiary education ‘**ICLHE**’ (Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education) are very rarely applicable and the label ‘**EMI**’ (English-medium instruction) is the more appropriate choice for most university settings. Still, as Smit and Dafouz point out (2012: 4), “the defining criteria for EMI and ICL depend strongly on the general research focus adopted”. Indeed, it

depends on the “specific conceptual take” (2012: 4) of the individual researcher whether the phenomenon of English-medium education is investigated through an ICL or EMI lens. In the discussion of the present study’s findings the terms ‘EMI’ and ‘EMP’ (English-medium programme) will thus be used.

Next to the terminological choice, other parameters need to be established when discussing English-medium teaching at the university level. Clearly, “the **ELF** paradigm” (Smit 2010b: 61) also needs to be taken into account, since the motive behind the introduction of English-taught degree programmes is often to attract a high proportion of students from abroad and thereby ‘internationalise’ programmes (e.g. Egron-Polak & Hudson 2010: 175; Knight 2008: 28; Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 67). This “wave of internationalisation” has fostered the implementation of English-taught programmes (Mauranen 2012: 66) in which English functions as a lingua franca as it is frequently the only language instructors and students have in common (Smit 2010c: 379). It can therefore be argued that tertiary education is “one of the major domains in today’s world that has adopted English as their lingua franca on a large scale” (Mauranen 2012: 66). Next to academia, the business domain also has a long history of “extensive ELF use” and research into ELF in the business context has been gaining momentum during the past decades (Jenkins 2014: 29–30). Clearly, tertiary business education is therefore a field in which the ELF parameter cannot be ignored.

Consequently, it is inevitable for any conceptualisation of EMI to consider the concepts of ELF (English as a Lingua Franca) and, particularly, **ELFA** (English as a Lingua Franca in Academic settings). Drawing on Seidlhofer’s pioneering work on ELF (2001), applied linguists have only recently started to investigate the use of English as lingua franca in academic settings (e.g. Björkman 2011; Jenkins 2014; Hynninen 2012; Mauranen 2012; Smit 2010c). Based on the findings derived from her ELFA corpus of spoken discourse in university settings Mauranen (2012: 73–80) argues that language use in tertiary education is in fact very similar to that in business contexts: “Academia and business are high-stakes environments where language is deeply involved in all their principal activities” (2012: 66). Since the two domains overlap in terms of language use, approaching EMI from an ELF perspective can be considered an appropriate way to explore the interface between them. While most of these studies have found that “the

educational setting does not preclude typical ELF characteristics” (Smit 2013: 17), the ELF perspective offers interesting insights into internationalisation in general and English-medium education in particular. For instance, Smit provides a conceptual frame of ELF in tertiary education (2010b) and Jenkins analyses ELF-related policies at international universities (2014).

In addition to ignoring the ELF parameter, investigations of English-medium instruction in higher education also often take a purely descriptive approach and “display a lack of consensus in their theoretical orientations” (Dafouz & Smit 2014; cf. also Järvinen 2008: 80). In order to eliminate these shortcomings, Dafouz and Smit (2014) have recently proposed a conceptual framework which combines several different perspectives and approaches. ROAD-MAPPING¹¹ is a “theoretically grounded framework” which proposes the use of an alternative term to describe higher education contexts in which the language of instruction is English, i.e. **EMEMUS** (English-Medium Education in Multilingual University Settings). The notion of EMEMUS is wider than ‘ICLHE’ or ‘EMI’ as it bridges various perspectives and aims to “go beyond specific cases and [thereby allows to] draw conclusions across different settings” (Dafouz & Smit 2014). Although still in its early stages, the ROAD-MAPPING framework for analysing EMEMUS is a promising addition to existing research as it aims to bridge the different perspectives and move beyond the mere description of individual cases by exploring the interplay of language policies, internationalisation processes, the roles of the language of instruction, as well as stakeholders in English-medium educational settings. In other words, “it offers a blueprint for outlining an ‘object of analysis’ that is intrinsically dynamic and potentially elusive” (Dafouz & Smit 2014). The term EMEMUS is therefore “semantically wider” than previous approaches as it “does not specify any particular pedagogical approach or research agenda” but tries to provide a holistic understanding of EMI settings (Dafouz & Smit 2014).

¹¹ The ROAD-MAPPING framework to analyse EMEMUS proposed by Dafouz and Smit consists of six dimensions, i.e. Roles of English, Academic Disciplines, (Language) Management, Agents, Practices and Processes, and Internationalisation and Globalisation; hence the acronym ROAD-MAPPING (Dafouz & Smit 2014).

All in all, this chapter has shown that several different terms are used to refer to the teaching of subject matter through the medium of English in higher education, i.e. CLIL, ICLHE, EMI and EMEMUS. The discussion at the beginning of the chapter highlighted that, in contrast to secondary education, language learning aims are rarely explicitly pursued at the tertiary level. The term ‘CLIL’, and its direct counterpart ‘ICLHE’, are therefore not really applicable to higher education as a dual focus on content *and* language learning is hardly ever identifiable at the tertiary level. Consequently, the label ‘EMI’ is the more appropriate choice for most settings in which English is used as the medium of instruction in higher education (Unterberger & Wilhelmer 2011: 97). In addition to such terminological considerations, the discussion above has also shown that assuming an ELF/A perspective provides valuable insights because English-taught degree programmes are often aimed at attracting a large proportion of international students (e.g. Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 67). As a result, English is frequently the only shared language of teachers and students in these internationalised programmes and functions as a lingua franca (Smit 2010c: 379). Dafouz and Smit (2014) propose the use of the label EMEMUS to describe English-medium university settings, since this approach, among other aspects, considers the roles of the stakeholders as well as that of the language in these programmes.

Based on these considerations, the following sections will further explore the conceptualisation of English-medium education. Chapter 4.2 will investigate the role of subject-specific language teaching in EMPs, before Chapter 4.3 presents a categorisation for the different varieties of English-medium teaching in higher education.

4.2 Teaching discipline-specific language: The role of ESP and EAP in English-medium education

When discussing English-medium education at the tertiary level, it is also necessary to consider if and to what extent the teaching of discipline-specific language and academic communicative skills takes place. Of course, this is true for tertiary education in general, even when conducted in the students’ native language, because degree programmes at university level always “involve socialising students into domain-

specific academic genres and registers with specialised vocabularies” (Hellekjaer 2010: 248). It is exactly this focus on discipline-specific language that can be considered “the central premise” of ESP, which “endeavours to teach the language the learners need to communicate effectively in their work or study areas” (Basturkmen 2010: 36). With this strong focus on “practical outcomes” (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998: 1), ESP aims to prepare students for their professional careers by aiding them in understanding and decoding the language of their discipline. Next to discipline-specific lexis and other linguistic features, students also need to be introduced to the generic conventions of their discipline. This strong emphasis on genre analysis in ESP teaching is largely based on the work conducted by Swales (1990) and Bhatia (1993), who identified generic and rhetorical moves in professional discursive practices.

ESP teaching often employs different methodologies from English Language Teaching (ELT) as it ideally “should [also] reflect the methodology of the disciplines [...] it serves” (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998: 4). This observation is particularly true for ESP courses embedded in English-taught programmes, as ideally they should equip the students with the linguistic skills they need to communicate the expertise developed in the programme. Typical ESP teaching methods thus range from encouraging inductive learning and learner autonomy to using authentic materials and tasks and process syllabi, as well as doing team teaching (Watson Todd 2003: 151–152). The emphasis on the use of authentic teaching materials which reflect language use in the professional world is one of the major premises of the ESP approach (e.g. Basturkmen 2006: 85–90; Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998: 170–185). Moreover, ESP methodology considers the learners’ discipline knowledge, be it conscious or latent, as the ESP teacher is likely to be a language specialist rather than a content expert (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998: 188).

Conceptually, ESP can be considered a branch of ELT and is therefore also an important field of applied linguistics research (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998: 1). Moreover, ESP “is part of a more general movement of teaching Language for Specific Purposes (LSP)” (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998: 1–2). Bhatia and Bhatia (2011: 25–26) point out that ESP is based on the ground-breaking work on the functional variation of English by Halliday, MacIntosh et al. (1964): “[A]ccording to them, it was possible to characterise

the register of business by identifying the use of an above-average incidence of a specific set of lexico-grammatical features of that register". Indeed, the concept of functional variation in English as defined by Halliday et al. in the early 1960s has been a fundamental concept of language teaching ever since. Their argument that "language varies as its function varies" and that this variation is evident in certain lexico-grammatical features (1964: 87) paved the way for the ESP movement.

Next to ESP, the teaching of academic communication and study skills, i.e. English for Academic Purposes (EAP), also needs to be taken into account when English is used as the medium of instruction at the tertiary level. It can even be argued that the steadily progressing internationalisation of higher education and the increasing number of English-taught degree programmes have actually increased the importance of EAP (Hyland 2006: 1). Once considered a "relatively fringe branch" of ESP, EAP nowadays is "situated at the front line of both theory development and innovative practice" in English language teaching (Hyland 2006: 1). Certain academic study skills such as listening to lectures, taking notes, giving presentations, taking part in discussions, reading academic papers and writing theses are common to most disciplines (e.g. Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998: 41–43; Hyland 2006: 9–13). This area of EAP is therefore referred to as English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP). However, a 'one-size-fits-all' course on academic writing, for example, might not serve the specific purposes and particular demands of every degree programme. Indeed, not all academic skills are "transferable across different disciplines" (Hyland 2006: 9) and students may need assistance in understanding the "academic register" and the "typical rhetorical conventions and characteristics" of their discipline (Bhatia 2004: 68). These differences between disciplines are taken into account by English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP). The main difference between EGAP and ESAP courses thus lies in the fact that the latter "focus on the actual tasks that students have to carry out" (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998: 42). This, however, requires cooperation between language specialists and the respective subject departments to design ESAP course curricula which assist students in adapting their "academic discourse" (Hyland 2006: 13) to the specific demands of particular programmes.

The discussion in this chapter has already indicated that the teaching of discipline-specific and academic language skills can constitute a valuable part of English-medium education at the tertiary level. Various studies have pointed out the relevance of ESP and EAP teaching in English-medium programmes (e.g. Airey 2011b; Bocanegra-Valle 2008; Jacobs 2007; Räisänen & Fortanet-Gómez 2008b; Räisänen 2008; Wilkinson 2008b). However, with the introduction of the post-Bologna three-cycle degree structure, ESP and EAP courses have often been casualties of the reduction in contact hours that frequently accompanies the restructuring of curricula (Mettinger 2012; Wilkinson 2008b: 56). Explicit language teaching in English-medium programmes is often deemed unnecessary by programme designers, and ESP / EAP teaching has much lower status than content courses (Fortanet-Gómez 2011: 2). Nevertheless, students have been found to have problems “cracking an intricate disciplinary code”, while the discipline experts teaching in English-medium programmes are often not aware that the linguistic, generic and stylistic features of their discipline are not obvious to their students (Airey 2011b). The experts teaching in English-medium programmes often “neither have the desire nor the expertise [...] to teach disciplinary literacy skills” (Hyland 2006: 11; also cf. Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998: 39 and Chapter 8.2). Furthermore, there is often too little time to discuss discipline-specific language use explicitly, even if content teachers are willing and able to do so. The curricula of English-medium programmes should therefore ideally include ESP courses. After all, students are expected to emerge from English-taught degree programmes “as members of the discipline” and thus need to be explicitly instructed in how to acquire its discourse (Wilkinson 2008b: 57).

Since the present study investigates EMPs in business and economics studies, this context will be used to briefly illustrate the role of ESP and EAP teaching in English-taught degree programmes. In fact, the context of tertiary business studies clearly carries considerable implication for ESP/EAP teaching. For instance, English-taught business degree programmes tend to be highly specialised and interdisciplinary (Unterberger 2012: 90), which is predominantly triggered by “[t]he need for multidisciplinary expertise in the workplace” (Bhatia & Bremner 2012: 414). Hence a “range of communicative demands” (Bhatia & Bremner 2012: 414) is placed on the

students enrolled in these programmes, who need corresponding ESP courses to help them “construct and communicate typical disciplinary knowledge” (Bhatia 2004: 63).

Next to the acquisition of discipline-specific language, English-taught programmes in business studies require students to possess very advanced academic communication and study skills such as reading, writing, note-taking and presenting (cf. Chapter 8.2). These skills sets are ideally acquired in explicit EAP courses. Bhatia (2004: 65) points out that, especially if the programmes are interdisciplinary, students need guidance in identifying different disciplinary conventions. He argues that “generic and disciplinary conflicts” could be problematic for students to whom English is a foreign language because they might find it hard “to cope with such intricacies of disciplinary discourses”. This claim is supported by a study on writing assignments in business courses which found that students are indeed expected to adapt to various different genres. For instance, they have to review, compare and analyse research literature, write research proposals, business reports or letters and memos. In order to successfully complete these writing assignments, they need to possess a variety of discipline-specific language skills such as synthesising, summarising, and paraphrasing, to name but a few (Zhu 2004: 118–130). Business students are therefore confronted with a mix of typical academic as well as discipline-specific genre types (Zhu 2004: 130). This challenging mix of required skills highlights the importance of EAP/ESP instruction in EMPs.

At the same time, to ensure that both EAP and ESP teaching effectively equip students with the academic and discipline-specific language skills required to meet the demands of a particular English-medium programme, collaboration between content and language teachers should take place (Airey 2011b; Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998: 45–48; Hellekjaer 2010: 249). One form of collaboration is, for instance, the “adjunct model” (Brinton et al. 1989: 16) in which tailor-made language courses run in parallel to content classes and are designed to assist students in the acquisition of the discipline-specific language and genre knowledge for a particular course. Obviously, adjunct EAP / ESP courses require careful consideration regarding curricula and course design. The subsequent section will expand on the issue of programme and course design by discussing the various forms of English-medium teaching in higher education.

4.3 The English-medium teaching paradigm

Based on the terminological and conceptual considerations put forward in 4.1 and 4.2, this section offers an overview of the various instructional types which are prevalent in English-medium education at the tertiary level. An earlier attempt to provide a categorisation for the different forms of English-medium teaching in higher education is presented in Unterberger and Wilhelmer (2011: -97). Inspired by Greere and Räsänen's CLIL continuum (2008: 6–8), the framework presented in the previous paper was intended to show why the term CLIL is not appropriate for higher education (cf. Chapter 4.1). However, the discussion here is meant to take it a step further by providing an updated paradigm which matches the realities of programme and curriculum design in English-medium education at the tertiary level. The English-medium teaching paradigm presented in this chapter therefore combines the insights gained from the discussion of ESP, EAP, CLIL and EMI literature in Chapters 4.1 and 4.2 with those obtained from the present study's interviews and curriculum analyses (cf. Chapter 8).

The present thesis argues that English-medium teaching in higher education can be classified into five distinct categories, i.e. *Pre-sessional ESP / EAP*, *Embedded ESP / EAP*, *Adjunct ESP*, *EMI* and *ICLHE*. As can be seen in Table 2 below, the type of English-medium teaching implemented depends on various parameters. The previous sections have already shown that the main distinguishing factor is the question as to whether or not language learning aims are actively pursued in the English-taught courses. Language learning aims can be identified at various levels. Language learning aims could be listed in the course descriptions of a particular class, or they could be pursued by an individual instructor. At the curriculum level, it can be argued that the role of language learning within an EMP is revealed by the positioning and frequency of EAP and ESP courses. The discussion below will show that it makes a difference in terms of status if language courses are pre-sessional, i.e. meant to prepare students for future content learning before the actual programme starts, or if they are embedded in the EMPs. If embedded EAP/ESP teaching can be found throughout a programme, this could be interpreted as a sign of the programme designers having acknowledged the importance of discipline-specific language teaching. As has mentioned above, such

embedded ESP/EAP courses can also have an “adjunct” function (Brinton et al. 1989: 16) in that they are closely tied to one specific content course.

In addition to curriculum-level particularities, the categorisation presented in Table 2 also acknowledges factors concerning the teaching staff, i.e. which methodology is used by content or language teachers and to what extent collaboration between the two takes place. In order to illustrate the different varieties of English-medium teaching, a fictitious Supply Chain Management master’s programme is used to show how these could be implemented in English-medium programmes.

	Programme design	Learning objectives	Teaching staff, methodology and potential collaboration	Example for the category using the fictitious master’s programme in ‘Supply Chain Management’
Pre-sessional ESP / EAP	voluntary or obligatory ESP / EAP courses before the start of the EMP	pre-sessional ESP: introduce students to discipline-specific language and genres pre-sessional EAP: equip students with the necessary academic communication and study skills	language specialists using typical ESP / EAP teaching methodology collaboration with programme designers and / or content experts teaching in the EMPs to specify learning aims	pre-sessional ESP: ‘English for Supply Chain Management’ pre-sessional EAP: ‘Reading and writing research papers’
Embedded ESP / EAP	ESP / EAP course included in the EMP	develop discipline-specific and general academic language skills students need in the EMPs	language specialists using typical ESP / EAP teaching methodology collaboration with programme designers and / or content experts teaching in the EMPs to identify the key language skills	ESP: ‘English for Supply Chain Management’ EAP: ‘How to write a master’s thesis’
Adjunct ESP	tailor-made ESP class for a specific content course runs parallel to content course	aid students’ understanding of the key language and genres needed to successfully perform in a specific content class	language specialists using materials which students also use in their content class close collaboration between the language specialist and the content	‘The language of global supply chain design’ (linked to the content course ‘Global supply chain design’)

	Programme design	Learning objectives	Teaching staff, methodology and potential collaboration	Example for the category using the fictitious master's programme in 'Supply Chain Management'
			teachers. Content experts identify language learning aims and language teachers select and compile appropriate materials	
EMI	English used as the medium of instruction for a particular course or for a full programme	acquisition and mastery of discipline content knowledge language learning often implicit aim	subject experts using teaching methods typical for the discipline	all lectures, courses and seminars held in English without an explicit language focus
ICLHE	English used as the medium of instruction for a particular course or for a full programme curricula and syllabi designed jointly by content and language specialists	explicit learning objectives for both language and content	subject and language experts combining methodologies from both disciplines close collaboration between subject and language teachers joint programme design and materials development joint assessment and team teaching optional	English-taught Supply Chain Management course or programme content and language is explicitly taught in all courses language teaching intertwined with the subject content

Table 2 The English-medium teaching paradigm

EMP programme designers are often confronted with the fact that the students' prior knowledge and their language qualifications differ considerably (cf. Chapter 6.3). In order to counterbalance differences in the students' language proficiency, curricula designers of English-taught degree programmes could implement **Pre-sessional ESP / EAP**. Ideally, these language courses are tailor-made for a specific programme to match its linguistic demands. Pre-sessional courses equip students with the essential discipline-specific language (ESP) and / or academic communication and study skills

(EAP) before the actual start of the English-medium programme. Saarikoski and Rauto point out that a pre-sessional “booster unit”, in which a language specialist teaches key concepts and vocabulary, is a “realistic model [for] co-operation between the expert in the professional content and the language expert” (2008: 16–18). The decisive factor for such collaboration is that the content teacher needs to set the disciplinary goals which are then the basis for the language teacher’s course design (Airey 2011b). Saarikoski and Rauto found that students benefit directly from the joint effort of content and language experts in designing tailor-made pre-sessional language courses. Since the language teacher familiarises students with materials which they encounter in the following content classes, the students’ self-esteem increases and they also find it easier to tackle tasks such as reading assignments (2008: 18).

The obvious disadvantage of pre-sessional ESP / EAP courses is their clear separation from the rest of the programme, which could widen the existing gulf between content and language teachers in English-medium programmes (cf. Airey 2012). Moreover, the implementation of pre-sessional language teaching sends a clear signal to all stakeholders (i.e. programme management, teachers and students), namely that ESP / EAP is not an integral part of the programme. As already discussed in Chapter 3.3, if academic literacy teaching is positioned “at the entry level of the curriculum”, it is usually seen “as a service subject/course” (Jacobs 2007: 37). Therefore, pre-sessional courses might convey the message that “the language itself is purely instrumental, and that once the minimum level required had been obtained, there is little incentive to enhance language skills further” (Wilkinson 2004a: 453).

The examples created for a fictitious English-taught master’s programme in ‘Supply Chain Management’ shown in the fifth column of Table 2 illustrate how pre-sessional ESP / EAP instruction could be realised. For example, a pre-sessional ESP course ‘English for supply chain management’ would equip students with basic subject-specific language and introduce them to the most important genres of the discipline (e.g. the language of supply chain contracts). The ESP teacher would thus guide the students in how to “reconstruct the specialist content and prepare for the communicative task” (Lange 2004: 299). A pre-sessional EAP course such as ‘Reading and writing research papers’, on the other hand, would introduce students to the

typical generic and linguistic particularities of research papers of their discipline. Obviously, such pre-sessional EAP instruction could also focus on the teaching of other academic communication skills such as giving presentations in English.

The second type of English-medium teaching, labelled as **Embedded ESP / EAP** in Table 2, is in fact very similar to the first one in that it represents ESP or EAP instruction which is tailor-made for a particular programme. In other words, rather than implementing a 'general' ESP course such as 'Business English', programme designers would encourage cooperation between content and language teachers to design a course which caters to the specific linguistic demands of a particular programme. However, in contrast to pre-sessional courses, embedded ESP / EAP classes are part of an EMP's regular curriculum (cf. the example used in Table 2 'English for supply chain management'). As has already been pointed out above, the main benefit of embedded language instruction is clearly symbolic. If discipline-specific language teaching is an integral part of the curriculum, students and teachers alike are more likely to acknowledge the fact that studying content through an L2 also involves learning the language of the discipline. A typical example for embedded EAP teaching would be courses on academic writing which are meant to guide students during thesis writing.

While embedded ESP courses target discipline-specific language and genre knowledge that is essential for the programme as a whole, the present thesis proposes that **Adjunct ESP** is tied to a particular content course, runs parallel to this twin course and thus provides even more specific language teaching. In their pioneering work on Content-Based Instruction (CBI), Brinton, Snow and Wesche defined "adjunct language instruction" in higher education as "two linked courses [...] which share the content base and complement each other in terms of mutually coordinated assignments" (1989: 16). However, the definition of adjunct ESP presented here diverges slightly from that originally provided by Brinton et al., who state that adjunct language courses are exclusively for students who are non-native speakers of English: "second language learners are sheltered in the language course and integrated in the content course" (Brinton et al. 1989: 16). In contrast, the categorisation provided in this chapter has the purpose of providing an overview reflecting common varieties of English-medium

teaching which are currently identifiable in higher education. It therefore acknowledges the fact that EMPs often feature a very heterogeneous student population (cf. Chapter 7.2) and that the acquisition of the language of the discipline can present a challenge, for both native and non-native speakers alike (cf. Chapter 8.2).

Apart from the fact that adjunct ESP courses are offered for all students of EMPs, the definition established in this chapter does not diverge greatly from that provided by Brinton et al. (1989). For instance, one of their underlying ideas is that the adjunct ESP course teacher uses materials based on those used in the twin content class. This tailor-made ESP instruction therefore aids students' understanding of the key language and genres needed in order to perform successfully in the linked content class. In terms of syllabus design, however, this course format can be quite challenging to implement as it requires closer collaboration between content and language teachers than all other forms of separate¹² language teaching presented in Table 2. In fact, "implementing an adjunct programme in an existing curriculum is an ambitious undertaking" since the teachers need "to ensure that the curricula of the two interlocking courses complement each other" (Brinton et al. 1989: 17). This synergy can be illustrated by using the example described in Table 2. The content course 'Global supply chain design' is linked to the adjunct ESP course 'The language of global supply chain design' in which the necessary linguistic and generic particularities of designing international supply chains are taught. The content lecturer in this example does not have to spend time on dealing with language issues as he/she is supported by a language specialist and can thus rely on the students' knowledge of the linguistic particularities. Since the courses run in parallel, the content teacher can point out challenging areas to the language teacher who can then focus on them in the adjunct ESP class. The adjunct model is therefore suitable for content classes which involve

¹² Here the term 'separate' is deliberately used to indicate that this represents a separate language class in addition to the content class. By contrast, integrated language teaching would mean that both content and language teaching take place within the same class. The discussion below will show that such integration of content and language is hence referred to as 'ICLHE'.

complex terminology (e.g. the use of incoterms in supply chain management) and discipline-specific written genres (e.g. supply chain contracts).

The next category of **EMI** comprises courses in which English is used as the medium of instruction by content experts without explicit teaching of discipline-specific language. As already discussed in Chapter 4.1, English assumes a “vehicular role” (Järvinen 2008: 78) in EMI and is thus seen as a tool to communicate subject matter. While EMI courses are primarily concerned with the acquisition and mastery of discipline content knowledge (Järvinen 2008: 83), language learning is often an implicit aim of the programme’s designers as well as of the content lecturers teaching in them (Rauto 2008: 23–24). It can thus be argued that curriculum planners and teachers alike expect “incidental language improvement” (Wilkinson 2011: 115) to occur due to the continuous exposure of students to English in EMPs (Järvinen 2008: 83; Rauto 2008: 25). However, there is little evidence to show that this is necessarily the case¹³. In order to counterbalance this lack of explicit language learning aims, programme designers could link EMI courses to adjunct ESP classes or add pre-sessional ESP / EAP instruction to the curricula.

While EMI does not include explicit language learning objectives, they are a vital component of the category **ICLHE**. It has already been explained in Chapter 4.1 that in order for a course to be identified as ICLHE, it needs to pursue both aims, i.e. the students’ mastery of content as well as the development of language skills. An ICLHE approach can therefore only be realised with the intense involvement of language specialists in both curriculum design and programme delivery. Indeed, it is this fundamental requirement to *integrate* content and language teaching which is represented by the ‘I’ in the acronym and which makes it so challenging to implement ILCHE. Gustafsson and Jacobs provide a very precise description of what ICLHE programme design and delivery should actually entail:

¹³ In fact, some research findings even suggest the opposite. For instance, participants in Smit’s study on ELF as classroom language reported that their English skills “had deteriorated rather than improved” in the course of the English-taught programme (2010c: 137).

'Integration' is understood as: dovetailing the structure and sequence of subjects and curricula; joint lessons, team-teaching and shared classroom materials; the design and marking of joint assessment tasks; collaborative partnerships between language and content lecturers; as well as collaboration across disciplines and contexts (such as the academy and the workplace). (Gustafsson & Jacobs 2013: iv)

This description of ICLHE shows that, although not impossible, the implementation of a full ICLHE programme presents an enormous challenge for most higher education institutions. In addition to the involvement of language specialists in programme and curriculum design, it can be assumed that collaborative marking and team teaching by content and language teachers would represent a rather difficult if not impossible requirement for most university settings. Even though ICLHE would be less difficult to implement at the course level, it would still require time-consuming joint lesson planning, team teaching and collaborative assessment.

The example in Table 2 above can be used to illustrate how an ICLHE approach could be realised. An English-taught 'Supply Chain Management' programme following an ICLHE approach would require all content instructors to reflect upon the communicative demands and linguistic particularities of their subject and work closely together with language teachers. The language specialists' teaching of these issues would then be intertwined with the subject content as it would take place in the same lesson. Obviously, such an ICLHE programme places high responsibilities on the teaching staff and requires careful curriculum design. It therefore remains questionable whether such an effort is worthwhile since the main aim of degree programmes in tertiary education will usually be to equip students with disciplinary expertise. Consequently, it could be argued that a combination of EMI courses and explicit ESP and EAP instruction might be the more realistic model for higher education contexts. In that way the categories of *Pre-sessional ESP / EAP*, *Embedded ESP / EAP* and *Adjunct ESP* can be seen as building blocks of the English-medium teaching paradigm which complement EMI.

PART II Research design, aims and methodology

5 Research design and methodology

5.1 Sampling strategies and sample description

Before discussing the present study's research design, its underlying research questions and the methods used for data collection and analysis, it is necessary to discuss its sample composition. First of all, the study's restriction to English-taught business and economics degree programmes needs to be explained. The focus on EMPs in business studies is primarily rooted in the fact that, across European higher education institutions, this field of study is particularly affected by the English-medium trend. In fact, at Austrian institutions, the field of business studies even claims the lion's share of English-taught degree programmes (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 45–48). In order to obtain detailed insights into programme and curriculum design of EMPs in business studies, conducting a case study at Europe's largest business university can be regarded as a logical choice. With nearly 24,000 students, Vienna University of Economics and Business (WU) is the largest European educational institution for business and economics and thus provides an ideal setting to investigate EMPs (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2013e). The WU case study comprises seven interviews with programme managers, course designers and instructors (cf. Appendix 1), a course description analysis of four EMPs (cf. Appendix 8) and an analysis of four institutional policy documents (cf. Appendix 2).

As Chapter 5.2 will show in greater detail, in addition to the WU case study, this dissertation also includes an analysis of national internationalisation policies and a status quo survey. In order to identify internationalisation developments at the national level, three policy documents on the subject of internationalisation in Austrian higher education were analysed (cf. Appendix 2). The corpus of the policies chosen matches the time frame covered in the status quo survey, as the aim was not

to provide a historic overview of internationalisation in Austria but to show how internationalisation developments are connected to the implementation of EMPs.¹⁴

In the status quo survey, the sample was restricted to state universities¹⁵, because WU is Austria's only state university focusing exclusively on economics and business studies. This restrictive measure was necessary to ensure comparability, since the Austrian tertiary education landscape comprises a vast variety of HEIs, ranging from state and private universities to academies, colleges and universities of applied sciences (Eurydice 2010b: 5). These different types of institutions are not only divergent in terms of general organisation matters but also differ significantly in specific aspects such as entry requirements, with the latter being particularly important for the present study.

The study's sample was carefully chosen to ensure a certain degree of representativeness for the specific setting investigated. However, like the majority of research conducted in applied linguistics, the study follows a "non-probability sampling" procedure which makes the sample "purposive" but, strictly speaking, also "non-representative" (Dörnyei 2009: 98). Nevertheless, the combination of the status quo survey, the policy analysis and the WU case study creates a "reasonably representative sample" which allows for tentative generalisation about English-medium programmes at Austrian business faculties (Dörnyei 2009: 97). As summarised in Table 3 below, this sample procedure adopted can thus be referred to as a mix of "criterion sampling" and "critical case sampling" (Dörnyei 2009: 128). On the one hand, criterion sampling was applied in restricting the status quo survey's scope to business studies and state universities, as well as setting a specific time frame for the policy analysis. On the other, critical case sampling made WU the obvious choice for

¹⁴ For a detailed discussion on how the status quo survey informed the other data sets, see Chapter 5.2.

¹⁵ The status quo survey investigates EMPs at the following nine state universities which offer programmes in economics and /or business studies: Alpen Adria University Klagenfurt, Graz University of Technology, Johannes Kepler University Linz, University of Graz, University of Innsbruck, University of Salzburg, University of Vienna, Vienna University of Economics and Business (WU), Vienna University of Technology.

investigating EMPs in business studies, since it is the largest business university in Europe and Austria’s only state university with an exclusive business focus.

Data set	Sampling procedure
Status Quo Survey: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • EMPs in business studies • 9 Austrian state universities 	Criterion sampling: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Business studies: biggest share of EMPs in Austria • Comparability: state universities
Analysis of national policies: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • progress reports on the implementation of the Bologna reforms 	Criterion sampling: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • period covered matches the status quo survey: 2000 – 2012
WU case study: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • analysis of institutional policies • analysis of course descriptions • interviews with programme managers / instructors 	Critical case sampling: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • largest business university in Europe • only state university in Austria which focuses on business and economics studies

Table 3 Sampling procedures adopted for each data set

The discussion of sampling strategies and the description of the actual sample investigated has shown that the present study involves multiple settings that were examined with various research methods. Before discussing the findings and outcomes of the study, it is thus necessary to provide more information on how the study was conducted and to elucidate the underlying research aims. Subsequent chapters will give a comprehensive account on the study design and the research questions, as well as the methods used for data collection and analysis.

5.2 Study design

In order to capture the multifaceted nature of English-taught degree programmes, the study considers the various layers of EMI and therefore comprises four intertwined data sets. The study’s central aim is therefore to combine macro-level observations (i.e. quantitative, numerical trends) with micro-level insights (i.e. qualitative, detailed findings). As can be seen in Figure 1, this combination of macro and micro-level analyses offers an unusually holistic insight into English-medium programmes.

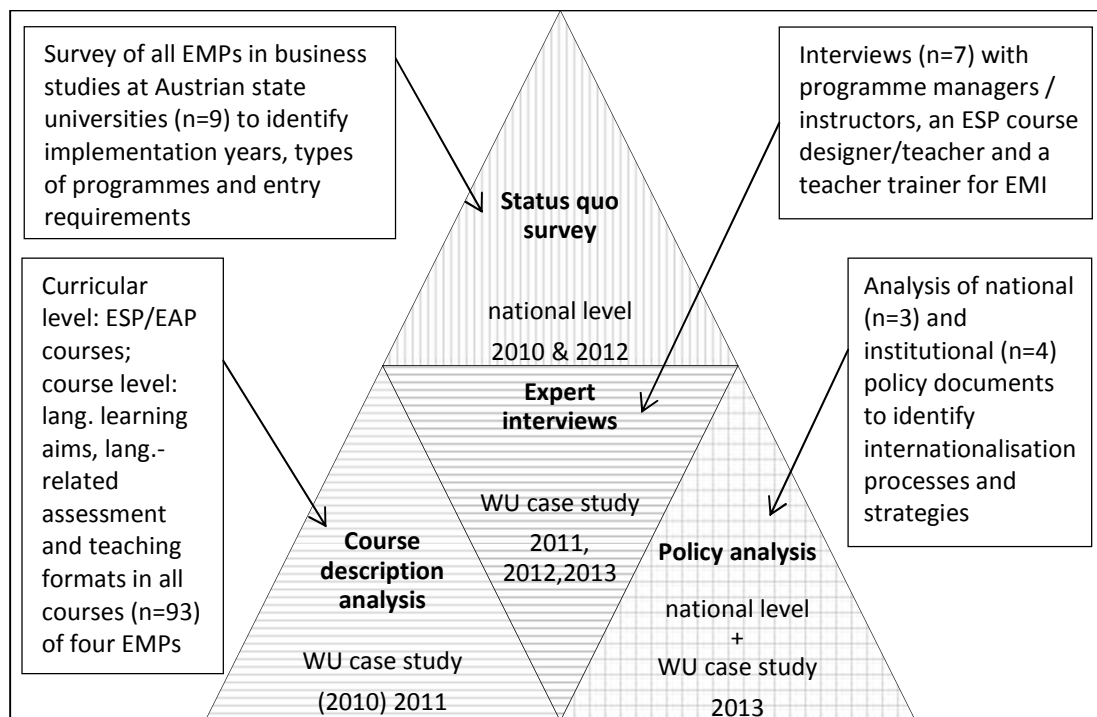


Figure 1 The study design pyramid: macro- and the micro-level analysis of EMPs

The study design pyramid shows that data derived at the national level (vertical stripes) is combined with that collected in a WU case study (horizontal stripes). The **status quo survey** across all business faculties at Austrian state universities was the point of departure for the present study. The major part of it was conducted in 2010, followed by a second round in 2012 in which the data was updated and newly implemented programmes were added. The status quo survey therefore identifies the total number of EMPs implemented at Austrian faculties by the academic year of 2012/13 (cf. Appendix 3). It additionally provides detailed insights into distribution patterns across institutions, implementation years and types of programmes (cf. Appendix 4 and Appendix 5). The status quo survey also captures the English language entry requirements and the language-related admission policies of the programmes identified (cf. Appendix 7). All these details about EMPs in business studies at Austrian universities influenced the subsequent data collections. This is visible in the hierarchy created by the pyramid shape of the diagram which shows that the status quo survey at the top is the point of departure in terms of study design as it informed the data sets below it.

This concerns, for instance, the **policy analysis** as the policy documents chosen match the implementation years of EMPs identified in the status quo survey. The triangle in the pyramid representing the policy analysis is squared because it provides data at both the macro- and the micro-level, i.e. it comprises national as well as institutional policy documents. The policy analysis was conducted in 2013 with the main aim of identifying national processes of internationalisation as well as institutional strategies for internationalising a university. A further very important feature of the policy analysis is also that it highlights the role of English-taught degree programmes in these internationalisation processes.

Operating at the micro-level, the **course description analysis** is part of the WU case study and explores the language learning element in EMPs by focusing on programme and course design.¹⁶ At the curricular level, it identified the number of ESP and EAP classes in four English-medium master's programmes at WU. At the course level, the analysis identified explicit language learning aims, language-related assessment criteria and prevalent teaching formats in the 93 courses of the four programmes investigated (cf. Appendix 8 and Appendix 9). In 2010, a pilot, or rather, a first attempt at a course description analysis was carried out. However, the aims of this first run diverge drastically from those of the final design, which produced the findings presented in Chapter 8. The 2010 course descriptions analysis aimed to identify different types of English-medium teaching with a categorisation tool presented in Unterberger and Wilhelmer (2011). However, since this analysis mainly focused on the distinction between ESP and EMI courses in the curricula of EMPs (cf. Unterberger 2012), it produced rather one-dimensional results and did not yield the desired in-depth insights into the role of language teaching in EMPs. Based on these implications, the course description analysis was conducted once more in 2011. With a newly designed method of data analysis, the final course description analysis produced more tangible results than its predecessor as it moved away from classifying types of courses.

¹⁶ Note that in this thesis the term 'programme' refers to degree programmes which, in turn, consist of individual 'courses' or 'classes'. At the programme level, the term 'curriculum' is used to refer to the contents but also the course composition of a programme (e.g. how many ESP courses are embedded in the curriculum). At the course level, on the other hand, the scheduled contents are referred to as the 'syllabus' of a course.

Instead, it focused on explicitly stated language learning aims, communication skills and language-related assessment criteria (cf. Appendix 9). Therefore, it offers a detailed snapshot of the curriculum and course design of EMPs at WU in the academic year of 2010/11, as all programmes implemented at this time were analysed. Additionally, the managers of these programmes, who also teach in the EMPs, were interviewed.

The three data sets ‘Status quo survey’, ‘Policy analysis’ and ‘Course description analysis’ are all complemented with data derived from the **expert interviews** conducted with programme managers, instructors and course designers (cf. Appendix 1).¹⁷ The majority of the interviews took place in 2011 when all managers of the English-medium programmes implemented at WU at that time agreed to answer questions regarding programme design and teaching practices. In 2012 and 2013, interviews with an ESP course designer and teacher trainer followed to add the language specialists’ perspectives to the content experts’ views presented in the other interviews. The triangle representing the interviews is therefore placed at the core of the research design pyramid as it functions as an add-on to these other three data sets. However, the interviews not only add the valuable perspectives of programme managers and instructors to the themes covered by the other three data sets, but also address further issues concerning programme design and delivery which cannot be answered by the other data sets. For instance, the interviews provide insights into the implementation of English-taught programmes, curriculum and course design, as well as teaching practices. Interview quotes will thus be embedded in the discussion of findings derived from the other data sets.

The overview of the research design shows that the four data sets are, to some extent, overlapping but at the same time they also identify very different facets. From a methodological perspective, this mixed methods approach has a “development” as well as a “complementarity function” (Dörnyei 2009: 164–165). The quantitative,

¹⁷ It is worth pointing out that, to the knowledge of the author, the managers of EMPs represent a group of interviewees whose perceptions and opinions have not yet been captured in a study on EMI.

numeric trends on the spread of EMPs across Austrian business faculties are complemented with qualitative, in-depth insights into the phenomenon emerging from the WU case study. In this respect, the study follows a “sequential mixed methods” procedure (Creswell 2009: 15) in which the findings generated by the status quo survey are expanded and complemented by subsequent data collections. Since the quantitative and qualitative data collection methods are employed sequentially, the quantitative status quo survey informs the development of subsequent qualitative data sets. For example, the findings from the status quo survey contributed to the compilation of the interview guide and also influenced the selection of policy documents. These “supplementary findings” gained from the four data sets then “produce a fuller portrait” and yield “an enriched understanding” of the field investigated (Dörnyei 2009: 164). By converging quantitative with qualitative data, broad numeric trends emerging from the status quo survey can be explained by the case study findings and vice versa (cf. Creswell 2009: 121).

This strategy of “method mixing” has gained momentum in applied linguistics research in the past decade after a long period which was characterised by a “paradigm war” between quantitative and qualitative approaches (Dörnyei 2009: 28-29; 44; also Creswell 2009: 203). Currently, research in applied linguistics is expanding these paradigms and thus considers quantitative and qualitative research methods as “complementary rather than fundamentally incompatible” (Duff 2002: 14). It has even been argued that certain fields in applied linguistics *must* be approached from different angles and with a variety of methods for data collection and analysis (Duff 2002: 22). Indeed, a multi-method and multi-perspectival study design has the potential to produce more tangible and sound results than one that just employs either quantitative and qualitative methods and hence approaches the research questions from merely one angle. The popularity of the mixed-methods approach is further promoted by the increased use of and reference to the concept of ‘triangulation’ in research. Denzin (2009, c1970: 237–241) defined triangulation as a means to validate different findings and hypotheses by investigating them with various methods (“methodological triangulation”), using different data sources (“data triangulation”), involving more than one researcher (“investigator triangulation”), or applying several hypotheses (“theory triangulation”). Therefore, the present study’s

research design could also be said to employing “methodological triangulation” (Denzin 2009, c1970: 236; Flick 2009: 444).¹⁸

Generally, a study design based on a mixed-methods approach also represents a considerable challenge to the researcher. Creswell (2009: 205) pointed out that, when converging quantitative and qualitative data, there is “the need for extensive data collection, the time-intensive nature of analysing both text and numeric data, and the requirements for the researcher to be familiar with both quantitative and qualitative forms of research”. As can be seen in Table 4, the multi-method approach of the present study indeed involved numerous steps and procedures to collect, analyse and converge the quantitative and qualitative data. However, this time-consuming process was necessary to approach the research object ‘EMPs in tertiary business education’ from various perspectives and thereby create a fine-grained “snapshot” (Flick 2009: 137) of the phenomenon.

Data set	Methods and procedures of data collection	Methods and procedures of data analysis
Status quo survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Systematic internet searches - Contacting university administrators 	Descriptive statistics
Policy analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Establishing time frame covered based on status quo survey results - Search for suitable national and institutional policy documents on the ministry’s and WU’s websites 	Qualitative content analysis
Course description analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Close reading of curricula of the EMPs analysed to identify mandatory and elective classes - Download of individual course descriptions from WU’s course catalogue - Compilation of documents containing all course descriptions for one programme 	Qualitative content analysis Quantifying qualitative data
Expert interviews	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Creation of semi-structured interview guide based on research questions and literature - Contacting interviewees - Recording the interviews - Transcribing the interview data 	Qualitative content analysis

Table 4 Methods and procedures of data collection and data analysis

¹⁸ Flick (2009: 445–446), however, points out that ‘triangulation’ became a buzzword which tends to be overused “for strategic reasons to make funding easier or gain acceptance for publication”. The present thesis thus refers to ‘mixed-methods’ rather than ‘triangulation’.

Table 4 shows¹⁹ that the data collection procedure for the status quo survey²⁰ consisted of two phases. In the first phase, systematic internet searches were conducted to document the entire offering of EMPs in the defined sample (cf. Table 3) and also to obtain data on implementation years and entry requirements. Since the information available on the university's websites varied considerably, it was necessary to add a second phase in which selected university administrators were contacted to obtain missing data. This two-phase strategy allowed creating an extremely comprehensive database which, as has been argued above, could then inform subsequent data sets. Indeed, the data collection for the policy analysis was directly informed by the status quo survey findings, as the policy documents chosen match the timeframe of the identified implementation years of EMPs at Austrian business faculties (cf. Chapter 6.1 and Appendix 2). The next step in the data collection for the policy analysis required thorough searches on the websites²¹ of the ministry of education and WU, from which the policy documents were then downloaded.

While the idea behind a national status quo survey on the spread of EMPs in business studies was largely based on the surveys of Maiworm and Wächter (2002; 2008), and the policy analysis was inspired by Knight's work (2008), for the course description analysis no such model was available.²² As this described above, the research design of the course description analysis is rather complex and involved a 'pilot' study after which the whole design needed to be completely overhauled since it did not produce satisfying results. The final data collection included retrieving details regarding teaching formats, learning objectives and assessment criteria from WU's course catalogue. This was preceded by a close reading of the EMP's curricula to identify

¹⁹ The data analysis procedures shown in the table will be discussed in Chapters 5.4 and 5.5.

²⁰ See Chapter 5.4 for more details on the data collection in connection with the methods for analysis in the status quo survey. Among other things, this will include a definition of the term survey and an explanation why questionnaires were rejected as research instruments.

²¹ <http://www.bmwf.gv.at>; <http://www.wu.ac.at/>; for detailed references, see Appendix 2.

²² Shortly before finishing this thesis, the author learned about a very interesting research paper by Zhu (2004). In her study published in *English for Specific Purposes* she analysed course syllabi and hand-outs on writing assignments to identify language skills and genre knowledge students need in order to successfully complete the course. As Chapter 8 will show, this is, in some respects, quite similar to the present study's course description analysis, even though the study by Zhu was unknown to the author at the time of designing and conducting the analysis. It can, however, therefore be considered a reasonable method for such analyses.

mandatory and elective classes for which the detailed course descriptions were then downloaded. If there was more than one class offered in the course catalogue for one specific item in the curriculum, the first one was chosen. In very few cases, no course was offered for a specific item in the curriculum and the course description had to be retrieved from the previous semester. At WU, instructors need to provide detailed information about their courses' contents, aims and requirements which are then published as course descriptions in WU's course catalogue. In order to guarantee uniformity, all instructors have to follow the same format and provide similar information on contents (cf. WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2011b). Since the provision of all these details is mandatory, it was possible to conduct a systematic analysis of the course descriptions which allows for a direct comparison between courses and programmes. The last step involved compiling PDF documents with all course descriptions of one particular programme to prepare them for qualitative content analysis (cf. Chapter 5.5).

In contrast to the analysis of course descriptions, the collection of the interview data represents a typical form of data collection in applied linguistics (Dörnyei 2009: 134) and was thus less difficult to carry out. After careful consideration of the literature on the topic of EMI and the internationalisation of higher education, an interview guide for the "semi-structured interviews" (Dörnyei 2009: 136) was created. This was followed by contacting the interviewees, informing them about the study's purpose and arranging dates for the interviews. Prior to the interviews, the information available on the programmes' website was used to add questions to the interview guide relating to specific aspects of a particular programme. If the programme had particularly strict entry requirements regarding the students' English proficiency, or if the managers had implemented a language course, such particularities had been added to the interview guide. All interviews were recorded digitally and transcribed using the transcription software *F4*²³. The transcription conventions applied are based on the ones listed in Kuckartz (2010: 43). The interview data was transcribed verbatim

²³ <http://www.audiotranskription.de/f4.htm>

and, where necessary, the speech of the interviewees was adjusted to standard language. Since the aim of the expert interviews was to obtain information on programme design and teaching practices, it was not necessary to include any phonetic or dialect variation. Still, long pauses and turntaking were indicated in the transcripts to prepare them for the content analysis process.

This section has provided an overview of the present study's design, including detailed descriptions of the four data sets, its mixed methods approach and procedures of data analysis. Before discussing the methods employed in the data analysis itself, however, it is necessary to consider the study's underlying research questions. The subsequent section therefore provides a detailed overview on how the study's underlying research questions correspond to the four data sets described in this chapter.

5.3 Research questions and corresponding data sets

The preceding chapters have already shown that the present study describes and analyses the phenomenon of English-medium programmes at Austrian business faculties from various perspectives and at different levels. The research design presented in the previous section and illustrated by Figure 1 thus aims to answer the following core research questions:

RQ1 How have ongoing internationalisation processes shaped the Austrian higher education landscape in business studies?

RQ2 What internationalisation trends can be identified in national and institutional policy documents and what role does English-medium instruction play?

RQ3 What role does language learning and teaching assume in EMPs and how is it implemented?

These research questions correspond to the three levels under investigation in the present study, i.e. the national level, the policy level and the institutional level. In order to give a more detailed overview of the study's research aims, Table 5 displays the associated sub-questions of the three core research questions listed above. Since

these specific research questions move the general ones above from abstract to concrete, they can be referred to as “operationalized” research questions (Cohen et al. 2009: 81). As Cohen et al. point out, “the process of operationalization is critical for effective research”, since it translates broad research aims “into specific, concrete questions to which specific, concrete answers can be given” (2009: 81). The table additionally shows the corresponding data sets and thereby illustrates how each research question is answered. For a number of the questions more than one data set is used to answer them, highlighting how intertwined the data sets are and how certain issues are approached from various angles.

Operationalised research questions with corresponding data sets	Status Quo Survey Business faculties at Austrian state universities	Policy Analysis National policies: Austria Institutional policies: WU	Course Description Analysis EMPs at WU	Interviews Programme managers and teachers at WU
I. The status quo of EMPs at Austrian business faculties				
How many English-medium programmes are currently implemented at Austrian business faculties and how do implementation years correlate with significant policies and policy-related events?	X			
Which distribution patterns can be identified in terms of institutions, degrees and types of programmes ²⁴ ?	X			X
How frequent are English language entry requirements for EMPs and which waiver rules can be identified?	X			
Which types of entry requirements and admission procedures are set out by the universities to ensure that the applicants' English proficiency is at the required level?	X			X
Which minimum test scores are stipulated and which level of English proficiency is considered necessary for English-taught programmes?	X			X

²⁴ 'Types of programmes' refers to joint and double degree programmes, English tracks and programmes which draw on third-party funding (cf. Chapter 6.2.3).

Operationalised research questions with corresponding data sets	Status Quo Survey Business faculties at Austrian state universities	Policy Analysis National policies: Austria Institutional policies: WU	Course Description Analysis EMPs at WU	Interviews Programme managers and teachers at WU
II. Internationalisation processes and strategies				
What are the rationales underlying the current national policies for internationalisation at Austrian universities and which strategic goals can be identified?		X		
What is WU's strategy for internationalisation, which rationales and objectives are stated in the institutional policies and in how far do they differ from those identified in the national policies?		X		
Is English-medium instruction a central theme in the policy documents and in what ways have internationalisation processes fostered the use of English as the medium of instruction?		X		X
III. The language learning element in the programme design of EMPs				
Are there any prerequisites for the academic staff teaching in EMPs, e.g. any form of linguistic accreditation or a language teaching certificate?				X
Does WU provide their teaching staff with any language and/or didactic training and is it voluntary or obligatory?				X
Which difficulties can arise when English is used as the medium of instruction and does it increase the instructors' workload?				X
Are pre-sessional ESP or EAP classes offered to prepare students for the EMPs?			X	X
Which language learning objectives are explicitly stated in the course descriptions, are they actively pursued in the programmes and how important is the development of subject-specific terminology?			X	X
Are English skills explicitly mentioned as assessment criteria in the course descriptions and what is the role of language proficiency in student assessment?			X	X
Which varieties of English-medium teaching are most common in the EMPs at WU (i.e. ESP, ESP/EAP, EMI, Adjunct-ICLHE or ICLHE) and which teaching formats prevail?			X	

Operationalised research questions with corresponding data sets	Status Quo Survey Business faculties at Austrian state universities	Policy Analysis National policies: Austria Institutional policies: WU	Course Description Analysis EMPs at WU	Interviews Programme managers and teachers at WU
Is there some kind of collaboration in the EMPs between subject-specialists and language-specialists?			X	X

Table 5 Operationalised research questions with corresponding data sets

The presentation of the study’s operationalised research questions in Table 5 shows which issues are investigated at the national, policy and institutional layers of the study. Moreover, it also shows how these research questions are tackled, i.e. which data sets are used to answer them. The next chapter and its sub-sections will discuss the research methods and instruments used for data collection and analysis in detail.

5.4 A status quo survey

Although the term ‘survey’ inevitably triggers associations with questionnaires, this was not the method used to gather numerical data on the spread of English-medium degree programmes at Austrian business faculties. The reason for the rejection of questionnaires as a research instrument was that large-scale questionnaire surveys tend to have rather disappointing response rates (cf. Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 20). Since the aim of the status quo survey is to register the *exact* number of EMPs and to provide virtually *complete* figures for implementation years and entry requirements, questionnaires would not have served this purpose. Instead, the research aims called for a very systematic and detailed approach in order to show general tendencies in the data and thereby identify national trends.

In order to document the entire offering of EMPs and also obtain comprehensive and extensive data on implementation years and entry requirements, systematic internet searches were conducted. As can be seen in Appendix 3, all programmes identified

were assigned IDs which were used in the discussion of the status quo survey findings in Chapter 6. This proved to be a rather time-consuming and complex process since the websites of the universities investigated varied considerably in terms of the information provided. It was thus necessary to check back with university administrators directly in order to get a complete picture of the spread of EMPs across Austrian business faculties (cf. Appendix 3), as well as the years of implementation, degrees and types of programmes (cf. Appendix 4). Extracting information on language-related entry requirements and the corresponding waiver rules (cf. Appendix 7) proved to be particularly problematic as the information given on the institutions websites was far from being coherent and/or uniform. However, as can be seen in Appendix 7, the systematic data collection resulted in accurate and very comprehensive data which provides revealing insights into admission policies and entry requirements concerning the expected language proficiency of prospective students of EMPs.

As the purpose of this study was to determine the exact population of EMPs in business studies at Austrian state universities, the status quo survey can also be seen as a 'census' (Dörnyei 2009: 96). The data was therefore analysed using descriptive statistics, an approach which is useful "to summarise sets of numerical data in order to conserve time and space" (Dörnyei 2009: 209). In contrast, taking an inferential statistics approach, which identifies correlations and tests statistical significance, would not have served the purpose of identifying the actual situation. Therefore, the results show precisely what is being offered rather than making assumptions about the status quo. Still, the descriptive approach has one obvious disadvantage when compared to inferential statistics, namely that it does not allow for a generalisation of the results. Even though "descriptive statistics offer a tidy way of presenting the data", drawing general conclusions beyond the investigated sample is not possible (Dörnyei 2009: 209).

Nevertheless, the data generated by the status quo survey makes it possible to identify general tendencies in the identified implementation years, the spread of EMPs across Austrian business faculties and the entry requirements by presenting absolute and relative frequencies (cf. Appendix 4a, Appendix 7a). Indeed, it can be argued that this

“careful portrayal of descriptive data” (Cohen et al. 2009: 504) enables a highly accurate analysis of the status quo and thus offers valuable insights into English-medium programmes at Austrian business faculties. As has been discussed in Chapter 5.2, the status quo survey informed the other three data sets, for which different research methods were used. The following chapter presents the methodology applied in the analysis of these other data sets.

5.5 Qualitative content analysis

The three data sets ‘Policy analysis’, ‘Course description analysis’ and ‘Expert interviews’ were all analysed using qualitative content analysis. However, due to the diverse nature of their compilation, each of the data sets required a slightly different procedure. In general, qualitative content analysis can be described as a “strict and systematic set of procedures for the rigorous analysis, examination and verification of the contents of written data” (Cohen et al. 2009: 475). In particular, data reduction is considered a “key element” of qualitative content analysis (Cohen et al. 2009: 475), which is achieved by coding a text according to a set of categories. Dörnyei (2009: 250) provides a very straightforward definition of the term ‘code’ and the process of coding in qualitative content analysis, which adequately describes the process taken in the present study:

A ‘code’ is simply a label attached to a chunk of text intended to make the particular piece of information manageable and malleable. Of course, just like labels, codes can be used for many purposes, from purely descriptive [...] to more abstract. [...] Yet all the qualitative coding techniques are aimed at reducing or simplifying the data while highlighting special features of certain data segments in order to link them to broader topics or concepts. In actual practice, coding involves highlighting extracts [...] and labelling these in a way that they can be easily identified, retrieved, or grouped.

Based on insights gained from literature and previous, comparable studies, and with the research questions in mind, the texts were approached with the aim of filtering out the essential information and categorising it. As will be described below, the process of coding in qualitative content analysis was rather time-intensive because the policy documents, course descriptions and interview transcripts were recoded several times.

This recoding is necessary to replace and supplement “descriptive and low-inference codes” by “higher-order pattern-codes” (Dörnyei 2009: 251). In contrast to quantitative analysis, qualitative data analysis is “an iterative process” (Dörnyei 2009: 243), a fact which is especially noticeable in the coding process.

While in the past content analysis was associated with paper-and-pencil techniques, nowadays the use of qualitative data analysis (QDA) software is very popular as it promotes a more systematic and efficient analysis of the data (Kuckartz 2010: 13). For the present study the QDA software *Atlas.ti*²⁵ was used to code and interpret the data. The three data sets with their corresponding text documents (called ‘primary documents’ in *Atlas.ti*) were then assigned to a ‘hermeneutic unit’. Therefore, the three hermeneutic units represent separate projects with different sets of codes for analysing the policy documents, course descriptions and interview transcripts. The process of qualitative content analysis involves several stages and steps which are, as illustrated in Table 6, slightly different for each of the data sets.

Steps	Process	Applied to which data set
(0)	Transcription of audio material	Expert interviews
1	Pre-coding: Close reading of the text to be analysed based on respective research questions	Policy analysis
2	Deductive codes: develop categorisation and coding scheme based on literature	
3	Code instances of themes and define codes by using memos	
4	Inductive codes: emerging from the data; added during the coding process	Course description analysis
5	Second-level coding: review of coding scheme; codes are expanded, split or merged	Expert interviews
(6)	Quantifying the qualitative data by analysing the frequencies of codes	Course description analysis

Table 6 Steps in qualitative content analysis

Table 6 shows that Step 0 only concerns recorded data and was thus carried out for the interview data alone. As has been described in Chapter 5.2, the recorded audio

²⁵ <http://www.atlasti.com/index.html>

data of the interviews needs to be transcribed before it can be entered into *Atlas.ti*. Once all the data is textualised, it enters the pre-coding phase (Step 1). This stage is crucial as it represents “an indispensable preparatory move” which involves “reading and reading” the data and sets the stage for coding (Dörnyei 2009: 250). During this “pre-coding deliberation” (Dörnyei 2009: 250) it is important to revisit the research questions in order to ensure that the focus remains on them during the long and complex coding process (Cohen et al. 2009: 476). Moreover, before the start of the coding process, a close reading of the documents is necessary in order to get an overall feel for the texts and understand the genres and corresponding structures. For the present study, this meant that reviewing the interview transcripts was primarily done with the aim of removing typing errors and smoothing out unnecessary disruptions in the text which would make coding more difficult, e.g. false starts by the interviewees. Since the researcher has already spent considerable time listening to the audio material during the transcription process, the content of the interviews was not new. However, for the analysed policy documents and the course descriptions, this pre-coding phase was particularly important for later category and code development.

The pre-coding stage is followed by the compilation of a categorisation and coding scheme (Step 2), which is derived from the literature²⁶ and relevant previous research findings (Kuckartz 2010: 199–200). Cohen et al. refer to this process as “pre-ordinate categorisation” (2009: 475) in which deductive codes are created. In Step 3, the text is read again and the deductive codes are assigned to relevant text passages. In other words, extracts containing interesting information are labelled using the previously determined (i.e. deductive) codes. Moreover, by using the memo function of *Atlas.ti* each code can be defined and described and a ‘coding manual’ established (Kuckartz 2010: 91). During the coding process in Step 4, inductive codes also emerge from the data and are added to the deductive ones based on the literature. The process in Step 4 can thus be referred to as a combination of “theoretic” and “thematic coding” (Flick

²⁶ As will be discussed in detail in the introduction to Chapter 7, the coding of policy documents is largely based on Knight’s analytical framework she used in her analysis of international dimensions in HE (2008: 31–36).

2009: 330) as it combines codes derived from theory as well as previous empirical research.

In Step 5, the coding process has reached the crucial stage of “second-level coding” which allows the analysis “to go beyond descriptive labelling of the relevant data segments” and thereby “capture [...] more abstract commonalities” (Dörnyei 2009: 252). This makes the coding procedure a very dynamic process in which the codes and corresponding sub-codes are constantly expanded, merged and split (Kuckartz 2010: 90–91). For all four data sets of the present study this step entailed double-checking all extracts assigned to a particular code in order to see whether they all match the definition of the code group. During this stage it is usually necessary to merge codes or to split a code group and create further sub-codes (Dörnyei 2009: 252–253). The process of revisiting the data several times creates more “salient content categories” which are “linked to various data segments” that can be aggregated through further coding (Dörnyei 2009: 251). As shown in Table 6, the second-level coding in Stage 5 represents the last phase for the ‘Policy analysis’ and ‘Expert interviews’ data sets of the present study. In fact, this represents the typical end for most qualitative content analysis studies as it would leave the researcher with reduced and systematically categorised data which can then be interpreted further.

For the ‘Course description analysis’ data set, however, Step 6 was added to the qualitative content analysis process. Even though content analysis is usually employed in qualitative research, “it actually originates from a quantitative analytical method of examining written texts that involves the counting of instances of words, phrases, or grammatical structures that fall into specific categories” (Dörnyei 2009: 245). Step 6 therefore returns to content analysis’ roots by counting the instances of each code to obtain a statistical overview of aspects such as language learning aims. The course descriptions analysis thus combines qualitative and quantitative processes in content analysis and can thus be considered a prime example of mixed methods research.

As explained in Chapter 5.2, 93 individual courses in four degree programmes were analysed. In order to obtain sound results, the coding process for the course description analysis needed to be as accurate as possible, which made it necessary to

check and recode the data several times (cf. Step 5). A typical course description includes a description of the course’s contents, teaching formats and didactic methods, as well as learning objectives and assessment criteria. As can be seen in Appendix 9, a total of 21 codes were used to identify the following aspects in the course descriptions:

- *Language learning objectives* (codes 1.1. – 1.7.)
- *Language skills as assessment criteria* (codes 2.1. – 2.5.)
- *Teaching formats and methods* (codes 3.1. – 3.9.)

Since the aim was to show the frequencies of the codes and thereby allow “quantitizing”²⁷ of the qualitative data (Dörnyei 2009: 269), a rigorously systematic coding approach was necessary. Among other things this meant that even if more than one instance of a particular code could be identified in a course description, the code was only used once. It was therefore possible to identify the exact number of courses in which a particular code occurs. This “data transformation”, which converts “the qualitative data into numerical codes” (Dörnyei 2009: 269–270), can be best explained by using an extract from Appendix 9.

Codes used in <i>Atlas.ti</i>	International Management / CEMS ID 22	Quantitative Finance ID 19	Strategy, Innovation, and Management Control ID 20	Supply Chain Management ID 21	Totals:
1. Language learning objectives					
1.1. Aim: Improving presentation skills	9	4	10	4	27

Table 7 Extract of Appendix 9 to illustrate the coding procedure used in the course description analysis

Table 7 shows the first type of the language learning objectives that were identified in the course descriptions, i.e. the aim of improving students’ presentation skills. Whenever this aim was textualised in the course descriptions, the segment would be labelled with the code ‘1.1. Aim: Improving presentation skills’. The table shows that,

²⁷ Note that Allwright and Bailey (1991: 65–68) use “quantify” while Dörnyei (2009: 269–271) refers to “quantitizing” data.

for instance, a statement such as *'After completion of this course, students will have improved presentation skills'* can be found in the descriptions of nine courses from the 'International Management CEMS' programme (ID 22). Moreover, this category is most frequent (n=10) in the courses of the programme *'Strategy, Innovation, and Management Control'* (ID 20). This brief glimpse at the results of the course description analysis shows that the quantizing of qualitative data makes it possible to interpret the results using absolute and relative frequencies. For the example shown in Table 7, this means that across the four English-medium master's programmes investigated at WU and the 93 courses analysed, a total of 27 courses aim to improve students' presentation skills. It can therefore be said that 29% of the English-taught courses include an explicit aim to improve students' presentation skills in their course descriptions. While the relative frequencies show the importance given to one skill over another, the absolute frequencies indicate the general presence or absence of a particular skill. This is of particular interest when comparing the results of the present study with previous research (cf. Chapter 8).

The description of the content analysis procedures has shown that coding already represents the first stage of interpreting the data (Dörnyei 2009: 257), which makes several rounds of recoding and reviewing necessary. Moreover, selecting representative examples of policy extracts, interview quotes and course descriptions excerpts to illustrate and support arguments in the discussion of findings, is a time-consuming and complex process in itself. Indeed, choosing data segments to support the discussion of findings "is a delicate balancing act between trying to say something of overarching significance while at the same time preserving the intricacy of situated multiple meanings" (Dörnyei 2009: 257). Moreover, quotations taken from interviews conducted in German (cf. Appendix 1) and extracts used from policy documents published in German (cf. Appendix 2) were translated by the author.²⁸ Even though the quotations and extracts used were carefully translated and particular attention was

²⁸ Note that the course descriptions of English-taught programmes are all published in English. Extracts used to illustrate arguments in the discussion of findings thus did not need to be translated.

paid to word choice, a translation inevitably involves an interpretation. In the following part of this thesis, the combined findings of the four data sets are presented and will be illustrated with interview quotations, policy extracts and course description excerpts which have emerged from the qualitative content analysis.

PART III Results and discussion

This part of the thesis provides a detailed analysis and interpretation of the results gained from the *Status quo survey* (Chapter 6), the *Policy analysis* (Chapter 7) and the *Course description analysis* (Chapter 8). As described in Chapter 5.2, the results generated from these three data sets are complemented with data derived from interviews with programme managers, instructors and course designers (cf. Appendix 1). Given the mixed-methods approach taken in this study (cf. Chapter 5) and the multi-layered nature of the research questions (cf. Chapter 5.3), it has been decided that the most appropriate way to present findings is to combine the presentation of results with the analysis, interpretation and discussion of findings in the respective chapters. Furthermore, the findings of the present study are compared to those of previous research to reveal general similarities and striking differences and thereby contribute to the growing body of applied linguistics research on English-medium instruction in higher education.

On a textual organisational note, it needs to be pointed out that whenever interview quotations, policy extracts and course description excerpts are used to illustrate points and support arguments in the discussion of findings, they are presented in groups. This means that in the following chapters, quotations or extracts are grouped so that the reader can obtain a first impression of an important point before it is discussed in greater detail afterwards. The discussion of the data then refers back to the respective quotations or extracts which have been numbered and are formatted in such a way that they are clearly distinguishable from the main body of the text. Moreover, all extracts taken from policy documents and course descriptions are presented in their original formatting, i.e. including bullet points, bold print and italics. As already pointed out above, quotations taken from interviews conducted in German (cf. Appendix 1) and extracts used from policy documents published in German (cf. Appendix 2) were translated into English. On the other hand, extracts taken from the course descriptions are all in the original English wording and thus might include spelling or typing errors or incorrect syntax.

6 The status quo of English-medium programmes at Austrian business faculties²⁹

As described above, the point of departure for the present study was to determine the spread of EMPs across Austrian business faculties and thereby follow the work of Maiworm and Wächter they produced in the ACA surveys (2002; 2008). The discussion and interpretation of results includes a comparison with the ACA survey findings as well as with other related studies. This allows providing detailed answers to the first set of research questions concerning the national level presented in Table 5 (cf. Chapter 5.3). Chapter 6.1 will start off by documenting the entire offering of EMPs at Austrian business faculties in the academic year of 2013/13 and showing how implementation years correlate with significant policies. This is followed by a detailed discussion of distribution patterns that can be identified in terms of institutions, degrees and types of programmes³⁰ (Chapter 6.2). Moreover, the extensive data on language-related entry requirements is presented in Chapter 6.3 and provides revealing insights into admission policies and the language proficiency required of students in EMPs.

6.1 The total number of EMPs implemented and the correlation of implementation years with significant policy-related events

In the academic year of 2001/02, the ACA survey on the spread of English-medium programmes across Europe placed Austria at the bottom end, since only 6 EMPs were reported by the 47 participating Austrian institutions (Maiworm & Wächter 2002: 26–28). It is important to bear in mind that this small number of EMPs is actually composed of programmes of all disciplines and that all types of tertiary institutions which are official members of the ERASMUS / SOCRATES programme were included in

²⁹ Some of the findings presented in this chapter have already been published in a previous publication (cf. Unterberger 2012). However, the findings discussed in this thesis derive from an updated status quo survey and thus differ in certain aspects.

³⁰ 'Types of programmes' refers to joint and double degree programmes, English tracks and programmes which draw on third-party funding.

the ACA survey (Maiworm & Wächter 2002: 19–20).³¹ The follow-up study in the academic year of 2006/07 identified 23 programmes at 36 participating Austrian institutions of higher education. The ACA surveys also determined the total number of all programmes offered in each country in order to identify the share of EMPs. In 2001/02, the proportion of EMPs ranges between 0.8% and 1% and in 2006/07, between 1.8% and 2.5% (Maiworm & Wächter 2002: 28, 2008: 23–27)³². Given that the total number of EMPs increased sixfold between 2002 and 2007, English-taught degree programmes were certainly gaining ground in the first decade of the 2000s. The discussion of current quantitative data on EMPs at Austrian business faculties in the remainder of this chapter shows that the growth trend emerging from the ACA survey results can be reconfirmed by the present study's findings.

The status quo survey disclosed that 29 English-taught economics and business degree programmes were implemented at Austrian state universities in the academic year of 2012/13.³³ This is a remarkable number given the result of the 2007 ACA survey discussed above, which identified only 23 EMPs at all types of higher education institutions and across all disciplines. In order to provide another basis of comparison it was necessary to calculate the proportion of EMPs to the total number of programmes offered in economics and business studies at Austrian state universities. A database search determined 95 programmes which meet these criteria.³⁴ Measured against the overall number of programmes, English is hence the language of instruction for over

³¹ In contrast to the ACA surveys, the present study exclusively focuses on the discipline of economics and business and does not consider higher education institutions other than Austrian state universities (cf. Chapter 5.1 for a detailed sample description).

³² Note the following methodological parameter of the ACA surveys. For institutions which did not respond to the surveys, the total number of programmes was estimated on the basis of other data available, e.g. student numbers. In 2001/02, 597 programmes were reported and 800 estimated, while in 2006/07, 916 were reported and 1300 estimated at Austrian institutions. The percent range given above was thus calculated on the basis of reported and estimated programme numbers (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 27).

³³ See Appendix 3 for an overview of the EMPs identified.

³⁴ While the total number of EMPs has been thoroughly checked and can be regarded as exact, the number of all business and economics study programmes was derived from a database offered by the Austrian ministry of education (Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung – bmwf; accessed 11 February, 2013) and thus has to be considered an approximate value. The database search was conducted on 11 February 2013.

30% of programmes currently implemented at Austrian business faculties. This finding reflects an ongoing trend across Europe, as the ACA surveys ranked the subject area of economics and business first in 2002 and second in 2007. In Austria, this emphasis appears to be particularly strong, as the ACA survey results on discipline patterns at Austrian institutions clearly show that the field of business studies claims the biggest share (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 45–48).

Next to the emphasis on the discipline of economics and business and the considerable volume of EMPs at Austrian universities, the years of introduction of these programmes are also of interest. The discussion of the ACA survey's key findings in the opening of this chapter has already brought to light that EMPs can be considered a rather young phenomenon in Europe's higher education market. For instance, the second ACA survey found that the majority (i.e. 51%) of EMPs were implemented between 2004 and 2007 (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 51–52). The statistics on implementation years of the EMPs identified in the present study show that the peak at Austrian business faculties was reached a few years later.³⁵ As can be seen in Figure 2 below, 49% of all English-taught degree programmes at Austrian business faculties were introduced in the academic years of 2009/10 and 2010/11. One could argue that this boom bears a causal relation to the official launch of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) in 2010 (European Ministers of Higher Education 2010).³⁶ The EHEA, which was the key objective of the Bologna declaration of 1999 (European Ministers of Education 1999), is supposed to be an "unprecedented [example] of regional [and] cross-border cooperation in higher education" (European Ministers of Higher Education 2010). In this respect, the number of English-taught degree programmes implemented around the official launch of the EHEA can be considered a direct consequence of the EU's endeavour to make "European higher education more visible on the global map" (European Ministers of Higher Education 2010). This also corresponds with the fact that two-thirds of the EMPs in the category 'joint/double

³⁵ See Appendix 4 for an overview of the years of introduction of all English-medium programmes currently implemented at Austrian business faculties, including programme names, degrees and respective institutions.

³⁶ See Chapter 2 for a more detailed account of policies promoting internationalisation.

degrees' were implemented in the academic years of 2009/10 and 2010/11. As collaboration among European higher education institutions is actively encouraged and considered a vital part of the Bologna reforms (European Ministers of Higher Education 2005: 4–5), it is not particularly surprising that jointly developed programmes coincide with the establishment of the EHEA.³⁷ Indeed, since the 2001 Prague Communiqué, joint degrees have not only been high on the agenda of all signatory countries, but are considered as a key step towards reaching the objective of a common higher education area (Tauch & Rauhvargers 2002: 27; European Ministers of Higher Education 2001).

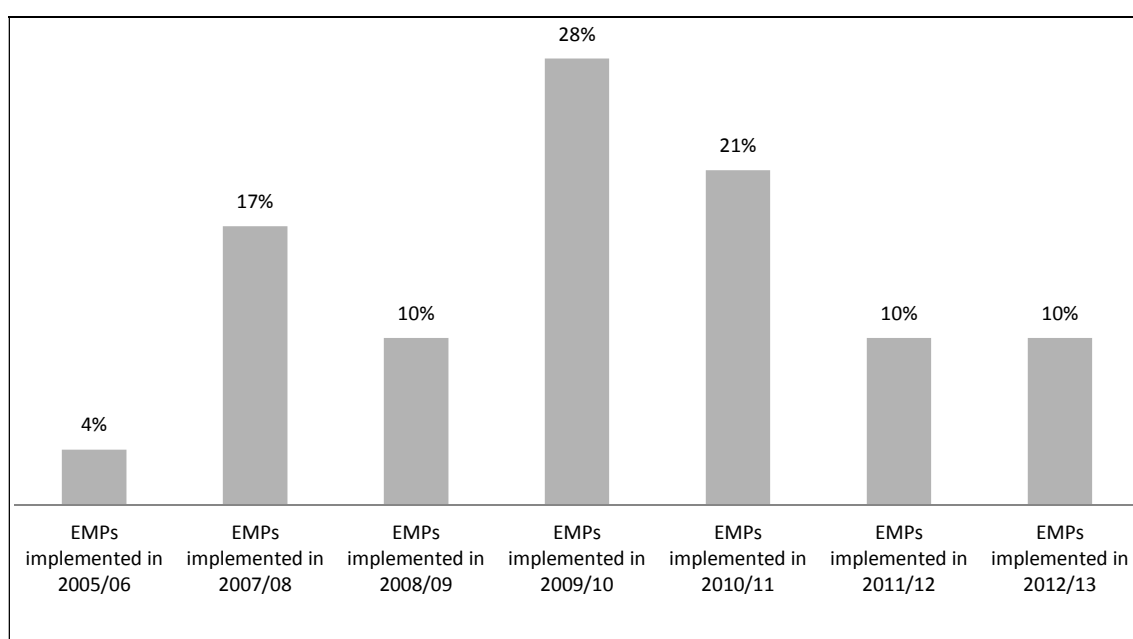


Figure 2 Years of introduction of EMPs implemented at Austrian business faculties (rounded figures)

When examining the three peak years in detail, the following features can be observed. For the academic year of 2009/10, in which most EMPs (i.e. 28%) were implemented, two figures are striking. On the one hand, the majority of them are PhD programmes and, on the other, half of the EMPs were implemented at the University of Vienna. These findings can be regarded a direct consequence of the introduction of completely new curricula for all doctoral / PhD programmes (including those taught in

³⁷ See Chapter 6.2.3 for a detailed discussion of EMPs identified as joint or double degree programmes in the present study.

German) in the academic year of 2009/10 at the University of Vienna. In an effort to meet international standards and contribute to the harmonisation within the EHEA, the doctoral programmes were completely restructured (Universität Wien 2012). In addition to the structural change at the University of Vienna, the figures for the academic year of 2009/10 are striking for another reason, namely that universities frequently introduce sets of EMPs at the same time. This strategy can also be identified in the statistics for 2007/08, when the University of Innsbruck introduced 3 EMPs at once and also in the current academic year of 2012/13 in which WU has implemented 3 master's programmes. This tendency to launch sets of English-taught degree programmes in one go might be explained by administrative and organisational reasons. For instance, universities might match the marketing activities for the new programmes and the parallel launch of new EMPs could also have advantages in admission processes. Moreover, if structural changes are necessary, they can be enforced for all programmes at once.

As the analysis of distribution patterns across institutions will show (cf. Chapter 6.2.2), WU is guarding its status as Europe's largest business university (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2010a) and Austria's only state university focusing exclusively on economics and business studies. The statistics regarding implementation years also confirm this status as both the longest-running EMP (introduced in 2005/06) and the newest EMPs (introduced in 2012/13) can be found at WU.

Summing up, the analysis of programme numbers and the statistics on implementation years of EMPs at Austrian business faculties reconfirmed the growth trend identified in the ACA surveys. In 2007, the ACA survey identified 23 English-taught degree programmes *across* all disciplines and at all types of institutions. The present study therefore points to a remarkable increase since the status quo survey identified 29 EMPs in business studies at Austrian state universities. In fact, the results show that in the academic year of 2012/13, 30% of all programmes in economics and business studies at Austrian state universities are taught through English. These results also highlight the trend towards English-medium education in the field of economics and business. At the same time, the statistics on implementation years show that English-

taught degree programmes at Austrian business faculties can still be considered a rather young phenomenon, since 49% of EMPs were implemented between 2009 and 2011. The peak year of 2009/10 coincided with the official launch of the European Higher Education Area which, in order to encourage student mobility and competition among institutions, spurred the introduction of EMPs (Maiworm & Wächter 2003: 12).

6.2 Distribution patterns of EMPs: degrees, institutions and programme types

6.2.1 The distribution of EMPs across the three-cycle degree structure

When analysing the distribution patterns for the degree levels, the present study shows that EMPs at Austrian business faculties are only to be found in the second and third cycles of the degree structure, i.e. at master's and PhD levels. As Figure 3 below shows, 18 master's and 11 doctoral/PhD programmes in business and economics studies have been implemented in the academic year of 2012/13 at Austrian universities. The fact that the majority of EMPs (i.e. 62%) are master's programmes was to be expected as it is in line with previous research findings. The ACA surveys, for example, highlighted an increase in second-cycle programmes from 68% in 2002 to 79% in 2007 (Maiworm & Wächter 2002: 57, 2008: 48). Moreover, in Belgium, France, Germany, Sweden and Switzerland, the share of master's programmes taught in English even exceeds 90% (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 48).

While the trend towards English-medium master's programmes is further emphasised by the present study, the basic knowledge of the discipline transmitted in undergraduate studies is still predominantly acquired in German. In addition to certain legal restrictions which will be discussed below, a bachelor's degree in the L1 might also have its advantages on the job market. In other words, should graduates decide to enter the world of work with a bachelor's degree in Austria, they might be required to communicate their knowledge in German. This in turn would mean that the high degree of specialisation at the master's level often goes hand in hand with an international focus in the programmes and, consequently, with the use of English as the medium of instruction.

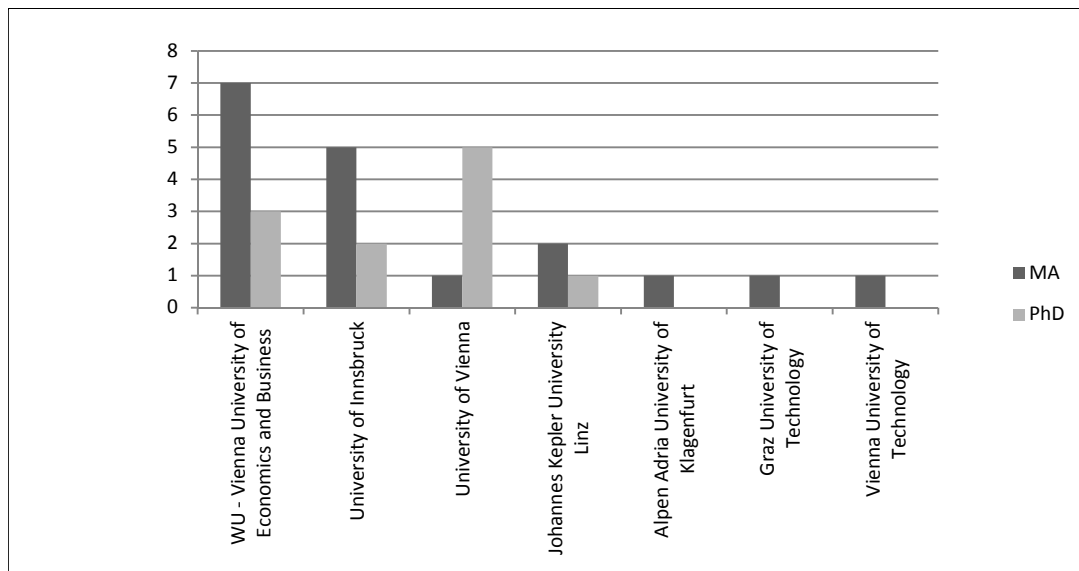


Figure 3 Overall distribution of EMPs at Austrian business faculties in the academic year of 2012/13

As can be seen in Figure 3 above, there are no English-taught bachelor's programmes implemented at Austrian state universities in the academic year of 2012/13. This finding is consistent with both ACA surveys which also concluded that English-taught bachelor's programmes are rather rare, regardless of the discipline of study or type of institution, and that EMPs in Europe are "very predominantly offered in the second cycle" (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 48). The fact that the present study did not identify any English-medium programmes in the first cycle of the degree structure is primarily due to Austrian legislation. As discussed in Chapter 5, the data collection of this survey was restricted to Austrian state universities and thus did not include other institutions of tertiary education such as universities of applied sciences (i.e. *Fachhochschulen*). The 20 percent share of English-taught bachelor's programmes in Austria which were identified in the 2007 ACA survey (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 48) is therefore most definitely to be found at institutions other than state universities. Unlike universities of applied sciences, which have to comply with different legislation, Austrian state universities were not permitted to impose entrance restrictions upon applicants at the BA level until very recently.

At the time of writing admission policies for the discipline of business and economics studies are undergoing a significant change. The Austrian ministry of science and research has decided that entry exams are henceforth legit for overcrowded degree programmes (Austrian Federal Ministry of Science and Research 2013). This

particularly affects WU, which is now allowed to impose entrance restrictions upon bachelor's programmes if the number of applicants exceeds 3674 in a particular year. From the academic year of 2013/14 onwards, there will be an entry exam if there are more applicants than can be admitted. In addition to testing the applicants' basic knowledge in mathematics and economics, language proficiency, in particular academic reading in German and English, are also going to be part of the entry exam (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2013c, 2013d).

Until April 2013, the only prerequisite for most disciplines, including business and economics studies, was a higher education entrance qualification (Eurydice 2010a: 61). However, previous research suggests that English language entry requirements are inevitable for EMPs (e.g. Hellekjaer 2009; Platzer 2010; Soltau 2008; Wilkinson 2008a). This is also confirmed by the findings of the present study regarding the necessary communication skills in English-medium settings (cf. Chapter 8.2). Moreover, the discussion of the required language proficiency stated in the admission criteria for English-taught master's and PhD programmes (cf. Chapter 6.3) will show that for more than 55% of the EMPs currently offered at Austrian business faculties, all applicants need to provide some sort of certification to prove that their English proficiency is at a C1 level in accordance with the CEFR. It can therefore be argued that the previous legal framework might have prevented state universities from introducing English-taught bachelor's programmes as it did not allow for the necessary language-related entrance requirements.

Given the recent change in legislation, it will be interesting to see whether and how soon the English-medium trend at WU will also affect the bachelor's level. In fact, the interviews revealed that if it were legal to impose entrance requirements for first-cycle study courses, the university would be very likely to introduce English-taught bachelor's programmes. In fact, all programme managers agreed that first-cycle programmes will definitely be affected by the English-medium trend in the near future and some indicated that this might even be a necessity. As the quotes below show, there are indeed numerous arguments in favour of the introduction of English-taught bachelor's programmes from the programme managers' perspective.

From my point of view, [English-taught bachelor's programmes] should be implemented. Obviously, there are a number of barriers at the moment. I am involved in the WU 2020 process in which, amongst other things, the introduction of an English track of a bachelor's programme is being discussed. Currently, the main argument against it is that we fear becoming even more overcrowded. At the point where we are able to impose regulations upon the massive influx of students on the bachelor's level, we have to introduce an English track to the bachelor's programme right away. Because this would distinguish [WU] further and we could attract non-German-speaking students from abroad, already at the bachelor's level. From my point of view, the diversity of students is a crucial factor that contributes to the quality of education.

Quote 1 Interview_04 [my translation]

The question is who is the target group and where will they have their careers? If we educate people who want to find a job [in Austria] and do not strive to work in an international corporation or abroad, it might be enough to offer bachelor's programmes taught in German.

Quote 2 Interview_03 [my translation]

[Programme managers' assistant]: I believe [introducing English-taught bachelor's programmes] will be the final step towards the label 'international university'. [Programme manager]: Of course, this is closely connected to upcoming university reforms which might be brought about in future. [...] [Programme managers' assistant]: At the moment, mobility, in terms of going abroad after completing a bachelor's programme, is not as straightforward as one would have hoped after the Bologna reforms. If mobility is unrestrictedly possible, sooner or later there will be the need for an English-taught bachelor's programme to enable bachelor graduates to go and study abroad and comply with standards regarding the language of instruction on the master's level.

Quote 3 Interview_02 [my translation]

[Programme manager 1]: From our point of view, [introducing English-taught bachelor's programmes] is inevitable. [Programme manager 2]: It is a question of admission policies. [...] If you offer it in English and it is open to everyone [that would be problematic]. Currently, we are deterring non-German-speaking students from enrolling in the bachelor's programmes. If we offered it in English without entry restrictions, even more students would enrol and the university would have to accept them all. [...] [Programme manager 1]: From my point of view, a bilingual programme will have to be introduced soon. In that way, you deter those students from enrolling who do not speak German by simply making it bilingual. [...] What we are currently doing with bachelor's programmes in German and master's programmes in English cannot be a clever long-term solution. There has to be a gradual transition. For example, three-quarters of the first year could be taught in German and as the students move

to their areas of specialisation, the classes of English would gradually be increased.

Quote 4 Interview_01 [my translation]

From the programme managers' perspective, it can thus be argued that the introduction of English-taught bachelor's programmes would have numerous advantages. For instance, EMPs at the bachelor's level could boost the university's international reputation and attract highly qualified students from abroad (cf. Quote 1 and Quote 3). If the university wants to be a global player on the higher education market and compete with other renowned business schools, attracting a culturally and linguistically diverse student body by offering English-taught programmes at all degree levels might be decisive (cf. Quote 1). At the same time, the introduction of EMPs at the bachelor's level would not only attract excellent students from abroad but also benefit domestic students. For example, if the university strives to produce graduates who will embark on international careers, the implementation of English-taught bachelor's programmes appears to be inevitable (cf. Quote 2). Moreover, a bachelor's degree obtained in an English-medium programme is of course not only beneficial in the world of work. As one programme manager in Quote 4 indicates, the current situation of bachelor's degrees being exclusively taught in German may not prepare WU students for the demands of the highly specialised master's programmes. This observation was also made by Wilkinson (2008a: 179), who claims that EMPs at the bachelor's level can also enhance the quality of English-taught master's programmes as the university can recruit the best BA students directly into the MA programme. Moreover, domestic students who wish to apply for a master's programme abroad would be markedly better equipped for the challenges of studying through the medium of English if they had already done so at the undergraduate level (cf. Quote 3). Furthermore, the discussion of entry requirements in Chapter 6.3.2 shows that the chances of being admitted to an EMP are higher if the applicant has already completed an English-taught programme. In fact, over 34% of the programmes investigated in the present study drop all language-related admission requirements if the applicant has obtained their bachelor's degree in an EMP.

Given these numerous arguments in favour of EMPs at the bachelor's level, it is therefore not surprising that one interviewee revealed that steps towards introducing an English track in the bachelor's programme at WU have already been taken (cf. Quote 1). While all interviewees agreed that a change in legislation is necessary in order to allow institutions to impose entry restrictions at the bachelor's level, the proposal for the implementation of a bilingual programme in Quote 4 might be a way to circumvent this situation. The interviewee also suggested that a bilingual programme would have the advantage of deterring students who lack the necessary command of German from enrolling in the programme. In other contexts, the latter argument of attracting fewer students from abroad is usually considered a downside:

[A]n advantage of offering programmes partially in English is that some of the courses can simply be 'taken' from those of existing L1 programmes, thus reducing development costs. However, a disadvantage is that mixed language programmes may dissuade foreign students from enrolling on the partial EMI programme. (Wilkinson 2008a: 172)

However, in the case of WU this disadvantage in fact becomes an advantage. Since WU has become severely overcrowded in recent years, university officials were reluctant to implement English-taught bachelor's programmes which would attract even higher numbers of students (cf. Quote 1, Quote 3 and Quote 4). In this respect bilingual programmes might in fact be a way to address this situation. Based on the findings and considerations discussed in this section, the situation at Austrian state universities is therefore most likely to change towards a gradual implementation of English tracks or bilingual versions of existing bachelor's programmes.

While the major share of English-taught master's programmes and the non-existence of English-taught bachelor's programmes are results which have been anticipated, the high percentage of EMPs at the PhD level, i.e. 40%, is unexpected. It can be argued that the increasing use of English in PhD theses (Räisänen & Fortanet-Gómez 2008a: 7) has fostered this development. However, the main reason behind the relatively high percentage of English-taught third-cycle programmes is most likely connected to the institutions' own strategic internationalisation efforts. In other words, internationally renowned PhD programmes are crucial for inclusion in business school rankings (cf.

Chapter 6.2.2) and thus help universities attract distinguished staff and students. Indeed, the programme director of PhD programmes at WU highlighted the international foci of these degree courses, which are achieved by a mixed student body and a culturally diverse faculty. In this respect, if EMPs in the third cycle of the degree structure can be regarded as an effective strategy to enhance a university's international standing, it is clearly the University of Vienna which is pursuing it most actively. As can be seen in Figure 3 above, the data for the spread of English-taught PhD programmes across the institutions shows that the University of Vienna offers nearly half of all the third-cycle EMPs identified. Apart from the institution's internationalisation and ranking efforts, the fact that it stands in direct, location-based competition to WU might be another reason for this emphasis on English-taught PhD programmes (cf. Chapter 6.2.2).

Although the current data on English-medium third-cycle programmes suggest a growth trend in this segment, there is no basis for international comparison because PhD programmes were excluded from the ACA surveys (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 9). However, the findings concerning English-taught PhD programmes in the Austrian context clearly demonstrate that the third-cycle of the degree structure is definitely affected by the English-medium trend and needs to be investigated further. For instance, the advanced level of PhD candidates might call for highly specialised language training courses, i.e. discipline-specific ESP as well as genre-related EAP classes (cf. Chapter 8.2).

In sum, the analysis of distribution patterns for the degree levels revealed that EMPs can be found exclusively at master's and PhD levels at Austrian business faculties. The non-existence of English-taught bachelor's programmes is primarily rooted in legislative restrictions but is also likely to be related to other factors such as graduates entering the local job market directly after finishing their bachelor's. Nevertheless, based on these findings and the interviewees' assessment of the current situation at Austrian business faculties, the gradual implementation of English tracks or bilingual versions of existing bachelor's programmes appears to be very likely. Moreover, the fact that nearly 40% of the EMPs are classified as PhD or doctoral programmes can be connected to the institutions' efforts to compete in the global higher education

market. Such strategic internationalisation efforts at PhD level are also reflected in the programmes' student and faculty mix as well as their internationally-oriented curricula.

6.2.2 The distribution of EMPs across institutions

As outlined in the sample description in Chapter 5.4, 9 state universities in Austria offer degree programmes in economics and business. Regarding the spread of EMPs across these institutions, the status quo survey is based on the hypothesis that the larger the university, i.e. the more students enrolled, the higher the number of English-medium degree programmes. Indeed, the ACA survey showed a clear correlation between EMPs and the size of an institution as it identified student numbers as "one of the strongest determinants for the existence of English-taught programmes" (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 36). More specifically, if more than 10,000 students are enrolled, the statistical probability that the institution offers EMPs is as high as 62% (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 36).

In Austria, however, this could only be partly confirmed in the present study. The status quo survey found that 2 out of the 9 universities (viz. the University of Graz and the University of Salzburg) do not offer any English-taught economics or business programmes, while both institutions are listed among the top 7 of Austria's largest universities.³⁸ Although the University of Graz is Austria's second largest institution of tertiary education with a total of 29,142 students in the academic year of 2012/13 (Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung – bmwf 2013), no EMPs could be identified at its departments of economics and business. The reason for the lack of English-taught degree programmes in this field is undoubtedly that the main research focus of the institution is on the humanities and natural sciences (cf. University of Graz; accessed 17 March 2013). The situation is very similar at the University of Salzburg, the second of the two institutions without any EMPs in economics and business. Here this field also appears to have a somewhat subordinate role as the respective institutes are embedded in the Faculty of Law (University of Salzburg; accessed 18 March 2013).

³⁸ See Appendix 6 for an overview of student numbers at Austrian state universities.

Turning to the institutions providing EMPs, the analysis of distribution patterns identified three main providers of EMPs in business and economics studies. As Figure 4 below shows, the top 3, i.e. WU, the University of Innsbruck and the University of Vienna, together offer nearly 80% of the EMPs currently implemented at Austrian business faculties.

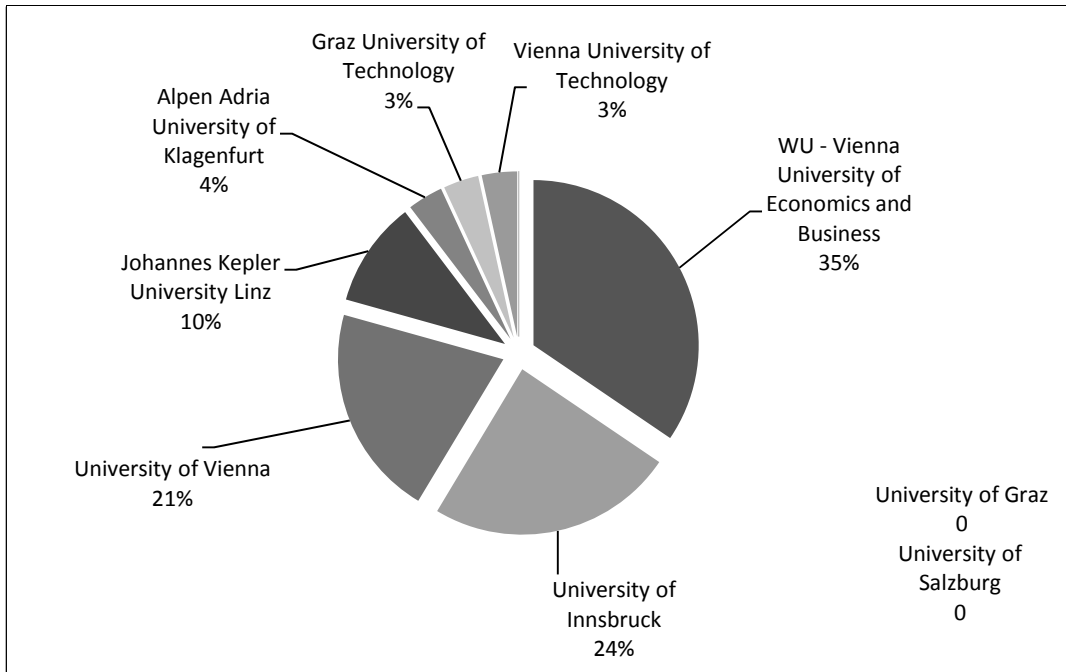


Figure 4 Distribution of EMPs across institutions (rounded figures)

With a total of 10 programmes, WU offers slightly more than a third of all EMPs implemented (34.5%), which matches its status as Europe's largest business university (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2010a). At the national level, WU is Austria's fifth largest university and also the only one focusing exclusively on economics and business studies. At the time of writing, official records state that in the academic year of 2012/13, 23,584 students are enrolled at WU (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2013a), which makes the institution's efforts to expand its range of EMPs reasonable. Given that essentially half of the programmes offered at WU are taught through English (i.e. 10 out of 21; cf. WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business; accessed 14 February, 2014), EMPs can be seen as an important part of the institution's long-term strategy. Indeed, English-taught degree programmes are considered part of WU's strategic aim to be ranked among the top 5

tertiary institutions for business and economics studies in the German-speaking world and the top 15 in Europe (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2012).³⁹

Similar to WU, the size of the institution as well as its international aspirations can be assumed to be decisive factors for University of Innsbruck's large share of EMPs. As the university is Austria's third largest institution of tertiary education (Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung – bmwf 2013), it is not surprising that 24% of the EMPs are implemented at the institution's business and economics departments. In contrast to WU, the University of Innsbruck is not exclusively confined to business and economics studies and yet the number of EMPs in this field of study is relatively high. While the total student number of 3060 at the two faculties for economics and business administration at University of Innsbruck (2012) represents just a fraction of those at WU, it is rather striking that nearly a quarter of all EMPs identified in the present survey are offered by University of Innsbruck. One might assume that the saturation level for the higher education market in economics and business studies in a country the size of Austria would be reached rather quickly and that institutions offering similar programmes would be competing for the same students. However, all programme directors at WU pointed out that it is mostly the programmes' high degree of specialisation which differentiates them and thus attracts different student target groups.

Another reason why these programmes can coexist alongside each other is of a geographic nature since the two universities cater for different regions in Austria. The University of Innsbruck in the West is not only the first choice of many students from the Western provinces but traditionally attracts considerable numbers of students from neighbouring countries such as Germany or Italy (Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung – bmwf 2013). In contrast, WU's location in East Austria draws in students from Vienna and its surrounding regions as well as from Central and Eastern Europe (CEE) countries, Turkey and the Balkans. It can therefore be argued

³⁹ See Chapter 7 for a detailed discussion of WU's policies and strategies for internationalisation and for an analysis of internationalisation elements in EMPs at WU.

that the geographical distance between the institutions enables University of Innsbruck to withstand the competition from the considerable larger WU.

Competition because of geographical proximity needs to be factored in when analysing the figures for the University of Vienna, which ranks third in the provision of EMPs in the present study. The faculty of economics and business at Austria's largest university⁴⁰ stands in direct competition to WU, Europe's largest university of economics and business, since both institutions are situated in the city of Vienna. Nevertheless, the University of Vienna offers nearly 21% of all the EMPs identified, which coexist alongside those of WU. In fact, in 2005 the two institutions moved from mere coexistence to active collaboration with the launch of the Vienna Graduate School of Finance (Kim 2005), which offers English-taught PhD programmes (cf. Chapter 6.2.1). It has already been discussed above that this focus on English-medium PhD programmes is actually distinctive for the University of Vienna (cf. Chapter 6.2.1). Indeed, nearly all of the institution's EMPs in economics and business studies (i.e. 5 out of 6) are third-cycle programmes. This emphasis on PhD programmes could be regarded as a strategic move in order to compete against the market leader WU which is situated in the same city. The competition in Vienna for English-taught master's programmes in this discipline might be intense, but by occupying the niche of English-taught PhD programmes in economics and business studies, University of Vienna establishes a reputation in spite of sharing the city with Europe's largest business university.

The analysis of distribution patterns across Austrian business faculties highlighted another feature of English-taught degree programmes, namely the connection between the implementation of EMPs and the institutions' efforts to enhance their international reputation. At WU, for instance, the number of EMPs and the institution's continuous endeavours to improve its international standing are reflected

⁴⁰ In the academic year of 2012/13, 92.486 students are enrolled at University of Vienna (Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung – bmwf 2013). See Appendix 6 for an overview of student numbers at Austrian state universities.

in its EQUIS⁴¹ accreditation. In fact, the university's accreditation has recently been renewed for the longest possible period of time (five years). As one of 140 universities worldwide and only 6 in German-speaking Europe, WU takes pride that its strong international orientation in particular has contributed to its inclusion in the EQUIS circle (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2013b). In order to be awarded the prestigious accreditation in management education, a high degree of internationalisation on curricular as well as organisational levels is crucial. In fact, EQUIS assesses the internationalisation of an institution by examining, among other things, "the number of courses taught in English" and "the ability of faculty to teach in English" (European Foundation for Management Development (EFMD) 2013: 63). Consequently, this means that the number of EMPs implemented plays a crucial role in the EFMD's decision to confer the EQUIS accreditation. This clearly shows that if universities want to be global players on the higher education market, the implementation of EMPs is inevitable and generally considered an inherent part of ongoing internationalisation processes, which foster competition and contribute to the overall marketisation of the scene (cf. Chapter 2).

Besides the accreditation of a university, the inclusion in international higher education rankings is also considered to be of great importance to establish a worldwide reputation. Similarly to receiving accreditations, the number of English-taught courses and programmes stands in direct relation to the inclusion in international university rankings such as the Times Higher Education World University Ranking⁴² or the Financial Times European Business School Ranking⁴³. Moreover, English-taught programmes ensure international comparability and help to raise the institution's public profile (Wilkinson 2010a). It can even be argued that this competitive aspect is the dominant driving force behind the implementation of EMPs at present (Wilkinson 2011). This is a development which can also be detected in the present study's findings as the three main providers of EMPs at Austrian business faculties, i.e. WU, the University of Innsbruck and the University of Vienna, all pride

⁴¹ <http://www.efmd.org/accreditation-main/equis>

⁴² <http://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk/world-university-rankings/>

⁴³ <http://rankings.ft.com/businessschoolrankings/european-business-school-rankings-2012>

themselves on their fairly high positions in various higher education rankings alongside prestigious business schools across the globe (cf. WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2011a; University of Innsbruck 2011; Universität Wien 2011). Therefore, competition among higher education institutions can be considered an important trigger for the use of English as the medium of instruction in general and the introduction of full English-medium programmes in particular.

All in all, the analysis of distribution patterns across institutions has shown that nearly 80% of all EMPs identified in the present study are implemented at just three universities. Contrary to expectations, the size of an institution is not necessarily a determining factor for the implementation of EMPs, especially if the university's main research focus is on disciplines other than economics and business studies. Although Austria is a rather small country, the demand for English-medium programmes in business and economics studies appears to be steady. In fact, universities offering EMPs in economics and business studies are not necessarily competing for the same student target groups. The considerable numbers of national and international students, the geographic location of the institutions and the programmes' specific foci allow for the programmes to coexist. Moreover, the example of University of Vienna shows that a focus on specific degree levels can also help withstand competition. The snapshot of the Austrian context has also highlighted the connection between EMPs and the university's efforts to enhance their international standing, since institutions are certainly facing competition at national and international levels. If they want to be global players by receiving prestigious accreditations and moving up in renowned rankings, the implementation of EMPs appears to be inevitable⁴⁴.

6.2.3 The different types of English-medium programmes

The international dimension described in the previous section also surfaces when identifying the different types of EMPs and becomes most apparent in the category of joint and double degree programmes. This strategic collaboration between universities

⁴⁴ See Chapter 7.2 for findings of the policy analysis which confirm these observations.

involves jointly developed curricula, allows for students to study at both institutions and encourages mobility among the teaching staff (Tauch & Rauhvargers 2002: 29). In double degree models, students receive two degrees upon graduation, one from each participating institution. In contrast to other forms of student mobility, joint and double degree programmes automatically recognise study periods abroad and examinations taken at the partner institutions (Tauch & Rauhvargers 2002: 29). Moreover, by pooling their resources, the collaborating institutions can increase their impact on the higher education market without making massive investments (Tauch & Rauhvargers 2002: 42). Alongside other underlying trends towards the internationalisation of higher education (cf. Chapter 2), these advantages contribute to the continuous growth of jointly developed programmes across the globe (Altbach & Knight 2007: 294–300). This tendency is particularly noticeable in the field of business and economics studies in which joint bilateral and multilateral cooperation are predominantly to be found (Tauch & Rauhvargers 2002: 31). While cross-border collaborations do not necessarily mean that the language of instruction is English, they are frequently to be found in combination with English-taught degree programmes (cf. Tauch & Rauhvargers 2002: 36; Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 54). Given that EMPs as well as joint degrees can be regarded as “key indicators of internationalisation” (Mettinger 2012), it is not particular surprising that these two strategies are frequently combined.

A trend for collaborative partnerships can also be noticed at Austrian business faculties, with joint and double degree programmes accounting for more than 20% of all EMPs identified in the present study. By comparison, the ACA survey identified 18% of European English-medium programmes as joint or double degrees (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 55) and a global survey conducted by the International Association of Universities (IAU) found that 41% of all European higher education institutions offer joint degree programmes (Egron-Polak & Hudson 2010: 121). In Austria, the majority (i.e. two thirds) of English-taught joint degrees exist at the master’s level, which can be considered typical of joint degree programmes in general (cf. Mettinger 2012; Tauch & Rauhvargers 2002: 32–34). At PhD level, Johannes Kepler University Linz (JKU) and University of Innsbruck collaborate on the joint programme ‘Economics’ (ID 5 / 11), represents the only joint PhD programme as well as the only joint partnership within

the Austrian borders. The results point towards a global orientation of joint degrees with networks which exceed the borders of the EHEA.

In terms of the number of collaborating institutions, the joint master's programme 'Global Business' (ID 4) offered at JKU also stands out as it represents a collaboration between universities across three continents: JKU in Austria, University of Victoria in Canada and National Sun Yatsen University in Taiwan. What makes this multilateral programme highly distinctive is its very mixed student body made up of equal shares of students from each collaborating university (JKU - Johannes Kepler University Linz 2012). Although collaborations between more than two institutions are certainly more complex to set up and are thus not as widespread as bilateral cooperation, "multilateral joint degree networks [...] appear to be growing in number" (Tauch & Rauhvargers 2002: 31). It can thus be argued that the trend towards global education networks and jointly developed curricula emphasises the intercultural dimension of the programmes and that the cross-cultural aspect is stronger in collaborative partnerships like these than in 'regular' EMPs. This added value of joint degrees is also considered to be beneficial for the students' future careers:

In [joint degree programmes] students are required to spend time in one (or more) foreign institutions, to live in a different country, thus enhancing their international experience and related intercultural skills, in addition to providing a valuable and perhaps more attractive or marketable qualification. (Eggen-Polak & Hudson 2010: 120)

Like multilateral collaborations between institutions, English-taught double degree programmes are relatively rare and account for less than 7% of all EMPs identified at Austrian business faculties. In absolute numbers, this translates into two double degree programmes, both of them implemented at WU. The two differ in one specific aspect of programme design, namely in the fact that one of them is an optional and the other an exclusive double degree programme. While 'SIMC / Strategy, Innovation, and Management Control'⁴⁵ (ID 20) offers students the option to study at WU and at

⁴⁵ <http://www.wu.ac.at/programs/en/master/simc>

one of the two partner institutions, 'International Management / CEMS'⁴⁶ (ID 22) is part of an international alliance between 26 partner institutions and student exchanges are an integral part of the curriculum. In the interviews, both programme directors linked the strategic collaborations to the overall success of the programmes and emphasised that these partnerships will therefore be actively pursued in future.

In addition to the lengthy negotiation processes that usually precede the implementation of double degree programmes, higher education legislation still makes it difficult for the contributing institutions to award degrees jointly (Tauch & Rauhvargers 2002: 42). In fact, a survey conducted in 2003 by the European University Association (EUA) found that in more than 50% of the Bologna countries joint and double degree programmes were restricted by national legislation (Reichert & Tauch 2003: 11). A follow-up study in 2005 showed that the situation was improving and, among others, Austria advanced to join those countries legally allowed to award joint degrees (Reichert & Tauch 2005: 15). These collaborations are thus a rather new phenomenon at Austrian universities, which appears to be one of the underlying reasons for their relatively low number. Nevertheless, the number of joint and double degree programmes is likely to increase in the near future as "continuing growth in institutional networks" can be witnessed across Europe (Knight 2008: 228).

In addition to joint/double degree programmes, another category of EMPs is noteworthy for its near absence in the present study, namely English tracks. An English track is embedded in an L1 programme. For each compulsory course of the curriculum, at least one English-taught class is offered and it is thus possible to complete the whole programme in English. Contrary to expectations, the results show that universities do *not* expand already existing English-medium modules in their L1 programmes and gradually build up English tracks. It is particularly striking that only one English track could be identified, that is to say, 28 out of 29 programmes are exclusively offered as stand-alone EMPs. Previous studies found that financial reasons are often behind the

⁴⁶ <http://www.wu.ac.at/cems>

universities' decisions to implement full English-medium programmes with completely new curricula rather than add an English track to already existing programmes:

[B]ilingual versions have proved costly, since instructional materials and teaching may have to be provided in both languages. At Maastricht, the Faculty of Economics and Business Administration decided on cost grounds to drop Dutch versions of its programmes and offer only programmes in English. (Wilkinson 2008a: 172)

The PhD programme 'Social and Economic Sciences' (ID 27) at WU offers an English track for students who do not have sufficient command of German. It has already been mentioned above that all other EMPs implemented at WU, are characterised by a rather high degree of specialisation. Consequently, the broad thematic focus of the 'Social and Economic Sciences' PhD programme could explain why it is the only English track identified. Based on the WU case it can therefore be argued that EMPs rarely have direct counterparts in already existing L1 programmes, but tend to be completely new programmes which occupy a specific niche of the discipline. English tracks, on the other hand, resemble an L1 programme in content and cater for domestic and international students.

Next to joint/double degrees and English tracks, the third broad category of EMPs identified comprises programmes which receive third-party funding. The present study shows that about 14% of EMPs currently draw on the Austrian Science Fund (FWF)⁴⁷. In this context it is striking that third-party funding of EMPs at Austrian business faculties is confined to third-cycle programmes and always involves joint initiatives between universities and other research institutions. For instance, the Vienna Graduate School of Finance⁴⁸, which hosts the 'Finance' and 'International Business Taxation' PhD programme (ID 26), represents the collaboration between the University of Vienna, WU and the Institute for Advanced Studies. Likewise, the Vienna Graduate School of Economics⁴⁹ is a joint initiative between the University of Vienna and the Institute for

⁴⁷ <http://www.fwf.ac.at>

⁴⁸ <http://www.vgsf.ac.at/vgsf/>

⁴⁹ <http://www.vgse.at/phd-program/>

Advanced Studies. Third-party funding seems to foster research collaborations, but in contrast to joint degree programmes discussed above, inter-institutional partnerships in this context are of a national rather than international character. These findings are in line with a survey commissioned by the Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD) on funding systems in Austrian higher education, which found that third-party funding encourages competition among universities and also makes them more open to collaboration with other institutions as well as with industrial partners (Strehl et al. 2007: 15). Although the "competitive allocation of state budget" is not yet as important as in other European countries, there is an increasing tendency towards "competitive funding" at Austrian universities (Strehl et al. 2007: 5). It remains to be seen whether the combination of English-medium programmes and the discipline of business studies might strengthen this development, especially in terms of collaborations with industry partners and the establishment of research networks.

To sum up, the classification of the EMPs into different types of programmes identified three distinct categories in addition to 'stand-alone' EMPs: joint and double degree programmes, English tracks and programmes which draw on third-party funding. The first category of joint and double degree programmes accounts for 21% of all EMPs identified in the present study and clearly highlights the international dimension of these programmes. The fact that one fifth of the EMPs are part of bilateral or multilateral joint degree networks shows that these two internationalisation strategies are frequently combined. The results for the second category of English tracks show that EMPs are unique programmes which very rarely mirror existing L1 programmes but rather cover narrowly specialised subjects (cf. Unterberger 2012: 90). The third type is represented by the 14% of EMPs which draw on third-party funding. In this context it is particularly striking that competitive funding in the present study is confined to PhD programmes and exclusively involves inter-institutional research collaborations at the national level. The analysis of the different types of English-medium programmes at Austrian business faculties has highlighted three key characteristics of EMPs, i.e. collaboration as well as competition at both national and

international levels and a very high degree of specialisation in the programmes' curricula.

6.3 English language entry requirements for EMPs

6.3.1 Overview and frequency of English language entry requirements

In 2002, the ACA survey found that 68% of English-taught degree programmes in Europe require an English test certificate from applicants. The follow-up survey in 2007 showed a considerable increase in English language entry requirements, with 86% of EMPs requesting such proof of English proficiency (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 50). Wächter and Maiworm interpret the 20% increase between 2002 and 2007 as an indicator for "a concern that the language skills of many applicants are not satisfactory" (2008: 50). While these results certainly point towards an increased awareness for the language skills needed in order to cope with the demands of English-medium instruction at the tertiary level, they also show that an increasing number of institutions consider the implementation of entry requirements as the most convenient way to address the language issue in EMPs.

The trend identified in the ACA surveys towards the careful selection of students can also be detected in the present study. When analysing the entry requirements of all EMPs offered at Austrian business and economics faculties in the academic year of 2012/13, the results show that Austrian universities have established various admission criteria in an effort to ensure that the English proficiency of students enrolling in the EMPs is at a certain level.⁵⁰ However, admission policies as well as the proficiency level considered necessary for EMPs vary considerably between the institutions. The fact that there is no uniform admission policy for EMPs at Austrian state universities somewhat contradicts the harmonisation efforts of the Bologna process, as the reforms were primarily aimed at creating transferability and uniformity (Confederation of EU Rectors' Conference and the Association of European Universities

⁵⁰ See Appendix 7 for a comprehensive overview of the entry requirements for EMPs at Austrian business faculties and the corresponding statistics.

(CRE) 2000: 4). Each of the 7 universities investigated has developed its own set of English language admission criteria and, though, these are not consistent across the programmes they offer.

The data from the present study show that Austrian state universities are indeed cautious when it comes to the English proficiency of students applying for English-taught business and economics programmes. In fact, in the academic year of 2012/13, 76% of the EMPs selected prospective students according to clearly specified language-related entry criteria. However, this high percentage of EMPs with English language admission requirements also includes programmes for which only particular student groups have to meet these admission criteria. While 62% of the EMPs require all applicants to provide proof of their English language proficiency, for about 14% of the programmes this is only mandatory for students from outside the European Economic Area (EAA). Since previous research has criticised the common practice that only non-EAA citizens are required to submit proficiency certificates (cf. Räisänen & Fortanet-Gómez 2008b: 43; Wilkinson 2008a: 174), the fact that the number of EMPs which discriminate against students from non-EAA countries is relatively low at Austrian business faculties, can be considered a development towards more uniformity and fairness. The common assumption that students from EU or EAA states can easily cope with the demands imposed by English-medium instruction at the tertiary level has been challenged by recent research findings, for example by a study on lecture comprehension at the University of Oslo (Hellekjaer 2010). Even though Norwegian students enjoy a reputation for having rather good English skills, the study found that both domestic as well as incoming exchange students were experiencing difficulties in English-medium lectures. In fact, contrary to the lecturers' expectations, the study identified "no meaningful difference between the two groups" (Hellekjaer 2010: 240). Both the domestic and the foreign students identified problems in areas such as understanding unfamiliar words and expressions, subject-specific terminology and the lecturers' pronunciation. Moreover, they also reported difficulties in note-taking and following the lecturers' line of thought. Although these problems occurred more frequently in English-medium contexts, both student groups also experienced them in their L1 lectures (Hellekjaer 2010: 241). The Norwegian lecturers' assumption that comprehension problems only exist among the group of exchange students is quite

similar to the opinions expressed in the present study's interviews with the programme managers of EMPs who also teach in the programmes:

The English of Austrian or German-speaking students is generally relatively good. There were some students who were not German native speakers but had spent some time in a German-speaking country before and thus had better German than English. This occasionally caused minor problems which cannot be ruled out by these test results [such as IELTS or TOEFL] in advance.

Quote 5 Interview_02 [my translation]

During the interviews with the shortlisted candidates we would quickly realise if a candidate does not have the necessary English proficiency. We had some cases in the past in which we decided that the applicants' command of English was simply not good enough. These were mostly students from Eastern European states and, interestingly enough, once a student from a university of applied sciences in Germany.

Quote 6 Interview_04 [my translation]

The quotes mirror the results of previous research, which also identified the common assumption among curriculum planners and programme managers that, in contrast to incoming foreign students, domestic students possess the necessary English skills to cope with the demands of English-medium instruction. Although there is definitely a lack of research evidence to support this claim, it is often assumed that secondary schooling in countries such as Austria, Germany or the Nordic countries produces high school graduates with a reasonably good command of English. However, even if all high school graduates in Austria had excellent English marks in their school-leaving exams, it remains questionable as to whether these equip them for English-taught degree programmes at the tertiary level.

As Quote 6 clearly shows, the interviewee was definitely surprised to encounter a student from Germany with poor English skills during a selection interview. It is rather striking that this prevailing opinion is often combined with a certain amount of scepticism towards testing instruments such as the IELTS and TOEFL certificates (cf. Quote 5). The interviews clearly showed that the programme managers generally do not regard these test certificates as absolutely necessary, but rather as a quality assurance tool implemented by the university management. Some pointed out that one could definitely expect some sort of self-selection among applicants, and that

students with insufficient English would not apply in the first place. Others emphasised that their programmes only aim to attract excellent students with extraordinary potential in the subject matter who then are very likely to have the matching excellent English proficiency as well. Finally, a third group doubted that TOEFL or IELTS scores could actually rule out comprehension and communication problems in advance.

The small number (i.e. 14%) of EMPs at Austrian business faculties which only require non-EAA citizens to provide proof of their English proficiency can be regarded a positive sign towards more uniform and fair admission policies. Since the main rationale behind the creation of the European Higher Education Area was to facilitate "greater comparability and compatibility between the diverse higher education systems and institutions across Europe" (Austrian Federal Ministry of Science and Research 2008: 3), entry criteria for EMPs should ideally be the same for both domestic and incoming students.

While the majority of universities have set up language-related entry requirements, no proof of English proficiency is required for slightly more than 24% of the EMPs. These programmes can be found at 5 different institutions and mostly concern the third level of the degree structure. The fact that more than half of the programmes without entry requirements are PhD programmes indicates that PhD candidates are expected to have a high level of proficiency in English. However, it is striking that 3 out of the 4 PhD programmes without language-related entry requirements added remarks regarding the applicants' English skills. For instance, it is pointed out that students are expected to have a "profound knowledge of English" or that "an advanced level of English" is necessary (cf. Appendix 7). On one PhD programme's website it is stated that applicants are supposed to have a B2 level in accordance to the CEFR although they do not have to provide proof of this. It is questionable whether a B2 level, which is the English level students are expected to have when they finish Austrian secondary education (Horak 2010: 20), is actually sufficient to meet the demands of English-medium instruction at PhD level. In particular because PhD students need to work with research literature and are also supposed to discuss their findings in conference papers and other academic publications.

All in all, the results point towards an increased awareness of the level of proficiency in English that students need in order to cope with the demands of English-medium instruction at the tertiary level. However, these findings also show that universities offering EMPs tend to pass on the task of acquiring a high degree of English proficiency and the corresponding subject-specific language skills to the students themselves. At the majority of institutions, that not only means that the full responsibility for developing the required English proficiency lies entirely with the students, but it is also expected that students have already acquired it *before* they actually start the English-medium programmes. This observation has also been made by Saarinen and Nikula who found that for EMPs in Finland “good proficiency in English is something students must possess in prior to their studies rather than develop along their studies”. The fact that students are expected to have a very good command of English when they enter the programmes and that very little time (if at all) is spent on the development of discipline-specific English skills in the EMPs is also reflected in the very small number of language classes identified in the present study’s analysis of EMP curricula (cf. Chapter 8.2). Nevertheless, a tendency towards more uniformity at the institutional as well as the national level can be identified in the present study’s data. For instance, only a small number of EMPs (i.e. 14%) distinguish between incoming students from abroad and domestic students when it comes to mandatory English proficiency test certificates.

6.3.2 Waiver rules and alternative proofs of English proficiency

Even though 67% of the EMPs clearly state that all applicants are required to provide proof of their English language proficiency, there are several exceptions to the rule. As can be seen in Appendix 7, the present study found that each university has developed its own complex system of waiver rules as part of their admission policies for EMPs. Figure 5 below shows that these waiver rules and alternative proofs of English proficiency can be broadly grouped into the following five different categories, which are listed according to their frequency. For EMPs employing the first category of waiver rules, native speakers of English do not have to submit proof of their language proficiency. In the second category, language-related requirements are waived if the applicant has completed an English-taught degree programme beforehand. For the

third type of waiver rules, applicants who have completed (business) English classes for a certain number of ECTS credits at the tertiary level do not have to provide proof of their English proficiency. The fourth category comprises EMPs which accept school-leaving certificates as proof of the applicants' English proficiency. In the final category, the requirements are waived if the applicant has studied or worked in an English-speaking country.

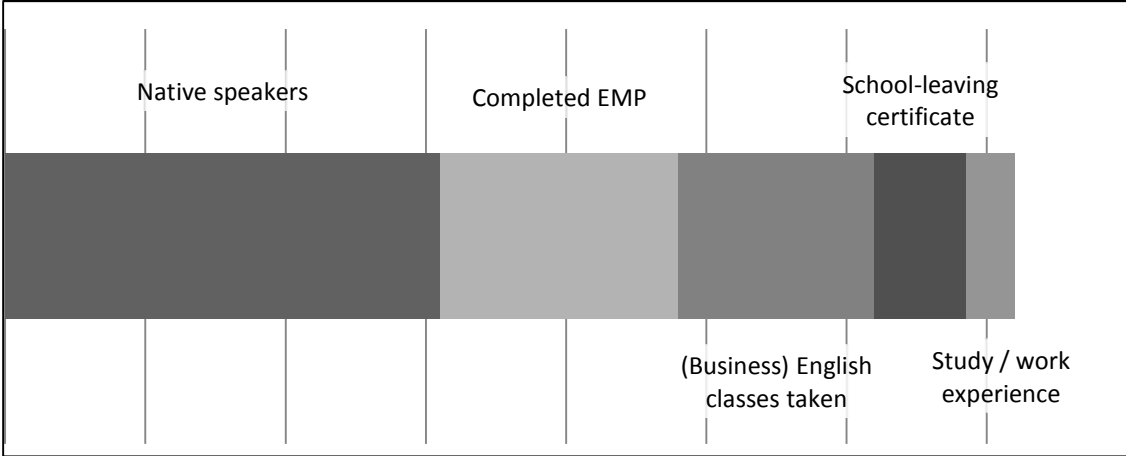


Figure 5 The different types of waiver rules (assignment to multiple categories possible)

The first category comprises 62% of the EMPs for which it is explicitly mentioned that native speakers of English do not have to provide proof of their English proficiency. It is reasonable to waive language-related entry requirements for this group of applicants and it thus can be assumed that the remaining 38% of the EMPs would follow suit, if, although apparently unexpectedly, native speakers applied. The interviews revealed that, from a marketing perspective, attracting native speakers of English represents an additional and valuable asset to an EMP. Indeed, the managers of EMPs in which native speakers of English are enrolled were quick to point out the share of this student group. For instance, the programme director of SIMC (ID 20) emphasised that 15 to 20 % of the students in this master's programme are native speakers of English. Attracting culturally diverse student groups is generally considered a sign of quality on the competitive international higher education market (Maiworm & Wächter 2003: 12–14) and the interviewed programme managers emphasised that attracting

excellent students from around the world is one of the main aims of their marketing⁵¹ efforts. In general, mixed student groups, regardless whether native speakers of English are involved, foster the use of English during in-class group work and also during extra-curricular socialising activities. If the groups were made up of Austrian and German students exclusively, the use of English as the medium of instruction might appear somewhat artificial and students would be tempted to switch to German during activities such as group discussions.

Even though this first category of waiver rules appears to be rather straightforward, one significant issue arises in this context, that is, the question of who is a native speaker of English. In her study on English-taught business and engineering programmes across Germany, Soltau found that most universities offering EMPs have lists of "native-speaker countries" on their websites for which the language-related entry requirements are waived (2008: 141). She concluded that the approach of most German institutions to the question is based on a rather non-reflective definition of 'English native speaker'. Using Kachru's terminology of "inner circle" and "outer circle" countries (Kachru 1997: 213–214), Soltau points out that if universities only recognise students from the inner circle countries as proper native speakers of English, this can have severe consequences for students from the outer circle. In other words, students from the United States, the United Kingdom, Ireland, Australia and New Zealand are officially recognised as native speakers, while students from socially deprived nations such India, Kenya or South Africa are forced to spend considerable sums of money on test certificates, even though they might have received most of their secondary education in English (2008: 142). Soltau also argues that applicants from the outer circle countries might be markedly better equipped for the lingua franca particularities of culturally diverse classrooms in EMPs than students who have studied in inner circle countries or who have not experienced English-medium instruction at all and can only prove their English proficiency in the form of an IELTS or TOEFL certificate (2008: 143).

⁵¹ For a more detailed account of the marketing strategies pursued by the programme managers of EMPs at WU cf. Unterberger (2012: 90–91).

Additionally, this also creates a hierarchy which goes beyond the classification of different varieties of English:

By categorising different varieties of English, students are also categorised by what appears to be language criteria but what, in reality, can also be interpreted as a hierarchisation of the students' origins, language varieties, and the higher education systems they come from. (Saarinen & Nikula 2013: 146)

The present study did not identify any lists of officially recognised native speaker countries in the Austrian-wide status quo survey on entry requirements of EMPs. It can thus be assumed that Austrian institutions, like their German counterparts, are also sticking to the obvious inner circle countries when it comes to waiving language-related entry requirements for applicants. Similar to what has been discussed above in the context of English language requirements for applicants from non-EU/EAA countries (cf. Chapter 6.3.1), this move is again counterproductive on the education policy level. As early as 1999, the much-cited Bologna declaration identified "a need to ensure that the European higher education system acquires a world-wide degree of attraction" (European Ministers of Education 1999: 2). Two years later, the Prague Communiqué of 2001 also emphasised the important strategic goal of "enhancing attractiveness of European higher education to students from Europe and other parts of the world" (European Ministers of Higher Education 2001: 3). This means that even though the main and most obvious effect of these reforms is to increase cooperation among European institutions within the EHEA, attracting students from around the globe in order to compete on the global higher education market has remained an important goal. In his essay on the interrelationship between the Bologna reforms and internationalisation processes in the EHEA, Wächter rightly observes that

the genesis of the original Bologna Declaration is closely linked to the realisation on the side of education ministers of the reality of a globalisation of higher education around the world, and thus to developments outside the EHEA. [...] [T]he actual motive behind the drive for increased intra-EHEA cooperation was to be able to better stand up to extra-European competition. [...] [T]he Sorbonne and Bologna Declarations were, in the main, sparked off by the globalisation of higher education and ***directed first and foremost at the non-European world***" (2008: 6 ; my emphasis).

Consequently, setting up a barrier for students from outer circle countries could be considered counterproductive given the European Union's efforts to promote European higher education and strengthen its position against global competition. This aim has been repeatedly emphasised by the European ministers of education and recently renewed in the Bucharest Communiqué, where it says: "Cooperation with other regions of the world and international openness are key factors to the development of the EHEA. We commit to further exploring the global understanding of the EHEA goals and principles" (European Ministers of Education 2012; original emphasis). It can thus be argued that entry criteria for EMPs should ideally be uniform when it comes to waiver rules for proficiency certificates and the recognition of native speakers of English. However, the discussion in Chapter 2 has shown that the Bologna Process in general and the EHEA in particular are primarily concerned with *Europeanisation*.

The second most common category of waiver rules comprises 34% of EMPs, for which language-related requirements are waived if an applicant has completed an English-taught degree programme beforehand. As this waiver rule is most frequently imposed for master's programmes, it can be assumed that it is primarily targeted at incoming students from abroad, since there are currently no English-taught bachelor's programmes at Austrian state universities in the field of business and economics (cf. Chapter 6.2.1). WU is the only institution which implemented a rule stipulating the minimum length of the previously completed English-medium programme. For all the 7 master's programmes offered at WU (ID 19-25), the minimum length of the previously completed English-taught bachelor's programme is 3 years. This can be regarded a quality assurance mechanism to ensure that the standard of the applicants' bachelor's degrees matches those offered at WU, a strategy which was also identified by Soltau (2008: 140) for the German setting. The fact that other universities do not specify the length or the minimum ECTS points before accepting previously completed English-taught bachelor's degrees can thus be considered another gap in the admission policies for EMPs.

Furthermore, it is noteworthy that for one English-taught master's programme (ID 1), implemented at Alpen Adria University (AAU) Klagenfurt, it is explicitly pointed out

that the university also accepts a bachelor's degree in English and American studies as proof for sufficient English proficiency. However, applicants with a bachelor's degree in a field of study other than business or economics, have to sit an entrance exam on the basics of the discipline.⁵² This signals that the switch to the three-cycle degree structure initiated by the Bologna reforms also meant that, in contrast to the previous system of long diploma studies, students can now combine different disciplines in their bachelor's and master's studies. Still, all interviewees emphasised that their English-taught master's programmes cover highly specialised niches within the discipline and thus require basic prior knowledge in the field of business and economics (cf. Unterberger 2012: 90). It might therefore only be sensible to encourage students with a bachelor's degree in the humanities to apply for a programme if it has a general business or economics focus rather than a narrow specialisation.

At the PhD level, less than half of the identified third-cycle programmes with language entry requirements drop these for applicants who have completed English-medium master's programmes. Since IELTS or TOEFL certificates are only valid for two years (Educational Testing Service – ETS; International English Language Testing System – IELTS; accessed 28 January 2013), it seems unreasonable to force students to retake the exam, especially when they have completed an English-taught master's programme. However, could be an oversight by the programme management which did not anticipate the possibility that applicants might already have completed an EMP.

Another interesting observation can be made for PhD programmes in the second category of waiver rules. For one PhD programme (ID 14), it is explicitly stated that the master's thesis of the EMP completed previously must be written in English. Although it can be assumed that it is very likely that most English-taught master's programme require their students to write their theses in English, the fact that it is explicitly pointed out indicates the programme managements' awareness of the necessary academic writing skills PhD candidates need to possess. PhD students in EMPs are not

⁵² This in fact represents the only entrance exam for all EMPs in business and economics studies implemented at Austrian state universities (see Chapter 6.3.3).

only required to produce a well-written doctoral thesis, but are also expected to publish their findings in academic journals. The latter task is certainly of growing importance as the prestige of a PhD programme is often measured by the number of publications produced by its students. As Quote 7 shows, the programme manager of all third-cycle programmes at WU (ID 26-28) confirmed the need for PhD students to have very advanced academic writing skills:

It makes a difference for reviewers and it makes a difference in the assessment [of the thesis]. [...] Good English does not make a good thesis, but good English turns a good thesis into a very good one and a very good one into an excellent one. [With the PhD programmes] we are operating within the scientific domain; precise argumentation, fine rhetoric and the structure of the argument are essential. If you are limited in the way you are writing, you are disadvantaged. [...] Of course, most theses might be proof-read by a native speaker, but this is then about correcting language errors and not about improving your originality.

Quote 7 Interview_02 [my translation]

Given the importance of written English proficiency for PhD students, it might be necessary to adapt admission requirements for English-taught third-cycle programmes accordingly. For instance, the successful completion of obligatory pre-sessional academic writing courses could function as an admission requirement. Moreover, the programme managers' observations also call for explicit training courses in academic writing for students enrolled in English-medium PhD programmes, which are currently relatively few in number (cf. Chapter 8.2).

The third type of waiver rules also gives credit to the applicants' prior contact with English as medium of instruction at the tertiary level. For 28% of the programmes a certain amount of ECTS credits for (business) English classes is accepted as an alternative proof of English proficiency. This waiver rule is only implemented at two universities, i.e. AAU and WU. The former institution requests 15 ECTS credits in English classes at the tertiary level in combination with a school-leaving certificate and grade point average not lower than '2' according to the Austrian grading system (where 1.0 is the highest possible grade). Here it is noteworthy that the university does not insist on ECTS credits gained in *business* English classes, but also accepts credits for general English courses. This confirms the assumption made above that the

programme 'International Management' (ID 1) at AAU has a broad focus and thus does not necessarily require extensive prior knowledge in business and economics.

All other EMPs for which this waiver rule applies are implemented at WU. Here, language entry requirements are dropped for students who have taken classes in English business communication courses at WU with a grade point average (GPA) not lower than 2.49 for all but one programme, for which it is 2.0 (ID 22). The required ECTS points vary considerably between the EMPs. While for two programmes (ID 21 and ID 23) 7 ECTS points are enough, other programmes demand more (10 ECTS: ID 24 and ID 25) and most require even twice as much (14 ECTS: ID 19, ID 20, ID 22 and ID 26). One interview revealed that the reason for this variation can be found in a programme's interdisciplinarity. For instance, the two programmes for which 7 ECTS points are enough intend to attract students from other disciplines (e.g. informatics) and from other universities. These students are encouraged to take classes in English business communication at WU during their bachelor's studies in order to later fulfil the entry requirements for the master's programmes. For example, the programme 'Information Systems' (ID 23) accepts a combination of 4 ECTS credits gained in English business communication classes at WU and 8 ECTS credits gained in IT-related courses taught in English. For interdisciplinary EMPs, this could represent the ideal combination of formal business communication on the one hand, and the necessary basic knowledge of the discipline, including the corresponding subject-specific terminology and genre knowledge, on the other. It could even be argued that a combination of ESP classes and English-taught content classes might equip students markedly better for the English-medium programmes than the test preparation for IELTS or TOEFL certificates.

The fourth category of waiver rules comprises slightly more than 13% of the EMPs. It has already been discussed above that for some programmes, secondary school-leaving certificates are accepted as proof of the applicants' English proficiency. Here one can further distinguish between EMPs for which the language of instruction in the applicant's secondary education has to be English in order to be accepted as proof of English proficiency (ID 3 and ID 4) and EMPs for which the applicants' English grades in secondary education are decisive (ID 1, ID 13). Particularly in the latter case, it is

questionable as to whether high school grades can be used to serve as proof of the applicants' English proficiency. Even if the language of instruction at school was English, it can be argued that secondary school does not provide the students with the necessary academic language skills to succeed in English-medium master's programmes. In this respect, the case of one master's programme (ID 13) is rather questionable as the programme's admission criteria state that the English grade in the school-leaving certificate must not be lower than 'satisfactory' (3) in accordance with the Austrian grading system. It seems very unlikely that a mediocre grade in English at secondary school is going to be enough to succeed in an English-taught master's programme. Moreover, compared to the alternatives listed, the grade 'satisfactory' (3) does not match the required B2 level requested for TOEFL or IELTS certificates. Here it is also important to point out that a B2 level is generally not considered sufficient for EMPs and that the vast majority of EMPs identified in the present study request their applicants to have a C1 level. Even though an English proficiency of B2 is the officially targeted exit level for Austrian upper secondary education, a study with first-year university students found that Austrian tertiary institutions cannot always rely on this standard (Platzer 2010). In fact, the study found that up to 20% of first-year students in English-taught bachelor's programmes at Austrian universities of applied sciences did not reach the expected B2 competence (Platzer 2010: 61).

It is therefore highly recommendable to refrain from relying on secondary school exit grades as proof for an advanced English proficiency of applicants, especially because this is not a common practice internationally (McNamara 2000: 74–75). Institutions of tertiary education in Great Britain and Canada, for example, only waive proficiency test requirements if applicants have completed an English-taught degree programme beforehand (cf. Soltau 2008: 140). Students' performance in secondary education, however, functions as an admission criterion for undergraduate studies only.

The fifth and least common type of waiver rules also gives credit to the applicants' prior exposure to English. Here, language-related entry requirements are waived if the applicant can prove to have worked or studied in an English-speaking country. This rule could only be identified for 2 EMPs (ID 1 and ID 14), i.e. less than 7% of the programmes. While one programme (ID 1) drops the English language entry

requirements if an applicant "spent a long time abroad due to school, university studies or work" (Alpen Adria University Klagenfurt; accessed 7 June, 2013), for the second programme (ID 14) they are dropped if the applicant has "lived in an English-speaking country for a long time" (University of Vienna; accessed 7 June, 2013). Both statements are not only very vague, but also point towards a rather uninformed approach towards dealing with the issue of English proficiency in EMPs. Moreover, they are also a clear indicator for a very inconsistent handling of equivalent proofs of English proficiency. For instance, the first programme (ID 1) wants applicants to submit IELTS or TOEFL scores which correspond to a C1 level according to the CEFR, but at the same time it is ready to drop these requirements if an applicant "spent a long time abroad". Similarly, the second programme (ID 14) also has very strict regulations to ensure that applicants have a C1 level but also considers living in an English-speaking country "for a long time" as sufficient proof. While it is nearly impossible to adequately compare these alternatives, it is also not fair that some are stricter than others. While study and work experience in an English-speaking country can indeed be very beneficial for a students' English proficiency, the length of the stay should be determined to properly match the alternative ways in which the applicant can prove his or her language skills. A three-year bachelor's programme provides better evidence for the student's language skills in the academic domain than work experience abroad for which it might be difficult to verify to what extent and in which areas applicants have developed English skills, especially academic language skills.

Soltau, who also identified this alternative proof of English proficiency in her study (2008: 140), found that the required periods of working in an English-speaking country vary considerably for the EMPs investigated in Germany, namely between 10 months and 3 years. Moreover, she also expressed doubts whether contexts of language contact other than studying in English actually equip the students with the necessary English skills for English-taught master's programmes, e.g. academic reading and writing (2008: 140). Even if universities want to accept students' prior work experience in an English-speaking country as a sufficient proof for their English proficiency, they still need to come up with binding benchmark parameters in order to avoid an inconsistent and uninformed handling of the various alternative entry requirements.

All in all, the analysis of the different types of waiver rules and alternative proofs of English proficiency revealed several gaps in the admission policies of EMPs at Austrian state universities. Even the first category, initially considered to be fairly straightforward as it comprises EMPs which waive their language proficiency requirements for native speakers of English, turned out to have inconsistencies. The first particularity which can be noticed is that apparently not all programmes expect native speakers of English to apply, since nearly 40% of the EMPs did not set out this waiver rule. However, what is even more striking about this category is that those EMPs which explicitly state that language-related entry requirements are waived for native speakers of English do not provide lists of officially recognised countries of origin. It can be assumed that Austrian institutions, like their German counterparts (cf. Soltau 2008: 141), stick to the obvious inner circle nations such as the US, the UK and Australia when it comes to waiving English proficiency requirements for applicants. Therefore, students from outer circle countries such as India or South Africa are forced to invest in expensive proficiency tests, even though they are very likely to have received their previous education in English-medium settings.

The discussion of findings for the second category also brought several inconsistencies to the fore. Here it is striking that merely a third of the EMPs waive their requirements for a proof of English proficiency for applicants who have previously completed an English-taught programme. In the case of those that do, the completion of an EMP, especially in the same discipline, is considered of equal value to IELTS or TOEFL certificates. However, one could suggest that an English-taught programme is considerably better preparation for the linguistic demands of a subsequent degree programme taught in English than a general-purpose proficiency test. In the context of PhD programmes it is therefore particularly surprising that not even half of these consider an English-taught master's degree programme as sufficient evidence for the applicants' English proficiency. Given the temporary validity of proficiency test certificates, this means that students are often forced to retake the IELTS or TOEFL test.

The third type of waiver rules also recognises applicants' prior contact with English-medium instruction at the tertiary level but instead of full EMPs, a certain number of

ECTS credits for general or business English classes are accepted as proof for English proficiency. In this category two particularities are noticeable. First, only two institutions consider previously taken classes as sufficient proof for the applicants' English proficiency. Second, general English classes are only accepted for one EMP. Moreover, the analysis of this waiver rule at WU has shown that the requirements in terms of ECTS points and grade point average vary considerably between the EMPs (i.e. 7 to 10 ECTS and 2.49 to 2.0 GPA). Moreover, it also revealed that the more interdisciplinary the programme, the more likely it is to accept a combination of business English classes and English-taught content classes. In this way, the university can attract applicants from competing institutions and other disciplines to interdisciplinary EMPs. In fact, the interviewees emphasised that for interdisciplinary EMPs, a certain flexibility in admission criteria is absolutely necessary in order to allow the targeted student groups to enrol in the programme. As a positive side effect, these students are then, at-least-theoretically, equipped with the necessary English skills in formal business communication on the one hand, and subject-specific terminology and genre knowledge, on the other. In this respect, it could even be argued that a combination of ESP classes and English-taught content classes might represent an ideal preparation for EMPs, and probably even a better one than IELTS or TOEFL certificates (cf. Chapter 4.3).

The fourth category of waiver rules is very rarely to be found and definitely one of the more problematic ones. The discussion above has shown that it is certainly questionable whether English grades in the applicants' school-leaving certificates can be considered a sufficient proof of English proficiency. Since the targeted (but not guaranteed, cf. Platzer 2010: 61) exit proficiency level in English for Austrian secondary education is B2, it is highly uncertain whether students possess the academic language skills necessary for English-medium programmes at the tertiary level. Particularly at the PhD level, these qualifications seem highly unsatisfactory.

Similarly to the previous one, the discussion of the final category of waiver rules also identified an uninformed approach to deal with the issue of English proficiency in EMPs. Albeit very rarely, institutions consider periods in which an applicant lived in an English-speaking country as sufficient proof of their English proficiency. Besides the

question as to whether it can be verified which English skills were acquired and to what extent, the main issue identified is a very inconsistent handling of supposedly equivalent proofs of English proficiency. In fact, the analysis showed that the alternatives listed are very divergent and thus cannot be considered as equivalents in terms of the proficiency level they represent. For instance, a completed bachelor's programme provides better evidence for the student's language skills in the academic domain than work experience abroad, especially if the requirements for the length of the latter are very vague.

6.3.3 Types of entry requirements and admission procedures

As the discussion above has already shown, the admission policies for EMPs at Austrian business faculties are multi-faceted and complex in terms of which applicants have to provide what evidence of their English proficiency. While the preceding sections provided an overview of entry requirements regarding their frequency and additional admission regulations, the present chapter deals with the various types of entry requirements and admission procedures. Specifically, the following will show which test certificates are most frequently accepted and if institutions additionally use other selection instruments to check whether applicants possess the required level of English proficiency.

As expected, the most frequent type of entry requirements are English proficiency test certificates. However, several other admission procedures were also identified in the present study, which will now be outlined. Entry exams represent the first and least frequent type. It has already been mentioned that AAU is the only institution which implemented an entrance exam for the master's programme 'International Management' (ID 1). However, only students with a bachelor's degree in a field of study other than business or economics have to sit this entry exam in which they are tested on the basics of the discipline. Since this programme also represents the only one for which it is explicitly mentioned that applicants coming from other disciplines may also apply, it can thus be concluded that EMPs which aim to attract a

heterogeneous student group in terms of their academic background are likely to require a quality assurance mechanism in the form of an entrance exam.⁵³

In contrast to the situation identified for the Austrian context, the ACA survey found that in 2007, 30% of the identified European English-medium degree programmes required an entrance examination (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 50). However, the majority of these programmes were identified at the bachelor's level. Consequently, the scarcity of entry exams for EMPs at Austrian state universities could be closely connected to the fact that currently there are no English-taught business and economics bachelor's programmes (cf. Chapter 6.2.1). Austrian higher education has no tradition in implementing entry exams since the school leaving certificate is generally grants entry to HE. The multitude of other entry requirements that exist could be said to make entrance exams redundant. This may also be because it is considerably more time-consuming to administer and mark an exam than to check and compare proficiency test scores. From a management point of view, the admission procedures discussed below might thus be more practical.

A selection instrument found more commonly than entrance exams is letters of recommendation, which can be identified for slightly more than 24% of the EMPs. For about 14% of these EMPs it is mandatory for all applicants to submit a minimum of 2 reference letters. For two of the programmes (ID 19 and ID 21), reference letters are not obligatory but can be submitted as an alternative to GMAT or GRE test scores. As can be seen in Quote 8 below, the programme managers emphasised that reference letters allow them to recruit students who have been recommended by trusted colleagues and at the same time establish networks within the research community.

Our approach is [...] to strategically develop the instrument of reference letters. We have the vision that external students, whom we do not know personally, are recruited via an international network of colleagues in the research community. Ideally, these colleagues would say 'I can personally vouch for this student's aptitude'. This is a long-term goal of ours, as it were. It is a big

⁵³ While it lies outside of the scope of the present study, it would be worth investigating if the entrance exam has proved to be successful at AAU and if students with bachelor's degrees other than business and economics actually apply.

challenge and also takes a lot of time to establish and qualitatively expand this network and ensure its sustainability.

Quote 8 Interview_01 [my translation]

As Quote 8 shows, programme managers consider letters of recommendation an acknowledgement of a prospective student's aptitude for the programme rather than a proof of their English proficiency. Therefore, reference letters can be regarded as an add-on and not an alternative to English proficiency requirements. However, it might be worthwhile for academic networks, such as the one described in the quote above, to develop a standard practice to include judgments regarding the applicant's English skills in letters of recommendation for EMPs.

The third most frequent type of entry requirements comprises two firmly established tests, which have already been mentioned above, i.e. the Graduate Management Admission Test (GMAT)⁵⁴ and the Graduate Record Examination (GRE)⁵⁵. Nearly 35% of all EMPs investigated list GMAT or GRE certificates as entry criteria. For about 14% of the EMPs in the present study all applicants are required to submit a GMAT or GRE test score. In contrast to regulations for English proficiency test certificates (cf. Chapter 6.3.1), the percentage of programmes which discriminate against students from non-EAA countries in this case is rather low. Only 7% of the EMPs (n=2; ID 20 and ID 22) make this distinction and ask applicants from EU and EAA states to submit an officially confirmed grade point average instead of a GMAT or GRE certificate. Nevertheless, for both of these programmes it is indicated that, although not obligatory, the submission of the certificate is also highly recommended for EU and EAA citizens. This indicates that, in contrast to tests exclusively concerned with English language proficiency, there is more uniformity for GMAT and GRE tests. The interviews with the programme

⁵⁴ The Graduate Management Admission Test (GMAT) evaluates verbal, mathematical, analytical and writing skills. The exam is meant to assess applicants' qualifications for business and management degree programmes (Graduate Management Admission Council; accessed 10 April, 2012).

⁵⁵ The GRE exam measures applicants' problem-solving abilities, quantitative reasoning, critical thinking and analytical skills. The GRE test is not restricted to business studies per se, and thus scores can also be used to apply for degree programmes in other disciplines (Educational Testing Service – ETS 2012a).

managers at WU revealed that the GMAT has been a hotly debated topic recently as the university considered making it a standard requirement for all applicants of all English-taught degree programmes.

From now on the GMAT is mandatory for all applicants. This simplifies the process for us. There are 41 nations and numerous institutions involved in the programme and applicants come from 60 different countries. As you can imagine, it would not be possible to check and compare the diplomas of all applicants.

Quote 9 Interview_03 [my translation]

[Programme manager 1]: As I have said before, we want to establish a network and rely on letters of recommendation. It is a good idea that the WU offers the GMAT for outgoing students. For them it is definitely an advantage if they apply at one of the top universities abroad. Applicants' GMAT certificates are also beneficial for our intake policy [as they list all other institutions where the student has applied]. This helps us to assess competing institutions which we do not know. However, our long-term strategy is definitely to develop and strengthen our network.

[Programme manager 2]: In other words, if there is a student [who specialised in Finance during the bachelor's programme], who has excellent grades and probably also chose mathematics as an elective, or who even qualifies with a relevant second degree and I know the student, perhaps I also supervised the bachelor's thesis, why should s/he submit a GMAT? I would almost beg that student to enrol in the programme.

Quote 10 Interview_01 [my translation]

You have to see that we have applicants coming from 28 different countries, from universities which we do not know or cannot even pronounce. For example, [...] how do you evaluate a student coming from a Ukrainian university with a grade point average of 9.1? What does that tell you? The student could be brilliant or the exact opposite. By the way, I have learned that [in the Ukraine] they have a 10-point grading system and 9 is of course relatively good as 10 is the maximum one can achieve. But you never know whether most students achieve that level. If the candidate presents you with a GMAT score of 720 in addition to the 9.1 grade point average, I know how to evaluate the situation. If the GMAT score is 540, I would also know how to judge the situation. Therefore, the GMAT score is of crucial importance to compare and assess the applicants' prior academic achievements. It is thus also a central element for fairness in student selection.

Quote 11 Interview_04 [my translation]

[Interviewer]: What is your position on a mandatory GMAT for all English-taught programmes at WU? [Programme manager's assistant]: We fought it. [Programme manager]: For us letters of recommendation are a crucial

instrument and source of information. [...] We also check the applicants' prior academic achievements and examine the curricula of their prior degree programmes.

Quote 12 Interview_02 [my translation]

The interview quotes show that the programme managers are indeed divided when it comes to the question of the mandatory submission of GMAT scores for all English-taught programmes. On the one hand, there are several arguments in favour of the GMAT. For instance, a uniform admission policy requesting the GMAT allows comparability between degrees (cf. Quote 9 and Quote 11) and therefore greatly simplifies the selection process if applicants come from numerous different countries of origin. In the same way, the GMAT can be considered a useful tool to check and compare the applicants' prior academic performance (cf. Quote 11 and Quote 12) and also to assess competing institutions (cf. Quote 10). The GMAT thus can be thought of as increasing comparability of applicants and ensuring fairness in the selection process. On the other hand, the interviews also revealed potential disadvantages for an institution which makes it a standard entry requirement. Due to the narrow specialisation of some of the programmes, letters of recommendation are frequently preferred as a selection instrument as they are seen to reflect a candidate's ability to meet the needs of the individual programme better than a standardised examination (cf. Quote 10 and Quote 12; cf. also Quote 8 and the discussion of letters of recommendation above). Another argument against making the GMAT a standard entry requirement is that it could complicate the process of recruiting excellent students from the bachelor's programme directly into the English-taught master's programme (cf. Quote 10). The existing pattern for the EMPs at WU suggests that the more students apply for a programme and the more elite it aims to be, the more likely it is that the submission of a GMAT score is mandatory. For the smaller, more niche-oriented programmes, hand-picking students tends to be the more common strategy. As the possible introduction of a mandatory GMAT for all EMPs at WU fuelled such lively controversy, the university is not very likely to establish a uniform admission policy for all English-taught MA and PhD programmes. In fact, it remains questionable as to whether it is actually worthwhile to strive for uniformity for the GMAT across a

university's programme range, since the EMPs' specialisations and consequential target groups are so varied.

Even though the GMAT and GRE tests are not English proficiency tests per se but are supposed to test the aptitude of prospective students for business and economics studies, both include sections in which discipline-specific language skills are assessed. For instance, the "verbal section" of the GMAT comprises 41 questions which evaluate the test-takers' "reading comprehension", "critical reasoning" and also their grammar knowledge in a "sentence correction" part (Graduate Management Admission Council; accessed 13 June, 2013). Similarly, the "verbal reasoning section" of the GRE tests the candidates' ability to "summarise texts", "understand the structure of a text" and "to understand the relationship among words and concepts" (Educational Testing Service – ETS; accessed 28 January, 2013). It might therefore be argued that the GMAT or GRE presents a better preparation for the discipline-specific language used in English-taught business and economics programmes than the IELTS or TOEFL tests, which focus on general English. However, only one EMP (ID 1) accepts GMAT or GRE certificates as an alternative to TOEFL and IELTS certificates. For this programme, it is indicated that the score in the test section assessing language skills must be above average for the year in question. Although this strategy cannot be found at any other institution, it might actually be viable and could serve as an example for other EMPs. At the same time it is problematic that neither the GMAT nor the GRE provide institutions with conversions of scores of the tests' language sections into the proficiency levels of the CEFR. It is therefore not surprising that for 31% of the EMPs, applicants need to submit both a language proficiency test certificate and a GMAT or GRE, a practice which is certainly fairly costly for the test takers.

Selection interviews are more frequent than the request for GMAT or GRE certificates, even though this application procedure is rather time-consuming for both the applicants and the programme management. Almost 42% of the EMPs identified in the present study hold interviews with all shortlisted candidates to check whether they are suitable for the programmes. In particular, third-cycle programmes appear to be affected by this trend, as nearly 73% of the English-taught PhD programmes require their applicants to prove themselves in a face-to-face interview. This tendency for

third-level EMPs to implement selection interviews has two possible underlying reasons. First, from a pragmatic point of view, PhD programmes have considerably smaller student groups than master's programmes. It is thus easier to interview all potentially suitable candidates before they are admitted to the programme. Second, PhD programmes are often considered to be flagships for the universities and are thus more selective when it comes to admitting students. Therefore, it can be argued that the more renowned a programme is, or aims to be, the more likely selection interviews are added to its list of entry requirements and admission procedures. This observation can also be made for some of the master's programmes which use selection interviews. For instance, the programme 'International Management / CEMS' (ID 22) at WU is very selective when it comes to admitting students. The CEMS programme was the first English-medium master's programme at WU (cf. Appendix 3) and the university takes particular pride in being part of an international alliance of renowned business schools (cf. Chapter 7.1). The interviews therefore constitute an essential part of the selection process to ensure that students admitted to the programme match the standards of the partner universities and have the required aptitude.

First, we select prospective students according to their academic performance. The final screening takes place in the interviews which we hold together with our corporate partners, or rather, the personnel managers of our corporate partners. In these interviews we test the social competence of the applicants. At the end of the day it is more and more about responsible leadership. CEMS places particular emphasis on social skills and interpersonal skills. That is what we test [in the interviews].

Quote 13 Interview_03 [my translation]

Besides assessing the applicants' aptitude for the programme, selection interviews also allow the programme managers to check whether the prospective students possess the necessary English proficiency. For one master's programme (ID 25) it is explicitly pointed out in the list of entry requirements that the applicant's communication skills are assessed in the course of the interview (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business; accessed 12 June, 2013). Although this is the only EMP with this specification, an application interview in English can be considered a valuable method to check the candidates' language proficiency. Those programme managers who use

selection interviews for the recruitment of students in their EMPs (i.e. ID 22 and IDs 26-28) confirmed this assumption.

The interviews are definitely an indicator, although, honestly, there are very few interviews that I have conducted in which I thought that the English proficiency of the applicant was not good enough. On the contrary, I am frequently amazed how articulate the 22 to 25-year-olds are today! [...] There are exceptions, although I do not know how they have managed to pass the [previous] hurdles then.

Quote 14 Interview_04 [my translation]

[Students applying for] the English-taught PhD programmes such as 'Finance' or 'International Business Taxation' have to go through a recruitment process. They cannot simply register for these programmes. In face-to-face interviews [their English] is then assessed. [...] Since it is such a small number of students they are hand-picked.

Quote 15 Interview_05 [my translation]

The quotes above indicate that the programme managers consider selection interviews to be an effective application procedure as they also allow the interviewers to judge whether the candidates' English is at the required level. Still, most institutions regard English proficiency tests as the most reliable indicator for a student's language skills. As anticipated, with a share as large as 76%, the majority of EMPs list TOEFL⁵⁶, IELTS⁵⁷ or similar test certificates as entry requirements. For 14% of the programmes, such certificates are only mandatory for non-EAA students but for the remaining 62% of the EMPS all applicants, regardless of their country of origin, need to submit proof of their English proficiency. Frequently, the universities list alternative English proficiency tests which can be submitted instead of TOEFL or IELTS certificates. The most frequently listed alternative is the CAE⁵⁸ (accepted by 55% of EMPs), followed by the CPE⁵⁹ (28%), the TOEIC⁶⁰, BEC Higher⁶¹ and UniCert III⁶² certificates (24% each).

⁵⁶ Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL): <http://www.ets.org/toefl>

⁵⁷ International English Language Testing System (IELTS): <http://www.ielts.org/default.aspx>

⁵⁸ Cambridge Certificate in Advanced English (CAE): <http://www.cambridgeenglish.org/exams-and-qualifications/advanced/>

⁵⁹ Certificate of Proficiency in English (CPE): <http://www.cambridgeenglish.org/exams-and-qualifications/proficiency/>

When it comes to the question of which certificates are considered as equivalents to the market leaders TOEFL and IELTS, the interviews showed that the programme managers are rarely actively involved in this process. In fact, they rather take on a passive role when it comes to the issue of applicants' English proficiency.

I have just taken over [the list of accepted proficiency test certificates]. Quite frankly, this is not that important to me. I assume that people who have expertise in these matters thought this through and established proper criteria.

Quote 16 Interview_04 [my translation]

[The list] is the result of the university's uniformity enforcement. We would have had faith in the students' self-selection.

Quote 17 Interview_01 [my translation]

The admissions office compiled this list for all English-taught programmes so that they all have the same regulations when reviewing the certificates. It is, however, possible to ask for an expansion of the list if students enquire whether a certain test certificate can also be accepted. For instance, UniCert is not that well-known in Austria but it was added because it is commonly used in Germany.

Quote 18 Interview_02 [my translation]

We request the TOEFL internet-based certificate with a score of 100. I am not the expert in this matter but I believe that our language experts recognise certificates [of equal proficiency levels].

Quote 19 Interview_03 [my translation]

The quotes above show the programme directors' prevailing attitude towards the issue of the required English proficiency for EMPs. While some feel that it lies outside their area of responsibility to deal with English proficiency tests (Quote 16 and Quote 19), others emphasised that, from their point of view, these tests are not really necessary in the first place (Quote 17). Moreover, the willingness to expand the list of test

⁶⁰ Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC): <http://www.ets.org/toeic>

⁶¹ Business English Certificate Higher (BEC Higher): <http://www.cambridgeenglish.org/exams-and-qualifications/business-certificates/business-higher/>

⁶² UNICert III (International certification system): <http://www.unicert-online.org/sites/unicert-online.org/files/unicert.pdf>

equivalents for applicants as indicated in Quote 18 might not always be recommendable. In fact, accepting alternative test certificates, which indicate to prove a certain proficiency level but are not a standard test, can be very risky as the following report from Taiwan shows:

[A]s long as a test developer can make a claim for the alignment to the CEFR, without providing theoretical and empirical evidence to support such a claim, their test can survive and even prosper in Taiwan's market. Moreover, this situation even allows test users to choose a less challenging test. For example, they may take one that solely assesses receptive language skills, in order to achieve a CEFR level more easily. Therefore, mapping test scores against the CEFR framework seems to have become not only a political mandate issue, but also a marketing one (Wu 2012: 218).

The globalisation of language education policy fostered the international use of the CEFR and turned it into a European export success (cf. Byram & Parmenter 2012). However, it also bears the risk of test providers seeking commercial success by making false and unfounded claims regarding proficiency levels. It is thus necessary that institutions are aware of these issues and have language specialists check the validity of proficiency test certificates and make well-informed decisions regarding the requested proficiency levels for EMPs. The interviews showed that the programme management is not particularly concerned about the matter of English proficiency and is therefore, most of the time, not actively involved in the compilation of language-related entry requirements. Clearly, the given entry requirements are not the result of its reflection about which level of English proficiency students need in their EMPs, but are rather seen as regulations imposed from the top down by the university management. What is more, the findings of the analysis of entry requirements for EMPs across Austria and the interviews with programme managers at WU indicate a lack of awareness regarding language tests per se. The test certificates listed as equivalents are often very divergent in terms of which language skills are tested for which disciplines and which purposes. Indeed, test developers such as Cambridge English Language Assessment⁶³ or Educational Testing Service (ETS)⁶⁴ offer "a wide

⁶³ <http://www.cambridgeenglish.org/>

⁶⁴ <http://www.ets.org/>

range of assessment products" in order to respond to "market demands and opportunities" (Taylor 2004: 4). It is therefore very difficult for test takers and institutions to distinguish between the tests offered as the market is expanding and the product range vast:

[There are] tests at different proficiency levels [...]; tests involving multi-skills package [...]; tests which are modular [...]; tests across different language domains [such as business English]; tests in paper and pencil mode [...]; tests in computer mode; tests for certificated use and tests for institutional use. (Taylor 2004: 4)

When referring to English proficiency tests, the interviewed programme managers were not concerned about the assessment type or the language skills tested but considered the CEFR level on the test certificate as the one determining factor. These findings also mirror those of the present study's course description analysis which revealed a general lack of awareness for the language skills needed in EMPs (cf. Chapter 8.2). Moreover, they reflect the frequent misinterpretation and misuse of the CEFR which was, as the name already suggests, developed as a *reference* tool rather than an instrument for test comparison (Taylor 2004: 4). In fact, the CEFR "can tell us little [...] about the differences between tests which have been notionally located at the same level "(Taylor 2004: 5).

To sum up, the discussion of the various types of entry requirements and admission procedures identified the most frequently accepted test certificates for EMPs in Austria. Moreover, several other selection instruments, which institutions additionally use to check whether applicants possess the required level of English proficiency, were also identified. For instance, the findings clearly show that entrance exams for EMPs at Austrian business faculties are very rare, which is most likely connected to the fact that there are currently no EMPs at the bachelor's level. Furthermore, administering and marking entry exams is more time-consuming than checking and comparing proficiency test results, which could be another reason for the scarcity of entry exams. Letters of recommendation are more common than entry exams but seen as an acknowledgement of the applicants' aptitude for the EMP rather than a proof of their English proficiency. They therefore function as add-ons and not as alternatives to English proficiency requirements.

The third most frequent type of entry requirements are the GMAT and GRE tests and, at first sight, they appear to be primarily concerned with the applicants' knowledge in the discipline and skills needed for the business studies. However, both tests comprise substantial parts which assess the test-takers' language skills. It could even be argued that GMAT and GRE might be a better preparation for the discipline-specific language used in EMPs than the TOEFL and IELTS tests, which focus on general English. However, the GMAT and GRE tests scores of the language sections cannot be matched to the CEFR and thus only one programme accepts them as an alternative to submitting TOEFL or IELTS scores. Even though they are rather time-consuming, it is striking that selection interviews are used for 42% of all EMPs and, most notably, for 73% of the PhD programmes. The discussion above led to the conclusion that the more renowned a programme is, the more likely selection interviews are part of admission procedures. As expected, the vast majority of the programmes require applicants to submit English proficiency test certificates. In this context, it is particularly noteworthy that both the analysis of entry requirements and the interviews with programme managers indicate a lack of awareness regarding language tests per se. The test certificates listed as equivalents are often very divergent in terms of which language skills are tested and also which level of English proficiency they represent. As the latter issue is of particular importance, it will be discussed in greater detail in the subsequent section.

6.3.4 The level of English proficiency required for EMPs

The discussion of language-related entry requirements and admission procedures in the previous sections inevitably leads to the crucial question of which level of English proficiency is considered necessary for EMPs by the institutions and the programme management. It has already been mentioned in the introduction of Chapter 6.3.1 above that the ACA surveys registered a considerable increase in the request for English proficiency test certificates for European EMPs between 2002 and 2007 (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 50). While in 2002, 68% of the European EMPs required applicants to provide an English test certificate, in 2007 as many as 86% of the EMPs had implemented proficiency tests as an entry requirement. As already discussed above, 76% of the EMPs identified in the present study list proficiency tests as part of the entry criteria. The data for the Austrian setting can thus be considered to be in line

with the European trend and indicates that, to some extent, institutions are aware of the fact that an advanced level of English proficiency is necessary for English-taught degree programmes. However, the discussion below will show that there is no common consent among the universities investigated as to which level of English proficiency students should have when they enter the EMPs.

By conducting a thorough analysis of the test certificates and minimum scores listed by the institutions, the present study identified two problematic areas in the context of proficiency levels. First, major discrepancies can be found in the conversion of test scores to the CEFR levels. Second, apparent inconsistencies emerged from the data regarding test score equivalents, that is, the matching of scores from different tests. The two issues are intertwined and primarily root in the fact that it is a difficult and complex task to assign test scores to corresponding CEFR proficiency levels" (Taylor 2004: 5). Even though it may be "[c]onceptually [...] possible and even desirable to be able to co-locate different tests at shared proficiency levels", comparing tests by using framework scales such as the CEFR "risk[s] masking significant differentiating features" and "encourage[s] oversimplification and misinterpretation" (Taylor 2004: 5). Consequently, such oversimplification of test results by reducing them to a proficiency level rating bears the risk that proficiency tests "are adopted as prescriptive rather than informative tools" (Taylor 2004: 5). The majority of the comparison scales available online do not only compare scores of different test providers but also help interpret them by linking them to the proficiency levels. Although the conversion of test scores to CEFR levels is of course desired by the institutions, it is also error-prone and frequently contradictory results can be found. Some experts in the field of language testing even argue that the CEFR "can tell us little [...] about the differences between tests which have been notionally located at the same level" (Taylor 2004: 5). As already indicated above, the comparison of scores obtained in different tests actually represents the second problematic area identified in the context of proficiency levels.

In particular, the TOEFL test appears to cause confusion since it scores from three different testing formats are circulating, i.e. paper-based (pbt), computer-based (cbt) and internet-based (ibt). Firstly, it needs to be pointed out that the three formats

cannot be compared directly because the pbt version does not assess the candidates' writing skills and the ibt version, in contrast to its predecessors, includes an assessment of speaking skills (Educational Testing Service - ETS 2005: 7). Even though the internet-based test is the latest version of the TOEFL and its developer ETS provides official test score comparison scales, the majority of institutions still list minimum scores for the previous versions which are about to be phased out (cf. Educational Testing Service - ETS 2005, 2012b). Moreover, for one EMP (ID 4), a wrong score is listed for the TOEFL ibt, which does not match those of the pbt and cbt scores. While the scores of 570 (pbt) and 230 (cbt) equal an upper B2 level, the given score of 110 for the internet-based test actually represents a C2 level. Similar cases were identified by Soltau, who also found that for some EMPs the listed minimum scores for the different TOEFL versions do not correspond with each other (Soltau 2008: 136). This creates the potentially unfair situation that applicants with an internet-based TOEFL certificate are supposed to have reached an unrealistically high score, while those submitting an earlier version of the TOEFL are admitted with an upper B2 proficiency level. What is more, for the same programme students can also submit an IELTS certificate with a band score of 6.5, which also represents an upper B2 proficiency level.

The matching of the two tests IELTS and TOEFL actually represents another problematic aspect for institutions. In an effort to provide a basis for comparison between the test certificates of the two market leaders IELTS and TOEFL, a myriad of comparison scales are available on the internet. Interestingly enough, TOEFL provides comparison scales and even a score converter on its website, while IELTS appears to avoid providing reference values to the competitor's test. It is even pointed out on the official IELTS website that they would rather "not comment on the benchmarking exercises that other language testers have provided" (International English Language Testing System – IELTS; accessed 28 January, 2013). Even though test results play an instrumental role in student selection for the institutions, such statements by test developers clearly indicate that score comparisons are not as straightforward as they appear to be. This problem is further emphasised when consulting the comparison charts on the official TOEFL website. Although supposed "to help [institutions] make

informed admissions decisions" (Educational Testing Service – ETS; accessed 28 January, 2013), their accuracy is highly questionable. For instance, it is stated that a TOEFL iBT score between 94 and 101 points equals an IELTS bandscore of 7. However, while the IELTS bandscore of 7 corresponds to a C1 level, the website states that TOEFL scores matching a C1 level start from 110 points (International English Language Testing System - IELTS; Educational Testing Service – ETS; accessed 28 January, 2013). If such misleading information can be found on the official TOEFL website, which is meant to guide universities, it can be very problematic for institutions to list correct equivalences, let alone interpret test scores correctly. Hence, the case described above (EMP ID 4) for which divergent minimum scores were given for the different versions of the TOEFL, is likely the result of such misleading information by the test providers.

Similar findings were produced by Soltau in her study on English-taught economics and engineering programmes in Germany. She identified major discrepancies in the minimum scores listed by the institutions, that is to say, the given TOEFL scores did not match the IELTS scores and vice versa. In fact, the TOEFL score of 550 (pbt) provided by the German universities was equated with IELTS scores ranging from 5.5 to 7 (Soltau 2008: 135). This represents proficiency levels from lower B2 to lower C1 and actually spans four of the IELTS bandscores (cf. International English Language Testing System – IELTS; accessed 5 June 2013).

However, such variations in test score equivalences are not only restricted to the comparison between the IELTS and TOEFL tests. The present study also identified discrepancies between the other test certificates listed which are supposed to be of equal value. For instance, for slightly more than 24% of the EMPs (cf. 6.3.3) the TOEIC certificate is accepted as an alternative to IELTS or TOEFL. All the EMPs for which the TOEIC is listed require applicants to have a minimum score of 800. While the listed IELTS bandscore of 7 and the TOEFL iBT score of 100 clearly correspond to a C1 level, the TOEIC score of 800 does not. According to the official website of the test developer ETS, a TOEIC score needs to be not less than 945 points to match a C1 level (Educational Testing Service - ETS 2007: 14). Moreover, the official user guide for the TOEIC emphasises that, according to a study commissioned by the test developer ETS itself, the difficulty level of the TOEIC's reading section might not be high enough to

certify a C1 level (Educational Testing Service - ETS 2007: 14). It is thus questionable why 7 out of the 10 EMPs offered at WU (IDs 19-25) accept the TOEIC with a minimum score of 800 as proof that the applicants' English proficiency is at a C1 level. Particularly since reading in English certainly plays a major role in these English-taught master's programmes.

These observed issues regarding test equivalencies are not restricted to the present study. Soltau also observed major discrepancies in her analysis of accepted test certificates and minimum scores. As with the present study's findings, she also identified EMPs for which certificates corresponding to a B2 proficiency level are listed as equivalents to IELTS or TOEFL scores certifying a C1 level. Likewise, the TOEIC certificate is also listed with a minimum score far too low to represent the required C1 level (Soltau 2008: 136). In general, the findings of the present and previous studies clearly show that the process of matching applicants' scores obtained in different tests is not as straightforward as the institutions might hope. In their glossary of language testing terms, the Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE) warns that, strictly speaking, the concept of test equivalence "is unjustifiable, since each test is designed for a different purpose and a different population, and may view and assess language traits in different ways as well as describing test-take performance differently" (Association of Language Teachers in Europe - ALTE 1998: 166).

The discussion of problematic areas of test equivalencies and score comparison in this chapter has already shown that for EMPs which have language-related entry requirements, a rather high level of English proficiency is required. Indeed, for the vast majority, i.e. for slightly more than 65% of EMPs, a C1 level is required in order to be admitted to the programme.⁶⁵ The observation that for most EMPs at Austrian universities a C1 proficiency level is a mandatory requirement resembles the entry requirements of prestigious business schools in English-speaking countries. For

⁶⁵ As already discussed in Chapter 6.3.1, for some programmes language-related entry requirements are only imposed on applicants from non-EAA countries. While a C1 level is requested for 65% of the EMPs, for slightly more than 10% of these this rule only applies to non-EAA citizens (cf. Appendix 7a for a detailed overview on the statistics of entry requirements).

instance, for the majority of programmes at The London School of Economics (LSE), non-native speakers of English have to submit test certificates to prove that they have reached a C1 level.⁶⁶ Still, about a third of the EMPs identified at Austrian business faculties consider a proficiency level of B2 as sufficient. While only 7% of the EMPs explicitly state that test certificates proving a B2 level need to be submitted, about a quarter of the EMPs do not request any proof of English proficiency.

Since the targeted exit proficiency level for English in Austrian secondary education is B2, the English proficiency required for those EMPs without language-related entry requirements can be considered to be B2 as well. However, as already argued in the context of waiver rules above (cf. Chapter 6.3.2), Austrian institutions of tertiary education cannot always rely on the targeted exit level of B2 for secondary education. In fact, the results of a study on the English proficiency level of first-year bachelor's students clearly show that a B2 level can definitely not be guaranteed (Platzer 2010: 61). Moreover, even if all students entered higher education with a good B2 level, it remains highly questionable whether that is actually enough to cope with the demands of English-medium instruction at the tertiary level, especially regarding advanced academic writing and reading skills. For instance, a B2 level could be insufficient to meet the linguistic demands of a highly specialised English-taught master's programme or the requirements in terms of academic writing in an English-medium PhD programme (cf. Chapter 8.2). Since 63% of all English-taught PhD programmes in the present study require applicants to have a C1 level, the institutions seem to be aware of the linguistic demands of third-cycle programmes (cf. Quote 7 above). Compared to the results of the first ACA survey on European EMPs in 2002, the findings of the present study for the Austrian context indicate a trend towards a higher level of English proficiency as an entry requirement. The ACA survey disclosed that the majority of the programmes required a minimum TOEFL score of 210 (cibt) or 550 (pbtt) (Maiworm & Wächter 2002: 60), which corresponds to a score of 79/80 in the most recent internet-based TOEFL version (Educational Testing Service - ETS 2005: 6) and thus equals a B2 level. It can therefore be argued that in the past decade the

⁶⁶ <http://www.lse.ac.uk/study/graduate/enquirer/entryRequirements/englishLanguage.aspx>

institutions have realised that English-medium instructions at the tertiary level requires an advanced level of English proficiency. Plus, the WU case study indicates that there is virtually no room for subject-specific language training in the curricula of EMPs (cf. Chapter 8.2) and students are expected to have a very good command of English already when they enter the programmes (cf. Chapter 6.3).

Summing up, it can be said that the analysis of the required test scores and the corresponding proficiency levels revealed potentially problematic areas. These issues appear to be predominantly connected to the difficulty of assigning test scores to CEFR proficiency levels. An additional difficulty lies in the complex task of comparing the results of different language proficiency tests with each other. The latter not only includes comparing the two market leaders IELTS and TOEFL with each other, but also identifying equivalents of these. Moreover, the issue of test comparability also affects the different testing formats of the TOEFL test as the findings show that score equivalency is not always as straightforward as test developers suggest and as lay people expect. The study identified programmes for which certificates corresponding to a B2 level are listed as equivalents of other test scores certifying a C1 level.

Regarding the question of which level of English proficiency is considered necessary for EMPs, the present study reveals that for the majority of EMPs at Austrian business faculties a C1 proficiency level is mandatory for admission. This finding resembles the entry requirements of renowned business schools such as those of the LSE. The trend towards a high level of English proficiency on entry could signal that programme managers are aware of the linguistic demands of English-taught degree programmes. Still, the variations in test score comparison described in this chapter neither foster the uniformity of admission policies, nor support fairness to applicants. Instead, these inconsistencies point towards a rather uninformed approach to the issue of the language proficiency of students in EMPs. The relatively high proficiency levels required to take an EMP might also be due to other, more commercial and pragmatic factors such as keeping up with the competition or, conversely, oversubscription to the programme. Since English proficiency tests clearly play an instrumental role in student selection, this issue certainly requires more careful attention from the programme managers.

7 English-medium programmes as part of internationalisation processes: An analysis of national and institutional policies

This chapter presents the findings of a policy analysis and thereby identifies internationalisation processes at the national level as well as internationalisation strategies at the institutional level of WU. In addition to identifying and analysing such internationalisation developments, the study also aims to show how these are related to the use of English as the medium of instruction in general and the implementation of English-taught programmes in particular. In order to identify internationalisation processes at the national level, as well as internationalisation strategies at the institutional level, an analysis⁶⁷ of relevant policy documents was conducted. As can be seen in Appendix 2, three national and four institutional policy documents were analysed.

At the national level, the policies used are reports on the realisation and implementation of the Bologna reforms at Austrian institutions of higher education. Starting with Policy Doc 1, this report is the oldest and also the longest one (i.e. 120 pages). It covers the extended period between 2000 and 2006 which can be considered a crucial phase regarding the realisation of essential Bologna restructuring aims (Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung - bmwf 2007). The two other reports which were selected for analysis are considerably shorter in length (i.e. 54 pages and 62 pages) as they do not only cover shorter periods but also differ in the type of text. The reports for the periods 2007–2009 (Policy Doc 2) and 2009–2012 (Policy Doc 3) are questionnaire-type templates rather than report papers and thus provide brief answers to very specific questions which are of interest for EU monitoring purposes (cf. Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung - bmwf, 2012). Therefore, the developments described in the first report can be readily traced in the subsequent documents. While the first report paper covering the period of 2000–2006 was published in German, all following EU monitoring questionnaires were published in English. Quotes and extracts taken from the first report to be discussed in

⁶⁷ See Chapter 5.5 for a detailed discussion of the method used to analyse the policy documents.

sections 7.1 and 7.2 therefore were translated by the author in order to avoid unnecessary repetition in both languages.

As can be seen in Appendix 2, the four institutional documents chosen for the policy analysis comprise two development plans (Policy Doc 4 and 7), a performance agreement between WU and the Ministry of Science and Research (Policy Doc 5), and a paper on WU's internationalisation strategy (Policy Doc 6). All four institutional policy documents were published in German, which is why extracts used in sections 7.1 and 7.2 were translated into English. The variety in the types of policy documents allows analysing internationalisation processes at WU from various perspectives. Clearly, a performance agreement between the institution and the government will differ considerably from the development plans in terms of how internationalisation aims are phrased and described. The inclusion of WU's internationalisation strategy is particularly important as this document includes numerous references to English-medium programmes.

The analytical framework applied to analyse national and institutional policy documents is largely based on Knight's model she used in her landmark analysis of international dimensions in higher education (2008). In her framework, Knight distinguishes between policies and programmes at three different levels, i.e. the national, the sector and the institutional levels (2008: 31–36). The distinction between policies and programmes is necessary as policies might not always be developed into programmes, which means the policy documents “remain a paper commitment to the international dimension of higher education” (Knight 2008: 32). Programmes, on the other hand, “promote or facilitate” what has is described in the policy documents and can thus be considered as policies “translated into action” (Knight 2008: 35). This distinction can be illustrated by using the two prime examples of European internationalisation (cf. Teichler 1998, 2005a; and also Chapter 2): ‘The Bologna Declaration’ is an example for an educational internationalisation *policy* and ERASMUS

as a successful internationalisation *programme*.⁶⁸ Needless to say, due to their omnipresence in popular and academic discourses on European higher education, both have long become household names.

The analytical framework used in the present study does not include programmes but exclusively focuses on policies. Moreover, it also does not include Knight's 'sector level', i.e. policies which relate to funding and regulatory issues. Based on Knight's framework (2008: 31–36), the analysis presented in subsequent sections therefore draws on the following definitions of the two types of policy documents analysed for the present study:

- National policy documents are defined as policies published by national authorities relating to the internationalisation of Austrian higher education and in particular to the implementation of the Bologna reforms.
- Institutional policy documents are defined as policies that address and integrate aspects of internationalisation into their mission and functions.

In order to establish parallels to the Austrian context, the discussion of results in the two following chapters includes references to Knight's empirical study as well as to other current research on the internationalisation of higher education. Chapter 7.1 will identify the rationales underlying current internationalisation policies and strategies as stated in the national and institutional documents issued by the Austrian ministry and WU. As the discussion below will show, the identification of rationales is a critical aspect in understanding internationalisation processes as they illuminate the motives behind countries' and institutions' internationalisation efforts and their anticipated outcomes (Knight 2008: 192). Furthermore, the analysis of rationales allows for a direct comparison between national and institutional policies and reveals whether the objectives of policy makers at the government level differ from those stated in WU's

⁶⁸ Note that the two were chosen to illustrate the definitions of 'policy' and 'programme' as they are very popular examples of European educational policies. It must be pointed out that it is not implied that the Bologna declaration is the underlying policy which led to the introduction of the ERASMUS programme. On the contrary, the ERASMUS programme was already founded in 1987 (Teichler 1998: 90), while the Bologna declaration was signed in 1999 (European Ministers of Education 1999).

policies. Based on these insights, the discussion in Chapter 7.2 will show in what ways internationalisation processes have fostered the use of English as the medium of instruction and whether English-medium programmes take on a key role in the documents.

7.1 Rationales and strategic goals underlying internationalisation policies

In 1999, the year in which 29 countries signed the Bologna declaration (European Ministers of Education 1999), internationalisation policies in Austria at national and institutional levels were described as being fragmented and disjointed:

Currently, [Austrian] institutions of higher education vary substantially in the extent to which these steps toward a regular and systematic treatment [of the internationalisation] of higher education can be characterised as a coherent and targeted policy, or even as a 'strategy'. (Teichler 1999: 15)

While the Austrian national policies for internationalising institutions of higher education were closely connected to the structural reforms triggered by the Bologna reforms (cf. Chapter 2), institutional policies were mostly made up of isolated activities rather than integrated strategies. At the same time, however, Teichler observed "quantum leaps ongoing in internationalisation of higher education in European societies" which caused a switch from "casuistic action towards systematic policies of internationalisation" (1999: 9). Wächter, too, argued that the "formulation and implementation of an overall policy [...] is a slow process [...] bound to entail a fair degree of compromise" (1999: 53). Given "the peculiar nature" of the university system at large and the fact that "[r]esistance to change is usually formidable" (Wächter 1999: 53), it has proved to be a very complex task for institutions to introduce coherent internationalisation policies. Moreover, internal and external factors must be taken into consideration when implementing individual internationalisation activities and strategies as well as an overall policy. For instance, the university's mission and self-image are as important as its reputation and competitiveness on the higher education market (Wächter 1999: 54).

In order to fully understand internationalisation processes at national and institutional levels as well as their impact on the university system at large, Knight argued that it is crucial to identify the rationales underlying the policies:

The motivations driving internationalisation are key to understanding all aspects of the international dimension of higher education. They help to explain why an institution or a country believes that internationalisation is important, what strategies are used, which benefits are expected, and which risks are taken or feared. At a more fundamental level, rationales reflect the core values that a higher education system holds regarding the contribution that international, intercultural, and global elements make to the role of higher education in society. (Knight 2008: 192)

The rationales identified in the national and institutional policies analysed in the present study make it possible to track the changes in the driving forces behind internationalisation policies and also show the divergent priorities of the various actors. As described above, seven policy documents were analysed to identify internationalisation developments at national and institutional levels (cf. Appendix 2). The three national policy documents are reports on the realisation and implementation of the Bologna reforms at Austrian institutions of higher education. The four institutional policies comprise two development plans, a performance agreement between WU and the Ministry of Science and Research, and a paper on WU's internationalisation strategy. The qualitative content analysis⁶⁹ of the documents identified internationalisation strategies and objectives, as well as the rationales behind them. The latter are of particular importance for governments and institutions alike since an awareness of the driving forces and aims behind internationalisation efforts is crucial for planning a successful long-term strategy. In her comprehensive analysis of macro trends in the internationalisation of higher education, Knight emphasised the importance of national and institutional rationales and thereby provides the definition of the concept for the present study:

The necessity of having clear, articulated rationales for internationalisation cannot be overstated. Rationales are the driving force why a country, sector, or institution wants to address and invest in internationalisation. Rationales are reflected in the policies and programmes that are developed and eventually

⁶⁹ See Chapter 5.5 for more information on the methods used to analyse the policy documents.

implemented. Rationales dictate the kind of benefits or expected outcomes those involved expect from internationalisation efforts. Without a clear set of rationales, accompanied by a set of objectives or policy statements [...], the process of internationalisation is often an ad hoc, reactive, and fragmented response to the overwhelming number of new international opportunities available. (Knight 2008: 24–25)

It can therefore be said that, while rationales might differ between the different actors, it is nevertheless of utmost importance that the motivations behind a government's or an institution's internationalisation endeavours are clearly defined, in particular because "policies, programmes, strategies, and outcomes are all linked and guided by explicit and implicit rationales" (Knight 2008: 30–31). Ideally, these considerations should lead to "systematic [...] procedures and policies aimed at internationalisation" rather than "a sporadic, irregular and *ad hoc* manner to implement internationalisation" (Wächter 1999: 55). However, the discussion will show that the motivations behind internationalisation activities at national and institutional levels vary considerably. In fact, the analysis will reveal that the ministry's objectives behind internationalisation are not necessarily the same as those of WU, the largest provider of business and economics education at the tertiary level in Austria, and indeed Europe. This discrepancy between the rationales underlying national and institutional policies was also observed by Knight: "Of course, there is a link between national-level and institutional rationales, but it is not always as close as one would expect" (2008: 27).

At the national level, the data clearly show that the main rationale underlying the Austrian government's internationalisation activities is promoting the mobility of students, researchers and teaching staff. The fact that the overall theme of mobility takes top priority in national internationalisation is not unexpected because for a rather long period and until very recently the buzzword 'internationalisation' was virtually "synonymous with academic mobility of both students and scholars" (Egron-Polak & Hudson 2010: 175). As one of the signatory countries of the Bologna declaration of 1999, fostering academic mobility has played a major role in Austria's tertiary education sector ever since (European Ministers of Education 1999). Indeed, the following extracts taken from the national policy documents show that the issue of

mobility has been a continuous concern of policy makers in the period from 2000 to 2012⁷⁰.

Promotion of the largest possible student mobility. Goal specification: Emphasis on the social dimension; further removal of obstacles to mobility. Implementation in Austria: Continuous increase in the number of graduates who spend a semester abroad. (Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung - bmwf 2007: 42)

Extract 1 Policy Doc 1 [my translation]

Removing obstacles to student and staff mobility. [...] A wide range of mobility programmes have been installed:

- nationally financed top-ups for ERASMUS grants provided by the ministry
- the national needs-based grants are portable to study abroad [...]
- a researcher's mobility portal for Austria was established [...]
- a guide for foreign researchers was developed [...]
- the ÖAD (Austrian Exchange Service; Agency for International Cooperation in Education and Research) offers special services and counselling to facilitate academic mobility. (Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung - bmwf: 38)

Extract 2 Policy Doc 2

PROCESS TOWARDS A MORE INCLUSIVE HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM [...] How do you plan to tackle the challenges identified under Q 1 in the near future (2008-2010)? [...] Which concrete goals [does the Austrian government] want to achieve?

Secure the access from all social groups to HE and to mobility programmes. (Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung - bmwf: 47)

Extract 3 Policy Doc 2

National strategies and action plans

The following questions look at national quantitative targets and at policies aiming to foster mobility. [...]

Does the strategy include national quantitative targets for the different forms of student mobility in higher education? Credit mobility and degree mobility outbound: 50% of graduates by 2020.

[...] Does your country have national strategies or action plans to foster mobility? Most of the universities [...] have set a concrete target in their performance agreement to improve student mobility and staff mobility and to foster outbound and inbound mobility of students by special programmes (e.g.

⁷⁰ Note that Policy Doc 1, even though it was published in 2007, covers the period between 2000 and 2007 (cf. Appendix 2).

joint or double degree study programmes). For the period of 2010 – 2012, most [...] universities specified target values to [increase] [...] numbers of incoming and outgoing students and staff. (Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung - bmwf 2012: 4–7)

Extract 4 Policy Doc 3

The policy extracts clearly show how the approach towards internationalising Austrian higher education and the rationales behind the ministry's activities have changed in the period from 2000 to 2012. Extract 1 shows that the ministry's main objective between 2000 and 2006 was obviously to increase the quantity of student mobility. This emphasis on increasing mobility figures still seems to be a major concern, since the latest report (Extract 4) includes the concrete quantitative goal that, by 2020, as many as 50% of all graduates in Austria should have participated in a mobility scheme of some sort. Currently, most mobility activities take place within the EHEA (Egron-Polak & Hudson 2010: 175), and thus it will be interesting to see whether the upcoming years will also bring increased cooperation with institutions outside Europe. In the period between 2007 and 2009, the mobility of the teaching and research staff became an explicit aim (cf. Extract 2), emphasising that the issue of mobility is no longer restricted to students but should also include other stakeholders. Extract 3 shows that in the years between 2009 and 2011 the social dimension of mobility was emphasised, as access to mobility programmes should no longer be restricted to students from a privileged background. This stress on the social aspect of mobility will further increase the numbers of students going abroad.

In contrast to the previous reports, Extract 4 illustrates that the period of 2009 to 2012 introduced a better-informed approach to the miscellaneous collection of internationalisation initiatives and activities. This can be especially noticed in the terminology used as the ministry now clearly distinguishes between credit and degree mobility, as well as outbound and inbound mobility. However, it remains difficult to detect a coherent policy as the documents primarily list activities and initiatives rather than formulate explicit rationales and policy statements (cf. Mettinger 2012). This seems to be a direct consequence of the questionnaire format of the progress reports that Austria submitted to the European Commission during the Bologna Process (cf. Extract 3 and Extract 4). Nevertheless, it also shows that national internationalisation

policies are "still disconnected from the 'mainstream' [...] education policies conceptually, politically and practically" (Wächter 1999: 52). While Wächter had already predicted in 1999 that European countries' internationalisation policies "are gaining in comprehensiveness and coherence", the Austrian government appears to have been able to circumvent this by sticking firmly to the questions prompted in the form.

Whereas in the national policies no other rationale is as dominant as that of mobility, the analysis of the institutional policies identified several reoccurring and interrelated motives. Moreover, the institutional documents provide more coherent policies and, to a great extent, resemble corporate mission statements. Whereas the rationale to make universities more competitive in the international higher education market plays a subordinate role in the national policies, the theme of competition is definitely of greater significance in the institutional documents. As the extracts below show, the rationale of competing successfully with the leading business schools in the international higher education market place plays a dominant role in all institutional policy documents analysed.

In view of WU's strategic aim to belong to the top 5 universities of economics in the German-speaking world and to the top 15 in Europe, internationalisation is a key principle. [...] Internationalisation at WU has reached a very advanced level which directly influences the university's strategic direction. The fierce competition between universities is fuelled by numerous factors: the internationalisation and globalisation of the education landscape, the increased mobility of students and researchers, as well as the emphasis on life-long learning. Students demand an education which prepares them for international careers; employers demand graduates experienced in cultural diversity as well as the readiness to be globally active.

WU reacts to these challenges by consequently increasing its internationalisation efforts in education and research, but also in its internal organisation and administration. (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2012: 24)

Extract 5 Policy Doc 7 [my translation]

In the face of increasing competition for good students and resources and since public funding is continually being reduced, sharpening the university's distinct profile has gained in importance. (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2012: 29)

Extract 6 Policy Doc 7 [my translation]

Benchmarks of WU: In accordance with its internationalisation efforts, WU continuously monitors its relative position in relation to its most important competition. On the one hand, these are universities which are part of the CEMS alliance. On the other, WU's relative position can be observed in the Financial Times rankings, where it is less about keeping specific ranks but rather about being affiliated to a certain group of institutions. (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2009: 37)

Extract 7 Policy Doc 5 [my translation]

Good positions in rankings and a possible acquisition of the three most important international accreditations (triple crown) are not an end in itself but an outward sign of WU's international reputation. [...] Quality standards are not supposed to be defined by WU itself but have to face up to international criticism and have to comply with the demands of the globalised world of education. (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2012: 15)

Extract 8 Policy Doc 7 [my translation]

For many years, Vienna University of Economics and Business has been cooperating with renowned universities in Europe and the world. In order to further increase internationalisation, WU plans on signing double-degree agreements with selected partners. These should further establish the master's programmes and strengthen WU's market position, especially in Europe. (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2009: 34)

Extract 9 Policy Doc 5 [my translation]

WU places value on comparing itself with partner institutions and learning from these experiences. (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2010b: 9)

Extract 10 Policy Doc 6 [my translation]

In terms of policy formulation, the institutional documents differ considerably from the national ones. The extracts taken from the institutional policies clearly show that, in contrast to the national documents, the institutional policies are formulated more elaborately and more coherently and do not only list individual initiatives or activities. In fact, the rationales listed in the institutional documents are frequently directly linked to specific strategies and actions (cf. Extract 7, Extract 8 and Extract 9). While investigating the relationship between a university's field and its approach to writing internationalisation policies lies outside the scope of the present study, WU's highly structured and goal-oriented internationalisation strategies might reflect its business focus. On the other hand, these stylistic differences could also be rooted in the way

academic policies and regulations are structured and formulated in general and the fact that national policies must, by definition, be more widely applicable.

Thematically, the analysis of institutional policy documents clearly shows that the element of competition is a fundamental aspect of internationalising the institution (cf. Extract 5 and Extract 6). The inclusion in international rankings and the awarding of renowned accreditations are considered indicators for the success of the institution's internationalisation efforts (cf. Extract 7 and Extract 8). These findings are in line with those of the global IAU survey of 2009, which found that, for European universities, enhancing the institutions' international profile and reputation is among the most important rationales underlying their internationalisation activities (Egron-Polak & Hudson 2010: 64–65). While the discussion above has shown that national internationalisation policies focus on promoting mobility, the institutional policy documents treat mobility as a logical consequence of the university's overall internationalisation strategy rather than an explicit rationale itself (cf. Extract 5). For WU, the focus is clearly on enhancing the institution's reputation and international standing. This trend can be directly related to the growing significance of higher education rankings and the "increased importance given to profile" (Egron-Polak & Hudson 2010: 65). This focus on international profiling is reflected in Extract 7 and Extract 8 which clearly show that WU aims to be a global player on the higher education market and strives to be affiliated and associated with renowned business schools.

Next to profiling the institution in the competitive higher education marketplace, the rationale of increasing international cooperation with partner institutions also plays a major role in the documents (cf. Extract 9 and Extract 10). In fact, such inter-university partnerships are a fundamental element of institutional internationalisation strategies as "strategic alliances can be seen as both a rationale for and as a means of achieving internationalisation" (Knight 2008: 30). However, cooperation is not only about promoting academic mobility and establishing double degree programmes with other key players in tertiary business education. Extract 10 indicates that cooperating with partner institutions also involves an element of competition. In fact, WU's policy documents suggest that partnering with potential competitors allows the institution to

study their partner's approach and adopt strategies of good practice. This connection between cooperation and competition was already been identified more than a decade ago by Wächter, who found that "international higher education cooperation is a major field of international and inter-institutional competition" (1999: 51). While collaboration among partner universities is of growing importance (cf. the discussion of joint degree programmes in Chapter 6.2.3), the institutions' priorities are very clear. For instance, in the 2005 IAU survey, twice as many HEIs ranked competitiveness as the number one rationale as opposed to cooperation (Knight 2008: 195). Given the fierce competition in the higher education market outlined in Extract 5, institutions constantly need to adapt to the changing environment and strategic alliances can thus be considered an effective method to learn from allies. In this respect, Extract 7 shows that such a network of partners also helps in gaining a competitive advantage, not only because the institution is associated with key players in the field, but also because the network helps establish an international reputation. It is exactly this emphasis on creating a world-wide reputation which can be considered highly topical and possibly the most important rationale underpinning most internationalisation activities. In fact, Knight observed a "not so subtle shift" in institutions' internationalisation motivations from the focus on academic quality standards to an increasing importance of the institutions' profiling (2008: 28):

Traditionally, prominence has been given to the importance of achieving international academic standards [...]. This motivation is still important but it appears to have been subsumed by the overall drive to achieve a strong worldwide reputation as an international, high-quality institution. This drive relates to the quest for name recognition in an attempt to attract the brightest of scholars [and] a substantial number of international students.

Extract 8 shows that this quest for an international reputation as a top-league institution is clearly evident at WU. In fact, the university's accreditation efforts are closely connected to its endeavour to promote the label 'WU' as an international brand. Moreover, attracting excellent students and superb research and teaching staff is a logical consequence of the university's aim to gain an international reputation as a high-quality institution. The analysis of distribution patterns of EMPs across Austrian institutions in Chapter 6.2.2 also shows that an institution's accreditations are often closely connected to a high degree of internationalisation on curricular as well as

organisational levels. Chapter 7.2 will elaborate on this connection as it highlights the relationship between an institution's ambitions to enhance its international reputation and the implementation of English-taught degree programmes.

In sum, the analysis of national and institutional policy documents identified the motivations behind internationalisation strategies and activities and revealed that the ministry's objectives are not necessarily the same as those of WU. While the main rationale underlying the Austrian government's internationalisation activities is the promotion and increase of academic mobility, the dominant motive in the institutional policies is international competitiveness. In fact, the element of competition can be considered a fundamental aspect of internationalising an institution, with mobility being merely a more or less logical consequence of it. Moreover, it could also be argued that the increasing mobility fosters the interest in competition. The extracts selected from the national policy documents made it possible to track the ministry's approach towards the issue of mobility in the period between 2000 to 2012 and showed a development from simply increasing the quantity of student and staff going abroad to a more sophisticated approach towards internationalisation. However, in the national documents it was often difficult to distinguish between individual activities and coordinated 'proper' policies. Even though there are numerous well thought-through initiatives, no coherent policy appears to exist. However, this might be a direct consequence of the questionnaire-type format of the reports which the Austrian government needs to submit to the European Commission.

The rationales stated in the institutional documents, on the other hand, appear to be more coherent and in sum make up a sound policy for internationalisation. In fact, they are carefully linked to specific strategies and actions. The prime motive underlying the institutional policy documents is clearly competition and related objectives such as inclusion in international rankings and accreditation efforts as well as profile and reputation enhancement. Interestingly, this increased focus on competition can also be linked to another dominant rationale, i.e. WU's cooperation with partner institutions, which also aids the university's quest for an internationally recognised brand name and profile. In this respect, the analysis also highlighted the

link between cooperation and competition, since collaborating with potential competitors allows the institution to learn from allies and gain a competitive advantage. It remains to be seen whether the multifaceted element of competitiveness will play a more dominant role in national policy documents in future. As Chapter 7.2 will show, competition in the higher education market also stands in direct relation with the increased use of English-medium instruction in general and the growing number of English-taught degree programmes in particular. This relationship between internationalisation processes and EMPs, as well as the role they play in the policies analysed for the present study, will be discussed in the subsequent chapter.

7.2 The role of English-medium programmes in internationalisation policies

In addition to identifying the underlying rationales in national and institutional internationalisation policies, the present study also examines whether English-medium instruction is a dominant theme in the policy documents. In this way, the policy analysis is also intended to show if and how internationalisation processes have fostered the use of EMI and the implementation of EMPs.

Since English-taught programmes are considered an effective method to attract students from abroad and prepare domestic students for the international job market (cf. Egron-Polak & Hudson 2010: 175), it would only be plausible for them to play a significant role in both the national and institutional policies. However, the discussion of policy extracts in this chapter will show that the issue of English-medium instruction does not take equal priority at national and institutional levels. In fact, the comprehensive analysis of the national policy documents reveals that the theme of English-medium instruction actually plays a surprisingly minor role in the government's internationalisation strategy. The extracts below show that the topic of EMI is rarely mentioned and if it is addressed, then only in a very brief remark.

Study programmes offered partly or entirely in English.

The number of degree programmes taught in English has been increased. It is already possible to study two master's programmes and one PhD programme in English at the state universities. At the universities of applied sciences, seven degree programmes are offered bilingually in German as well as in English and

five programmes are exclusively taught in English. (Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung - bmwf 2007: 71)

Extract 11 Policy Doc 1 [my translation]

What measures/programmes has your country implemented to tackle and remove the obstacles to student mobility that you mentioned?

Trying to increase the number of classes in English. (Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung - bmwf 2012: 17)

Extract 12 Policy Doc 3

Medical University of Graz: [...]

Introducing classes in English for an 'Internationalisation at home'. (Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung - bmwf 2012: 9)

Extract 13 Policy Doc 3

Out of the three national reports on the implementation of the Bologna reforms analysed (cf. Appendix 2), two address the issue of English-taught degree programmes (Policy Docs 1 & 2) in a very brief manner. The three extracts chosen actually represent all of the instances in which English-medium instruction is mentioned in the national documents. The issue's low priority on the agenda of national policy makers is further emphasised by the brevity of the references to EMI. However, the fact that EMI is underrepresented in national internationalisation policies is not something that can be exclusively observed in the Austrian context. For instance, even though Finnish universities rank second in the list of higher education institutions offering EMI (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 30), Saarinen and Nikula also identify a "scarcity of explicit references to English-medium programmes" (2013: 136).

For the Austrian context, a dawning awareness for the international trend towards English-medium education can be identified in the period between 2000 and 2006 as illustrated in Extract 11, where the Ministry of Education is eager to point out the number of bilingual and English-taught degree programmes at Austrian institutions of higher education. Still, the sparse references to English-medium instruction in the following years can be regarded as an indication that this issue has been overlooked. In a very brief remark, the ministry carefully formulated the objective that it is "trying to increase the number of classes in English" (Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung - bmwf 2012: 17) in order to promote mobility by providing incoming

exchange students with English-taught classes (Extract 12). This emphasis on mobility in the national internationalisation policies again mirrors the findings on the underlying rationales of the policies discussed in Chapter 7.1. While English-medium instruction is mostly implemented for the benefit of incoming students, the topic of 'internationalisation at home' is mentioned only once in connection with the Medical University of Graz where English-taught courses are introduced for the domestic students (Extract 13).

In general it can be said that, even though it is a highly topical subject, the issue of English-medium education is largely neglected in the national policies. This indicates that the ministry is not aware of the potential of EMI to accelerate internationalisation processes. In other words, governmental bodies have yet to realise that EMPs are a very effective tool to internationalise institutions of higher education, even though it is repeatedly formulated as an explicit aim in the national policies. What is more, instead of formulating a coherent policy, the ministry lists obvious examples yet fails to connect the dots when it comes to the role of EMI in internationalisation. These findings are in line with Mettinger's observations of Austrian higher education language policies, who concluded that "at the national level there are a lot of initiatives but no coherent policy" (Mettinger 2012). In this context, it needs to be pointed out that the inexistence of coherent policy statements also appears to be closely connected to the questionnaire format of the progress reports (cf. Chapter 7.1).

In contrast to the policy makers, the interviewed programme managers appear to be more conscious about the role of EMPs in ongoing internationalisation processes. As can be seen in Quote 20 below, one programme manager draws a direct parallel between current internationalisation processes in Austrian higher education and the steadily rising number of English-medium programmes.

[The increasing quantity of English-taught degree programmes] is a consequence of the implementation of a pan-European education area. For numerous reasons it is thus natural to move away from the national language. It is an effect of globalisation and a consequence of the establishment of the European higher education area.

Quote 20 Interview_01 [my translation]

This increased awareness of the role EMPs play in internationalisation processes is also mirrored in the way the topic is treated in the institutional policies. In contrast to the national policy documents, the institutional ones continuously refer to English-medium instruction as part of WU's internationalisation strategy. In fact, all but one⁷¹ of the institutional policy documents frequently raise the subject of English-medium education and address it rather elaborately. The extracts below show that English-medium teaching can indeed be considered a regular feature of WU's internationalisation strategy. The main themes emerging from these extracts will be discussed afterwards.

Strategic goals, profiling, university development: [...]

Continuous development of WU's internationalisation in teaching and research. In particular, this includes: [...] Expanding the range of master's programmes, with about half of them taught exclusively in English. (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2009: 3–4)

Extract 14 Policy Doc 5 [my translation]

Strategic plan: Implementation of internationally attractive PhD programmes in English across various disciplines. (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2009: 16)

Extract 15 Policy Doc 5 [my translation]

English programmes and tracks

Goal: WU plans to introduce English programmes and English tracks, i.e. programmes which are fully taught in English or English-taught tracks in the German programmes. In the English track of the bachelor's programme all courses will be taught in English from the second study year onwards. [...] In the study year of 2009/10, the first English-taught master's programmes International Management / CEMS and Quantitative Finance were introduced. It is planned that in the final stage of the introduction of English-medium programmes at least 6 out of 13 master's programmes will be offered in English. (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2010b: 6)

⁷¹ The exception is Policy Doc 4, a development plan published in 2008, in which the subject of English-medium education is not mentioned (cf. Appendix 2). Since Policy Doc 4 represents the oldest of the institutional policy documents analysed, the lack of references to English-medium education is most likely connected to the fact that at that point EMPs could still be considered a rather young phenomenon in Europe's higher education landscape (cf. Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 51–52). The recency of EMI is further emphasised by the fact that nearly half of all EMPs currently implemented at Austrian business faculties were introduced shortly after the publication of Policy Doc 4, i.e. in the academic years of 2009/10 and 2010/11 (cf. Chapter 6.1 and Figure 2).

Extract 16 Policy Doc 6 [my translation]

Partner universities and the selection thereof [...]

The partner institutions must match WU's standards in quality and offer. In particular, English-taught degree programmes are preferred. (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2010b: 7)

Extract 17 Policy Doc 6 [my translation]

The programme 'Courses in English' comprises a selection of classes meant to reflect the variety of disciplines and subjects taught at WU. All classes are taught in English in order to cater for WU's incoming exchange students. [...] The courses are integrated in the bachelor's programme 'Cross Functional Management' and are open to foreign and domestic students. [...] Moreover, the courses are also used to recruit international lecturers. (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2010b: 8)

Extract 18 Policy Doc 6 [my translation]

A broad range of programmes entirely taught in English at the master's and PhD levels will be continuously extended. An English track will be introduced to the business and economics bachelor's programme. (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2012: 25)

Extract 19 Policy Doc 7 [my translation]

WU positions itself vis-à-vis benchmark business and economics universities (or business and economics departments of universities) and additionally wants to attract students from abroad. Therefore, a significant share of the programmes will be exclusively offered in English. (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2012: 12)

Extract 20 Policy Doc 7 [my translation]

These extracts taken from institutional documents clearly demonstrate that English-medium education is a recurring theme in WU's internationalisation policies from 2009 to 2012. It can therefore be said that Europe's largest institution of business and economics education at the tertiary level considers English-medium instruction as instrumental in stimulating and accelerating its internationalisation process. Extract 14 and Extract 15 show that in 2009, the plan to offer half of all the master's programmes in English and also implement English-taught PhD programmes was already listed as one of WU's top strategic goals. By 2010, shortly after the introduction of the first EMPs at WU (cf. Appendix 5), the university had formulated detailed long-term plans

regarding EMPs and announced the introduction of an English track to the bachelor's programme.

Given the dominant role EMI plays in WU's internationalisation policies, it could be assumed that it is a common practice at business schools to refer to English-medium education in their internationalisation policies. However, the example of the University of Maastricht, "one of the pioneering European universities" in English-medium instruction (Doiz et al. 2013: xviii), shows that internationalisation policies do not necessarily include reference to EMI. Zegers and Wilkinson found that even at such a "truly international faculty" as Maastricht School of Economics and Business, where English is in fact "the only medium of instruction" (Zegers & Wilkinson 2005: 6), the institution's internationalisation policy does not necessarily consider EMI as a relevant factor. The frequent mentions of EMI in WU's policy documents can therefore be considered as an indicator for the institution's awareness that English-taught degree programmes are a strategic tool for internationalisation and not just a side effect of it.

Since Chapter 7.1 identified *mobility*, *competition* and *cooperation* as the three most prominent rationales in national and institutional internationalisation policies, the relationship between these rationales and EMI in the policies is worth investigating. Indeed, the analysis of institutional policies clearly shows that these three strategic goals are closely linked to the increased use of English-medium instruction and the growing number of English-taught degree programmes. The case of WU indicates that the themes *mobility*, *competition* and *cooperation* in the internationalisation policies are recurrently brought up in the context of EMI. For instance, the aim to foster inbound mobility obviously triggered a rise in English-taught classes and programmes, since they are not only implemented to attract international students (Extract 20) but also to recruit international teaching staff (Extract 18). Generally, at WU there is a tendency towards full English-medium programmes as opposed to isolated English-taught classes. Whereas the latter might be enough to accommodate incoming exchange students (Extract 18 and Extract 20), offering programmes entirely taught in English is considered a prerequisite for international cooperation (Extract 17). In the policy document outlining WU's internationalisation strategy (Policy Doc 6), it is explicitly stated that partner institutions offering programmes fully taught in English

are preferred (Extract 17). Likewise, EMPs are also part of the university's aim to establish an international reputation. Extract 16, Extract 19 and Extract 20, taken from WU's development plan of 2012, clearly demonstrate that in order to be recognised as a top-league university, it is necessary to have a broad range of sub-disciplines taught in English. It is therefore not enough to offer one EMP dealing with business and economics education in general and provide incoming students with English-taught classes. On the contrary, WU's strategy shows that in order to successfully compete with renowned business schools internationally, a large number of EMPs across various subdisciplines are necessary. This observation supports Mettinger's view who claimed that in order for language issues to reach the policy level at higher education institutions, their competitive advantage needs to be stressed (Mettinger 2012). Indeed, the remainder of this chapter will show that this correlation between the use of English as a medium of instruction and the growing competition between institutions of higher education is definitely evident in the policies analysed.

The discussion in this chapter has already shown that the motivation for including English-medium instruction in internationalisation policies is often connected to various educational, financial and, to some extent, political reasons. Furthermore, the role which EMI assumes in the policies and the corresponding underlying motivations also allow for an evaluation of how the approach is currently developing. As discussed in Chapter 2.2 and illustrated in Table 1, Wilkinson identified five phases in the development of English-medium instruction at the tertiary level (2013: 9–11). In his analysis Wilkinson examined the political, cultural and institutional motives behind the implementation of English-medium programmes at Maastricht University and thereby identified the following five phases of EMI: *Cross-border*, *Europeanisation*, *Consolidation*, *Globalisation* and *Monetisation* (cf. Chapter 2.2). Based on the analysis of institutional internationalisation policies, and the findings presented in Chapter 6.2.2, the present study proposes a sixth phase to the five presented in Wilkinson's model, i.e. the *Profiling* phase. As can be seen in Extract 14 to Extract 20 above, the analysed policy documents strongly imply that the development of EMI has entered a new phase. The WU case study shows that clearly the motives behind implementing EMPs are stronger than ever influenced by the aim to increase the institution's

prestige, create a brand image and successfully compete on the higher education market. Table 8 shows the institutions' aims, typical characteristics and common buzzwords for each of the six phases.

Phases of EMI	Motives behind the implementation of EMPs
Cross-border phase <i>1987</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Aim to attract students from bordering countries - Multilingualism: exploit geographical advantage - New programmes, not 'translations' of existing ones
Europeanisation phase <i>1991</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Recruitment of international and exchange students - Buzzwords 'international' and 'European' - Aim to attract students from other European countries
Consolidation phase <i>1995</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Internationalisation at home - Official university profile: 'bilingual' - Lack of definition of 'bilingual institution' - Bilingual programmes prove to be expensive
Globalisation phase <i>2002</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Recruitment of students from outside the EU - Buzzwords: 'Excellence' and 'Expertise' - Official university profile: 'International' - Lack of definition of 'international institution'
Monetisation phase <i>2007</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Raising money through recruitment - Cuts in government funding - International rankings gain in importance - Profile strongly affected by position in rankings
Addition to Wilkinson's five phases of EMI (2013)	
Profiling phase <i>ongoing</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - International rankings - Prestigious accreditations - International prestige and reputation - Establishing a brand name - Network of renowned partner institutions - Objective to be part of the global elite of business schools - The competitive climate in today's higher education market - Buzzword 'Excellence': recruit the best students and faculty to EMPs

Table 8 The motives behind the implementation of EMPs: Adding the Profiling phase to Wilkinson's model (2013)

As the immediate follow-up of Wilkinson's *Monetisation* phase, the proposed *Profiling* phase is even more strongly influenced by international rankings and university accreditations than its predecessor. In fact, the findings of the WU policy analysis suggest that enhancing an institution's international standing is increasingly gaining in importance and therefore frequently prioritised in its internationalisation policies. In order to enjoy international prestige and to be part of a network of renowned partner

institutions, it is essential that the institution is listed among (or preferably above) its competitors in higher education rankings and is awarded prestigious accreditations (cf. Extract 7 and Extract 5 in Chapter 7.1.). In Wilkinson's fifth phase of EMI, i.e. *Monetisation*, he links "the survival motive of profiling" to "financial changes in the education sector". Due to these changes, he argues that the value of English-taught programmes is primarily "seen in monetary terms" and institutions want "to attract students who bring in money" (2013: 10). Even though funding and other monetary issues are still a factor in the proposed *Profiling* phase, they certainly play a more subordinate role than in the *Monetisation* phase. In other words, the aim to be highly competitive and successful on an international scale may be connected to secure extra public and private funding, but in the *Profiling* phase the main motivation behind EMI is to increase the institution's reputation and standing.

Whenever you want to have the best students, you also have to compete with other universities and tempt them away from the competition. This is a somewhat new world for us to which we have to learn to adjust and in which the rules of the game are currently being established. [...] This can also be noticed in the international applications. If someone submits a GMAT, you can see where this also has been submitted to [...]. [Frequently] there are big names on that list and we don't get a lot of these [students] if they are accepted at LSE, ETH, Maastricht, Stockholm, or at a good American university. In 8 out of 10 cases [our programme] is then outdone. The GMAT now shows us that we are on the right track because there is nothing above LSE, Rotterdam, ETH and Stockholm. [One of our] long-term objectives is therefore that while we currently get 20% of these students, at some point we want 80% of them.

Quote 21 Interview_01 [my translation]

Obviously, you want to establish a reputation for the programme. You want the students to come to Vienna not only because the city is so beautiful and because of WU but also because of the programme.

Quote 22 Interview_02 [my translation]

Half of our partners are part of the global top 25 of master's programmes. In other words, this is the elite in the post-graduate education market. [...] We have applicants with GMAT scores of 720 and, to provide a basis for comparison, Harvard [Business School] requires 690. That means, in turn, students applying for a spot on our programme could get one all over the world. This means that it is also the other way round [i.e. the university also has to be attractive for the students]. We have had 500 applicants for 80 places this year and this figure has been increasing by 20 – 30% each year. [...] These students have all options. They could start at London Business School [...], they

could go to Rotterdam or Sweden. They could also, if they have enough money, which is of course another argument, go to Harvard. The question therefore is why do these students come to WU for a Master of Science after they have completed their bachelor's degree? That of course means that we have to show that we are good enough for these students. [...] You have to be realistic. WU does not have the same brand name as HEC or London School of Economics, at least not yet. [...] Our most effective marketing tool is definitely the Financial Times List, next to the fact that we have not got any tuition fees in Austria⁷².

Quote 23 Interview_03 [my translation]

The ambition has always been to be a flagship programme of WU, that is, to offer not just any master's programme, but one that is excellent with respect to the quality of teaching, the quality of students, the career prospects of graduates, as well as the perception of the programme held by important stakeholders in the economy and also in the scientific community. [...] It is simply an excellence programme and as such it has to be offered in English. To me, excellence includes, firstly, that we have students from non-German-speaking countries, to have diversity in the student body. [Secondly,] this means that our graduates have superb English skills, which they are mostly required to have already [when they start the programme] but will of course expand in the course of the two-year programme. Thirdly, excellence means to have an international faculty [...], and [fourthly,] to use English textbooks [...] since 90% of the relevant literature is published in English anyway.

Quote 24 Interview_04 [my translation]

The programme managers' views clearly demonstrate that English-taught degree programmes are strongly influenced by the competitive nature of the current higher education landscape. This can be seen in the frequent mentions of the buzzword 'excellence' and related references regarding the high quality standards on various levels of the programmes. This means that EMPs want to recruit the best students and an excellent international faculty as they aim to offer an outstanding programme altogether (Quote 21, Quote 23 and Quote 24). Moreover, the interviews confirm the findings of the institutional internationalisation policies because the programme

⁷² The tuition fee regulations for Austria's public universities have been changed numerous times in the past decade. At the time of writing, only students from non-EU or non-EAA countries and those students who have exceeded the predetermined length of study have to pay fees. However, compared to the renowned business schools referred to in the interview such as LSE, HEC or Harvard Business School, € 363.36 for EU citizens, or € 726.72 for third country citizens, are comparatively modest fees (Austrian Federal Ministry of Finance 2013).

managers also stress the importance of rankings (Quote 21 and Quote 23) as well as the significance of cooperating with renowned universities (Quote 23). As expected, the aim to establish an international reputation (Quote 21) and a well-known brand name (Quote 23) is recurrently brought up in the context of discussing EMPs. As already identified on the policy level, the interviews also show the institution's objective to be part of the global elite of business schools and the aim for the English-taught programmes to compete with the big names in the field (Quote 21 and Quote 23). This "interest in branding" has been identified as a strong impetus behind internationalisation and the findings of the present study suggest that EMPs are considered to be a tool "to gain competitive advantage" (Knight 2008: 28).

In his description of the *Globalisation* phase of EMI, the predecessor of the *Monetisation* phase, Wilkinson has already identified the trend towards recruiting "student expertise" and "attracting excellent students from all over the world" (2013: 10). During the following period of *Monetisation*, he then detected "growing attention to the ranking lists" (2013: 10). In that respect, the *Profiling* phase, as suggested by the findings discussed in this chapter, can be considered the logical consequence in the development of EMI in which the dominant trends of previous phases are further emphasised. In other words, EMI has entered a phase in which its main drivers are enhancing the international standing of an institution as well as promoting the reputation of the English-medium programme itself. This is further supported by other empirical findings. In Italy, Costa found that the main reason for Italian private and public HEIs to implement EMI is to improve their "international profiles" (2013: 10). The findings from Italy and those of the present study for the Austrian context are indeed in line with the global IAU survey which suggests that internationalisation of higher education has generally reached a phase in which accelerating importance is ascribed to an institution's profiling.

HEIs in Europe [...] see 'Enhanced international profile and reputation' as being the second most important rationale for internationalisation [following the top ranked rationale 'Improve student preparedness for a globalised / internationalised world']. Given the focus of the Bologna Process and the Lisbon Strategy, which aim to make the European higher education and research area the most attractive in the world, as well as the growing attention

paid to global rankings, this increased importance given to 'profile' is [...] understandable. (Egron-Polak & Hudson 2010: 65; original emphasis)

The findings on the role of EMI as identified in the present chapter do not only confirm this European trend identified in the IAU survey but also verify those presented in Chapter 7.1, which revealed 'profiling' as a dominant rationale for internationalisation. It can therefore be argued that, while profiling can be considered a direct consequence of internationalisation, English-medium instruction appears an effective strategy to achieve it.

The analysis of institutional documents has shown that EMI assumes a dominant role in the policies and is regarded to be a strategic tool to achieve internationalisation. The analysis of national policies, however, revealed that EMI plays a surprisingly minor role in the government's internationalisation strategies. Even though it is a highly topical subject, the issue of English-medium education is largely neglected in the national policies and apparently has low priority on the agenda of policy makers. Moreover, the discussion of the role of EMI in national policies has shown that governmental bodies have yet to realise that English-medium education is instrumental in achieving their aim of internationalising institutions of higher education, in particular because EMI has entered a phase in which it appears to be successful strategy for improving the international standing and profiling of institutions in the global higher education market. The interviews confirmed that EMI is currently in the *Profiling* phase as the buzzword 'excellence' and the importance of elite networks of renowned business schools was repeatedly stressed by the programme managers. It can therefore be argued that if Austrian universities strive to achieve high positions in international higher education rankings, the role of EMI in national policy statements needs to be reconsidered.

8 The language element in the programme design of EMPs

An investigation of English-taught degree programmes inevitably raises questions concerning the language learning objectives set for those studying in the programmes and the English proficiency required of those teaching (cf. the studies conducted by Airey 2004; Cancino 2011; Hellekjaer 2010; Wilkinson 2005). This section aims to explore the role of the language element and addresses issues relating to the role of language teaching and learning in the curriculum design and programme delivery of EMPs at WU. The results of a course description analysis will reveal if and which language learning objectives are pursued in these programmes (Chapter 8.1) and which communication skills are required in order to successfully complete classes where English is used as the medium of instruction (Chapter 8.2). This also examines whether English language proficiency is part of the stated assessment criteria (Chapter 6.3). Since all the programmes investigated are fairly specialised in terms of their thematic foci (cf. Unterberger 2012: 90), it is also necessary to examine the role of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), that is, how much emphasis is put on the teaching of subject-specific genre and terminology knowledge. In the context of ESP, the present study also reveals to what extent collaboration between subject-specialists and language-specialists takes place in English-medium programmes (Chapter 8.2). In addition, an analysis of prevalent teaching formats will identify the varieties of English-medium teaching at WU and will indicate to what extent interactive and communicative teaching approaches can be found in the EMPs investigated. Since all the programme managers interviewed also teach in the EMPs, their views on the need for teaching staff to prove their language proficiency (Chapter 8.4) as well as the differences between teaching in their mother tongue and using EMI will also be considered (Chapter 8.5).

Since the research process used for the course description analysis was rather complex (cf. Chapter 5.5), it may be helpful to recall the following parameters of this data set:

- analysis of 93 individual courses in four English-taught master's programmes at WU

- course descriptions include: course contents, teaching formats, didactic methods, learning objectives and assessment criteria
- 21 codes were used to identify the following aspects in the course descriptions:
 - *Language learning objectives* (codes 1.1. – 1.7.)
 - *Language skills as assessment criteria* (codes 2.1. – 2.5.)
 - *Teaching formats and methods* (codes 3.1. – 3.9.)
- the qualitative data was “quantitized” (Dörnyei 2009: 269) to show the frequencies of the codes
- if more than one instance of a particular was identified in the description of a particular course, the code was only used once

Due to this systematic coding approach, it was therefore possible to identify the exact number of courses in which a particular code occurs. These findings will be presented in the following subchapters. For a comprehensive overview of the findings and all codes used, please refer to Appendix 9.

8.1 Language learning objectives in EMPs

The conceptual framework established in Chapter 4 has shown that English-medium instruction does not necessarily entail actively pursuing language learning objectives. For this part of the study, textualised language learning aims are identified in the course descriptions of four English-medium master’s programmes at WU. The motive behind this analysis is to show how frequently they can be found and which language learning objectives feature most prominently. These findings from these are combined with insights gained from the interviews to show whether instructors consider their English-medium courses settings in which language learning is actively facilitated, or if they believe that English is primarily “a vehicular language in the delivery of content” (Järvinen 2008: 83).

A close consultation of the research on language learning in English-medium settings shows that the latter point of view is indeed widespread. In their large-scale survey on EMPs in Europe, Wächter and Maiworm asked HEI officials about their motives behind the introduction of EMPs. The questionnaire respondents made it clear that improving

the students' English proficiency was usually not a reason to introduce an EMP (2008: 67–68). Likewise, Coleman emphasised that “this rainbow of motives [for the introduction of EMPs] ranges from the ethical and pedagogical through the pragmatic to the commercial. Foreign language learning in itself is NOT the reason why institutions adopt English-medium teaching” (2006: 4). Instead, the introduction of an EMP tends to be triggered by the heterogeneity of the student body. Since EMPs are often highly internationalised programmes which host students with a variety of linguistic backgrounds, English is often the lingua franca allowing all stakeholders “to engage in educational discourse” (Smit 2010b: 62). Programme developers often aim for a high degree of internationalisation (Unterberger 2012: 90–91) and “English is thus chosen to make tertiary education possible, not to help students improve their English” (Smit 2010b: 62).

On the other hand, despite the lack of overt language learning objectives, research has also shown that implicit aims can often be detected in EMPs and that incidental language learning takes place when a foreign language is used as the medium of instruction (Rauto 2008: 23–24). As Rauto argues, the notion of incidental language learning, i.e. the assumption that the exposure to “comprehensible” English-medium lectures, discussions and research literature will aid language learning, is supported by Krashen’s input hypothesis (2008: 25; 1984). Similarly, Järvinen argues that “the affordances view of input – what the context can ‘afford’ in terms of learning language” also supports the view that EMPs offer rich possibilities for students to acquire the language used in the programmes (2008: 83). However, it can also be argued that, in order for language learning to take place, these opportunities must be taken advantage of actively. Swain’s output hypothesis states that the mere exposure to the foreign language is not enough and students therefore need to use the L2 to acquire it (Swain 1995). Long’s interaction hypothesis goes further stressing that for second language acquisition to take place, there needs to be verbal interaction, feedback, negotiation and comprehensible input.

It can therefore be concluded that for language learning to take place in EMPs, students need to be exposed to comprehensible input, have the opportunity to produce output *and* engage in interaction with other speakers. Consequently, simply

listening to English as the medium of instruction, particularly in traditional lecture-style formats, is not sufficient for students to develop advanced language skills. Furthermore, other researchers argue that even this will only help students improve in some areas: “if they are to benefit fully from their productive language skills in addition to the receptive, this will require systematic language instruction” (Hellekjaer & Wilkinson 2003: 90).

Based on the insights suggested by previous research on language learning in EMI, the present study builds on the following three commonly accepted facts about language learning in EMPs as:

1. The aim to improve students’ language proficiency is usually not a reason for introducing an English-taught degree programme (e.g. Wächter & Maiworm 2008).
2. The choice of the medium of instruction is a consequence of internationalisation and thus English frequently functions as a lingua franca (e.g. Smit 2010b).
3. Language learning may be an implicit aim as EMPs provide opportunities for incidental language learning (e.g. Rauto 2008).

Based on these shared assumptions about EMI, one might assume that explicitly stated language learning objectives are a scarcity in the course descriptions of English-taught degree programmes. However, the present study produced rather surprising results as only 23% of all the course descriptions (i.e. 21 out of 93 courses) do not contain explicit language learning aims (cf. Appendix 8). This, in turn, means that the descriptions of an astonishing 77% of all courses actually include explicitly stated language learning aims. The frequent occurrence of such explicitly formulated language learning objectives throughout the English-taught business and economics classes inevitably triggers two follow-up questions. Firstly, *which language learning objectives are most frequently listed?* and, secondly, *how is the acquisition of these skills promoted?* While the remainder of the present chapter will answer the first question, the second will be addressed in the subsequent section.

The finding that explicit language learning objectives could be identified in 77% of the course descriptions stands in stark contrast to the programme managers' views expressed in the interviews⁷³. Indeed, the extracts below show that the programme managers of EMPs have a somewhat divergent view on the issue of language learning aims in EMPs.

[PM 1]: [The development of discipline-specific English proficiency] is a logical consequence. Of course, there are differences [between students]. We have students who have problems expressing themselves in German, they cannot do that any better in English and will not be as successful as their more eloquent colleagues during the placement phase.

[PM 2]: Yes, but we are educating quants [i.e. quantitative analysts]. And there are some quants who will always prefer sitting in their offices and making complicated calculations and you do not have to teach them great presentation skills just in case. They will find jobs in which they will primarily do calculations. [...] But there are others who consider this an integrated element of their further career. However, it is not like we are considering any specific training. From our point of view, the job placement in the industry is clearly a task of the ZBP [i.e. *Zentrum für Berufsplanung*, WU's career centre]. It is their task to prepare applicants for job interviews. In our science track, we offer individual advice but on a rather informal level. [PM1]: The other thing is the real technical terminology. For example, what is *Soll* and *Haben* [i.e. credit; debit] in English? There were students who did not know these terms and they, of course, know that when graduating from the programme. So, they definitely reach the level of actively and passively understanding the technical terminology. And this *is* an aim. But if they are then able to correctly use gerund and infinitive, I do not know.

Quote 25 Interview_01 [my translation]

We definitely have implicit [language learning aims]. I was very pleased to observe that their presentation skills improve considerably. If they have to present something, their presentations are well prepared and, as far as I can judge, also very good from a language point of view. [...] This is certainly a positive side effect.

Quote 26 Interview_02 [my translation]

In addition to the stated objectives that [students] have to have good negotiation and presentation skills, which are assessed by our lecturers, I

⁷³ See Appendix 1 for an overview of all conducted interviews, including details on the interviewees as well as date and length.

believe that the language [of instruction] entails so much more. The ultimate learning outcomes include much more than these stated objectives.

Quote 27 Interview_03 [my translation]

[The development of discipline-specific English proficiency] is an implicit aim. It is not an explicitly formulated aim, at least not at the moment. I believe it is inevitable that students improve their English proficiency when they are enrolled on a two-year English-taught programme with at least one semester abroad. [...] I believe that this has to lead to improved language proficiency, even though I have to point out that some of our students already have very advanced English skills and 15-20% of them are native speakers of English anyway. [...] They can improve on [technical] terminology but they all have a bachelor's degree already and should know the basic terminology [of the discipline]. You have to understand that we are operating on a very advanced level given our strict entry regulations. [...] But, of course, their technical terminology will be expanded.

Quote 28 Interview_04 [my translation]

I do not think that [the development of discipline-specific English proficiency] is an explicit aim. However, our [PhD] programmes are internationally oriented and it is obvious that if they are going to work in an international context, it is very likely that their working language will be English. That is a given most of the time. [Their English] is surely going to improve during the programme, even though the students are not with us that long. Of course, they will learn [the language of the discipline] and improve their writing but most of them already have fairly advanced English skills when they start.

Quote 29 Interview_05 [my translation]

Despite the fact that language learning aims could be identified in more than three quarters of the courses, the programme managers mostly remain very vague when it comes to language learning objectives. In fact, the discussion of the aims identified in the course descriptions will show that the programme managers' views are somewhat divergent from the trends identified in the analysis. Most programme managers believe that the input provided in an English-taught degree programme is automatically beneficial for the English proficiency of students (cf. Quote 25, Quote 28, Quote 29). In other words, they consider increased English proficiency "a logical consequence" (Quote 25) and "an implicit aim" (Quote 28) of English-medium instruction. In line with the shared assumptions about EMI stated above, the programme managers are of the opinion that incidental language learning is promoted by English-medium instruction.

Nevertheless, the quotes also demonstrate that the programme managers are uncertain about which specific language skills are supposed to be developed in their programmes. They refer only occasionally to specific language skills. 3 out of 5 programme managers agree that the development of subject-specific terminology is an aim, be it explicit or implicit (Quote 25, Quote 28, Quote 29). Only one considers improving presentation and negotiation skills as explicit aims (Quote 27), while another observed that improved presentation skills are a positive side effect (Quote 26). These findings imply that the programme managers, who all also teach in the EMPs, are not aware of most of the language skills students are likely to develop through the exposure to EMI, let alone the skills they need in order to do well in an EMI setting (cf. Chapter 8.2). Moreover, they do not consider the development of linguistic skills as aims but rather as the logical consequences of using English as the medium of instruction. Clearly, discipline-specific terminology is the most overt, and for some indeed the only, language learning aim in a setting in which content learning is strongly prioritised. However, it could be argued that “the better students become in the foreign language used in the programme, the better they should be able to learn the content matter in question” (Hellekjaer & Wilkinson 2003: 90). A more active approach to promote language learning in EMPs could therefore improve the overall quality of an English-taught programme.

A closer look at the data generated by the mixed methods⁷⁴ approach pursued in the course description analysis paints a different picture than the one presented by the programme managers. For instance, given the accounts of the programme managers, it is rather surprising that the development of subject-specific terminology is hardly ever explicitly mentioned in the course descriptions. In fact, out of the five different categories identified, developing the students’ technical terminology is the lowest-ranked category, even though most programme directors seemed to consider this the only ‘proper’ language-related learning aim. In fact, the detailed overview presented in

⁷⁴ By taking a content analysis approach, textualised language learning objectives in the course descriptions were categorised. Additionally, this qualitative data was “quantitized” (Dörnyei 2009: 269) in order to show frequencies (cf. Appendix 8). See Chapter 5.5 for a detailed account of the research methods used to generate this data.

Appendix 9 clearly shows that the category **‘Broadening subject-specific terminology knowledge’** (code 1.5.) was only assigned for 6 out of the 93 courses analysed and thus the aim to learn technical vocabulary is listed for less than 7% of the courses. The results of the course description analysis therefore suggest that other language skills are more actively pursued in the EMI courses than the acquisition of technical vocabulary. One reason might be that, for the instructors, the teaching and learning of terminology knowledge is so obvious that they do not need to list it as a learning aim in the course descriptions. The lack of references to the development of subject-specific terminology could also mean that increasing other skills is more important but the interviewees do not consider them to be language-related skills.

The language learning objective with the most occurrences (n=43) was the category of **‘Increasing discussion / negotiation / communication skills’** (code 1.2.). The extracts below illustrate how this language learning aim is verbalised in the course descriptions and also shows that they are indeed formulated as explicit aims. As it is WU policy⁷⁵ that course descriptions always have to include a section on learning outcomes, the following extracts are usually preceded by a heading such as *‘After completing this course, students will be able to...’* or *‘The aim of this course is to...’*.

enter effectively into oral discussions about financial markets and investment.

Extract 21 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 19 / QFin / ESP bridging course)

work and communicate effectively in a team situation and function as a valuable and cooperative team member [and] participate in group discussions / team work.

Extract 22 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 19 / QFin)

- communicate and discuss possible approaches to a certain problem in class

⁷⁵ At WU, instructors are responsible for their course descriptions published in WU’s course catalogue. In order to guarantee uniformity, all instructors have to follow the same format and provide information on contents of the course, learning outcomes, teaching and learning methods and assessment (cf. WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2011b). The provision of all these details is mandatory, allowing for a direct comparison between courses and programmes and making the systematic analysis of course descriptions possible in the first place.

- work in groups and contribute to the implementation of economics optimization models
- defend the chosen approach in class

Extract 23 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 19 / QFin)

engage in active discussions with both leading academics and senior managers.

Extract 24 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 20 / SIMC)

From a communication perspective:

... engage in vivid discussions and interactive group sessions

Extract 25 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 20 / SIMC)

- successfully facilitate discussions in various business contexts (meetings, negotiations, workshops, etc.)
- professionally prepare and lead through discussions

Extract 26 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 20 / SIMC)

learn to give and receive constructive feedback.

Extract 27 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 20 / SIMC)

Efficiently work and communicate in a team.

Extract 28 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 21 / SCM)

This class will foster the students' ability to participate in group discussions and team work.

Extract 29 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 22 / CEMS)

Engage in scientific discussion and make an appropriate contribution.

Extract 30 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 22 / CEMS)

The course aims to develop strategic thinking in a global marketing context and will provide an opportunity to sharpen verbal and written communication skills.

Extract 31 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 22 / CEMS)

The capacity to detect and analyse cultural differences in communication patterns, negotiation styles, leadership behaviour, and so on.

Extract 32 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 22 / CEMS)

Give and take supporting feedback, lead group discussions.

Extract 33 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 22 / CEMS)

The extracts above are representative examples for the 43 courses (46%) which list the objective 'Increasing discussion / negotiation / communication skills' (code 1.2.) as a language learning aim. As the extracts above show, there are several recurrent themes that emerge within this category. For the majority of English-taught courses, it is clearly a learning objective to increase the students' communicative competence in actively engaging in discussions about the subject content. This includes making contributions during whole-class discussions but also negotiating with team members during group work (Extract 21, Extract 23, Extract 24, Extract 25, Extract 26, Extract 29, Extract 30). Since these are skills students will also need after graduation (Wilkinson 2011: 115), it is reasonable that they are frequently listed as learning objectives. It could be argued that, despite their frequent occurrence as learning objective in the course descriptions, the fact that the programme managers did not refer to these skills in the interviews shows that they are not aware of the linguistic demands of discussing and negotiating, especially in a foreign language. Curiously, this category is particularly dominant in the programme 'Quantitative Finance' (ID 19) (cf. Appendix 9), even though the interviewed programme managers firmly rejected the idea of any language learning objectives other than the development of technical vocabulary (cf. Quote 25).

In addition to discussions and negotiations, there are numerous references to team work to be found in this category (Extract 22, Extract 23, Extract 25, Extract 28, Extract 29). When taking the heterogeneous student groups into account, it is very likely that most team members will not be native speakers of English. The team is thus using English as a lingua franca, i.e. as a shared language to accomplish tasks set by the instructor, which can be highly demanding in terms of communication skills. Similarly, giving feedback to peers (Extract 27, Extract 33) and improving the students' general communication skills are also mentioned (Extract 31, Extract 32). The course descriptions of the programme 'International management / CEMS' (ID 22) frequently include very explicitly formulated language learning aims (cf. Extract 29 – Extract 33). This observation is in agreement with the programme manager's statement that negotiation and presentation skills are explicit language learning objectives of the programme (Quote 27). This increased language awareness is most likely connected to the fact that this programme is part of the CEMS alliance of renowned business schools

and thus adheres to standardised learning objectives and stricter entry requirements (cf. Chapters 7.1 and 6.3.3).

In Quote 27 the CEMS programme director also named presentation skills as another explicit language learning aim next to negotiation skills. Indeed, the category of **‘Improving presentation skills’** (code 1.1.) is ranked second (n=27) in the course description analysis (cf. Appendix 9). In order to illustrate how this language learning aim is verbalised in the course descriptions, the following extracts are chosen as representative examples of this category.

[P]resent (in oral and written form) findings appropriately to an audience.

Extract 34 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 19 / QFin)

Summarise and professionally present solutions in class.

Extract 35 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 19 / QFin)

- Persuade with their presentations
- Understand the importance of listening to the audience
- Respond to difficult questions

Extract 36 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 20 / SIMC)

[D]evelop and present solutions in a team.

[I]mprove their oral and written communication and presentation skills.

[P]resent project outcomes in different environments and for different target groups (e.g. expert jury, team members, VirginiaTech conference, etc.)

Extract 37 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 20 / SIMC)

[D]evelop and present solutions in a team.

Extract 38 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 21 / SCM)

[S]hift material quickly and efficiently, to structure it into a coherent argument and to present it in a concise way tailored to a professional audience.

[P]resent and “sell” this business project to the customer in a professional way, through personal presentation skills and support of suitable media.

Extract 39 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 22 / CEMS)

The ability to rapidly structure ideas and presentations both as individuals and as members of a team.

Extract 40 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 22 / CEMS)

After completing this course, students should be better able, among other things, to [...] give clear, well-structured oral presentations.

Extract 41 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 22 / CEMS)

These extracts show how the language learning aim of ‘Improving presentation skills’ (code 1.1.) is formulated in 29% of the course descriptions. After completing these English-taught classes, students are expected to be able to “quickly and efficiently” prepare (Extract 39; also: Extract 40) and “professionally present” (Extract 35) “clear and well-structured” (Extract 41) presentations. The course descriptions further distinguish between presenting findings of their (research) projects (Extract 34, Extract 37) in teams (Extract 31, Extract 38, Extract 40), or individually. Moreover, students are expected to learn how to adjust their presentations to different target groups (Extract 37, Extract 39) and how to respond to audience questions afterwards (Extract 36).

As with the aims discussed in the first category, only two programme managers stated that improving the students’ presentation skills is an actual aim, with one of them considering it to be an implicit (Quote 26) and one an explicit (Quote 27) objective. Given that 27 out of 93 courses explicitly list presentation skills as part of their learning objectives, this again shows that they are often taken for granted. Since there is hardly any training in presentation skills (cf. Chapter 8.2 and Appendix 10), it appears to be assumed that students learn from each other and simply improve in the course of the programme (cf. shared assumptions about EMI #3). While this is certainly true to some extent, the specific language needed in order to structure presentations and react to audience responses and questions in a foreign language might not be that obvious to students. In other words, “students do not simply need to master the language; they need to acquire the rhetoric and style of [the domain] they are specialising in” (Hellekjaer & Wilkinson 2003: 93–94). Since presentation skills are closely connected to employability, future employers will expect graduates to be capable of giving well-structured presentations in English (Eriksson & Gustafsson 2008: 118). However, there seems to be little explicit input towards helping students develop these skills.

This aim to foster the development of students' presentation skills is very closely followed by the third-ranked category (n=24) of **'Honing academic and discipline-specific writing skills'** (code 1.4.). The extracts below show that, even though they were only briefly mentioned by one of the programme managers (Quote 29), improving the students' writing skills is actually very frequently listed as an explicit learning objective in the course descriptions.

After this course students:

- will be able to grasp, analyse and discuss current scientific publications in the field of finance,
 - will be prepared to research, write and present academic papers [...]
- Moreover, this course will contribute to the students' ability to:
- engage in a scientific discussion and make an appropriate contribution,
 - confidently organise and integrate ideas and information,
 - present (in an oral and written form) findings appropriate to an audience.

Extract 42 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 19 / QFin / EAP course)

After completing this class, students will be able to:

- understand and apply essential concepts in the field of financial markets and investment, and use the terminology and other language features associated with them appropriately and accurately [...]
- understand upper-level written texts about financial markets and investment.

In addition, this class will foster the students' ability to:

- explain and summarise written texts (relating to financial markets and investment)
- enhance reading and writing skills

Extract 43 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 19 / QFin / ESP bridging course)

This course aims at providing students with the necessary knowledge and skills in order to successfully draft a research proposal and to write / complete a master thesis.

After completing this course, students will have the ability to:

- formulate clear, intelligible research questions
- structure and draft a research proposal
- successfully write / complete a master thesis

Apart from that, this course will contribute to the students' ability to [...] improve their oral and written communication and presentation skills.

Extract 44 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 20 / SIMC / EAP course)

At the end of this second course, students should have a basic knowledge about actual trade practice, including contracting, customs and documentary

paperwork, means and modes of payment, transport management as well as security, compliance and risk management issues.

Extract 45 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 21 / SCM)

After successful completion of this course, students should be able to:
[...] design supply contracts (vendor managed inventory, buy-back, quantity discounts, option contracts, revenue sharing, quantity flexibility contracts).

Extract 46 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 21 / SCM)

The aims of the course are [...]

- to increase students' understanding of scientific publications in the field of international management
- to help students to develop and write a good master thesis in the field of international management [...]

By the end of the course students will have learned [...] how to plan, structure, and evaluate a master thesis in the field of international management.

Students on completion of the course will have:

- the ability to structure a scientific study (e.g. master thesis) in the field of international management
- the know how to obtain and analyse information which will help to develop a good scientific publication (e.g. master thesis)
- the ability to analyse the quality of scientific work

Extract 47 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 22 / CEMS / EAP course)

Key Skills:

Students on completion of the course will have:

- The ability to shift material quickly and efficiently, and to structure it into a coherent argument.
- The ability to research material related to companies and business context under pressure of tight deadlines.
- Organisational abilities in relation to teamwork including presentation and report writing skills.

Extract 48 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 22 / CEMS)

After completing this course, students should be better able, among other things, to [...] write emails.

Students will be provided with various inputs outlining the basic skills required with regard to written and oral communication [...] this will include the composition of emails and other texts as well class presentations on a range of topics.

Extract 49 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 22 / CEMS / EAP course)

The aims of the course are to [...] help students to understand the business planning process, i.e. how to develop and draft a business plan.

Extract 50 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 22 / CEMS)

On completion of the course, students will have improved skills in

- reading, understanding, and critically assessing primary research [...]
- oral and written argumentation

Extract 51 Course descriptions (Prog. ID 22 / CEMS)

These extracts are examples of how the language learning aim of ‘Honing academic and discipline-specific writing skills’ (code 1.4.) is explicitly stated in 26% of the analysed course descriptions. As already mentioned above, the programme managers did not refer to the development of the students’ writing skills at all, which is particularly striking since all the programmes have obligatory EAP courses in their curricula. In fact, all the investigated master’s programmes comprise at least one (programme ID 21), and usually two (ID 19, ID 20, ID 22) EAP courses as mandatory parts of their curricula (cf. Appendix 10). In these courses, students are trained in academic writing for their master’s theses (Extract 42, Extract 44, Extract 47) and other scientific publications (Extract 42, Extract 47, Extract 51). In the only EAP class which is taught by language specialists, there is a strong focus on business communication skills such as “the composition of emails and other texts” (Extract 49). In addition to these EAP classes, there is one ESP course (cf. Appendix 10), in which students are familiarised with genre knowledge, as well as “the terminology and other language features” (Extract 43) of the field of finance. While it was to be expected that language learning objectives would be identified in the EAP/ESP classes, the aim to increase students’ writing skills can also be found in the course descriptions of content classes. For instance, students learn about the particularities of genres such as supply chain contracts (Extract 45, Extract 46) and “documentary paperwork” (Extract 45). Moreover, they are also taught how to “draft a business plan” (Extract 50) and improve their “report writing skills” (Extract 48).

Given this variety of writing skills listed as learning objectives, it is again curious that the interviewees did not refer to academic and discipline-specific writing as aims of the programmes. While the director of PhD programmes indicated that the students will

“improve their writing” (Quote 29) in the course of the programmes, none of the other interviewees considered this an explicit aim. As most EAP classes are taught by discipline experts and not by language specialists, it remains questionable whether the language learning aims listed in the course descriptions are actually actively pursued by the teachers. Consequently, it is essential to consider the issue of “disciplinary literacy” in this context (Airey 2011b). Airey argues that content experts, “as disciplinary insiders”, are responsible for helping students acquire disciplinary literacy. They need to disambiguate “disciplinary communicative practices for their students” (2011b). It is therefore not necessarily a disadvantage that the EAP courses are taught by content experts, since their position within the discipline enables them to provide students with valuable input on the discipline-specific particularities of the different genres in their field. However, it is crucial for them to be able and willing to address these topics directly in class.

With this last category of the three most frequently listed language learning aims, it might be even more important for students to receive feedback on their language than was the case with the categories of discussion / negotiation / communication skills and presentation skills. Given that it was rarely mentioned in the interviews, however, language-related feedback on the students’ writing is not very likely to take place, even though it would be very beneficial for them. As Wilkinson points out, “[s]tudents learn, partly, through receiving constructive feedback. If they receive no feedback on their language development during their business education, then they might neither improve, nor feel the need to devote resources to that development” (2011: 113). Thus, language feedback is crucial if students are expected to produce well written theses, term papers and reports in English. The discussion of language-related assessment criteria in Chapter 8.2 will shed light on this issue and show if and how the instructors provide students with language feedback.

Summing up, this chapter has shown that, contrary to common assumptions about English-medium education (cf. Järvinen 2008: 78), a surprising 77% of the analysed course descriptions actually include explicitly stated language learning aims. However, the programme managers’ views expressed in the interviews are somewhat divergent from the trends identified in the course description analysis. They largely assume

language learning to be a logical consequence of English-medium instruction and consider the development of communication skills an implicit aim of their programmes only. The interview data also suggest that communication skills such as negotiating, discussing or presenting, as well as academic reading and writing, are largely not associated with language learning. This shows the content experts' lack of awareness when it comes to the students' need to understand and use "decontextualized language" (Cummins 1981, 2000: 75). In contrast, linguists see such skills as crucial for participating in classroom interaction, writing academic essays and understanding texts about unknown subjects. Cummins refers to these skills, which students need to participate in classroom as Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). Arguably, the labels of 'cognitive' and 'proficiency' imply that these skills can (and should) be learned and acquired through explicit instruction rather than merely picked up along the way. Yet it is precisely these decontextualized language skills which the lecturers in the present study do not seem to consider as being part of the students' learning in EMPs.

For the majority of the interviewees, the development of subject-specific terminology is the only explicit language learning objective. In contrast, the category of 'Broadening subject-specific terminology' is actually the language learning aim which was identified least frequently in the course descriptions. There are several other language skills sets which assume a more prominent role in the listed learning objectives. The quantitative analysis identified 'Increasing discussion / negotiation / communication skills' as the category with the most occurrences, followed by 'Improving presentation skills' and 'Honing academic and discipline-specific writing skills'. This shows a clear focus on productive skills, with the first- and second-ranked skills stressing the importance of oral skills and the third-ranked emphasising written production.

In general, the findings derived from the interviews confirm Hellekjaer's observation that there is a "general lack of awareness about the pitfalls and possibilities of EMI" (2007: 68). Even though language learning objectives are frequently and very explicitly mentioned in the course descriptions, the interviews with programme managers have shown that they are not aware of their role as "disciplinary insiders" (Airey 2011b) who are supposed to introduce students to the linguistic demands of the specific genres of

their field. This holds true for all the top three categories of frequently mentioned language learning aims, but might be especially relevant for the aim of improving students' writing skills. The development of discussion and presentation skills may be less dependent on language input from the instructor, but the acquisition of the necessary genre knowledge for report writing and the required academic writing skills for the composition of a thesis in a foreign language calls for explicit teaching. This might also involve reassessing the role of EAP and ESP teaching in the programmes as currently the programme managers seem to rely heavily on incidental language improvement rather than consciously approaching language development (cf. Chapter 8.2). In other words, if students "are to benefit fully from their extensive exposure to the target language and develop advanced productive language skills in addition to receptive, this will require systematic language instruction" (Hellekjaer & Wilkinson 2003: 91–92).

All in all, it can be said that the frequent occurrence of explicit language learning aims in course descriptions definitely points towards a dawning awareness of the language learning element in EMPs. However, the interviews also show that the instructors and programme managers are "generally not aware of what the language learning aspect entails for their teaching" (Smit 2003: 47). The findings can thus be interpreted in two ways, i.e. the content teachers either do not attend to language matters explicitly, or they do explicitly discuss them but do not consider that to be language teaching. In any case, the findings presented in this chapter clearly show that there is a need for clarification regarding the language learning objectives on the programme designers' part. While it lies outside the scope of this study to investigate whether or not the stated language learning aims are actually achieved, the findings discussed in this chapter inevitably highlight other fundamental issues. These include the question of whether language skills are actually assessed in English-taught courses and whether the curricula of EMPs involve sufficient discipline-specific language teaching to meet these assessment criteria. In addition, this also involves the question of which language skills are required from the students to succeed in the prevalent teaching formats of EMPs. These issues will be addressed in subsequent sections.

8.2 Discipline-specific and academic language skills students need in EMPs and the role of EAP and ESP teaching

The discussion in the previous chapter on the language learning aims identified in the course descriptions has already shown that students are expected to develop a variety of language skills in English-taught courses. The aim of the present chapter is thus to show which skills they need in order to perform well in the teaching formats identified. Moreover, it will also be discussed whether these skills are actually taught in the programmes. This follows on from the discussion on EAP and ESP teaching practices brought up in previous chapters and investigates the role of discipline-specific language teaching in the curricula of EMPs.

In order to investigate the discipline-specific and academic language skills needed in EMI settings, the course description analysis also identified which teaching strategies are commonly used in the EMPs. The third section of Appendix 9 shows that the teaching formats in the investigated EMPs are relatively interactive. In fact, none of the classes are held in a traditional monologue lecture format (Unterberger 2012: 94–95)⁷⁶. Instead of the classic lecture style, the courses typically combine teacher-fronted input, which was identified in 58 of the 93 classes, with open class discussions (n=52), reading assignments (n=45), case study teaching (n=36), student presentations (n=34) and group work (n=28). This mix of teaching strategies not only requires the instructors to employ a variety of didactic and language skills (cf. Chapter 8.4), but the students also need to have the necessary receptive and productive skills to adjust to this teaching which in many cases is very different from the style they are used to at the bachelor's level. For instance, in order to properly comprehend input from the instructors, students need to employ “academic listening” skills which include further “sets of micro-skills” such as note-taking and the comprehension of “key vocabulary” (Flowerdew 1994: 12–13). Moreover, academic reading, another receptive skill, is

⁷⁶ In contrast to the findings of the present study, Rauto (2008) and Costa (2012) found that the English-taught degree programmes investigated in their studies were largely comprised of teacher-fronted lecture formats.

equally important as 48% of the courses comprise reading assignments. Students thus need to possess fairly advanced academic reading skills in order to understand and efficiently deal with large amounts of research literature. For instance, they need refined strategies to competently handle new academic vocabulary (Nation et al. 2009: 137) and need to get used to frequently used “extended collocations [...] [which] help identify a text as belonging to an academic register” (Hyland 2008: 5).

In addition to the receptive skills of academic listening and reading, students are also required to have advanced productive skills. In order to actively participate in open class discussions or group work and also when giving presentations, they need to understand the rhetoric style of the discipline and adjust to it accordingly (Hellekjaer & Wilkinson 2003: 93–94). Indeed, there is an “integral connection between subject knowledge and expertise and the language and communication skills needed to express expertise” (Räsänen 2008: 258). Räsänen even argues that “there is no real expertise unless it can be communicated to others” (2008: 258). This “disciplinary literacy”, which students need in the EMI setting as well as after graduation, not only involves oral language skills but also written ones (Airey 2011c: 3). In fact, the discussion of language-related assessment criteria in Chapter 6.3 will show that students’ writing skills are assessed in 27% of the courses. The teaching formats identified in the EMPs frequently require students to produce reports, term papers and other written assignments. Therefore, students not only need advanced academic writing skills, but must also be familiar with genres typical of their discipline (Bhatia 2004: 65).

The analysis of the teaching formats identified in EMPs shows that students need to have advanced receptive and productive skills to perform well in the programmes. This “academic communicative competence” can be seen as crucial for a “successful progression through an English-medium degree programme” (Evans & Morrison 2011: 388). While students in EMPs can be expected to develop advanced receptive skills due to the “extensive exposure to the target language”, incidental language learning of productive skills cannot be expected to take place to the same extent and thus should be taught explicitly (Hellekjaer & Wilkinson 2003: 92). Moreover, it can be argued that “key study skills such as efficient reading strategies” (Hellekjaer & Wilkinson 2003: 93)

and efficient note-taking (Nation et al. 2009: 52–56) might also require explicit teaching. In order to tackle the question of whether these skills are actually taught, the course description analysis also identified all mandatory and voluntary EAP and ESP classes in the curricula of the four EMPs investigated.

Previous research has revealed that the curricula of EMPs usually do not comprise a large number of EAP and ESP classes (e.g. Räisänen & Fortanet-Gómez 2008b: 45). This lack is partly rooted in the fact that language skills “are often considered additional and secondary to the main curriculum” and are generally “thought of as generic skills” (Fortanet-Gómez 2011: 2). Moreover, Wilkinson observed that the diminishing proportion of ESP classes in EMPs might even be “an unforeseen side-effect of the Bologna process” (2008b: 56). In other words, the restructuring into the three-cycle degree structure often led to sharp cuts in ESP classes in the new BA and MA programmes (Mettinger 2012; Wilkinson 2008b: 56). While the discussion of implementation years in Chapter 6.1 has shown that the introduction of EMPs at Austrian business faculties was definitely triggered by the Bologna reforms, a comparison between previous and current curricula lies outside the scope of the present study.

As already mentioned above, the analysis of curricula revealed that all four EMPs investigated comprise at least one EAP or ESP class. Appendix 10 shows that out of the 93 classes analysed, 8 EAP / ESP classes could be identified, which represent 31 out of the total 480 ECTS credits of the 4 master’s programmes. It can therefore be said that only 9 % of all courses focus on the development of the students’ academic or discipline-specific language skills. Given the frequent occurrence of explicitly stated language learning aims in the course descriptions (cf. Chapter 8.1), it is questionable whether the proportion of EAP and ESP teaching in the EMPs adequately promotes these aims. The fact that 77% of all analysed courses claim that students will have increased communication, presentation and/or writing skills on completion, might indeed call for more EAP and ESP classes. It has already been indicated above that explicit language teaching might be particularly relevant to improve the quality of students’ written production.

The distribution of EAP and ESP courses across all four programmes shows that there is a strong emphasis on EAP teaching in EMPs. In particular, reading and reviewing current research literature seems to be a prime concern. For instance, in classes such as 'Finance Paper Reading and Writing' or 'Research in International Management', students are introduced to the stylistic and linguistic conventions of academic writing of their discipline (cf. Appendix 10). Research on EAP considers reading and critically reviewing research literature as "crucial in the process of disciplinary socialisation" (Evans & Morrison 2011: 392). However, since all of the classes with a focus on reading are taught by subject experts, it is questionable whether advanced academic reading strategies are explicitly taught. Reading for academic purposes involves skills such as scanning a text for information, skimming it for quick understanding, as well as evaluating and critiquing research literature (Grabe 2009: 8). Moreover, students also need to be able to "identify organisational patterns" and decide whether a text is relevant for the current task (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998: 96). Collaboration between language and content teachers might therefore be advisable to support the acquisition of these skills. This would result in a more informed approach towards "reading skills development", which involves the explicit teaching of "advanced EAP skills of summarisation, synthesis, and critical evaluation of text information" (Grabe 2009: 8).

The majority of the identified EAP courses not only aim to introduce students to current research in the field but also instruct students how to write academic papers and theses. By critically reading and reviewing literature, students acquire "the academic knowledge that is subsequently consolidated and represented in written assignments" (Evans & Morrison 2011: 392). Content teachers hence expect their students to use the research papers they read in these courses as models for their own writing by imitating the stylistic and linguistic norms of the discipline. Nevertheless, an increased involvement of language specialists in the programmes would be beneficial. Several studies have already called for more interdisciplinary cooperation in the EMPs to involve language specialists when it comes to training students' EAP and ESP skills (e.g. Airey 2012; Jacobs 2007: 37; Räisänen & Fortanet-Gómez 2008b; Wilkinson 2008b). In the present study, however, the discipline experts reported that their feedback on students' writing in their research seminars is more of an informal nature.

[PM1]: You would probably argue that [the course Finance paper reading and writing] is an instance of English for Specific Purposes. What the students learn in this course is how to read a research paper and to be able to answer questions afterwards. You would say that this is ESP, but we say the students learn how to read a finance paper.

[Interviewer]: It is probably rather EAP. So there is a focus on language?

[PM1]: I know where you are aiming at. The way we do it now, and we have only done it twice so far, I am expressing self-criticism here, we talked about the content [of the papers], structure, logic, hypotheses.

[PM2:] ... building a line of argument.

[PM1]: But as for the fine tuning, this does not take place systematically. With the exception that occasionally we say 'You should write that differently'. And considering the new book of [a professor from the English institute at WU; publication on academic writing], I am sure there are things in there which we do not have in the course currently but I would consider to be additional support and an exciting thing for quite a few of our students. [...] At the moment we are only doing that as part of our individual supervising where it might not be very efficient and probably not of great quality in some cases.

Quote 30 Interview_01 [my translation]

The interview quote clearly shows that the two programme managers, who also teach the EAP course in question, feel that there is definitely room for improvement when it comes to their feedback on their students' writing. Even when they talk about the language aspects of research papers, this does not take place in a systematic way. The "self-criticism" (Quote 30) expressed by one of the interviewees indicates that he does not feel confident acting as the language expert despite the fact that he is a distinguished and well-published researcher in his field. While other programme managers were not as honest regarding their EAP teaching strategies, it can be probably be assumed that the situation described in Quote 30 is symptomatic of the general approach towards EAP teaching in the programmes. Yet there is no reason why content experts should not engage with language teaching. Courses such as 'Thesis Seminar: How to write a thesis' call for explicit academic writing instruction and proper guidance regarding the language used in such contexts. In fact, content specialists may well be better placed to address the particularities of academic writing in their field. Previous studies have shown that discipline experts can effectively provide language feedback (Hynninen 2012: 22–25; Smit 2010c: 362–365). Hynninen, for example, suggests "taking disciplinary literacy as the guiding principle of teaching academic English" (2012: 25). At the same time, Jacobs' argues that it may represent a challenge

for discipline experts to bring their tacit knowledge about discipline-specific language “into the realm of overt and explicit teaching” (2004: 164). Therefore, if content experts are not confident enough to teach academic writing, or are not able to make this tacit knowledge explicit, they should seek collaboration with language teachers. Given that WU has its own department of ‘Foreign Language Business Communication’, it is particularly surprising that such interdisciplinary collaboration within the institution is so rare.

Still, the present study found that such collaboration can successfully take place in the investigated programmes, namely in the single ESP course identified in the present study. The ‘Bridging Course Finance’, which focuses on the development of subject-specific terminology and genre knowledge and is offered as pre-sessional course for the programme ‘Quantitative Finance’ (ID 19). Students are not obliged to take it but do not have to sit the midterm test in one of their introductory classes if they do. This tailor-made ESP course is the result of close collaboration between discipline experts from the ‘Quantitative Finance’ programme (ID 19) and language specialists from WU’s business communication department. It therefore represents an ideal setting for the teaching of discipline-specific language (cf. Airey 2011b; Unterberger 2012: 92–93). The interview quote below shows the programme managers’ motives behind the introduction of this ESP course.

[PM 1]: In the first year we noticed that in the first finance-related courses about financial markets and financial instruments, students, intelligent students, who partly came from a business faculty, [...] or came from mathematics, simply did not understand what I was talking about. Because [they lacked the knowledge in] this specific financial English, business English is already specific, but financial English [even more so] and occasionally also the common business language. When I talked about “collateral” and “asset liability” they did not understand, even though they probably would have known that in their mother tongue.

[PM2]: We even had a student from the United States who said that, even though this is his mother tongue, he would have benefitted enormously if he had had more time to acquire this specific language. So this is someone who is a native speaker of English but has a mathematics background and therefore has never heard this specific language before.

[PM 1]: So that definitely complicated teaching in the first year. [...] I had a midterm exam and by then there was this build-up and that could not be repaired. Some of them did not understand anything. [...] And then we talked

to [the head of the department of foreign language business communication at WU] about the situation and he then suggested working with [two lecturers from the English institute]. [...]

[PM2]: You need to know the language of the discipline in order to allow for intelligent discussion at master's level.

Quote 31 Interview_01 [my translation]

Clearly, this collaboration with language specialists is rooted in the sobering classroom reality that students are not necessarily familiar with the specific language of the discipline in English. This also shows that the programme managers, who also initiated the ESP course, are aware that the language of business finance is highly specialised and the acquisition of it needs specific language teaching. They also realised that the students' mastery of this specialised language is crucial for the success of the programme.

Since all the EMPs at WU cover narrowly specialised subjects (Unterberger 2012: 90), it is rather surprising that none of the other programmes include ESP classes in their curricula. The following quotes show the various arguments the programme managers put forward when asked why their EMPs do not include ESP teaching.

All the technical terms are in English anyway. Students, who have been confronted with [the field of supply chain management] already know them. Therefore, I do not see the necessity of such a course. [If we discuss terms], this is just because the engineers would use a different technical term than the business economists. I do not think it is necessary to discuss that in a bridging course. I would rather tell them in class "some say 'lead time', others 'float time', it is the same". [...]

It is definitely not necessary for the technical terms, because these are typically three-letter abbreviations and all of them are English, there are no German ones used in practice. [...]

There was the discussion [to include an ESP course] in the curriculum. This concerned, for instance, supply chain contracts, which have to conform fully to formal and, of course, also linguistic criteria. In this respect, we are [...] certainly not perfect [...] but we did not consider that [i.e. the teaching of discipline-specific language] as a fundamental element of the programme. This sort of knowledge can be acquired somehow and somewhere before or after [the programme] but the subject content is unique.

Quote 32 Interview_02 [my translation]

We do not do that! [Our students] need to get through the selection and, to put it bluntly, they only pass the selection if they do not need a bridging course. [...] They are negatively selected if they do not meet the requirements.

Quote 33 Interview_02 [my translation]

While the programme managers of 'Quantitative Finance' became aware of the highly specialised language students need in their programme after they had had a rather rocky start (Quote 31), their counterparts in the two other English-taught master's programmes were of a different opinion. The programme manager of 'Strategy, Innovation, and Management Control' (ID 20) even suggested that students who do not have the necessary subject-specific language skills will simply not be admitted to the programme (Quote 33). Granted, programmes such as 'Quantitative Finance' (ID 19) and 'Supply Chain Management' (ID 21) might involve more specialised discourse and subject-specific terminology than a programme which is primarily focused on general corporate management. Nevertheless, the SIMC programme's website indicates that students are also introduced to the fields of financial management and accounting (WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business 2014), which definitely involve rather specific language.

In contrast to the SIMC programme manager, for whom explicit ESP teaching has always been a non-issue, the programme manager of 'Supply Chain Management' (ID 21) explained that the implementation of an ESP class had been discussed during the curriculum planning process. Eventually, however, the programme designers decided against any form of ESP teaching as the commonly used technical terms "are in English anyway" and the teaching of discipline-specific genre knowledge lies outside the scope of the programme (Quote 32). In fact, he placed the responsibility for acquiring the linguistic knowledge needed for specialised genres such as supply chain contracts on the students themselves. However, such genres are "highly structured and conventionalised constructs" as they combine "textual, discursive and contextual factors" which students need to know in order to become "members of a particular professional community" (Flowerdew 2011: 140). It could therefore be argued that students enrolled in English-taught programmes covering such specialised niches of business studies could and even should claim their right to be introduced to the

linguistic particularities of it. In the case of the supply chain contracts, this would mean that students need to be introduced to the generic moves and steps (Swales 1990: 140; Bhatia 1993) of this genre. After all, graduates from an English-taught supply chain management programme will be expected to be capable of understanding and writing such contracts. If the discipline experts are not aware of their responsibility “of socialising students into the discourse of the discipline” (Airey 2011a: 50), graduates might not be fluent in the language of their discipline. Since the instructors in the EMPs have to focus on teaching the subject content, adding ESP courses to the curricula would help introducing students to the linguistic particularities of their field and thereby enhance the programmes’ overall quality.

Given that the programme managers consider the ESP bridging class for ‘Quantitative Finance’ to be excellent preparation for the programme, it is surprising that it did not trigger any spin-offs. Indeed, the course could serve as a model of good practice as it represents successful collaboration between content and language experts, a set-up which has been identified by previous research as being the ideal way to teach ESP in EMPs (e.g. Airey 2011b; Wilkinson 2008b: 55). The decisive factor for the success of tailor-made language classes in EMPs is that the content experts set the disciplinary goals which then provide the basis for the language teachers’ course design. In other words, “it is the content lecturers, rather than their discussion partners in languages [...], who must make the final decisions about the particular mix of communicative practices that is needed to achieve disciplinary literacy” (Airey 2011b). The quote below, taken from the interview with the teacher of the ESP course in question, shows that this is exactly how the class came about.

[The programme managers of ‘Quantitative Finance’] specified which topics and themes we should cover. Regarding the learning objectives, [...] it is purely a terminology course, that is to say, we are not really calculating things or testing applications for their practicability. These are things that [one of the programme managers] does in his class. Our aim is primarily to define the basics of the overall topic [...] and show the students which terminological and conceptual differences are important to know and how to master them at a language level, so that they succeed in the follow-up courses. What is very important is that we operate in a very text-based manner. We let them find terms in texts, [...] we talk about collocations and try to create a sensibility for them. [...] We use newspaper articles from the *Wall Street Journal*, *The*

Financial Times, The Economist. [...] It would be very difficult to use a textbook for that as this field is so specific and we update the texts every year because there is a lot of change. Two thirds of the texts we use are not older than three or four months.

Quote 34 Interview_06 [my translation]

Clearly, the only ESP class identified in the curricula analysis functions as an “adjunct course” (Brinton et al. 1989: 14) as the materials used are designed to prepare students for the linguistic demands of their content courses. The fact that none of the other programmes provided room for ESP teaching in their curricula reflects the results of Räisänen's and Fortanet-Gómez' survey on ESP and EAP practices at eight European universities (2008b: 22). They found that ESP classes remain exceedingly rare because “the traditional watertight boundaries between academic fields are far more difficult to overcome” than one would expect (2008b: 22). However, the collaboration between the two WU institutes of ‘English Business Communication’ and ‘Finance, Accounting and Statistics’ shows that such a joint effort can be successful. Moreover, this case also demonstrates that, even if it is not possible to embed ESP teaching in the curricula of English-taught programmes, pre-sessional adjunct classes can be a realistic and viable solution. At the same time, programme designers need to be aware that implementing *pre-sessional* ESP courses might negatively affect the status of the language learning in English-taught degree programmes.

[I]f language support is established as a pre-sessional [...] programme, the message conveyed may be that the language itself is purely instrumental, and that once a minimum level required has been obtained, there is little incentive to enhance language skills further. The outcome may well be students who can succeed in foreign-language medium programmes, but who may end up being linguistically limited in the effective pursuit of their careers. (Wilkinson 2004a: 453)

Nevertheless, it can be argued that systematic pre-sessional ESP instruction is still better than no teaching of discipline-specific language at all. If curricular realities do not allow for ESP courses to be implemented in the regular curricula of EMPs, pre-sessional models represent a feasible solution. Pre-sessional ESP teaching, perhaps even more than embedded ESP, calls for a close collaboration between content and language experts to design ESP course syllabi in which the students undergo the best

possible preparation for the linguistic demands of their upcoming content classes (cf. Chapter 4.2).

In conclusion, it can be said that the analysis of the language skills needed in EMPs and the identification of EAP / ESP classes in the curricula has produced partly conflicting findings. For example, the results of the course description analysis presented in this chapter have shown that the teaching formats prevalent in EMPs require the students to have advanced receptive and productive language skills. These include academic listening and reading, as well as presentation and writing skills. While students' receptive skills are very likely to increase in English-taught programmes, productive skills may require explicit language instruction (Hellekjaer & Wilkinson 2003: 92). However, the analysis of the curricula of four English-medium master's programmes at WU indicates that there might not be enough EAP and ESP teaching to match the language learning aims the programmes claim to have (cf. Chapter 8.1). In the context of EAP, it could be argued that collaboration with language specialists might be necessary to support the acquisition of advanced reading and writing skills. The latter in particular calls for explicit language teaching in order to introduce students to the stylistic and linguistic norms and conventions of their discipline. The interviews highlighted this issue as some programme managers acknowledged that they do not provide systematic feedback on their students' writing and would not feel confident doing so.

The only course in which language and content teachers collaborate is in fact also the only ESP class identified in the study. During their first year, the programme managers who initiated this ESP course became aware of the highly specialised language that students need in order to operate successfully in their programme. This then led to the introduction of a tailor-made pre-sessional course which prepares students for the linguistic demands of the programme. Even though this collaborative project could serve as an example of good practice as it represents the ideal set-up for ESP teaching in EMPs (e.g. Jacobs 2007: 44; Räisänen & Fortanet-Gómez 2008b; Wilkinson 2008b), it has not yet triggered any spin-offs at WU. Instead, the other interviewed programme managers either thought that students must have the language skills before they enter the EMPs, or that the teaching of discipline-specific language and genre knowledge lies

outside the scope of their programme. Since the content experts neither have the time nor the expertise to teach this language, collaborating with language specialists should be considered an ideal solution. Indeed, the case of the only ESP course identified in the curricula demonstrates that such a joint effort to introduce students to the language of their field can be very successful. However, it requires the discipline experts to identify the genres and themes necessary for their classes so that the language teachers can then design a matching ESP course.

Given that only one ESP course was identified in the four EMPs investigated, the present study confirmed findings of previous research which found that there is often no room for ESP teaching in English-medium programmes (e.g. Räisänen & Fortanet-Gómez 2008b: 45; Wilkinson 2008b: 56). However, the case of adjunct ESP class identified in the present study shows that this curricular problem can be circumvented by offering ESP teaching in pre-sessional courses. In that way, students are prepared for the linguistic demands of the programme before they attend their first content classes.

8.3 The assessment of language-related skills in EMPs

Previous chapters have analysed the language learning element in EMPs from various perspectives. While Chapter 8.1 identified language learning objectives in the course descriptions, Chapter 8.2 focused on the issue of which EAP and ESP skills students need in English-taught programmes and whether these are actually taught. This section presents the last set of findings derived from the course description analysis and aims to show to what extent language-related skills are mentioned in assessment criteria. This includes a comparison between the language learning objectives identified in Chapter 8.1 and the language-related skills listed as assessment criteria. In order to provide the complete picture, the instructors' views on the relevance of language skills in their assessment practices will also be taken into account.

Chapter 8.1 has shown that language learning aims can be found frequently in the course descriptions of EMPs (see also Appendix 8). This observation raises the question

as to what extent they are reflected in the descriptions of assessment criteria. As can be seen in Appendix 9, 17 % of the courses do not comprise any language learning aims but explicitly list language-related assessment criteria in their course descriptions. This implies that students' contributions and their classroom participation, their oral presentations and written assignments affect their grade, even if their instructors do not aim to improve these skills directly. Considering the very limited hours of EAP and ESP teaching identified in Chapter 8.2, it is questionable whether students receive enough feedback on their language skills, especially if they are part of assessment (cf. Wilkinson 2008a: 178).

Appendix 9 shows that language-related skills are indeed very frequently listed among the assessment criteria. For the majority of the courses in the four master's programmes investigated, a clear pattern can be detected when analysing the role of language skills in assessment. The most frequently identified language-related assessment criteria are '**Discussion / negotiation / communication skills**' (code 2.2.; n=51), '**Presentation skills**' (code 2.1.; n=37) and '**Academic / discipline-specific writing skills**' (code 2.4.; n=25). The fact that communication, presentation and writing skills are frequently listed as assessment criteria clearly corresponds to the learning objectives identified in Chapter 8.1, where the same categories emerged as the top three aims. Students' grades are thus influenced by their participation in open class and group discussions as well as their performance when presenting findings and writing reports and term papers. While it can be argued that these tasks are primarily concerned with the communication of the subject matter, it is undeniable that students need to be equipped with a variety of academic and discipline-specific language skills in order to perform them well (cf. Chapter 8.2). The interview quotes below show that the instructors are unsure whether these two parameters can or should be separated when assessing the students' performance.

The necessity to [assess discipline-specific language skills] is actually one of the most intensely debated subjects at the moment – within the CEMS alliance's language group and beyond. [...] [In the CEMS programme] at WU we assess business competence and thus the language courses students complete are not [general language classes] but business [English] presentations and business [English] negotiations.

Quote 35 Interview_03 [my translation]

[PM 1]: We assess the students' expertise [in this specialist financial area] and this expertise is [communicated] in English.

[PM 2]: You cannot separate [the expertise from the language]. We are a non-verbal science. Writing down thoughts and this discourse stuff is not what we do. We deal with numbers. First the mathematicians deal with the numbers and we are then deal with figures. And there is not much in between.

[PM 1]: There are tables and visual presentations. There is a variety of means of communication. [...] If they do not know the technical terminology, they will fail, because I cannot assess it in Bulgarian.

Quote 36 Interview_01 [my translation]

[English proficiency] is, to a certain degree, definitely an assessment criterion, especially when it comes to seminar papers and master's theses.

Quote 37 Interview_02 [my translation]

It is not an explicit assessment criterion but nobody can claim that a clumsily written text makes the same impression as an elegantly written one.

Quote 38 Interview_05 [my translation]

I would argue that it is not an explicit aim, because that would be unfair since it is not the subject matter [of the programme]. However, I am afraid that it implicitly affects the grading of written assignments and oral presentations. If someone has a fluent command of the language and is able to structure a text coherently, it is easier to read. Let us face it; everyone will feel that way when reading a text that is written clumsily, it will affect the grading of the content quality. This is not something that you might do deliberately, this is just a given. Occasionally, I have to force myself to avoid that because I do not think it is fair as I am not an English teacher who assesses if there are 18 grammar mistakes on one page [...]. I assess the content, the accuracy of a statement, the originality of the argumentation and so forth. [...] But you cannot always separate that from the language. This might be even more so for the assessment of oral contributions, because if someone uses [a lot of fillers] and is struggling for words, I assume that this affects the assessment.

Quote 39 Interview_04 [my translation]

The interview extracts show that, for most interviewees, the students' language proficiency indirectly influences the grading of seminar papers and master's theses (Extract 32, Extract 33, Extract 34) and also that of student presentations (Extract 30, Extract 34). The 'Quantitative Finance' (ID 19) programme managers pointed out that the only language-related assessment criterion is the students' knowledge of the necessary technical terminology in English (Extract 31). However, as can be seen in

Appendix 9, the assessment of '**Subject-specific terminology knowledge**' (code 2.5.) is *never* listed as an assessment criterion in any of the 'Quantitative Finance' courses of, or indeed in any of the other programmes. This directly mirrors the results discussed in Chapter 8.1 where a variety of language learning objectives could be identified in the course descriptions of the 'Quantitative Finance' programme, even though the managers stressed that there are none except the development of subject-specific terminology. While the programme managers of 'Quantitative Finance' agreed that language cannot really be separated from the content, they also emphasised that they are not linguists and are thus not interested in analysing the discourse of their discipline (Quote 36). A similar but somewhat more informed view is expressed in Quote 39 by a programme manager who emphasises that, when assessing a student's performance, he occasionally struggles to separate the students' content knowledge from their language skills. As he feels that he is not qualified to assess the students' English, he tries to focus primarily on the quality of content in students' contributions. However, he stresses that the students' English proficiency certainly "implicitly affects the grading of written assignments and oral presentations" (Quote 39).

The interviewees' positions on the issue of assessing students' language skills can thus be grouped under three categories, i.e. '*It implicitly influences my assessment*' (Quote 35, Quote 37, Quote 38), '*I am not an English teacher*' (Quote 39) and '*I am not a linguist*' (Quote 36). While some content lecturers might not feel qualified to assess the language proficiency of their students (Quote 39), others simply might not be interested in or aware of the specific language of their discipline (Quote 36). Moreover, other interviewees are aware of the impact that students' language skills have on their assessment, but do not pursue a systematic approach in this matter (Quote 35, Quote 37, Quote 38). Generally, these findings pose the question whether or not subject experts should be able to provide feedback on language issues which arise in their English-taught content classes. The views summarised in the second and third categories are in line with findings made by Airey who described very similar attitudes in his paper "I don't teach language" (2012). He found that, even if the subject matter dealt with involves complex disciplinary discourse, the content lecturers did not "think it is their job to teach this language" and also "would not feel confident correcting their [students'] English" (2012: 74). However, Airey argues that, "from a

disciplinary discourse perspective”, all tertiary education involves language teaching aims and, in that respect, “all teachers are language teachers” (2012: 64). Instructors therefore need to realise that they themselves once had to acquire the linguistic conventions and the specific terminology of their discipline. They need to acknowledge the linguistic expertise they have in their field and pass it on to their students. In other words, “the content lecturer needs to appreciate that meanings she/he takes for granted are actually not self-evident and unambiguous per se” (Airey 2012: 76). By contrast, the instructors interviewed in the present study very much share the views of those in Dafouz’ study who also “made a strict division between language issues and content” and did not consider language issues as part of their responsibility (2011: 201).

In line with the points made in the discussion of EAP/ESP teaching practices in Chapter 8.2, it can again be argued that it is necessary for the content lecturers to comment on certain discipline-specific language issues in their classes. This is even more important if their assessment criteria comprise language-related skills. As can be seen in the results of Hynninen’s study (2012: 19), it is not uncommon for discipline experts to share language insights with their students. The lecturers in her study occasionally commented on language issues, even if they were not native speakers of English and did not have a background in language teaching. This finding suggests that lecturers who are familiar with the linguistic conventions of their field should not be reluctant to share this knowledge with their students. This means that, occasionally, they need to be ready “to take on the role of language expert” and thereby integrate language into their content classes (2012: 23). The findings of the present study suggest that this approach might be indeed reasonable and valuable for the students’ acquisition of “disciplinary literacy” (Airey 2011b).

The discussion of language-related assessment criteria in this chapter has revealed that this issue might require more attention in the programme design and delivery of EMPs in future. While the analysis of course descriptions shows that communication, presentation and writing skills are frequently listed as assessment criteria, instructors are unsure whether the students’ language proficiency can or should be assessed. Even

though students' grades are affected by their performance in discussions, presentations and written assignments, the interviewed instructors stressed that they do not systematically assess students' language skills. This represents a somewhat difficult situation as it can be argued that if language-related aspects are part of the assessment, students need to receive feedback on how to improve these. The instructors should ideally provide feedback on both the content *and* the language in students' assignments, otherwise "their students may have grounds for complaint if they are not receiving advice on how to develop their language competences in the discipline" (Wilkinson 2008a: 178). The lack of awareness of the instructors for their role as teachers of the language of their discipline appears to be symptomatic of this case study (cf. Chapter 8.2). However, the frequent occurrence of language skills as assessment criteria calls for them to approach this issue more actively. If they cannot overcome their reluctance to occasionally assume the role of the language expert, they need to consider collaboration or co-assessment with language teachers (cf. Wilkinson 2008a: 178).

8.4 The programme managers' views on the instructors' English proficiency and the need for specialised EMI training

When investigating English-medium degree programmes, the issue of the English proficiency required of those teaching in the programmes cannot be ignored. While an assessment of the actual English proficiency of the instructors lies outside the scope of the study, the interviews⁷⁷ captured their perspectives on various relevant issues regarding teaching in EMPs. The present chapter will therefore report on their self-assessment of their English proficiency in teaching situations, as well as their views on the controversial topic of implementing English proficiency tests for instructors teaching in EMPs. Moreover, the question of the necessity of specialised training for English-medium instruction will also be discussed.

⁷⁷ See Appendix 1 for a detailed overview of the interviews conducted with programme designers who also teach in the EMPs and a teacher trainer offering specialised training for English-medium instruction.

When it comes to the subject of the English proficiency of the teaching staff in EMPs, numerous research studies have claimed that English-medium instruction requires training and language support for content lecturers (e.g. Airey 2004; Hellekjaer 2007; Klaassen 2008; Kling & Hjulmand 2008; Wilkinson 2005). Therefore, this issue was addressed in the interviews with the programme designers since all of them also teach in the EMPs. The following quotes on the interviewees' self-evaluation of their English proficiency clearly indicate that they do not consider this to be a problematic area at all.

I believe that there is a lot of self-selection taking place. [...] When we started, seven or eight years ago, [English-taught programmes] were a cultural issue at a few departments at WU. They identify strongly with the German language. For us, the language of the discipline has always been English. Everyone who wants to publish a proper paper publishes it in English. Where are you supposed to publish it if it is written in German? [...] Those who have never taught in English [might be intimidated first] but if you have done it once, you see that it works and that half of the students' English is not that good either. [...] It is also a question of age. They say that the younger [the researchers], the better the English competency and the older, the less likely that you can convince people to give it a try.

Quote 40 Interview_01 [my translation]

Parts of our programme have always been in English but I was not involved in them. [My experience with using English in this context] is based on giving presentations in English [...] and the fact that most of the time we talk in English here at the institute. In the past, we had a couple of research assistants who did not have German as their mother tongue and that made me get used to [using English]. And this does not mean that you can only string together technical terms [...]. My proficiency keeps increasing due to the continuous exposure and the ongoing contact with students and guest professors. In the past five years we have also been involved in several international projects in which we were exclusively communicating in English. [...] I observe that the younger research assistants [...] are very internationally oriented, they start attending international conferences in their first year. And, as far as I can judge from their presentations in English, they are way better than I was back then. [When I was a junior researcher] it was heroic if you [presented a paper] in Germany. [...] From my point of view, rapid developments towards internationalisation have been taking place in our niche of business administration over the past ten years. This promoted the use of English.

Quote 41 Interview_02 [my translation]

All colleagues teaching in the CEMS programme have been recruited from abroad anyhow. There are very few [...] who also teach in German. [...] All professors [...], who are teaching the core courses of the programme, are

exclusively teaching in English. [...] In order to teach at the master's level [...] a PhD is a prerequisite. Our pre-docs do not teach in the master's programme but they teach in English in the bachelor's. But our pre-docs are also not locals either; we have a very international faculty. [...] The majority of professorship positions [in this discipline] in the German-speaking area will require you to teach in English. [...] There are certainly a couple of German universities [...] which teach [International Business Administration] in German but there are only two German textbooks for it. I believe that our junior scientific staff is already very internationally oriented.

Quote 42 Interview_03 [my translation]

You have to understand that our department consists of [...] thirty-somethings and forty-somethings. We were lucky enough that we were forced to start working in English relatively early in our careers. Nevertheless, I believe that the current generation, which is 10, 20 years younger, has even better language proficiency. Still, it is easier for us than for those who are in their sixties now, who were not really encouraged to use English in the first half of their career.

Quote 43 Interview_04 [my translation]

The interview extracts show that the programme managers who are also instructors in the EMPs do not consider the English proficiency of the teaching staff to be an issue. On the contrary, they emphasise that, due to the internationalisation of higher education, it is a must for the research and teaching staff at WU to be reasonably proficient in English. They argue that publishing “proper” papers in English journals (Quote 40), giving presentations at international conferences and participating in international projects is something that they are used to (Quote 41). Moreover, communication at the university frequently takes place in English due to its international faculty (Quote 41, Quote 42). The interviewees imply that these activities have promoted their English proficiency and they are thus confident about their language skills. One even argues that being able to teach subjects such as ‘International Business Administration’ in English is increasingly considered a prerequisite at universities in German-speaking countries (Quote 42). Interestingly enough, all interviewees emphasise that English proficiency is closely connected to the age of the teaching staff. They argue that “the younger, the better the English competency” (Quote 40) and that nowadays the junior faculty is involved in research activities which require the use of English earlier than they were themselves (Quote 41, Quote 42, Quote 43; for similar findings cf. Klaassen & Bos 2010: 63).

In contrast to the interviewees in the present study, who rated their English proficiency as fully adequate for the demands of English-taught degree programmes, previous research has shown that lecturers are not always as confident. Vinke (1995: 140), for example, observed that “[s]witching from the mother tongue to English has certain negative effects on the way in which ‘practised’ Dutch lecturers experience the performance of their teaching duties”. Among other things, they reported experiencing “linguistic limitations” and “a reduced ability to improvise”. Similarly, the lecturers in Fortanet-Gómez’ study (2012: 55) reported that they have “relatively low self-confidence” when it comes to using English as the medium of instruction. In contrast to the interviewed professors at WU, they reported having a higher degree of English proficiency in their research activities, i.e. when writing and presenting research papers. While the interviewed instructors in the present study stress that they have gained their confidence from their research-related use of English, their Spanish counterparts explicitly distinguished between these two settings. Since the findings of both studies merely report on the lecturers’ beliefs about their performance in English-medium settings, they do not necessarily mirror “their real capacity to use English” and the tasks “they can or cannot do with their command of the English language” (Fortanet-Gómez 2012: 55). Still, the interview quotes clearly demonstrate that the programme managers at WU are remarkably confident about their ability to teach in English and that they do not really anticipate potential difficulties for either the teachers or the students. However, previous research has identified several potentially problematic areas in English-medium teaching settings. For instance, Klaassen’s analysis (2001: 62–66) of effective lecturing behaviour in English-medium settings showed that lecturers often find it difficult to give clear explanations, provide variations of explanations and move away from pre-planned lecture structures. Similarly, Vinke (1995: 109–112) identified reduced quality in lecturers’ performance when using English as the medium of instruction. Among other things, Vinke’s study showed that lecturers tend to have limited vocabulary, a lower speech rate and also show difficulties in moving away from a prepared script and presentation.

While the interview quotes above have demonstrated that the managers of the EMPs at WU do not consider the linguistic competence of the teaching staff to be an issue relevant to the programmes' quality assurance, some European institutions have actually implemented language tests for lecturers in English-medium programmes. For instance, Delft University of Technology decided to test the language proficiency of its lecturers in English-taught programmes after students voiced complaints about the quality of English-medium instruction (Klaassen & Bos 2010: 61). In fact, instructors at Delft University of Technology are now required to have a C2 level of English proficiency according to the CEFR in order to be qualified to teach through English. The university administration at Delft argues that "if we are to prepare our local students for global citizenship we have to offer them the opportunity to listen to lecturers with a C2 level of English" (Klaassen & Bos 2010: 75). While the university management at Delft used the IELTS test to measure their teaching staff's English proficiency, the administration at the University of Copenhagen took the issue one step further by introducing a custom-made test. The Test of Oral English Proficiency for Academic Staff (TOEPAS) was implemented because common proficiency tests such as IELTS and TOEFL do not "fully reflect the communicative tasks faced by university lecturers, i.e. they do not fully represent the domain of university teaching" (Kling & Staehr 2011: 214–215). Therefore, the TOEPAS was introduced to assess "whether university lecturers have sufficient oral proficiency for coping with the communicative demands of English-medium instruction" (Kling & Staehr 2011: 213). The TOEPAS is used as a quality assurance tool for the elite COME (Copenhagen Masters of Excellence) programmes at University of Copenhagen, which are all English-taught (Kling & Staehr 2011: 213).

Since WU's English-medium programmes also aim to attract excellent students and distinguished teaching staff (cf. Chapter 7), such a quality assurance mechanism could also be desirable in this context. However, the question whether it was reasonable to test the English proficiency of those teaching in the programmes proved to be a rather delicate one in the interviews with programme managers at WU. In fact, the interview quotes below show that most interviewees found it was neither necessary nor feasible to require proof of English proficiency from the instructors in their programmes.

[Interviewer]: Do you think it would be reasonable to introduce a standardised English test for the teaching staff?

[PM1]: No.

[PM2]: No. [Indicating desire to move on to the next question]

Quote 44 Interview_01 [my translation]

[PM]: In the sense that English-taught courses at WU are only held by people who have successfully passed the proficiency test? Is that the idea?

[Interviewer]: Yes, some sort of qualification certificate.

[PM]: Basically, I would tend to say “yes” but you see that I am a bit sceptical here. If I take my programme and imagine asking someone to be a guest lecturer or part of the core faculty [...], I would not want them to put up with something like that. I would exclude myself from that because I like taking tests. I have never shirked from a test in my whole life because I consider it to be feedback on areas I can improve in. However, I have learned that not everybody sees it that way, especially if they are established [professors], a lot of them would consider it to be an imposition. You have to consider that. I would not want to offend someone. [...] If I ask guest lecturers to join the programme, a lot of them would probably consider it an imposition along the lines of “I have to take a test before I am allowed to lecture there”. For our junior faculty this would be OK but I suspect that their English is really good anyway so a test would not be a problem for them.

If there was a test at all, I would advertise it as a tool for self-diagnosis. I would say, we offer [a test like that], maybe initially even on a voluntary basis, so that [the lecturers] see in which areas they are very good and where there would be room for improvement. And then we would also offer special training courses. Maybe I am oversimplifying now but such a test could have four parts and if someone [...] is not doing well in one of them, [...] you could offer tailor-made training. [...] This could be well received. I think it is important that you would sell such a thing as a support to upgrade one’s qualifications and not as a test. [A test] implies that if you do not pass, you cannot teach [in our programme] and also have, in a way, embarrassed yourself. From my point of view, it is not necessary to show somebody up. I would try to deal with that in a socially intelligent way.

Quote 45 Interview_04 [my translation]

[PM]: I would say that, in the medium run, if these international English-medium programmes continue to develop and grow, this might be helpful. However, I need to stress that I do not think our teaching staff would need that.

[Assistant of PM]: I cannot see that a standardised test for the teaching staff would catch on because there is nothing comparable for German and also there is no certification regarding the didactic qualifications of the teaching staff. I would be utterly surprised if a language proficiency certification, of all things, would become prevalent.

Quote 46 Interview_02 [my translation]

I would consider it to be not particularly helpful, from a practical point of view as, in this context, you are talking about fairly high-ranked experts in their field. If someone asked me to sit a TOEFL test or something similar, I would tell them to teach the courses themselves. I would say: "You can check my references and if you want me to teach in the programme, I will, or you will have to look for someone else." I believe this would be a completely wrong signal and you will not receive a positive response to it. As a programme manager, or someone who is responsible for choosing the teaching staff, I decide whether I want this person [to teach in the programme]. Their English proficiency is then also related to what they are known for. Is it necessary for someone who is teaching a mathematical analysis model to speak perfect English? No, they need to be good in that analytical model and if the people understand what they are saying, it is OK. They are not teaching creative writing or something like that.

Quote 47 Interview_05 [my translation]

The interview quotes show that the interviewed programme managers at WU do not believe that an English proficiency test for the teaching staff in the EMPs should or even could be implemented in the near future. Indeed, the two programme managers from 'Quantitative Finance' did not even wish to discuss the issue at all (Quote 44). Other interviewees emphasised that it is not necessary to test their faculty's English proficiency as it is at a very high level anyway (Quote 45, Quote 46). The programme assistant from 'Supply Chain Management' underlined that, to her, a test of English proficiency for academic staff of EMPs is unthinkable in the Austrian context, as there are also no didactic qualifications required for teaching in Austrian tertiary education (Quote 46).

The most dominant theme which emerged from the interviews in this context is definitely that it would be an imposition for well-established and high-ranked professors to be asked for certification of their English proficiency (Quote 45, Quote 47). The interviewees' argument was that lecturers in these programmes are usually renowned experts in their fields, and the programme managers thus consider it as inappropriate to implement such requirements. Moreover, it was also pointed out that introducing such a requirement also means that some lecturers would need to be rejected. This in turn not only means the programme managers risk losing potentially important teaching staff, but also that the professors could lose face (Quote 45). The programme manager of the English-taught PhD programmes at WU made it very clear

that if someone asked him to take an English proficiency test, he would tell them to “teach it themselves” (Quote 47). Moreover, he also emphasised that the instructors’ English needs to be adequate enough to allow them to communicate their expertise but does not necessarily need to be “perfect” (Quote 47). This attitude reveals a lack of awareness for the communicative and linguistic demands of English-taught degree programmes. Moreover, it also reflects the content experts’ lay understanding of language learning as “perfect” most likely exclusively refers to grammar and pronunciation.

While teaching in English might not require ‘perfect’ pronunciation and grammar knowledge, the requirements for lecturers might be even more demanding and more complex than generally thought. In fact, Kling and Staehr identified several sets and subsets of skills lecturers need for English-medium teaching (2011: 219):

[The] ability to lecture and interact with students in an academic context, [...] to handle a range of communicative tasks which are central to university teaching at graduate level, namely present highly complex content material; explain domain-specific terms and concepts; clarify, paraphrase and restate concepts and main points; present and explain an assignment; ask, understand and respond to student questions; deal with unclear questions and misunderstandings and negotiate meaning when necessary.

These tasks require the lecturers to possess several “interaction skills”, i.e. understanding and responding to student questions, dealing with miscommunication and unclear student comments, as well as checking students’ comprehension and asking for clarification and confirmation (Kling & Staehr 2011: 220). The fact that the interviewees did not refer to any of these tasks suggests that they lack awareness for the actual language demands placed on instructors in EMI settings. The interviews indicate that the majority of the programme managers are worried about having to sit an English grammar test, rather than being assessed on their ability to communicate and teach their expertise to students. Receiving feedback on one’s lecturing style and communicative skills could thus be particularly valuable for non-native speakers who use English as the medium of instruction. In this regard, the programme manager of ‘Strategy, Innovation and Management Control’ was the only interviewee who

suggested that an assessment procedure for lecturers in EMPs could be used as “a tool for self-diagnosis” and would ideally lead to tailor-made training courses (Quote 45).

Indeed, a scenario in which EMI assessment is linked to training could be the ideal approach in this matter as the instructors would receive in-service training in areas they did not perform well. This reasoning thus points to the conclusion that standardised English proficiency tests such as the TOEFL or IELTS test are not suitable for assessing a lecturer’s teaching, since they are not representative of the instructors’ language requirements in tertiary education (Kling & Staehr 2011: 214). Therefore, as already indicated above, the TOEPAS, which has been developed for and implemented in the elite English-taught programmes at the University of Copenhagen, could serve as a model of good practice. Linking the test of instructors’ performance in the programmes to tailor-made training courses would make the assessment less of an imposition for the instructors and more of a way “to upgrade one’s qualifications” (Quote 45). Whether such an assessment and training scheme should be operated on a voluntary basis, as suggested in Quote 45, or whether it should be an official requirement as at Copenhagen, is a difficult question. In fact, WU already offers voluntary training courses which aim to provide guidance for lecturers who are teaching in English, but none of the interviewees has ever taken such a class. This shows that if the university management strives for a uniform quality assurance strategy, the implementation of *mandatory* assessment and / or training seems to be inevitable. As can be seen in the extract below, the interview with the course designer of the specialised in-service training courses ‘Teaching in English’ and ‘English in the Classroom’ revealed that there are indeed several issues which prove to be difficult areas for lecturers using English as the medium of instruction.

We talk about things like ice-breakers, warming up the class, how to explain things clearly, using signalling words and the idea of trying to communicate not just information but in a way using metadiscourse to help students through. [...] Classroom management language but particularly in terms of being able to explain things. That is the key thing. We try and make sure that out of the 6 or 8 participants each person covers a different task. For instance, one or two will do some sort of ice-breaker exercise [...], one will present the overview of their course, spend 10 or 15 minutes explaining how the course works. Because that is something else that is of course very important, the structuring of it. So we will pretend that we are at the beginning of this person's course and they will explain all the things to do with assessment, the requirements of the students,

that kind of thing. We have some which are purely lecture style. Particularly those who have, say, mathematical and sometimes more theoretically complicated subjects, they like to do that, explain to us something about a formula or a solution. Some might do group work with us [or] brainstorming.

Quote 48 Interview_07 [original wording]

Quote 48 shows that in the course of the past couple of years in which this in-service training has been offered, issues such as explaining and structuring, but also the language of classroom management and lecturing were identified by the course designer as areas in which the participants needed guidance. Moreover, didactical aspects are also of great importance, especially because the present study's analysis of EMP curricula at WU has shown that they are indeed relatively interactive and that teacher-fronted input in the form of long monologues is very rare (cf. Chapter 8.2 and Appendix 9). Therefore, the teacher trainer also equips the participants with methods to foster students' comprehension when it comes to understanding complex subject-specific terminology and concepts.

Obviously a lot of the classes inevitably use advanced terminology. If it were German perhaps as well new vocabulary is going to come up so there has to be a way of transmitting that, perhaps providing glossaries. Of course, in English it is more important, so we talk about [...] writing a glossary. But also, this is more important perhaps, for instance these mathematical classes at WU, there are a lot of classes which involve statistics and empirical studies generally and, of course, economics uses a lot of mathematics as well. What I find is that we realise that it is important to go back to basics with the students, and the participants partly, so that everyone knows when you explain a mathematical equation what the vocabulary is. You know, what do you say, "one and one" or "one plus one" equals, what is that word, and that is actually something that we also focus on. There has to be an awareness that a lot of students will probably struggle with just the basic terminology. [...] The really important thing is to know how the students cope with those classes but things like the discourse of mathematical equations is something that does not really need teaching beyond perhaps 15 minutes at the start of the course [...]. It is a minor element in terms of the amount of time it takes but these are all elements that I believe are important to make the teaching in English work.

Quote 49 Interview_07 [original wording]

I give them a handout that I have assembled out of examples [taken from previous years] that can be used as well for presenting in English and that is particularly language that you would use to help to clarify things. We look at that and I explain that it is important to organise what you say in order to make

it clear where you are in a talk. That might be a presentation in a classical sense, it could be giving instructions for an exercise or it could be anything else. The language in that handout provides them with examples of that but it is not about me providing set phrases as such it is about reminding everybody that they should use language to communicate these points. You know, making sure that each point that you make is summarised and it is made clear that you are now moving on to the next part of an explanation.

Quote 50 Interview_07 [original wording]

Another recurring issue of particular importance is identified by the teacher trainer in Quote 50, i.e. the skill of structuring which is essential for instructors. This not only refers to the structuring of the whole course and each of the sessions, but also the skill of structuring arguments and explanations. These potentially challenging aspects of EMI for instructors, as described by the teacher trainer in Quote 48, Quote 49 and Quote 50, also correspond to those which were identified by previous research. For instance, at the University of Copenhagen, lecturers reported problems “in relation to how to activate students and how to find appropriate vocabulary in the teaching situation” (Westbrook & Henriksen 2011: 190). Similarly, lecturers in Norway reported a “lack of linguistic flexibility” in teaching situations other than lecturing, for instance during group discussions (Hellekjaer 2007: 79). Given that these problem areas were identified by previous research, it is interesting to note that the interviewees in the present study do not refer to them at all. However, the reports of the teacher trainer indicate that if universities cannot commit to assessing the English proficiency of the instructors in EMPs, they should at least consider implementing mandatory training for English-medium instruction. It could even be argued that “the ability to teach well, using English as the medium, should be considered a professional development competence requirement for all [...] academics pursuing a teaching career in higher education” (Kling & Staehr 2011: 242). Specialised training might thus be a necessity because the EMI setting requires the teaching staff to employ a combination of three skills-sets, i.e. language skills, discipline knowledge and didactic skills (Kling & Staehr 2011: 242). However, the general attitude towards developing the English proficiency of those teaching in the EMPs investigated remains somewhat reserved as most programme managers stressed that they consider the English proficiency of their faculty as good enough anyway. Moreover, none of the interviewees were aware of

the two specialised training courses for EMI, even though they are heavily advertised by WU's personnel development programme⁷⁸ every semester.

Summing up, this chapter has revealed that, for the programme managers, the issue of the teaching staff's English proficiency in EMPs is a rather delicate one. First and foremost, the interview quotes have shown that they do not believe that it is necessary to assess the English proficiency of instructors in EMPs. They argue that their experience in giving presentations at international conferences and publishing their research in English journals has made them confident users of English in the academic setting. Interestingly, all the programme managers believe that the younger the teaching staff, the better their English proficiency. In general, they are remarkably confident about their own as well as their faculty's English competence in the teaching context. However, the discussion above has shown that this self-assurance about their ability to teach in English stands in contrast to previous research, which has shown that lecturers at other European institutions are not always so confident. While the programme managers at WU do not consider the linguistic competence of the teaching staff to be an issue relevant to the EMP's quality assurance, other institutions have implemented English proficiency tests to ensure a certain standard. When confronted with the question of whether it was reasonable to test the English of those teaching in the EMPs, the programme managers stressed that they consider this to be neither feasible nor necessary for their programmes. Next to the recurring argument that it is not necessary to test their faculty's English as it is at a very high level anyway, most interviewees expressed their concern about the message such an assessment might convey. They emphasised that it would be highly inappropriate to require proof of linguistic proficiency from other professors as most are internationally renowned experts in their field. In other words, implementing such requirements would represent an imposition for the teaching staff who would also risk losing face in such an assessment procedure.

⁷⁸ http://www.wu.ac.at/structure/servicecenters/pep/academic/archiv_wiss

In general, their views revealed a lack of awareness for the communicative and linguistic demands of English-medium instruction as they kept referring to the fact that it was not necessary to have 'perfect' grammar or pronunciation. In contrast, previous research has shown that the requirements for non-native speakers in English-taught programmes are considerably more complex than that, since the setting requires them to have distinct communicative skills to interact with students. These include, for instance, giving feedback, managing the classroom and, perhaps most importantly, effectively communicating one's expertise. Only one of the interviewees acknowledged that an assessment of lecturers in EMPs could ideally lead to tailor-made language training. Even though WU offers voluntary training courses for lecturers who teach in English, none of the interviewees had ever taken such a class. However, the teacher trainer offering these specialised courses identified several recurring issues that are potentially relevant for all lecturers in EMI such as the challenge of structuring one's argument or the language of classroom management. Among others, these areas were also identified as challenging aspects of English-medium instruction in previous studies (e.g. Klaassen 2001; Vinke 1995). Based on the findings discussed in this chapter, it can therefore be argued that if universities cannot commit to assessing the English proficiency of the instructors of EMPs, they should at least consider implementing mandatory training for English-medium instruction.

8.5 The difference between using English as the medium of instruction and teaching in the L1

While the previous subchapter presented the interviewees' self-evaluation of their English proficiency in the teaching setting, the present section focuses on the perceived differences between using EMI and teaching in one's mother tongue. Compared to the results of previous research, the present study produced rather surprising results, especially regarding the issue of the potentially increased workload of English-medium teaching. Since all the interviewed programme managers teach in their programmes and are all native speakers of German, they were encouraged to reflect upon the pedagogical, didactic and organisational particularities of teaching in their L1 as opposed to using English in the classroom.

Starting off with the question of whether or not using English as the medium of instruction increases the instructors' workload, the quotes below show that most interviewees do not agree with their counterparts in comparable studies. Indeed, while earlier research has found that English-medium teaching tends to increase the workload of instructors (e.g. Hellekjaer 2007; Westbrook & Henriksen 2011; Vinke 1995), this claim was firmly rejected by all interviewees.

[PM1]: I believe that it would require more effort from me if I had to teach this in German. I think my colleague will support this.

[PM2]: Of course, occasionally there is a translation effort involved if I have old slides in German and I need to create English ones but I would also have this work if I needed to create new slides for a German course and only had English ones. This has also happened in the past. If you ask a group [of lecturers] who have taught everything in German first and then change to English, they would probably talk about that extra workload. It could also be that because of the restricted number of students, these English-taught programmes allow for more high-quality teaching formats such as group work, case studies and very interactive teaching. [These formats] require providing feedback to the students immediately and, if you take that seriously, this might cause a little more effort than giving a lecture in the Audimax [i.e. the biggest lecture theatre].

[PM1]: But this is not a question of the language used but rather a question of the size of the group.

Quote 51 Interview_01 [my translation]

When it comes to the amount of effort required for preparation, it is mostly the initial preparation which is time-consuming. Of course, we could not just translate parts of the bachelor's programme into English [...]. That is to say, the effort was naturally greater [at the beginning] because one had to think about additional teaching materials such as case studies and simulations. However, I believe that this would have required the same effort as for a similar course in German. The basic literature, which one knows before anyway, is in English anyhow. [...] This is the case with every new programme; that is the routine.

Quote 52 Interview_02 [my translation]

I do not think that this is an issue as, for example for me personally, it would always mean more effort to teach certain topics in German. I have all my notes and materials in English; everything I discuss internationally is in English. I would need to retranslate that which would not be useful at all. I do not believe that there is an extra workload in this context. Maybe it is in other areas, for example an introductory lecture or in the bachelor's programme. I would need to create [materials] and slides in English once but other than that I would consider this to be a non-issue.

Quote 53 Interview_05 [my translation]

The quotes show that those interviewees with whom the question of an extra workload was discussed⁷⁹ all emphasise that designing a new programme and compiling new course materials always requires an effort, regardless of the language of instruction (Quote 51, Quote 52, Quote 53). In fact, the programme managers of an English-taught master's programme (Quote 51) as well as the director of all English-taught PhD programmes (Quote 53) at WU indicate that it would take even more effort to teach the same subject in German as their teaching materials database consists almost exclusively of English texts and case studies. Moreover, they also stress that the basic literature in their field as well as the best textbooks are English publications anyway. On the other hand, they all claim that using English as the medium of instruction does not per se increase their workload, some point out that the relatively small student groups in EMPs might require more effort from the instructor. Thereby the programme managers of 'Quantitative Finance' (ID 19) confirmed an observation which was made in Chapters 8.2 and 8.4, i.e. that EMPs usually comprise highly interactive teaching settings in which teacher-fronted lecturing is usually minimal and student interaction is predominant. They argue that these teaching formats inevitably increase the teachers' workload as, among other things, they need to be prepared to provide spontaneous feedback to students and be prepared for any eventuality (Quote 51). However, they repeatedly stress that this extra workload is not connected to the use of English as a teaching language per se.

While the interviewed instructors in the present study emphasise that designing a new programme and planning corresponding courses always requires some initial effort regardless of the language used, many of their counterparts in comparable studies explicitly stated that "teaching in English [is] burdensome and time-consuming" (Hellekjaer 2007: 72). In contrast to the interviewees in the present study, other lecturers at various European universities repeatedly said that it is definitely more time-consuming to prepare and teach English-medium classes than courses in their

⁷⁹ Due to time constraints, the question of the potentially increased workload of English-medium teaching was only discussed in 3 out of the 5 interviews with programme managers, i.e. in the interviews 01, 02 and 05 (cf. Appendix 1 for an overview of the conducted interviews).

mother tongues (e.g. Airey 2011a: 45; Klaassen 2001; Maiworm & Wächter 2003: 18; Vinke 1995: 140; Werther et al. 2014; Westbrook & Henriksen 2011: 190). Even though the views put forward in the interview quotes above are so divergent from what previous studies found, they are still in line with the insights gained from other data sets of the present study. For instance, the discussion in Chapter 8.4 has shown that, from the managers' point of view, English-medium instruction is the most obvious and natural choice for these programmes. It is therefore not surprising that they do not believe that English-medium teaching increases their workload. Moreover, their self-reflection and self-assessment has shown that they are very confident about their English proficiency (cf. Chapter 8.4), which again would not point towards an extra workload caused by EMI. This is also confirmed by the fact that the instructors hardly ever actively pursue language learning aims for their students (cf. Chapter 8.1), as teaching discipline-specific language alongside the content knowledge would obviously increase the workload considerably. The analysis of the situation from all these different angles therefore allows for the conclusion that the instructors believe that using English as the medium of instruction has a negligible effect on their teaching routines and workload.

The observation that EMI does not unduly affect the instructors becomes even more evident in the interview quotes on the perceived differences between teaching in English and teaching in German. When the professors were asked to illustrate these differences, their strong preference for using English as the language of instruction is supported by typical examples from their daily teaching routine. The findings of the present study therefore match those made in a Swedish study by in many respects (Airey 2012). The interview quotes below show that, like their Swedish counterparts, the WU instructors prefer teaching in English, believe that “disciplinary knowledge does not change when the language used to describe it changes”, and do not really “view the choice of language of instruction as particularly important (2012: 71–76).

[Interviewer]: You have many years of teaching experience. Does it make a difference for you whether you teach in English or in German?

[PM1]: Yes, I do not know the German terms for some concepts.

[Interviewer]: Because the specialist literature is all in English?

[PM1]: Yes, exactly. Of course, I know the German words for [the content] which I studied in German. Everything I acquired over the past 10 years, I know in English because the language of the discipline is English and I do not know what things are called in German. [...]

[PM2]: In the diploma programme I sometimes find that teaching in German is extremely difficult because the students' German is not that good. We have a high proportion of foreigners in the field of financial economics whose German is worse than their English. And especially if you start telling anecdotes from professional practice it gets more colloquial and the students find it hard to follow. You notice that when you tell a joke and nobody laughs. And then I make the same joke in the English-taught course, where I am sure that I do not tell it as good as in German, and everyone laughs. This means that I am at the same level as the students, I do not have a language advantage; I am not linguistically superior if I teach in English and I can communicate the content better because this barrier is not there. I therefore find it is an advantage in many respects.

Quote 54 Interview_01 [my translation]

[Interviewer]: You have many years of teaching experience. Does it make a difference for you whether you teach in English or in German?

[PM]: A year ago it definitely still made a difference to me but now I am absolutely used to it. [Continuation cf. Quote 41]

Quote 55 Interview_02 [my translation]

I prefer teaching in English because I have all my teaching materials in English and there is a greater choice of good textbooks. That is a reason why a lot of people teach it exclusively in English. I only teach one course in German; for the executive programme [WU has an 'Executive Academy' which offers executive education]. Since I use a lot of case studies which are available in English, I am always confronted with the problem that I have to come up with something for the German course. As this is the only course in which I teach in German, I always find myself groping for words. Teaching in English also allows me to hide my German accent a little bit and that can be useful in Austria. [...] Especially in our Executive Programme it is a factor to establish trust and rapport with the participants. [...] If you have a German accent, you need to make three local jokes [to break the ice] and to show you are there for the participants and not an outsider.

Quote 56 Interview_03 [my translation]

It probably depends on whether I have recently taught the content of the course in German or in English. I noticed that if I have recently taught certain topics, or parts of courses, three or four times in English, I find it easier in English than in German. This is actually quite embarrassing because you tend to use too many English terms. This is usually not well received by German audiences who would then think that you are arrogant and that you use Anglicisms to pretend to be more international than you actually are. German audiences can be very critical about that, I mean German-speaking, I am not

referring to Germany here. I am always a bit annoyed with myself if I realise that I use English terms for which there is of course a German synonym. And vice versa, obviously it can also be the other way round if I have taught a certain topic in German a lot, it can initially be difficult to do it in English and you might struggle formulating your points.

Quote 57 Interview_04 [my translation]

The quotes on the perceived differences between teaching in English or German show that only one interviewee concedes that it took an initial settling-in period until he got used to teaching in English (Quote 55). Here the discussion on the necessity of in-service training for lecturers starting to use English as a medium of instruction becomes relevant again (cf. Chapter 8.4). Obviously, the initial phase of English-medium instruction could be smoother if the professors made use of the specialised training courses offered at WU. Still, all other interviewees explicitly claim that they have reached a point in their careers where they actually prefer teaching in English to teaching in German. As already discussed above (cf. Quote 42, Quote 52), this preference for English-medium instruction is partly rooted in the fact that, from the interviewees' point of view, "there is a greater choice of good textbooks" in English (Quote 56). Besides the fact that more and better-quality teaching materials are available in English, the instructors also backed up their preference with other examples from their teaching experience.

The most dominant theme in these quotes on the difference between using German or English as a language of instruction is definitely the argument that English is the language of the discipline and they do not necessarily know all the German equivalents to the technical terms in English (cf. Quote 54, Quote 56, Quote 57). Most of the interviewees indicate that when they teach in German, they might even struggle to find the correct terminology and expressions. Since they conduct most of their research activities in English (cf. Chapter 8.4), they hardly ever actively use the German technical terms to discuss relevant topics of their fields. Even though all interviewees are native speakers of German, they might find themselves "groping for words" (Quote 56), or even worrying about being perceived as arrogant for using too many Anglicisms when presenting or teaching in German (Quote 57). However, one interviewee also indicated that when teaching in English his language might not be as nuanced and

jokes and anecdotes might occasionally come across a bit clumsily (Quote 54). This finding is in line with those of Wilkinson (2010b) as well as Dafouz and Núñez (2009: 104), who also observed a lack of nuance and a reduction of idiomatic expressions in the teaching of non-native speakers in English-medium lectures. At the same time, the programme manager said it was even beneficial that he is not that eloquent in the EMI setting, or as he puts it, not “linguistically superior”, because it allows him to be “at the same level as the students”, without having “a language advantage” (Quote 54) (cf. Hynninen 2012). Likewise, the programme manager in Quote 56 explains that because his accent is less pronounced in English, he finds it easier “to establish trust and rapport with the participants” in his English-taught classes than in the German-taught ones. This ‘We are all in the same boat’ notion is therefore positive for the student–teacher relationship, an observation which has also been made by Smit in her study on ELF in a tertiary education context (2010a: 275).

To conclude, it can be said that the discussion of the instructors’ perceived differences between using English as a medium of instruction and teaching in their mother tongue German has brought several striking findings to light. For instance, in comparison to previous research, the present study produced rather surprising results when it comes to the question of whether EMI increases the instructors’ workload. While their counterparts in several earlier studies emphasised that English-medium teaching significantly increases their workload, this claim was firmly rejected by the interviewed WU professors. They argue that designing a new programme and creating new teaching materials always requires extra effort, regardless of the language of instruction. The instructors emphasise that since the main body of research literature in their field is published in English, it would actually be more time-consuming to create German teaching materials. The findings therefore confirm the trends identified in previous chapters, i.e. that English is the natural choice for programme managers and that they are very confident about their English proficiency (cf. Chapter 8.4). Moreover, the fact that language learning aims are not actively pursued by the instructors could also explain their laid-back attitude when it comes to the workload in EMPs (cf. Chapter 8.1).

All in all, it can be said that the interviewed professors⁸⁰ at WU emphasised that they have reached a point in their careers where they actually prefer teaching in English to teaching in German. Most of them claimed that they do not necessarily know the German equivalents to the technical terms as they hardly ever actively use German for their research activities. In fact, they even reported that they occasionally struggle to find the right words and use too many Anglicisms when presenting in German. Even though their language might not be as nuanced as when teaching in German, some pointed out that using English as a lingua franca for teaching establishes trust and rapport with students; an observation which can be considered an unexpected but beneficial side effect of English-medium teaching. It also aptly illustrates that, even though the instructors perceive some differences between teaching in one's mother tongue and using EMI, they clearly consider these as positive and indicate a strong preference for teaching in English.

⁸⁰ It needs to be pointed out that the interviewees represent a very select group of instructors. While they definitely represent an interesting group which has not yet been researched, they are still different from the 'regular' teaching staff due to their role as programme managers. It is important to bear in mind that their strategic vision for the EMP and their perception of the role of English filter directly into the programmes.

9 Synthesis

This applied linguistics thesis has investigated English-medium programmes in business studies at Austrian state universities and analysed the phenomenon from various perspectives and at different levels. The study's objective was to provide detailed insights into English-medium teaching in tertiary business education in the German-speaking country of Austria and thereby reveal the complex and dynamic interplay of national and institutional policies on internationalisation, the implementation of EMPs and managerial perspectives on programme design. In order to capture the multifaceted nature of EMPs, the study considered the various layers of EMI by combining a national status quo survey with an analysis of national and institutional policy documents and a case study conducted at WU, Europe's largest business university. The present study's research design is innovative in that it combines macro-level observations (i.e. quantitative, numerical trends) with micro-level insights (i.e. qualitative, detailed findings). This combination of macro- and micro-level analyses offers an unusually holistic insight into English-medium programmes and thereby aims to contribute to a better understanding of the phenomenon in terms of policy and programme design. Indeed, by combining macro- and micro-level insights, it was possible to obtain a fine-grained picture of how macro-level trends filter down to the micro-levels and affect institutional decision-making.

The thesis started off by setting the study within a research framework which examines ongoing internationalisation processes in higher education (Chapter 2), considers previous research on the spread and implications of EMI (Chapter 3), and draws on various conceptualisations of using an L2 as the language of instruction (Chapter 4). In other words, the present study's conceptual framework comprises a synthesis of previous work and research literature on the internationalisation of HE in general and the implications of EMI in particular. The construction of the frame set the scene for the presentation of the study's research design in Chapter 5. After introducing the sampling strategies and providing a sample description, 'The study design pyramid' was presented (Figure 1) to show how the four data sets, i.e. a status quo survey, a policy analysis, a course description analysis and expert interviews, are

intertwined in the macro- and micro-level analysis. This was followed by the presentation of the study's research questions and their associated sub-questions. Table 5 showed how the research questions were tackled, i.e. which data sets were used to answer them. The research methods and tools used to address these "operationalized research questions" (Cohen et al. 2009: 81–82) were then presented in the following subsections. A detailed account of the data gathering processes was given to elucidate the study's mixed-methods approach and its innovative research design. The course description analysis in particular can be considered a methodological innovation as, to my best knowledge, an analysis of course descriptions to identify explicitly stated language learning aims, had not been conducted previously. Next to textualised language learning objectives, the course description analysis also identified discipline-specific and academic language skills students need in EMI courses, as well as language-related assessment criteria. In order to obtain a clear picture of these aspects, the course description analysis involved a complex systematic coding scheme which allowed to show the frequencies of the codes by "quantitizing" the qualitative data (Dörnyei 2009: 269).

By combining descriptive statistics in the status quo survey with a qualitative content analysis of policy documents, the course descriptions and the interview data, the study yielded holistic findings which were presented in the three chapters that followed. Starting with the findings concerning the national level, Chapter 6 presented and discussed the results generated in the status quo survey. After documenting the exact offering of EMPs at Austrian business faculties in the academic year of 2013/13, I showed how implementation years correlate with the introduction of significant educational policies. This was followed by a detailed discussion of distribution patterns regarding institutions, degrees and types of programmes. The remainder of the chapter presented extensive data on language-related entry requirements. The four sub-sections of Chapter 6.3 provided revealing insights into admission policies and the required English language proficiency of students in EMPs. All subsets of the status quo survey data were complemented with interview extracts which added the programme management perspective and thereby a critical additional layer to the analysis.

Chapter 7 provided an in-depth analysis of national and institutional policy documents on the subject of internationalisation. In addition to identifying internationalisation developments at national and institutional levels, this Chapter showed how these processes are related to the use of English as the medium of instruction in general and the implementation of English-taught degree programmes in particular. In addition to policy extracts to illustrate the rationales and strategic goals underlying the internationalisation efforts, interview quotations were used to provide the programme managers' perspectives on institutional policies and practices and thereby completed the picture.

Finally, the five subsections of Chapter 8 systematically and extensively explored the language element in EMI by addressing issues relating to the role of language teaching and learning in curriculum design and programme delivery of EMPs at WU. This analysis showed which communication skills are required in order to successfully complete classes where English is used as the medium of instruction and whether English language proficiency is part of the stated assessment criteria. Moreover, the chapter critically examined the role of ESP and EAP, that is, how much emphasis is put on the teaching of academic as well as subject-specific genre and terminology knowledge. In the context of ESP/EAP, the present study also revealed to what extent collaboration between subject-specialists and language-specialists takes place in English-medium programmes. Finally, it showed what teaching formats and varieties of English-medium teaching are prevalent at WU, and to what extent. Again, interview quotes added a crucial element to the discussion since they illustrated the programme managers' views on issues such as the English proficiency of the teaching staff and the differences between teaching in their mother tongue and using EMI.

In this concluding chapter I will present a synthesis of the most important findings which were derived from the four intertwined data sets. This is then followed by considerations regarding the study's significance, limitations and implications for further research.

9.1 Synthesised findings across the data sets

The main findings and insights gained will be discussed in correspondence to the study's underlying research questions:

RQ1 How have ongoing internationalisation processes shaped the Austrian higher education landscape in business studies?

RQ2 What internationalisation trends can be identified in national and institutional policy documents and what role does English-medium instruction play?

RQ3 What role does language learning and teaching assume in EMPs and how is it implemented?

The purpose of the study was to illustrate the complex interplay and interrelations between (supra)national and institutional internationalisation policies on the one hand, and policies and practices in English-medium programme design and delivery on the other. Below, I will summarise the main findings and will connect the insights gained at the three levels investigated, i.e. the national level, the policy level and the institutional level.

9.1.1 The impact of internationalisation on tertiary business studies in Austria

The first research question “*How have ongoing internationalisation processes shaped the Austrian higher education landscape in business studies?*” was the focus of Chapter 6. The analysis of the status quo survey results provided detailed insights into the total number and spread of EMPs across Austrian state universities offering degree programmes in business and economics. Moreover, it also provided a comprehensive analysis of language-related entry requirements and admission policies.

The study showed that the Austrian higher education landscape is clearly shaped by internationalisation developments in general and the Bologna Process in particular. The status quo survey identified 29 EMPs in business studies at Austrian state universities. Compared to the ACA survey results of 2007, which identified 23 EMPs across all disciplines and at all types of institutions in Austria, the results show a

remarkable increase of EMPs in business studies at state universities. Indeed, the status quo survey revealed that about 30% of all programmes in economics and business studies at Austrian state universities are taught through English. These observations reconfirmed the general growth trend in EMPs across Europe as identified by Maiworm and Wächter (2002: 28; 2008: 23–27). They also highlight the trend towards English-medium programmes in the field of business studies (2008: 45–48).

The comparison to the results of the ACA survey already indicates that EMPs at Austrian business faculties can still be considered a rather young phenomenon. In fact, the majority of the EMPs were implemented shortly before the official launch of the EHEA in 2010, which highlights the correlation between supra-national policies and the growing interest in degree programmes taught in English.

One of the consequences of the ongoing internationalisation of higher education is the increasing competition among HEIs to attract more and better students and reach a high position in international rankings (e.g. Wilkinson 2008a: 178; Brown 2011: 11–12; Egron-Polak & Hudson 2010: 65; Knight 2008: 13). The snapshot of the Austrian context highlighted the connection between EMPs and the universities' efforts to enhance their international standing and the fact that institutions are facing national as well as international competition. Indeed, the interviews as well as the policy analysis confirmed the importance of English-taught degree programmes for inclusion in business school rankings.

Moving from international to national competition, the study produced illuminating insights regarding competing institutions offering EMPs in business studies. Although Austria is a rather small country, the study found that the demand for English-medium programmes in business and economics studies appears to be steady. The interviews with the programme managers revealed that universities offering EMPs in economics and business studies are not necessarily competing for the same student target groups. Due to geographic location of the institutions and the programmes' narrowly specialised foci, they can coexist alongside each other. Moreover, the example of University of Vienna showed that a focus on specific degree levels can also help withstand competition. Findings suggest that University of Vienna, due to its direct,

location-based competition to WU Vienna, placed a strong emphasis on English-taught PhD programmes in business studies rather than master's programmes, for which WU is clearly the main provider in Austrian business studies.

The classification of the identified EMPs into different types of programmes further highlighted their international dimension. The findings exposed a trend towards joint and double degree programmes as 21% of all EMPs are part of bilateral or multilateral joint degree networks. This shows that English-medium instruction and internationalisation strategies are frequently combined. Moreover, the results also showed that third-party funding is only to be found in PhD programmes which confirmed the observation that third-cycle programmes are particularly affected by competition.

The implementation of EMPs allowed Austrian HEIs to introduce entry requirements, a novelty to a system in which a secondary school certificate, regardless of the grades, traditionally grants access to HE. In order to avoid diverging English language proficiencies among students, the European HEIs frequently impose language-related entry requirements for EMPs (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 50). In line with this European trend, the status quo survey found that 62% of the EMPs require all applicants to provide proof of their English language proficiency. The findings showed, however, that admission policies as well as the proficiency level considered necessary for EMPs vary considerably between the institutions. Moreover, each of the 7 universities investigated has developed its own set of English language admission criteria and in all cases these were not even consistent for all EMPs offered by one institution.

The analysis of the required test scores and the corresponding proficiency levels revealed potentially problematic areas. These issues appear to be predominantly connected to the difficulty of assigning test scores to CEFR proficiency levels. An additional difficulty lies in the complex task of comparing the results of different language proficiency tests with each other. The comparability of the different testing formats of the TOEFL test were identified as being particularly problematic and showed that score equivalency is not always as straightforward as test developers

suggest. Indeed, the study identified programmes for which certificates corresponding to a B2 level are listed as equivalents of other test scores certifying a C1 level. Regarding the question of which level of English proficiency is considered necessary for EMPs by the institutions, the analysis revealed that for the majority of EMPs at Austrian business faculties a C1 proficiency level is mandatory for admission.

The rather high entry requirements identified for the EMPs in the present study resemble those of renowned business schools, an observation which again stresses the element of international competitiveness in the programme design of EMPs. The analysis of admission policies therefore further emphasised the notion of competition among HEIs in the internationalised higher education market. It is indeed one of the most dominant findings that emerged from the extensive amount of data of admission policies and was also confirmed in the interviews. Clearly, the institutions aim to recruit ‘the best’ students for EMPs to improve the programme’s reputation and international standing. The discussion of the study’s second research question will further highlight the interplay between internationalisation, English-medium programmes and competition among HEIs.

9.1.2 Internationalisation policies and the role of EMI

The second research question *“What internationalisation trends can be identified in national and institutional policy documents and what role does English-medium instruction play?”* was discussed primarily in Chapter 7. By using Knight’s analytical frame (2008: 31–36), the analysis of national and institutional policy documents on the subject of internationalisation produced illuminating insights into underlying rationales and aims. Moreover, it also shed light on the interplay between internationalisation efforts at national and institutional levels and the implementation of English-medium instruction in a specific institution.

The analysis of institutional policy documents clearly demonstrated that the prime motive underlying WU’s internationalisation efforts is competition. The institution’s focus on competition could be identified in its stated objectives such as the inclusion in international rankings, its accreditation efforts as well as profile and reputation

enhancement. The analysis of institutional policies also showed that competition among internationalised HEIs stands in direct relation with the increased use of English-medium instruction in general and the growing number of English-taught degree programmes in particular. Indeed, English-medium instruction was found to be a recurring theme in the WU's internationalisation policies and was often mentioned in relation to increasing its international standing and reputation. The policy extracts showed that EMPs were frequently ranked among WU's top strategic goals and that the institution plans to expand its offer of English-taught programmes across all three degree cycles. These observations, which were also confirmed by the interviewees, allowed for the conclusion that Europe's largest institution of business and economics education considers English-medium instruction as instrumental in stimulating and accelerating its internationalisation process.

By contrast, the analysis of national documents on the subject of internationalisation revealed that the ministry's objectives are not necessarily the same as those of WU. While international competitiveness was the dominant motive in the institutional policies and EMI was frequently mentioned as a strategic tool to achieve internationalisation, this was not the case in the national documents. The analysis showed that the theme of English-medium instruction plays a surprisingly minor role in the government's internationalisation strategy and if the topic of EMI is addressed, then only in a very brief remark. Instead, the main rationale underlying the Austrian government's internationalisation activities is the promotion and increase of academic mobility. The ministry's approach towards the issue of mobility was tracked for the period between 2000 and 2012. Amongst other things, the analysis identified a development in terms of how the issue of mobility is approached. While the early documents simply stated the aim to increase the number of student and staff going abroad, the newer ones approached internationalisation in a more sophisticated way. For instance, the newer documents used more specific terminology distinguishing between the various forms of mobility. It was surprising that, in the context of inbound mobility, there were still hardly any references to EMI.

From a generic point of view, the institutional policy documents were found to be more clearly structured and in a way resemble corporate mission statements, while

the national policy documents are far less concrete and lack coherent policies. However, this could be interpreted as a consequence of the questionnaire-type format of the reports and the fact that national policies per se must be more widely applicable.

Furthermore, this thesis makes a conceptual contribution to the understanding of the dynamic link between the socio-cultural implications of internationalisation at the national level and the implementation of EMPs at specific institutions. Based on the WU case study findings, the present study proposed adding a new phase of EMI to the five phases in the development of English-medium instruction at the tertiary level identified by Wilkinson (2013: 9–11). As discussed in Chapter 2.2 and illustrated in Table 1, Wilkinson examined the political, cultural and institutional motives behind the implementation of English-medium programmes at Maastricht University and thereby identified the following phases of EMI: *Cross-border*, *Europeanisation*, *Consolidation*, *Globalisation* and *Monetisation*. Based on the insights from the analysis of institutional policies, on the one hand, and the interviews with programme managers, on the other, I proposed a sixth phase to the five presented in Wilkinson's model, i.e. the *Profiling* phase.

The analysed policy documents strongly imply that, more than ever, the motives behind implementing EMPs are influenced by the aim to increase the institution's prestige, create a brand image and compete successfully on the higher education market. As the immediate follow-up of Wilkinson's *Monetisation* phase, the proposed *Profiling* phase is even more strongly influenced by international rankings and university accreditations than its predecessor. In fact, the findings, particularly from the interviews, suggest that enhancing an institution's international standing is increasingly gaining in importance and that EMPs play a crucial role when it comes to the university's inclusion in elite networks of renowned business schools and prestigious HE rankings.

9.1.3 The role of language learning and teaching in EMPs

The third and final research question “*What role does language learning and teaching assume in EMPs and how is it implemented?*” was the focus of Chapter 8. The chapter analysed the curriculum design and programme delivery of EMPs at WU to provide valuable insights into the stated language learning objectives and the role of EAP/ESP teaching in the programmes. Moreover, the findings from the course description analysis were compared and contrasted with the programme management’s views on issues such as the language proficiency of staff and students.

Research on language learning in EMPs tends to arrive at the conclusion that English is primarily “a vehicular language in the delivery of content” (Järvinen 2008: 83) and that improving the students’ English proficiency is usually not a reason for introducing an EMP (Coleman 2006: 4; Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 67–68). Therefore, the results of the course description analysis are somewhat surprising, since 77% of the English-taught courses analysed actually include explicitly stated language learning aims. In other words, out of the 93 courses of the four master’s programmes analysed, only 21 did not mention language-related learning objectives in their course descriptions.

These unique insights into the language learning element are rooted in the methodological originality of the course description analysis (cf. Chapter 5.5). As already mentioned in the introduction to this concluding chapter, thanks to the systematic coding scheme it was possible to show frequency distributions for the data and thereby register how often each language learning aim is textualised in the course descriptions. The aim of ‘Increasing discussion / negotiation / communication skills’ was identified as the category with the most occurrences, followed by ‘Improving presentation skills’ and ‘Honing academic and discipline-specific writing skills’. This shows a clear focus on productive skills, with the first- and second-ranked skills stressing the importance of oral skills and the third-ranked emphasising written production.

However, the programme managers’ views expressed in the interviews are somewhat divergent from the trends identified in the course description analysis. They largely assumed language learning to be a logical consequence of English-medium instruction

and considered the development of communication skills an implicit aim of their programmes only. For the majority of the interviewees, the development of subject-specific terminology is the only explicit language learning objective. Yet the category of 'Broadening subject-specific terminology' is actually the language learning aim which was identified least frequently in the course descriptions. This finding is symptomatic of the interviewed programme managers and instructors' general lack of awareness for the language skills students need in English-taught courses. In contrast, they seemed to rely heavily on incidental language improvement rather than consciously approaching language development. These findings are in line with previous research which also reported that in EMPs it is often assumed that "incidental language improvement" (Wilkinson 2011: 115) is likely to occur due to the continuous exposure of students to English in EMPs (Järvinen 2008: 83; Rauto 2008: 25).

While it is true that incidental language learning might take place, the interviewed instructors are not aware of their role as "disciplinary insiders" (Airey 2011b) when it comes to introducing students to the discipline-specific language of their field or the academic literacy skills students need in order to successfully perform in EMI courses (cf. Jacobs 2004). In combination with the results of the analyses of the EMP curricula and the course syllabi, the interviews led to the conclusion that the programme managers were largely unaware of the notion of disciplinary literacy (cf. Airey 2011b). In other words, the views expressed showed that the instructors did not realise that they themselves once had to acquire the generic and linguistic conventions of their discipline. Therefore, the results of the present study confirm Airey's observation that content teachers often take disciplinary discourse for granted and do not realise that it is not unambiguous and self-evident for their students (2012: 76).

Indeed, the programme managers did not consider the language learning aims identified in the course descriptions to be language functions per se as, for them, language teaching equals grammar instruction. The only discipline-specific language aspect they acknowledged was terminology knowledge, but since the bulk of research literature is published in English anyway, this aspect was not considered particularly problematic.

At the same time, while their awareness of discipline-specific language learning in EMPs and the need for ESP instruction was rather limited, they did acknowledge the need for EAP teaching. In fact, academic writing was practically the only language skill that was recognised as such. Still, the curricula analysis showed that none of the courses which focus on academic reading and writing are taught by or in collaboration with language teachers. Instead, the interviewees explained that the feedback on students' writing in their research seminars has more of an informal nature. Content teachers hence expect their students to use the research papers of the discipline as models for their own writing by imitating the stylistic and linguistic norms of the discipline. Nevertheless, while students' receptive skills are very likely to increase in English-taught programmes, productive skills such writing research papers may require explicit language instruction (Hellekjaer & Wilkinson 2003: 92).

Several studies have therefore called for more interdisciplinary cooperation in EMPs to involve language specialists when it comes to training students' EAP and ESP skills (e.g. Airey 2012; Jacobs 2007: 37; Räisänen & Fortanet-Gómez 2008b; Wilkinson 2008b). Indeed, the present study's results point in the same direction. The analysis of curricula clearly exposed the minimal significance of EAP and ESP teaching in the programmes as only 9 % of all courses focus on the development of the students' academic or discipline-specific language skills. Given the frequent occurrence of explicitly stated language learning aims in the course descriptions, it is questionable whether the proportion of EAP and ESP courses in the EMPs adequately promotes these aims. Moreover, only *one* ESP course was identified in the curricula of the four master's programmes analysed. Given that programme managers repeatedly pointed out that the EMPs cover highly specific niches in business studies, it is questionable whether the students' receive enough guidance in acquiring discipline literacy. After all, they are expected to emerge from the EMPs "as members of the discipline" who are fluent users of the discourse of their field (Wilkinson 2008b: 57).

In addition to insights into EMP programme design in relation to student learning, the present study produced rather striking findings on the instructors' self-evaluation of their English proficiency in the teaching setting. In contrast to previous research findings (e.g. Klaassen 2001; Vinke 1995), the interviewees in the present study were

very confident about their English proficiency and their ability to use English as a medium of instruction. They argued that their experience in giving presentations at international conferences and publishing their research in English journals has made them confident users of English in the academic setting. When confronted with the question of whether it was reasonable to test the English of those teaching in the EMPs, the programme managers stressed that they considered this neither feasible nor necessary, arguing that English is at a very high level anyway. Moreover, they expressed their concern about the message such an assessment might convey. The majority of the interviewees considered it highly inappropriate to require proof of linguistic proficiency from the content lecturers in EMPs, since most of them are internationally renowned experts in their field. In other words, implementing such requirements would represent an imposition for the teaching staff who would also risk losing face in such an assessment procedure. Only one of the interviewees acknowledged that a voluntary assessment of lecturers in EMPs could lead to tailor-made language training. Even though WU offers voluntary training courses for lecturers who teach in English, none of the interviewees had ever taken such a class.

The study thus provided an interesting glimpse into the academic culture at Austrian universities, where discipline experts are primarily seen as 'professors' and not as part of the teaching staff. The findings highlight a socio-cultural particularity about Austrian HE where hierarchies are very visible and questioning the professors' language competence would represent a challenge to their academic expertise (Unterberger 2012: 97). The ability to teach in English is thus taken for granted among the faculty of master's programmes as they are supposed to be involved in international research projects and publish in English anyway. There also seemed to be little awareness of the different skill sets needed for each of these activities.

In contrast to participants in previous research (e.g. Airey 2011a: 45; Hellekjaer 2007: 72; Westbrook & Henriksen 2011: 190), the interviewed instructors in the present study expressed very different views regarding the workload involved in EMI. While their counterparts in several earlier studies emphasised that English-medium teaching significantly increases their workload, this claim was firmly rejected by the interviewed WU professors. They argued that creating new teaching materials always requires

extra effort, regardless of the language of instruction. Moreover, they pointed out that English is their preferred language of instruction since the main body of research literature in their field is published in English and that it would actually be more time-consuming to create German teaching materials. Most of them claimed that they might not actually know the German equivalents to the technical terms as they hardly ever actively use German for their research activities. In fact, they even reported that they occasionally struggled to find the right words and use too many Anglicisms when presenting in German. Even though their language might not be as nuanced as when teaching in German, some pointed out that because of the mixed student body, using English as a lingua franca for teaching establishes trust and rapport with students (cf. Smit 2010a: 275). Consequently, even though the instructors reported some differences between teaching in their L1 and using EMI, they regard these as positive and indicate a strong preference for teaching in English.

9.2 The study's significance and implications for further research

The strengths of the study presented in this thesis lie in its focus on both the macro- and the micro-levels of English-medium instruction. By combining these levels, it was possible to provide a holistic picture of EMPs in business studies at Austrian state universities and thereby reveal the dynamic interplay between policies and programme design. The conceptual framework of the study considered these complex and dynamic interrelations of internationalisation of HE on the one hand, and the nature and implications of EMI on the other. As Dafouz and Smit have argued (2012: 7), such a “dynamic framework”, combined with an in-depth analysis of the various layers, yields “findings whose relevance goes well beyond the individual case under the spotlight”. The study thus aimed to contribute to the growing body of research produced by “the still young, but fast developing EMI/ICL research scene [which] has potential for educational concerns further afield” (Smit & Dafouz 2012: 7).

In terms of methodology, this thesis offers an innovative contribution to the research field merging quantitative data on the spread of EMPs with policy perspectives and insights into programme design from HE practitioners. Indeed, mixed-methods research can be seen as a valid methodology for analysing the intertwined facets of

EMI in internationalised contexts (cf. Chapter 5). The combination of descriptive statistics to capture the spread of EMPs in combination with a case study at WU, Europe's largest business university, mean that, despite the local character, the insights gained could also be valid in other business education contexts. Furthermore, the innovative research design of the course description analysis provided illuminating insights into the programme and course design of EMPs, which would lend itself to further research in follow-up studies at other institutions.

Conceptually, the thesis provided a categorisation of the varieties of English-medium teaching in higher education which was grounded in the theoretical discussion of approaches such as CLIL, ELFA, EMEMUS, ESP and EAP (e.g. Dalton-Puffer 2011; Mauranen 2012; Dafouz & Smit 2014; Swales 1990; Bhatia 2004; Hyland 2006). Moreover, it combined previous research findings with relevant conceptual frameworks and the insights gained in the present study (e.g. Airey 2012; Brinton et al. 1989; Greere & Räsänen 2008: 6–8; Gustafsson & Jacobs 2013; Jacobs 2007: 37; Järvinen 2008; Rauto 2008: 23–24; Saarikoski & Rauto 2008; Unterberger & Wilhelmer 2011: -97; Wilkinson 2004a). The result of these conceptual considerations resulted in the 'English-medium paradigm' presented in Chapter 4.3, which represents a timely clarification of the terms used in the context of English-medium teaching and also provides examples of practical applications (cf. Table 2).

Thematically, the thesis strives to contribute to an increase in awareness among programme designers for the pedagogical implications of EMI and the language learning element in EMPs. In particular, this concerns the role of ESP and EAP teaching in English-taught programmes in its various forms. The WU case study showed there is often too little awareness among instructors of their responsibility to guide students in acquiring disciplinary literacy (cf. Airey 2012; Jacobs 2007). The discussion in Chapter 8.2 clearly demonstrated that the implementation of EAP and ESP teaching in EMPs urgently requires collaboration between discipline experts and language specialists.

Next to these pedagogical implications, the results also point towards the need for coherent institutional policies which clarify the required entry proficiency level of *all* students (Chapter 6.3) as well as that of content experts teaching in EMPs (Chapter 8.4). After all, the link between competition and EMPs that was identified across the

data sets highlights the importance of quality assurance. In other words, if EMPs in tertiary business are to play a crucial role in the institution's profiling (Chapter 7.2), quality assurance needs to concern all stakeholders involved – the university, its management, programme designers, students and instructors.

This brings me to the final point in this concluding chapter, namely the study's limitations and implications for further research. Due to the study's limitations in scope, it investigates a very specific context of EMPs, i.e. business studies at Austrian state universities. While certain findings in aspects such as programme design might be relevant and transferable to other settings, the particularities of the Austrian higher education system and that of WU as a research site, mean that many of the results are closely tied to this specific setting.

Since my focus in the WU case study was on programme management and design, it did not investigate the actual language proficiency of staff and students. While the analysis of entry requirements provided comprehensive data across Austrian institutions providing EMPs in business studies, actual language proficiency was not tested. In the same vein, the study did not check whether the language learning aims stated in the course descriptions are actively pursued in teaching. Likewise, the classroom practices described in Chapter 8 emerged from an analysis of the self-reported practices of the interviewees, rather than observation.

From a methodological point of view it has to be noted that the decision to approach the four data sets in the way I did was based on the consultation of previous research and the research questions which resulted from that. However, there are of course alternative ways in which the course description analysis or the policy analysis could have been approached. This concerns particularly the coding scheme of course descriptions which, due to the innovative nature of this analysis, was not based on a model but developed inductively. Alternative coding approaches could yield different categories and thus divergent findings.

Likewise, it could also be argued that the national and institutional internationalisation policies could have been approached from a Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) perspective (e.g. Fairclough 2010). However, it was decided not to use such an

approach as the results would have made it impossible to answer the research questions fully. Since the aim of the analysis was to identify internationalisation strategies and developments, a CDA approach would have produced rather different findings.

Future research could thus explore the construction of internationalisation policies and critically identify socio-cultural particularities about the internationalisation of HE and the various actors and stakeholders involved. This could involve a closer analysis of generic differences between institutional and national policies and the “ideological-discursive formations” (Fairclough 2010: 30) that prevail in them.

Moreover, the findings of the present study also call for a closer investigation of EMI classroom realities to reveal whether language learning aims stated in the course descriptions are actually furthered in teaching. Moreover, a detailed investigation of the discipline-specific and academic skills students need to employ in EMI settings would be a fruitful avenue for future research. This could involve an ESP genre analysis of frequently used textbooks in tertiary business programmes and result in recommendations for ESP course design. In the ESP/EAP context, the collaboration between content experts and language specialists needs to be further researched (cf. Smit & Dafouz 2012: 8) with the aim to establish models of collaboration which are applicable in EMPs. All in all, it is hoped that the present study will inspire further research in this field, leading to a more informed approach towards the implementation of EMPs with regard to policy and programme design.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Overview of conducted interviews

Assigned Interview Code	Description of interviewee(s)	Date	Length	Language in which interview was conducted
Interview_01	2 programme managers of master's programme; both also teaching in the EMP (ID 19)	09/2011	1 hr 35 min	German; quotes were translated into English by author
Interview_02	1 programme manager of master's programme; also teaching in the EMP (ID 21); 1 assistant to the programme manager	10/2011	1 hr 32 min	German; quotes were translated into English by author
Interview_03	Programme manager of master's programme; also teaching in the EMP (ID 22)	10/2011	55 min	German; quotes were translated into English by author
Interview_04	Programme manager of master's programme; also teaching in the EMP (ID 20)	11/2011	45 min	German; quotes were translated into English by author
Interview_05	Programme manager of PhD programmes; also teaching in the EMP	11/2011	33 min	German; quotes were translated into English by author
Interview_06	1 ESP course designer and teacher	09/2012	20 min	German; quotes were translated into English by author
Interview_07	1 course designer and teacher for in-service training	01/2013	45 min	English

Appendix 2: Policy analysis documents pool

Policy ID	Title of the policy document	Year of publication	Period covered	Type of document and length	Published by	Source / URL
National policies						
Policy Doc 1	Bericht über den Stand der Umsetzung der Bologna Ziele in Österreich	2007	2000 – 2006	Report 120 pages	Austrian Federal Ministry of Science and Research	http://www.bmwf.gv.at/fileadmin/user_upload/europa/bologna/Monitoring_Report_2007_pdf.pdf
Policy Doc 2	Bologna Process: Template for national reports: Austria	2008	2007-2009	Template 54 pages	Bologna Follow-Up Group Austria	http://www.ehea.info/Uploads/Documents/National_Report_Austria_2009.pdf
Policy Doc 3	National Report regarding the Bologna Process implementation Austria	2012	2009-2012	Template 62 pages	Bologna Follow-Up Group Austria	http://www.ehea.info/Uploads/National%20reports/Austria.pdf
Institutional policies						
Policy Doc 4	Entwicklungsplan der Wirtschaftsuniversität Wien	2008		Development plan 29 pages	WU – Vienna University of Economics and Business	http://www.wu.ac.at/press/about/structure/about/publications/bulletin/pdfs/entwicklungsplan_ii.pdf
Policy Doc 5	Leistungsvereinbarung 2010 - 2012: Wirtschaftsuniversität Wien und Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung	2009	2010 - 2012	Performance agreement between the ministry and WU 57 pages	WU – Vienna University of Economics and Business	http://www.wu.ac.at/structure/about/publications/bulletin/pdfs/leistungsvereinbarung2010_12.pdf
Policy Doc 6	WU-Internationalisierungsstrategie	2010	2009 - 2011	Strategy paper 14 pages	WU – Vienna University of Economics and Business	http://www.wu.ac.at/structure/management/council/rector
Policy Doc 7	Entwicklungsplan der Wirtschaftsuniversität Wien	2012		Development plan 47 pages	WU – Vienna University of Economics and Business	http://www.wu.ac.at/structure/management/senate/documents/entwicklungsplan_30.4.2012.pdf

Appendix 3: Overview of EMPs identified⁸¹

Programme ID	University (in alphabetical order)	Programme name
ID 1	AAU - Alpen Adria University Klagenfurt	MSc International Management
ID 2	Graz University of Technology	MSc Production Science and Management
ID 3	JKU - Johannes Kepler University Linz	MSc General Management
ID 4	JKU - Johannes Kepler University Linz	MSc Global Business
ID 5	JKU - Johannes Kepler University Linz	PhD Economics
ID 6	University of Innsbruck	MSc Applied Economics
ID 7	University of Innsbruck	MSc Banking and Finance
ID 8	University of Innsbruck	MSc Information Systems
ID 9	University of Innsbruck	MSc in Organisation Studies
ID 10	University of Innsbruck	MSc Strategic Management
ID 11	University of Innsbruck	PhD Economics
ID 12	University of Innsbruck	PhD Management
ID 13	University of Vienna	MSc Quantitative Economics, Management, and Finance
ID 14	University of Vienna	PhD Economics
ID 15	University of Vienna	PhD Finance
ID 16	University of Vienna	PhD Logistics and Operations Management
ID 17	University of Vienna	PhD Management
ID 18	University of Vienna	PhD Statistics and Operations Research
ID 19	WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business	MSc Quantitative Finance
ID 20	WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business	MSc Strategy, Innovation and Management Control
ID 21	WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business	MSc Supply Chain Management
ID 22	WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business	MSc International Management / CEMS
ID 23	WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business	MSc Information Systems
ID 24	WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business	MSc Marketing
ID 25	WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business	MSc Socio-Ecological Economics and Policy
ID 26	WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business	Doc. International Business Taxation
ID 27	WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business	Doc. Social and Economic Sciences
ID 28	WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business	PhD Finance
ID 29	Vienna University of Technology	MSc Business Informatics

⁸¹ Note that the status quo survey identified the total number of EMPs implemented at Austrian faculties in the academic year of 2012/13 (cf. Chapter 5.2).

Appendix 4: Institutions, years, types of programmes and degrees⁸²

Name of university (arranged according to the number of programmes offered)	Academic year of implementation	Name of programme and ID	Type of degree programme: Masters	Type of degree programme: Doctoral or PhD	Joint or double degree programme + name of partner institution	Third-party funding + name of institution	English track or programme exclusively offered as EMP
WU - Vienna University of Economics and Business	2005/06	Finance ID 28	X	PhD	X	yes Vienna Graduate School of Finance, financed by the Austrian Science Fund FWF	EMP
	2007/08	Social and Economic Sciences ID 27	X	Doctoral programme	X	X	English track
	2009/10	International Management / CEMS ID 22	MSc / CEMS MIM	X	double degree programme exchange semester(s) at one of the 26 partner universities of the CEMS alliance	X	EMP
	2009/10	Quantitative Finance ID 19	MSc	X	X	X	EMP
	2010/11	Strategy, Innovation, and Management Control ID 20	MSc	X	yes optional double degree programme Queens University, Canada or St. Petersburg State University, Russia	X	EMP
	2010/11	Supply Chain Management ID 21	MSc	X	X	X	EMP
	2011/12	International Business Taxation ID 26	X	Doctoral programme	X	yes Vienna Graduate School of Finance, financed by the Austrian Science Fund FWF	EMP
	2012/13	Information Systems ID 23	MSc	X	X	X	EMP
	2012/13	Marketing ID 24	MSc	X	X	X	EMP
	2012/13	Socio-Ecological Economics and Policy ID 25	MSc	X	X	X	EMP

⁸² The data presented in this table concerns EMPs in business studies at Austrian state universities which have been implemented by the academic year of 2012/13 (cf. Chapter 5.2).

Name of university (arranged according to the number of programmes offered)	Academic year of implementation	Name of programme and ID	Type of degree programme:		Joint or double degree programme + name of partner institution	Third-party funding + name of institution	English track or programme exclusively offered as EMP
			Masters	Doctoral or PhD			
University of Innsbruck	2007/08	Information Systems ID 8	MSc	X	X	X	EMP
	2007/08	Organisation Studies ID 9	MSc	X	X	X	EMP
	2007/08	Strategic Management ID 10	MSc	X	X	X	EMP
	2008/09	Applied Economics ID 6	MSc	X	X	X	EMP
	2008/09	Banking and Finance ID 7	MSc	X	X	X	EMP
	2008/09	Management ID 12	X	PhD	X	X	EMP
	2009/10	Economics ID 11	X	PhD	yes joint programme with Johannes Kepler University Linz	X	EMP
University of Vienna	2009/10	Logistics and Operations Management ID 16	X	PhD	X	X	EMP
	2009/10	Management ID 17	X	PhD	X	X	EMP
	2009/10	Quantitative Economics, Management, and Finance ID 13	MSc	X	X	X	EMP
	2009/10	Statistics and Operations Research ID 18	X	PhD	X	X	EMP
	2010/11	Economics ID 14	X	PhD	X	yes Vienna Graduate School of Economics, financed by the Austrian Science Fund FWF	EMP
	2010/11	Finance ID 15	X	PhD	X	yes Vienna Graduate School of Finance, financed by the Austrian Science Fund FWF	EMP
JKU - Johannes Kepler University Linz	2009/10	Economics ID 5	X	PhD	yes joint programme with University of Innsbruck	X	EMP
	2010/11	General Management ID 3	MSc	X	X	X	EMP

Name of university (arranged according to the number of programmes offered)	Academic year of implementation	Name of programme and ID	Type of degree programme: Masters	Type of degree programme: Doctoral or PhD	Joint or double degree programme + name of partner institution	Third-party funding + name of institution	English track or programme exclusively offered as EMP
	2011/12	Global Business ID 4	MSc	X	yes joint programme with University of Victoria, Canada and National Sun Yat-sen University, Taiwan	X	EMP
AAU - Alpen Adria University Klagenfurt	2011/12	International Management ID 1	MSc	X	yes optional joint degree programme La Rochelle University, France	X	EMP
Graz University of Technology	2007/08	Production Science and Management ID 2	MSc	X	X	X	EMP
Vienna University of Technology	2010/11	Business Informatics ID 29	MSc	X	X	X	EMP
University of Graz	No English-medium programmes offered in business or economics studies						
University of Salzburg	No English-medium programmes offered in business or economics studies						

Appendix 4a: Statistics on implementation years, institutions, degrees and types of programmes

	Total number of EMPs:	
	Absolute frequency	Relative frequency
Years of implementation		
EMPs implemented in 2005/06	1	3.45
EMPs implemented in 2007/08	5	17.24
EMPs implemented in 2008/09	3	10.34
EMPs implemented in 2009/10	8	27.59
EMPs implemented in 2010/11	6	20.69
EMPs implemented in 2011/12	3	10.34
EMPs implemented in 2012/13	3	10.34
Degree levels		
EMPs at the bachelor's level	0	0
EMPs at the master's level	18	62.07
EMPs at the PhD level	11	37.93
Institutions		
EMPs offered at WU	10	34.48
EMPs offered at University of Innsbruck	7	24.14
EMPs offered at University of Vienna	6	20.69
EMPs offered at Johannes Kepler University Linz	3	10.34
EMPs offered at Alpen Adria University Klagenfurt	1	3.45
EMPs offered at Graz University of Technology	1	3.45
EMPs offered at Vienna University of Technology	1	3.45
EMPs offered at University of Graz	0	0
EMPs offered at University of Salzburg	0	0
Types of programmes		
Joint degree programmes	4	13.79
Double degree programmes	2	6.90
Third-party funding	4	13.79
English tracks	1	3.45
Programmes exclusively offered as EMP	28	96.55

Appendix 5: Implementation years

Implementation years	MA Programmes	Phd Programmes	Universities
2005/06		Finance ID 28	WU – Vienna University of Economics and Business (Vienna Graduate School of Finance, financed by the Austrian Science Fund FWF)
2007/08	Production Science and Management ID 2		Graz University of Technology
2007/08	Information Systems ID 8		University of Innsbruck
2007/08	Organisation Studies ID 9		University of Innsbruck
2007/08	Strategic Management ID 10		University of Innsbruck
2007/08		Social and Economic Sciences (English track) ID 27	WU – Vienna University of Economics and Business
2008/09	Applied Economics ID 6		University of Innsbruck
2008/09	Banking and Finance ID 7		University of Innsbruck
2008/09		Management ID 12	University of Innsbruck
2009/10	Quantitative Economics, Management, and Finance ID 13		University of Vienna
2009/10	International Management / CEMS ID 22		WU – Vienna University of Economics and Business
2009/10	Quantitative Finance ID 19		WU – Vienna University of Economics and Business
2009/10		Economics ID 5	Johannes Kepler University Linz (Joint degree programme with University of Innsbruck)
2009/10		Economics ID 11	University of Innsbruck (Joint degree programme with Johannes Kepler University Linz)
2009/10		Logistics and Operations	University of Vienna

Implementation years	MA Programmes	Phd Programmes	Universities
		Management ID 16	
2009/10		Management ID 17	University of Vienna
2009/10		Statistics and Operations Research ID 18	University of Vienna
2010/11	General Management ID 3		Johannes Kepler University Linz
2010/11	Strategy, Innovation, and Management Control ID 20		WU – Vienna University of Economics and Business (Double degree optional: Queens University, Canada or St. Petersburg State University, Russia)
2010/11	Supply Chain Management ID 21		WU – Vienna University of Economics and Business
2010/11	Business Informatics ID 29		Vienna University of Technology
2010/11		Economics ID 14	University of Vienna (Vienna Graduate School of Economics, financed by FWF)
2010/11		Finance ID 15	University of Vienna (Vienna Graduate School of Finance, financed by FWF)
2011/12	International Management ID 1		Alpen Adria University of Klagenfurt (Joint degree programme optional with La Rochelle University, France)
2011/12	Global Business ID 4		Johannes Kepler University Linz (Joint degree programme University of Victoria, Canada and National Sun Yat-sen University, Taiwan)
2011/12		International Business Taxation ID 26	WU – Vienna University of Economics and Business (financed by FWF)
2012/13	Information Systems ID 23		WU – Vienna University of Economics and Business
2012/13	Marketing ID 24		WU – Vienna University of Economics and Business
2012/13	Socio-Ecological Economics and Policy ID 25		WU – Vienna University of Economics and Business

Appendix 6: Students enrolled at Austrian state universities⁸³

	University	Number of students enrolled	Relative proportion
1	University of Vienna	92,486	30.89%
2	University of Graz	29,142	9.73%
3	Vienna University of Technology	27,923	9.33%
4	University of Innsbruck	27,774	9.28%
5	Vienna University of Economics and Business (WU)	23,584	7.88%
6	Johannes Kepler University Linz (JKU)	18,873	6.30%
7	University of Salzburg	17,878	5.97%
8	Graz University of Technology	12,693	4.24%
9	University of Natural Resources and Life Sciences Vienna (BOKU)	11,394	3.81%
10	Alpen Adria University Klagenfurt (AAU)	10,916	3.65%
11	Medical University of Vienna	7,468	2.49%
12	Medical University of Graz	4,091	1.37%
13	University of Leoben	3,338	1.11%
14	University of Music and Performing Arts Vienna	3,243	1.08%
15	Medical University of Innsbruck	2,786	0.93%
16	University of Veterinary Medicine, Vienna	2,286	0.76%
17	University of Music and Performing Arts Graz	1,949	0.65%
18	University of Applied Arts Vienna	1,716	0.57%
19	Mozarteum University Salzburg	1,701	0.57%
20	Academy of Fine Arts Vienna	1,434	0.48%
21	The University of Art and Design Linz	1,156	0.39%
		299,435	

⁸³ Table generated from uni:data, a data warehouse provided by the Austrian Federal Ministry of Science and Research (Bundesministerium für Wissenschaft und Forschung – bmwf 2013). Reference date for the statistics on student numbers at Austrian state university is 11 January 2013. Universities highlighted in grey offer programmes in economics and business studies and were thus part of the status quo survey.

Appendix 7: Entry requirements

University	Programme	Entrance exam	English language entry requirements waived for native speakers	English language entry requirements waived if EMP completed	English-language entry requirements are waived if (business) English classes in tertiary education completed	School-leaving exam is accepted as proof of English language proficiency	English language entry requirements waived if applicant studied or worked in English-speaking country	TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language)	IELTS (International English Language Testing System)	TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication)	CAE (Cert. of Advanced English)	CPE (Cert. of Proficiency in English)	BEC Higher (Business English Cert. Higher)	UNICert III	GMAT (Graduate Management Admission Test)	GRE (Graduate Record Examination)	Selection Interview	Letter of recommendation	
AAU - Alpen Adria University Klagenfurt	MSc International Management ID 1	entrance exam for applicants with a bachelor's degree in a field of study other than business or economics	yes	yes or degree in English / American Studies	yes combination of English classes in tertiary education and school leaving certificate minimum of 15 ECTS credits in English classes at the tertiary level grade point average not lower than "2" (Austrian grading system)		yes if applicant "spent a long time abroad due to school, university studies or work"	TOEFL internet-based: 100	7		accepted at least C1						yes	X	
Graz University of Technology	MSc Production Science and Management ID 2	X	applicants do not have to provide proof of English language proficiency but "an advanced level of English is required"														X	X	
JKU - Johannes Kepler University Linz	MSc General Management ID 3	X	yes	X	X		yes if English was the language of instruction in applicant's secondary education	required English language proficiency: C1 level in accordance with the CEFR accepted certificates: TOEFL, IELTS, or CAE (no specific scores given)		X	accepted		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
JKU	MSc Global Business ID 4	X	yes	X	X		yes if English was the language of instruction in applicant's secondary education	TOEFL paper-based: 570 TOEFL computer-based: 230 TOEFL internet-based: 88-89* *wrong score was given for TOEFL internet-based but was converted with official TOEFL score comparison	6,5		accepted	accepted			X	X	X	X	
JKU	PhD Economics ID 5	X	applicants do not have to provide proof of English language proficiency														X	X	
University of Innsbruck	MSc Applied Economics ID6	X	applicants do not have to provide proof of English language proficiency														X	X	
U. o. Innsbruck	MSc Banking and Finance ID 7	X	yes	X	X	X		TOEFL paper-based: 600 TOEFL computer-based: 250 TOEFL internet-based: 100 only mandatory for applicants from non-EEA countries	7 only mandatory for applicants from non-EEA countries	X	accepted (taken no longer than 3 years ago)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
U. o. Innsbruck	MSc Information Systems	X	yes	X	X	X		TOEFL paper-based: 600 TOEFL computer-based: 250	7 only mandatory for applicants	X	accepted (taken no longer than	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	

University	Programme	Entrance exam	English language entry requirements waived for native speakers	English language entry requirements waived if EMP completed	English-language entry requirements are waived if (business) English classes in tertiary education completed	School-leaving exam is accepted as proof of English language proficiency	English language entry requirements waived if applicant studied or worked in English-speaking country	TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language)	IELTS (International English Language Testing System)	TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication)	CAE (Cert. of Advanced English)	CPE (Cert. of Proficiency in English)	BEC Higher (Business English Cert. Higher)	UNICert III	GMAT (Graduate Management Admission Test)	GRE (Graduate Record Examination)	Selection Interview	Letter of recommendation	
	ID 8							TOEFL internet-based: 100 only mandatory for applicants from non-EEA countries	from non-EEA countries		3 years ago								
U. o. Innsbruck	MSC in Organisation Studies ID 9	X	yes	X	X	X	X	TOEFL paper-based: 600 TOEFL computer-based: 250 TOEFL internet-based: 100 only mandatory for applicants from non-EEA countries	7 only mandatory for applicants from non-EEA countries	X	accepted (taken no longer than 3 years ago)	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
U. o. Innsbruck	MSC Strategic Management ID 10	X	X	X	X	X	X	TOEFL or IELTS (no specific scores given) only mandatory for applicants from non-EEA countries		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
U. o. Innsbruck	PhD Economics ID 11	X	applicants do not have to provide proof of English language proficiency														X	X	
U. o. Innsbruck	PhD Management ID 12	X	applicants do not have to provide proof of English language proficiency but are expected to have "profound knowledge of English"														X	X	
University of Vienna	MSC Quantitative Economics, Management, and Finance ID 13	X	X	yes	X	English grade in school-leaving certificate must not be lower than "3" (Austrian grading system)	X	TOEFL paper-based: 550 TOEFL computer-based: 200 TOEFL internet-based: 79-80* * internet-based score was not given but was converted with official TOEFL score comparison	6 (no band below 5)	alternatives to TOEFL and IELTS are also accepted						X	X	X	X
U. o. Vienna	PhD Economics ID 14	X	yes	yes additional requirement: master's thesis written in English	X		yes if applicant "lived in an English-speaking country for a long time"	TOEFL paper-based: 600 TOEFL computer-based: 250 TOEFL internet-based: 100	7 (no band below 6)	alternatives to TOEFL and IELTS are also accepted						X	GRE obligatory	yes	at least 2 letters of recommendation are obligatory
U. o. Vienna	PhD Finance ID 15	X	X	X	X	X	X	TOEFL paper-based: 600 TOEFL computer-based: 250 TOEFL internet-based: 100 taken no longer than 2 years ago	7 (no band below 6) taken no longer than 2 years ago	alternatives to TOEFL and IELTS are also accepted CAE is listed						GMAT or GRE obligatory		yes	X
U. o. Vienna	PhD Logistics and Operations Management ID 16	X	yes	yes	X	X	X	TOEFL paper-based: 600 TOEFL computer-based: 250 TOEFL internet-based: 100	7 (no band below 6)	alternatives to TOEFL and IELTS are also accepted						X	X	yes	X
U. o. Vienna	PhD Management ID 17	X	yes	yes	X	X	X	TOEFL paper-based: 600 TOEFL computer-based: 250 TOEFL internet-based: 100	7 (no band below 6)	alternatives to TOEFL and IELTS are also accepted						X	X	yes	X
U. o. Vienna	PhD Statistics and Operations	X	yes	yes	X	X	X	TOEFL paper-based: 600 TOEFL computer-based: 250	7 (no band below 6)	alternatives to TOEFL and IELTS are also accepted						X	X	yes	X

University	Programme	Entrance exam	English language entry requirements waived for native speakers	English language entry requirements waived if EMP completed	English-language entry requirements are waived if (business) English classes in tertiary education completed	School-leaving exam is accepted as proof of English language proficiency	English language entry requirements waived if applicant studied or worked in English-speaking country	TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language)	IELTS (International English Language Testing System)	TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication)	CAE (Cert. of Advanced English)	CPE (Cert. of Proficiency in English)	BEC Higher (Business English Cert. Higher)	UNICert III	GMAT (Graduate Management Admission Test)	GRE (Graduate Record Examination)	Selection Interview	Letter of recommendation
	Research ID 18							TOEFL internet-based: 100	6)									
WU – Vienna University of Economics and Business	MSc Quantitative Finance ID 19	X	yes	yes minimum length of English-taught bachelors: 3 years	a minimum of 14 ECTS credits in English Business Communication at WU grade point average must not be lower than 2.49 or equivalent certificates	X	X	TOEFL paper-based: 600 TOEFL computer-based: 250 TOEFL internet-based: 100	7	800	accepted	accepted	accepted	accepted	GMAT or GRE obligatory or letters of recommendation		X	accepted as an alternative to a GMAT or GRE score
WU	MSc Strategy, Innovation and Management Control ID 20	X	yes	yes minimum length of English-taught bachelors: 3 years	a minimum of 14 ECTS credits in English Business Communication at WU grade point average must not be lower than 2.49 or equivalent certificates	X	X	TOEFL paper-based: 600 TOEFL computer-based: 250 TOEFL internet-based: 100	7	800	accepted	accepted	accepted	accepted	obligatory for all applicants from non-EU and non-EEA countries applicants from EU and EEA states submit their grade point average (GPA) of the previously completed study program (GPA needs to be officially calculated and confirmed by the institution) submission of a GMAT score also highly recommended for EU and EEA citizens	X	yes	X
WU	MSc Supply Chain Management ID 21	X	yes	yes minimum length of previously completed English-taught bachelors programme: 3 years	a minimum of 7 ECTS credits in English Business Communication at WU grade point average must not be lower than 2.49 or better	X	X	TOEFL paper-based: 600 TOEFL computer-based: 250 TOEFL internet-based: 100	7	800	accepted	accepted	accepted	accepted	GMAT or GRE obligatory or letters of recommendation		X	accepted as an alternative to a GMAT or GRE score
WU	MSc International Management / CEMS ID 22	X	yes	yes minimum length of English-taught bachelors: 3	a minimum of 14 ECTS credits in English Business Communication at WU	X	X	TOEFL paper-based: 600 TOEFL computer-based: 250 TOEFL internet-based: 100	7	800	accepted	accepted	accepted	accepted	obligatory for all applicants from non-EU and non-EEA countries	X	yes	X

University	Programme	Entrance exam	English language entry requirements waived for native speakers	English language entry requirements waived if EMP completed	English-language entry requirements are waived if (business) English classes in tertiary education completed	School-leaving exam is accepted as proof of English language proficiency	English language entry requirements waived if applicant studied or worked in English-speaking country	TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language)	IELTS (International English Language Testing System)	TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication)	CAE (Cert. of Advanced English)	CPE (Cert. of Proficiency in English)	BEC Higher (Business English Cert. Higher)	UNICert III	GMAT (Graduate Management Admission Test)	GRE (Graduate Record Examination)	Selection Interview	Letter of recommendation
				years	grade point average must not be lower than 2.0										applicants from EU and EEA states submit the grade point average (GPA) of the previously completed study programme (GPA needs to be officially calculated and confirmed by the institution) submission of GMAT score also highly recommended for EU and EEA citizens			
WU	MSc Information Systems ID 23	X	yes	yes minimum length of previously completed English-taught bachelors programme: 3 years	a minimum of 7 ECTS credits in English Business Communication at WU or 4 ECTS credits in English Business Communication and 8 ECTS credits in IT-related courses taught in English grade point average must not be lower than 2.49	X	X	TOEFL paper-based: 600 TOEFL computer-based: 250 TOEFL internet-based: 100	7	800	accepted	accepted	accepted	accepted	GMAT or GRE obligatory		X	at least 2 letters of recommendation are obligatory
WU	MSc Marketing ID 24	X	yes	yes minimum length of English-taught bachelors: 3 years	a minimum of 10 ECTS credits in English Business Communication at WU grade point average must not be lower than 2.49	X	X	TOEFL paper-based: 600 TOEFL computer-based: 250 TOEFL internet-based: 100	7	800	accepted	accepted	accepted	accepted	obligatory for all applicants except WU students	X	X	1 letter of recommendation is obligatory for WU students as they do not need to submit a GMAT score
WU	MSc Socio-Ecological Economics and Policy ID 25	X	yes	yes minimum length of previously completed English-taught bachelors programme: 3 years	a minimum of 10 ECTS credits in English Business Communication at WU grade point average must not be lower than 2.49	X	X	TOEFL paper-based: 600 TOEFL computer-based: 250 TOEFL internet-based: 100	7	800	accepted	accepted	accepted	accepted	X	X	yes communication skills are checked in the interview	2 letters of recommendation are obligatory

University	Programme	Entrance exam	English language entry requirements waived for native speakers	English language entry requirements waived if EMP completed	English-language entry requirements are waived if (business) English classes in tertiary education completed	School-leaving exam is accepted as proof of English language proficiency	English language entry requirements waived if applicant studied or worked in English-speaking country	TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language)	IELTS (International English Language Testing System)	TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication)	CAE (Cert. of Advanced English)	CPE (Cert. of Proficiency in English)	BEC Higher (Business English Cert. Higher)	UNICert III	GMAT (Graduate Management Admission Test)	GRE (Graduate Record Examination)	Selection Interview	Letter of recommendation
WU	Doc. International Business Taxation ID 26	X	X	X	a minimum of 14 ECTS credits in English Business Communication at WU grade point average must not be lower than 2.49	X	X	TOEFL paper-based: 600 TOEFL computer-based: 250 TOEFL internet-based: 100	7	alternatives to TOEFL and IELTS are also accepted CAE is listed				X	X	yes	2 letters of recommendation are obligatory	
WU	Doc. Social and Economic Sciences ID 27	X	applicants do not have to provide proof of English language proficiency													X	yes	X
WU	PhD Finance ID 28	X	X	X	X	X	X	TOEFL paper-based: 600 TOEFL computer-based: 250 TOEFL internet-based: 100 taken no longer than 2 years ago	7 (no band below 6) taken no longer than 2 years ago	X	accepted	X	X	X	GMAT or GRE obligatory		yes	X
Vienna University of Technology	MSc Business Informatics ID 29	X	applicants do not have to provide proof of English language proficiency but B2 level in accordance with the CEFR is required													X	X	

Appendix 7a: Statistics on entry requirements

		Total number of EMPs:	Total number of English-taught master's programmes:	Total number of English-taught PhD programmes:	
		29	18	11	
Entry requirements, admission criteria and waiver rules	Absolute frequency	Relative frequency	Relative frequency (master's programmes) ⁸⁴	Relative frequency (PhD programmes)	Notes
Entrance exam	1	3.45			
Waiver rules					
English language entry requirements waived for native speakers of English	18	62.07			
English language entry requirements waived if EMP completed	10	34.48			Programme ID 1: degree in English / American studies Programme ID 14: explicitly stated that master's thesis must be written in English Programmes ID 19-25 (WU): minimum length of English-taught bachelor's programme is 3 years
English language entry requirements waived if applicant studied or worked in English-speaking country	2	6.90			
English language entry requirements waived if applicant completed at least 15 ECTS credits in English language courses at tertiary level in combination with School-leaving exam grade average not lower than "2" (Austrian grading system)	1	3.45			
English language entry requirements are waived if applicant completed at least 7 ECTS credits in English Business Communication at tertiary level grade point average must not be lower than 2.49	2	6.90			
English language entry requirements are waived if applicant completed at least 10 ECTS credits in English Business Communication at tertiary level	2	6.90			

⁸⁴ Note that for certain categories a distinction between master's and PhD programmes is made, to contrast entry requirements for the two degree levels and thereby highlight interesting differences. For instance, it is interesting to see for which percentage of PhD programmes a B2 level is considered sufficient and how many master's programmes require proof of a C1 level.

		Total number of EMPs:	Total number of English-taught master's programmes:	Total number of English-taught PhD programmes:	
		29	18	11	
Entry requirements, admission criteria and waiver rules	Absolute frequency	Relative frequency	Relative frequency (master's programmes) ⁸⁴	Relative frequency (PhD programmes)	Notes
grade point average must not be lower than 2.49					
English language entry requirements are waived if applicant completed at least 14 ECTS credits in English Business Communication at tertiary level grade point average must not be lower than 2.49	2	6.90			
English language entry requirements are waived if applicant completed at least 14 ECTS credits in English Business Communication at tertiary level grade point average must not be lower than 2	1	3.45			
Consolidated: English language entry requirements are waived if applicant completed (business) English classes at tertiary level	8	27.59			Programme ID 1: credits for English classes other than business communication are accepted Programme ID 23: a combination of business English classes (4 ECTS) and IT-related classes taught in English (8 ECTS) is also accepted
School-leaving exam accepted					
School-leaving exam is accepted as proof of English language proficiency if English was the language of instruction in applicant's secondary education	2	6.90			
School-leaving exam is accepted as proof of English language proficiency if English grade in school-leaving certificate is not lower than "3" (Austrian grading system)	1	3.45			
School-leaving exam is accepted as proof of English language proficiency in combination with min. 15 ECTS credits in English language courses at tertiary level grade average not lower than "2" (Austrian grading system)	1	3.45			
TOEFL / IELTS certificates					
mandatory for all applicants (if no waiver rule applied)					

		Total number of EMPs:	Total number of English-taught master's programmes:	Total number of English-taught PhD programmes:	
		29	18	11	
Entry requirements, admission criteria and waiver rules	Absolute frequency	Relative frequency	Relative frequency (master's programmes) ⁸⁴	Relative frequency (PhD programmes)	Notes
TOEFL internet-based score 79-80 IELTS bandscore 6 = B2 level in accordance with CEFR	1	3.45			
TOEFL internet-based score 88-89 IELTS bandscore 6.5 = B2 level in accordance with CEFR	1	3.45			
TOEFL internet-based score 100 IELTS bandscore 7 = C1 level in accordance with CEFR	16	55.17			Programme ID 3: it is only indicated that a C1 level is required and that TOEFL, IELTS or CAE certificates can be submitted as proof
TOEFL / IELTS only mandatory for applicants from outside the EAA					Programmes IDs 7-10 (University of Innsbruck): TOEFL or IELTS only mandatory for non-EAA citizens
TOEFL internet-based score 100 IELTS bandscore 7 = C1 level in accordance with CEFR mandatory for non-EEA citizens	3	10.34			
TOEFL or IELTS certificate no specific scores or CEFR level given mandatory for non-EEA citizens	1	3.45			
Other certificates					
TOEIC accepted	7	24.14			TOEIC is accepted for all WU master's programmes (IDs 19-25) with a score of 800; the TOEIC is not listed by any other university
CAE accepted (CEFR level is indicated on certificate)	16	55.17			Programme ID 1: it is explicitly stated that the level given on the certificate needs to be at least C1 Programmes IDs 7-9 (University of Innsbruck): it is explicitly pointed out that the CAE must not be taken longer than 3 years ago
CPE accepted (for very advanced learners of English; certificate is only awarded for C2 and C1 levels)	8	27.59			accepted by JKU and WU
BEC Higher accepted (translates into C1 level)	7	24.14			accepted for all WU master's programmes
Unicert III accepted (translates into C1 level)	7	24.14			accepted for all WU master's programmes

		Total number of EMPs:	Total number of English-taught master's programmes:	Total number of English-taught PhD programmes:	
		29	18	11	
Entry requirements, admission criteria and waiver rules	Absolute frequency	Relative frequency	Relative frequency (master's programmes) ⁸⁴	Relative frequency (PhD programmes)	Notes
English language proficiency levels required					
Test certificate required but no proficiency level indicated	1	3.45			Programme ID 10: TOEFL or IELTS certificates mandatory for non-EAA citizens but no scores or required proficiency level given
Proof of B2 level required for master's programmes	2		11.11		
Proof of B2 level required for PhD programmes	0			0	
Proof of C1 level required for master's programmes	12		66.67		
Proof of C1 level required for PhD programmes	7			63.64	
Consolidated: B2 level required	2	6.90			
Consolidated: C1 level required	19	65.52			
Proof of English language proficiency					
Proof of English language proficiency mandatory for all applicants	18	62.07			
Proof of English language proficiency only mandatory for non-EAA citizens	4	13.79			
No proof of English language proficiency required for master's programmes	3		16.67		
No proof of English language proficiency required for PhD programmes	4			36.36	Programme ID 2: applicants are supposed to have "an advanced level of English" Programme ID 12: applicants are supposed to have "profound knowledge of English" Programme ID 29: applicants are supposed to be at B2 level in accordance to the CEFR
Consolidated: no proof of English language proficiency required	7	24.14			
GMAT / GRE certificates					
GMAT or GRE as alternatives to TOEFL, IELTS etc. score in verbal sections must be above average for the year in question	1	3.45			Programme ID 1
Submission of GMAT or GRE score obligatory for all students	4	13.79			
Submission of GMAT or GRE score or letter of recommendation	2	6.90			

		Total number of EMPs:	Total number of English-taught master's programmes:	Total number of English-taught PhD programmes:	
		29	18	11	
Entry requirements, admission criteria and waiver rules	Absolute frequency	Relative frequency	Relative frequency (master's programmes) ⁸⁴	Relative frequency (PhD programmes)	Notes
Submission of GMAT score only obligatory for applicants from non-EAA states					
applicants from EU / EAA states submit the GPA (grade point average) of previously completed programme instead	2	6.90			
submission of GMAT highly recommended for all applicants					
Submission of GMAT score only required for non-WU students	1	3.45			
Letters of recommendation					
Letters of recommendation accepted as alternatives to GMAT or GRE for master's programmes	3	10.34			
A minimum of 2 letters of recommendation are obligatory for master's programmes	2		11.11		
A minimum of 2 letters of recommendation are obligatory for PhD programmes	2			18.18	
Consolidated: letters of recommendation are obligatory	4	13.79			
Selection interviews					
Selection interviews master's programmes	4		16.67		WU MSc Socio-ecological economics and policy: "communication skills are checked in the course of the interview"
Selection interviews PhD programmes	8			72.73	
Consolidated: selection interviews	12	41.38			

Appendix 8: Number of courses with language learning aims as identified in the course description analysis

Programmes investigated in the course description analysis	Obligatory courses with explicitly stated language learning aims	Elective courses with explicitly stated language learning aims	Courses without stated language learning aims	Courses without stated language learning aims but with language skills listed as assessment criteria	Total number of courses analysed
International Management / CEMS ID 22	10	8	1	6	25
Quantitative Finance ID 19	21	2	0	3	26
Strategy, Innovation, and Management Control ID 20	12	3	0	1	16
Supply Chain Management ID 21	14	2	4	6	26
Totals	72 (77.4%)		21 (22.58%)		93

Appendix 9: Course description analysis: Language learning objectives, language skills as assessment criteria, teaching formats and methods

Codes used in <i>Atlas.ti</i> ⁸⁵	International Management / CEMS ID 22	Quantitative Finance ID 19	Strategy, Innovation, and Management Control ID 20	Supply Chain Management ID 21	Totals:
1. Language learning objectives					
1.1. Aim: Improving presentation skills	9	4	10	4	27
1.2. Aim: Increasing discussion / negotiation / communication skills	7	19	12	5	43
1.3. Aim: Honing academic reading and researching skills	7	7	3	3	20
1.4. Aim: Honing academic and discipline-specific writing skills	10	2	9	3	24
1.5. Aim: Broadening subject-specific terminology knowledge	0	5	1	0	6
1.6. No language learning objectives	1	0	0	4	5
1.7. No language learning aims but language skills are part of assessment criteria	6	3	1	6	16
2. Language skills as assessment criteria					
2.1. Assessed: Presentation skills	14	8	9	6	37

⁸⁵ The total number of courses in the four master's programmes which were analysed is 93 (cf. Appendix 8) and the figures displayed in this table are absolute frequencies. When interpreting and discussing the data in the respective chapters, relative frequencies are additionally used to express the percentage share of the categories. For a more detailed account on the research methods used to generate this data, see Chapter 5.5.

Codes used in <i>Atlas.ti</i> ⁸⁵	International Management / CEMS ID 22	Quantitative Finance ID 19	Strategy, Innovation, and Management Control ID 20	Supply Chain Management ID 21	Totals:
2.2. Assessed: Discussion / negotiation / communication skills	15	14	12	10	51
2.3. Assessed: Academic reading and researching	3	2	4	2	11
2.4. Assessed: Academic / discipline-specific writing	13	2	5	5	25
2.5. Assessed: Subject-specific terminology knowledge	0	0	0	0	0
3. Teaching formats and methods					
3.1. Lecturing / teacher-fronted input	16	19	12	11	58
3.2. Guest speakers / industry experts	5	0	6	1	12
3.3. Case study teaching	10	9	8	9	36
3.4. Group work	8	10	4	6	28
3.5. Open class discussions	15	10	12	15	52
3.6. Reading assignments	10	12	13	10	45
3.7. Student presentations	10	9	10	5	34
3.8. Computer simulation learning and role plays	1	1	1	4	7
3.9. Projects and cooperation with businesses	2	0	1	0	3

Appendix 10: EAP and ESP classes identified in the EMPs

Type of course	ECTS credits	Obligatory or voluntary class	Programme title and ID	Course title	Class focus	Taught by
ESP	0 ECTS	Voluntary / pre-sessional; can be used to skip midterm exam in introductory content class	ID 19 QFin (Science Track)	Bridging Course Finance	Financial English: Subject-specific terminology and genre knowledge; Academic writing; Academic reading;	Team teaching: content expert (with background in language teaching; cf. Interview_06) and language specialist
EAP	4 ECTS	Obligatory	ID 19 QFin (Science Track)	Finance Research Seminar	Reviewing and assessing current research literature	Content experts
EAP	8 ECTS	Obligatory	ID 19 QFin (Science Track)	Finance Paper Reading and Writing	Academic writing; Reviewing and assessing current research literature;	Content experts
EAP	1 ECTS	Obligatory	ID 20 SIMC	Thesis Seminar: How to write a thesis	Academic writing; Reviewing and assessing current research literature;	Content experts
EAP	2 ECTS	Obligatory	ID 20 SIMC	Presentation Training - KRISP (Kearney's Rational & Incisive Speaker Program)	Presentation skills;	Content expert
EAP	10 ECTS	Obligatory	ID 21 SCM	Research Seminar in Supply Chain Management	Academic writing; Reviewing and assessing current research literature;	Content experts

Type of course	ECTS credits	Obligatory or voluntary class	Programme title and ID	Course title	Class focus	Taught by
EAP	1 ECTS	Obligatory	ID 22 CEMS	Business Communication Skills Seminar	Presentation skills; Written business communication skills;	Team teaching: language specialists
EAP	5 ECTS	Obligatory	ID 22 CEMS	Research in International Management	Academic writing; Reviewing and assessing current research literature;	Content experts

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Deutsche Zusammenfassung

Die fortschreitende Internationalisierung des europäischen Hochschulraumes hat zum vermehrten Einsatz von Englisch als Unterrichtssprache nicht-englischsprachigen Ländern geführt (Maiworm & Wächter 2003: 88). Wirtschaftswissenschaftliche Studien sind von diesem Trend besonders betroffen, was man deutlich an der steigenden Anzahl englischsprachiger Studiengänge in dieser Fachrichtung ablesen kann (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 45–48). Entgegen dieser Entwicklungen lässt sich allerdings immer noch ein mangelndes Bewusstsein für die organisatorischen und pädagogischen Herausforderungen, die sich durch die Einführung einer Fremdsprache als Arbeitssprache ergeben, feststellen. Die vorliegende Dissertation vereint eine Status Quo Erhebung zum Gesamtvolumen englischsprachiger Studiengänge in den Wirtschaftswissenschaften an österreichischen Universitäten mit einer Fallstudie an der größten europäischen Wirtschaftsuniversität, der WU Wien.

Das Forschungsdesign erlaubt es, quantitative Trends auf nationaler Ebene mit qualitativen Einblicken aus der Fallstudie zu ergänzen. Den Ausgangspunkt dazu stellt die Status Quo Erhebung dar, die die genaue Anzahl englischsprachiger Studiengänge in den Wirtschaftswissenschaften an österreichischen Universitäten im Studienjahr 2012/13 aufzeigt. Außerdem gewährt die Studie detailreiche Einblicke in vorherrschende sprachenbezogene Aufnahmeverfahren und Zulassungskriterien. Des Weiteren wurde eine Analyse von nationalen und institutionellen Internationalisierungsstrategien durchgeführt, die Entwicklungen auf diesem Gebiet beleuchtet und die Rolle der Verwendung von Englisch als Unterrichtssprache beschreibt. Um die Rolle des Sprachenlernens in diesen Studiengängen zu untersuchen, wurden ferner Curricula und Kursbeschreibungen analysiert. Hierbei wurde besonderes Augenmerk auf vorherrschende Unterrichtsformate und explizit angegebene, sprachenbezogene Lernziele gelegt. Alle Datensets wurden mit Erkenntnissen aus Interviews mit Programmentwicklern und Vortragenden ergänzt. So liefert die Studie durch diese Kombination von Makro- und Mikro-Ebenen ungewöhnlich ganzheitliche Einblicke in englischsprachige Studiengänge in den Wirtschaftswissenschaften.

Die Resultate der Status Quo Erhebung bestätigen Ergebnisse früherer Studien in Hinblick auf den vermehrten Einsatz von Englisch als Unterrichtssprache in wirtschaftswissenschaftlichen Studiengängen (Wächter & Maiworm 2008: 45–48). Die Untersuchung der sprachenbezogenen Aufnahmekriterien zeigt einige Problemfelder auf. Diese beziehen sich vor allem auf die Thematik der Test-Score-Äquivalenzen und die Zuordnung dieser zu den Kompetenzlevels des gemeinsamen europäischen Referenzrahmens für Sprachen. Die Erhebung zeigt, dass für den Großteil der englischsprachigen Studiengänge an österreichischen Wirtschaftsfakultäten ein C1 Kompetenzniveau als Aufnahmekriterium verlangt wird.

Die Analyse der institutionellen Internationalisierungsstrategien zeigt eine klare Verbindung zwischen dem steigenden Wettbewerb unter Anbietern im tertiären Bildungsbereich und der Einführung englischsprachiger Studiengänge. Im Unterschied dazu spielt das Thema auf nationaler Ebene eine eher untergeordnete Rolle. In den untersuchten Berichten des österreichischen Bildungsministeriums zur Internationalisierung der nationalen Hochschulen wird vor allem das Thema der Lehrenden- und Studierendenmobilität hervorgehoben.

Im Gegensatz zu Schlussfolgerungen vorangegangener Studien, dass explizite sprachenbezogene Lernziele in englischsprachigen Studiengängen eher selten vorzufinden sind (z.B. Järvinen 2008), zeigen die Ergebnisse der Lehrplananalyse, dass 77% der untersuchten Programme explizit angegebene, sprachenbezogene Lernziele beinhalten. Dies steht jedoch im Widerspruch zu den in den Interviews getroffenen Aussagen der Programmdirektoren, die verbesserte Sprachkenntnisse weitgehend als logische Folge der Verwendung von Englisch als Unterrichtssprache ansehen und diese Ziele nicht aktiv verfolgen. In der Tat sehen sie die sprachlichen Lernziele in den Kursbeschreibungen nicht als Sprachfunktionen per se, da sie Sprachunterricht primär mit Grammatiklernen gleichsetzen. In diesem Zusammenhang fällt außerdem ein mangelndes Bewusstsein für das Lehren und Lernen fachspezifischer Sprache auf, was sich wiederum in der spärlichen Anzahl von fachspezifischen Englischkursen in den Curricula widerspiegelt.

Curriculum Vitae

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Akademischer Werdegang

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Publikationen

- Unterberger, Barbara. 2012. "English-medium programmes at Austrian business faculties: A status quo survey on national trends and a case study on programme design and delivery." *AILA Review* 25: 80-100.
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 - Gefaell, Christina & Barbara Unterberger. 2010. "CLIL programme evaluation: Deriving implementation guidelines from stakeholder perspectives". *IEWS – Vienna English Working Papers* 19 (3): 29-35.
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Konferenzvorträge

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- “English-medium programmes at Austrian business faculties: Policies, pedagogy and programme design”. *Integrating content and language in higher education (ICLHE 2013)*. Maastricht, Niederlande. 11. – 13.4. 2013.
- “English-taught degree programmes in business education: Programme design, implementation strategies and factors of success”. *Language Futures: Languages in Higher Education*. Edinburgh, Schottland. 5. – 6.7. 2012.
- “English-medium programmes (EMPs) at Austrian business faculties: The status quo on distribution patterns, key characteristics & teaching aspects”. *Language policy and language teaching: New Challenges for teaching at institutes of higher education / universities*. Freiburg im Breisgau, Deutschland. 18. – 20.4. 2012.
- "English-medium degree programmes at Austrian business faculties". *AILA 2011: The 16th World Congress of Applied Linguistics*. Peking, China. 23. - 28.8. 2011.
- "The different varieties of English-medium teaching in higher education". *CLIL Research Network Symposium at AILA 2011: The 16th World Congress of Applied Linguistics*. Peking, China. 23. - 28.8. 2011.
- "Best Practice Guidelines for CLIL Business Classes at Austrian Universities". *CLIL 2010: In Pursuit of Excellence*. Eichstätt, Deutschland. 30.9. - 2.10. 2010.
- "Establishing Best Practice Guidelines for English-taught Business Courses at Austrian Universities". *International Conference on Languages in Business Education*. Brüssel, Belgien. 24. - 26.6. 2010.
- "Macro & Micro Perspectives on Tertiary CLIL Business Courses at Austrian Universities". *Who needs languages? Micro and macro perspectives into language education policies*. Jyväskylä, Finnland. 7. - 10.6. 2010.
- "Stakeholder perceptions of a new CLIL programme in Vienna". *CLIL & Immersion Classrooms: Applied Linguistic Perspectives. Symposium of the AILA CLIL Research Network*. Wien, Österreich. 20. – 22.9. 2007.

Lehrtätigkeit

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