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ITALIAN HIGHER EDUCATION STUDENTS' PERSPECTIVES ON INTERNATIONALIZATION AT HOME AND THEIR IDENTITY AS ENGLISH AS LINGUA FRANCA USERS

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ABSTRACT

This study explores the Italian students' perspectives on using English in English-medium instruction (EMI) programs in light of the practices of internationalization at home (IaH) at the University of Bologna (UNIBO) in Italy and further investigates whether these attitudes affect their language identity as English as lingua franca (ELF) users. Although Italy has recently witnessed an increase in research on IaH and EMI, it is still a new phenomenon in Italy that requires more research. The focus on students' perspectives on the use of English in EMI programs can contribute to the improvement in language policy planning and internationalized curriculum design by policymakers. This study might also alleviate tensions over the controversial issue of the Englishization of higher education by considering how EMI students perceive their use of English as ELF users. To address these aims, a mixed-method approach was adopted to collect quantitative and in-depth qualitative data in two phases through an online survey and a semi-structured interview. The online survey was distributed among students studying EMI programs at UNIBO, and a total number of 78 Italian students participated in this phase, out of which 14 participants were interviewed. The findings of the study reveal that the majority of participants (92%) in the online survey held a positive perspective toward the use of English in EMI programs and the findings from the interviews were in line with the results of the survey. However, the purpose of the interviews was to mainly focus on exploring the participants' views on their language identity as ELF users. The thematic analysis of the interviews acknowledged that students experience emotional, cognitive, and social transitions in EMI programs in response to their shift from a non-EMI to an EMI academic setting. Furthermore, in terms of their attitudes towards the use of English in EMI and it effect on their language identity, the majority of the interviewees viewed English as a functional language and a tool for communication which is more in line with perceiving English as ELF rather a superior standard English which is targeting the Englishization of the internationalization of higher education (IHE). Overall, all the above-mentioned transitions were positive and could lead to personal development. However, drawing on the multimodal transitions the students expressed, we cannot be assured of how deeply these transitions penetrate their language identity as a stable social construct that roots in a person's beliefs and longitudinal future research is recommended to cast light on this uncertainty. On the other hand, these positive transitions, no matter to what extent transient and situational they might be, still have shown emotional, cognitive, and social developments in students using English in EMI and these findings are also in line with the humanistic aspects and goals of IHE regarding the development of students into global intercultural citizens who can raise their cultural awareness and tolerance for diversity and can perform socially, emotionally and professionally in today's international and multicultural context. Even though the students expressed their understanding of language identity differently, it can be concluded that the EMI context provides few opportunities for the emergence of significant new subject positions mediated by English in this study.

Keywords: English-medium instruction, internationalization at home, English as lingua franca, Englishization, internationalized curriculum, transitions, language identity

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the beautiful soul and memory of my father,

Abdolmajid Jahangiri

who inspired me to pursue my doctoral degree, but unfortunately was unable to attend my graduation. Nevertheless, he remains the driving force behind my life, and I draw all my courage from him, and I also dedicate this to my mother,

Manijeh Jahangiri

the origin of my success who has always encouraged me to pursue my dreams.

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INTRODUCTION

The recent global changes, including the rise of nationalist-populist movements, bans on immigration, anti-globalist protests, wars, and natural disasters and health issues as in the case of the COVID-19 epidemic outbreak, have caused severe disruptions to academic life (De Wit & Altbach, 2021). These changes have called many of the conventional higher education methods such as student's mobility for study reasons into question and subsequently, the internationalization of higher education (IHE) defined as "the process of integrating an international dimension into the research, teaching, and services function of higher education" (Knight, 1993: 21), is shifting its focus away from student mobility for a small minority and toward an internationalized curriculum for all students at home and as a result, the importance of internationalization at home (IaH) is felt more than ever before. This is not to argue that studying abroad is no longer vital, but the reality is that relatively few students take advantage of the opportunity to do an internship or study abroad. In response to this issue, internationalization at home policies aim to provide all students with global and intercultural skills without them leaving their country of origin (Crowther et al., 2000,) and to fulfill this goal, they require an internationalized curriculum to purposefully integrate "international and intercultural dimensions into the formal and informal curriculum for all students within domestic learning environments" (Beelen & Jones, 2015: 69) to prepare students for performing (professionally, socially, and emotionally) in an international and multicultural setting (Nilsson, 2000) as global professionals and citizens (Leask, 2015).

The policies of internationalization at home aim to advance social equity by providing internationalization to the non-mobile (local) majority of students at their home institutions and to meet this end the English-medium instruction (EMI) programs are considered one of the tools that aim to facilitate the internationalization process of higher education. EMI is defined as "the use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the populations is not English" (Macaro, 2018: 19). The tendency towards EMI programs is evident in its expansion globally, however; it all initiated in Europe and was triggered by the Bologna declaration (1999). The Bologna Agreement, which emphasized the freedom of mobility for HE students within Europe, has played a vital part in the development of EMI in Europe (Saarinen & Nikula, 2012). EMI programs have dramatically increased over the past few decades to foster IHE (Hultgren, 2014; Macaro, Curle et al., 2018; Macaro et al., 2019). Although there seem to be numerous rationales behind their growth, such as political and economic reasons (Brandenburg & De Wit, 2011), the humanistic aspects of internationalization are frequently emphasized, especially intercultural awareness, diversity, global citizenship, and tolerance (Yemini, 2015). In addition, EMI programs have become increasingly popular among students as well as researchers since they view them as an opportunity to modernize and internationalize, which in turn benefits their career prospects (Galloway et al., 2020).

As stated earlier, the EMI acronym commonly stands for English-medium instruction. However, Smit (2010) has reconceptualized EMI where E does not indicate English but English as a lingua franca (ELF) leading to framing EMI communication as ELF communication. In other words, EMI is “the domain of English as a lingua franca in academic settings” (Jenkins, 2018: 5). The relationship between ELF and EMI becomes even more clear when EFL is defined as “any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option” (Seidlhofer, 2011: 7). However, this definition does not fit all the contexts and all participants, and it is therefore not stable particularly when ELF is investigated in a context where the professors and students share the same L1 but teach and learn EMI programs through English, as in the context of the current study which will be described further.

In an EMI setting, English appears as the academic language through which students learn the content. Concerning this, Heller and Morek (2015) identify three different functions of academic language: communicative, epistemic, and socio-symbolic. The communication function is the transmission of complex knowledge via specific linguistic structure, the epistemic function deals with the completion of complex cognitive operations or a tool for thinking and assumes that language, cognition and learning are interconnected and the socio-symbolic function of academic language which represents one of the main points of reflection in the present thesis is defined as “a complex of functions connected to questions of identity” (Heller & Morek, 2015: 178). As for the connection between identity and language, it is claimed that identity constructs and is constructed by language (Crawshaw, Callen, & Tusting, 2001; Ros i Solé, 2004; Shi, 2006). In other words, language is one of the tools individuals use to define themselves and socialize with others, therefore; using a new language entails the formation of a new identity (Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000). The use of English as a means of communication seems to have impacts on learners and reconstruct their English as lingua franca identities (Pietraszek, 2017) and using English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) within an EMI program can be considered influential on identity (Jenkins, 2007). Among the seven main facets of identity including race, ethnicity, nationality, migration, gender, social class, and language that have been present in theories and research on identity to varying degrees (Block, 2007), in the current study the focus is on language identity and more specifically on student's identity as ELF users. Block (2007) defines language identity "as the assumed and/or attributed relationship between one's sense of self and a means of communication which might be known as a language (e.g., English) a dialect (Geordie) or a sociolect (e.g., football-speak)" (: 40). The traces of the connection between language and identity are also observable in more classic literature, as in the study by Harris and Rampton (1997) who note three kinds of relationship between language and identity: language expertise, language affiliation and language inheritance. Expertise is an individual's level of proficiency in a language. Affiliation is about the individual's attitudes towards and affective connection to a language. In essence, it refers to how much a person connects with and feels emotionally connected to a specific language. Finally, inheritance involves being born into a family or community that speaks a specific language or dialect (Rampton, 1990). Even if one may have inherited a language or dialect, they may not feel any affiliation to it or have expertise in it (Block, 2007). As Block (2007) points out, language identities can change significantly over time. Therefore, it is possible to be born into one language community and develop a strong affiliation with and expertise in another language community. In the present study, the concept of language expertise and language affiliation have been explored while leaving out the language inheritance aspect since it is irrelevant to the context of the present study in which the population is the Italian students who do not inherit English by birth and are local students without dual nationalities.

Recently with the global expansion and growth of IaH and EMI, a substantial amount of research has been conducted on these areas (e.g., Leask, 2023, Beleen, 2022; Bowles & Murphy, 2020; Kuteeva et al., 2020; Galloway et al., 2020, Wilkinson & Gabriëls, 2021; Borghetti & Zanoni, 2019). However, the spread of EMI has outpaced research in this area and the context-specific nature of EMI (Macaro, 2018) adds to the value of any research being conducted on this theme as long as the context differs.

As mentioned earlier, Europe has been long a major context for EMI implementation and this movement was triggered by the Bologna declaration (1999) and led to its popularity and growth in Northern European countries—particularly those in the Scandinavian and Baltic regions—which are more likely than Southern European countries to employ EMI (Hultgren, Jensen, & Dimova, 2015). Italy as a Southern European country is the main context of this study. The logics behind choosing Italy as the context of the current study generally root in two justifications: The vital role of Italy in setting EMI laws and regulations along with its historical movement in this area at the national and European level (Bologna declaration) and the limited research on EMI in Italy. One reason behind insufficient research on Italian EMI could be that as compared to several northern European countries, EMI is a relatively new phenomenon in Italy (Zuaro, 2022) and despite the pioneering role that Italy historically played that led to a push toward EMI, at a certain point in the history of EMI in Italy, traces of disagreement could be observed when the Politecnico of Milan and the Academic Senate decided to support the introduction of Master's and Ph.D programs in English in 2014 (Costa, 2021). To resolve this controversy, the Constitutional Court issued a law in 2017 which mandated parallel language use, which states that any educational programs offered in English, or any other foreign language must also be provided to students in Italian (Costa, 2021). The Italian Constitution aims to protect all languages, including minority languages. In light of this background information, it can be assumed that the Italian students as the target group in this study have the opportunity to choose to study in Italian or to enter EMI programs so it could reveal that those who choose EMI are at least well-motivated and they are not obliged to study in English. However, this mandatory parallel language use at the tertiary level could be interpreted assigns of protecting Italian in fear of the domain loss of L1 and the Englishization of higher education (Hultgren et al., 2014). Therefore, it can be concluded that the internationalization and Englishization of higher education through EMI go hand in hand, with university campuses paradoxically growing more linguistically diverse on the one hand and more English-focused on the other (Jenkins, 2018).

As stated earlier, the EMI setting is an 'ELF scenario' (Smit, 2018: 387) and perceiving ELF as a language system has been a controversial issue for decades (Seidlhofer, 2006: Jenkins, Cogo, & Dewey, 2011). There are two viewpoints of either considering ELF as a language system or merely a functional tool for communication among non-native speakers "which serves as a common means of communication for speakers of different first languages" (Mortensen, 2013: 14). As Jenkins (2019) states shifting from a standard English ideology to ELF ideology could benefit various EMI stakeholders and alleviate problems related to political, social, language, and cultural identity (Jenkins, 2019). It seems that adopting the ELF ideology might also help the protection of L.1 against Englishization as well as threats to identity.

This research is significant in that it explores and puts into question the Italian student's attitudes toward the use of English in EMI as one of my research objectives and in this regard, it might contribute to the literature on the above-mentioned controversies over the Englishization of higher education from the viewpoint of students as the main receivers of EMI. In addition, it should be noted that although recently valuable research has been conducted on EMI in Italy, their main focus has been on EMI policies and curriculum development (e.g., Costa & Murphy, 2018; Bowles, 2017; Broggini & Costa, 2017; Costa, 2017; Pulcini & Campagna, 2015; Costa & Coleman, 2013; Costa, 2021, Zuaro, Soler & Björkman, 2022); and the student's perspectives on the use of English in EMI is an area which has been rarely addressed in the literature. Therefore, additional study is required to address the phenomenon's numerous facets.

This study further aims to explore whether these attitudes affect the students' language identity as users of English as a lingua franca (ELF), an area that has been rarely addressed. Although students' identity has been investigated in various domains of applied linguistic studies (Benson et al., 2013; Block, 2022) in terms of the use of English, they have mainly shed light on students' second language identities in foreign language contexts such as studying abroad. While in this research the emphasis is on Italian students who share L.1 and study EMI programs in their home country where ELF is not a second language but a foreign language. Concerning this, the concept of identity cannot be considered a stable construct in this study rather it should be conceived in transition. Benson et al. propose a working definition for the second language identity as "any aspect of a person's identity that is related to their knowledge and use of a second language" (2013: 17) which can shed light on what is meant here by student's identity as ELF users.

In line with the research objectives explained earlier, the current study aims to address the following research questions:

1. Do UNIBO Italian students have positive or negative experiences with using English within their EMI program?

2. Do these attitudes affect their language identity as users of English as a lingua franca (ELF)?

To clarify how the research questions are addressed, the research design of this study will be explained briefly as follows: as noted earlier, the nature of EMI is context-specific, and the policies and goals of EMI programs also vary across higher education institutions. However, this aspect of EMI might hamper the generalizability of its findings but simultaneously enhances the educational quality at the site of study and could be adapted to institutions in similar conditions. The University of Bologna (UNIBO) as the context of this research offering various EMI programs, as its official website declares, aims to "foster integration among students from other parts of the world and produce professionals open to international contexts". A self-evaluation report on the University of Bologna's progress toward comprehensive internationalization (Ubertini, 2019) states that all 32 of UNIBO's departments actively engage in internationalization, and over one-third of its programs are EMI, this large number necessitates more research on EMI in this particular context. EMI programs at UNIBO are in line with the definition of Madhavan and McDonald (2014) identifying EMI as teaching through the medium of English in a non-Anglophone context with the lack of explicit language learning aims. Italian students at UNIBO are the primary recipients of IaH policies implemented in EMI programs since they are the local majority, therefore; it is important to assess their viewpoints and explore how they perceive themselves as ELF users.

Regarding the methodology, an exploratory methodology was adopted with a mixed methods approach to data collection and data analysis. The data is, therefore; analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively based on a combination of an interpretive and embedded critical paradigm. The research objectives of the study, which strive to investigate the varied viewpoints of students in a particular educational setting regarding their experiences with using English in EMI programs, are reflected in the selection of a critical exploratory technique. Two data collection instruments are developed: an online survey and semi-structured interviews. The target group is the Italian students studying

EMI programs at UNIBO. The online survey mostly addresses the first research question on students' perspectives about using English in EMI while the second one focuses on the effect of these attitudes on their language identity as ELF users. The details of the methodology are beyond the scope of this introduction, however; highlighting the rationales behind the research design adds value to its significance. Using a mixed methods approach is justified because an in-depth investigation can be conducted if the strength of both methods focusing on quantitative and qualitative data are combined (Creswell, 2002) to gain a thorough grasp of the phenomenon under study.

As for the rationales behind choosing the data collection instruments, the survey is one of the most often utilized research techniques in the social sciences, according to Brown (2001) and Dörnyei (2003). Because it offers a quick and efficient means to get a lot of data from big sample sizes, this form of data gathering is popular (Dörnyei, 2007). However, they are inappropriate for a full investigation of a phenomenon since they often only provide superficial information (Dörnyei, 2007), which is one of their major shortcomings. However, the survey is the main instrument used in EMI-related studies for gathering data (Chapple, 2015; Kym & Kym, 2014; Sert, 2008). This study used a survey with both closed- and open-ended questions. The survey's quantitative and quantitative data provided the participants' general IaH and EMI-related attitudes towards the use of English in EMI. Furthermore, it provided basic demographic information about the participants and those who agreed to take part in the study's second phase. It also contributed to the preparation of the interview questions for the study's second phase.

Having discussed my justifications for choosing the online survey instrument for data collection, I turn to justify my choice of semi-structured interviews. Interviews are the most often used research method in qualitative research (Punch & Oancea, 2014; Dörnyei, 2007). Sometimes interviews and questionnaires are merged in EMI investigations (Chang, 2010; Evans & Morrison, 2011; Troudi & Jendli, 2011). Interviews are used in this study because they allow the researcher to analyze the participants' beliefs, conceptions of the world, and methods for creating and interpreting reality (Punch & Oancea, 2014). Since the interviewer and the interviewee are interacting during the interview, knowledge is socially created rather than transmitted (Kvale, 2007). Also, the individual's sense of self is an important element of identity, and the only way that such self-conceptions reveal in the social world is via discourse (Bucholtz & Hall, 2010) in this case, the oral discourse. In the current study, the interviews delved deeper into the topics that the questionnaire had raised, giving a more comprehensive picture of the students’ attitudes, feelings, and behaviors. In addition, it highlighted the reasons behind their perspectives, which the online survey could not fully explore. The interview and online survey data were triangulated in the data analysis and interpretation process to provide the most accurate answers to the study questions.

One of the main implications of this study is that providing students with a voice to express their perspectives towards the use of English in EMI would help in filling a gap in the literature on EMI, in particular in the Italian context. In other words, it may be feasible to bridge the gaps between the intended policy objectives and their actual outcomes by investigating how the EMI policy is perceived by students and this might benefit policymakers in developing the upcoming language policies.

This research is organized into six chapters. The theoretical foundations of the thesis were divided into three chapters since the three major themes of internationalization of higher education (IHE), English-medium instruction (EMI) programs and learner’s identity had to be investigated in depth theoretically and each of these themes required the length of a chapter. Accordingly, the first three theoretical chapters of the study address the following issues:

The first chapter aims to provide a theoretical understanding of fundamental terms associated with the central idea of internationalization of higher education and its sub-themes of internationalization at home (IaH) and internationalization of the curriculum (IoC) along with the explanation of the origins and development of these concepts and the related research in these areas. In the second chapter, I look at how the internationalization of higher education (IHE) intersects with English-medium instruction (EMI). I turn to EMI programs as one of the tools that aim to facilitate this process while paying particular attention to the role of English and English as a lingua franca (ELF) in EMI programs.

The third theoretical chapter revolves around the concept of learner’s identity which is connected to the socio-symbolic function of academic language which is English in an EMI context in the current study, and the focus is on students’ identity as ELF users specifically. Accordingly, the development of the concept of identity is initially discussed and the related research on ELF in EMI is highlighted. The fourth chapter of the thesis describes and justifies the research design, together with the philosophical and methodological choices that support the research framework of the study. In what comes next the research questions are presented along with a description of the context of the study, the sampling techniques, and the methods for data collection and analysis. Finally, the ethical considerations are described.

The fifth chapter reports the results of the qualitative and qualitative analysis of the data. The results are organized into three main sections in correspondence to the methods of data analysis and the research questions. The demographical, quantitative, and qualitative results are reported respectively. The sixth chapter discusses and interprets the major findings, their relevance to the literature, the implications of the study, and the limitations of the study. In the conclusion section, I will present a summary of the main findings in addition to suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 1
Internationalization of higher education

This chapter provides theoretical knowledge of basic terminologies related to the main concept of internationalization of higher education and its two pillars: internationalization abroad and internationalization at home and subsequently internationalization of the curriculum in general and their sub-topics in particular as well as the relevant research in this area.

1.1 Internationalization of higher education

In the early 1980s, the term ‘internationalization’ first appeared in the context of higher education. One of the most generally recognized and perhaps widely accepted definitions of ‘internationalization’ states that this phenomenon is “The process of integrating an international dimension into the research, teaching, and services function of higher education” (Knight, 1993: 21). However, this definition is not clear enough since although it is a process-based definition, it doesn't explicitly provide us with any information regarding what the word process entails and what methods should be used to make teaching, research, and service function of higher education more international (Wächter, 2003).

To create a broader definition, Jane Knight (2004) proposed that “Internationalization at the national, sector and institutional levels is defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education” (: 5). Knight (2004) refers to the term international as the relationship between and among nations, cultures, or countries, and the word intercultural indicates the internationalization within national borders. However, the word global describes something universal. Additionally, this definition encompasses the national, sector, and institutional levels, and the words ‘purpose,’ ‘functions,’ and ‘delivery’ are used to broaden and generalize the concept, as opposed to research, teaching, and services in the first definition, which are too particular to be used. The specific goal or objective that a particular higher education institution must accomplish for itself, as well as for the nation or region in which it works, is known as its ‘purpose’.

Functions are the primary abilities and responsibilities of a country's or an institution's postgraduate system, including teaching, training, research, academic services, and so on. Finally, delivery refers to the techniques or strategies employed in the provision of the services, such as programs and courses. Knight (2004) additionally argues that the national, sectoral, and institutional levels should all be included when examining the internationalization of higher education. The programs are designed to put the policies into effect and each level has its own policies regarding internationalization. De Wit et al. (2015) redefines internationalization as:

> The intentional process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of post-secondary education, in order to enhance the quality of education and research for all students and staff and to make a meaningful contribution to society (De Wit et al., 2015: 29).

This definition highlights the fact that such a process does not occur automatically but rather requires intentionality, that it is not a goal in and of itself but rather must contribute to quality improvement, and it should not be an advantage reserved for a selected group of mobile students and scholars but rather benefit all, and finally, that it should also benefit society (De Wit & Altbach, 2021). In the current study, I consider the definition by De Wit et al. (2015) since it is more comprehensive and inclusive than the ones by Jane Knight (2004).

1.1.1 Key characteristics of internationalization of higher education

The internationalization of higher education, in its most basic form, is a process that involves researching, educating, communicating, and trading across national borders. The initial conceptualization of internationalization was as an institutional reaction to globalization (Knight, 1997). Because “no single model fits all regions or even the nations and institutions within a region,” finding heterogeneity in national responses to globalization should be expected (Egron-Polak & Marinoni, 2022: 75). Unfortunately, this system has promoted vigorous competition for the brightest students, researchers, and privileged institutions in the Global North and the potential for some institutions in the Global South to positively affect their communities have been negatively impacted, and inequality has been made worse. The most powerful national and supranational governments, primarily but not exclusively in the Global North, prioritize the success of their economies and frequently pay little attention to the potential for advancing the global common good through the internationalization of higher education (Leask, 2022). In other words, not all national systems have benefited equally from the potential advantages of the internationalization of higher education for raising its quality, relevance, and competitiveness (Leask, 2022). Over the past 25 years, globalization has been responded differently by the internationalization of higher education. Table 1 demonstrates a few of the minor shifts in emphasis (Leask, 2022). Table 1.1 reveals that in 1997, the internationalization of higher education was characterized as a national policy primarily intended to safeguard a country's individuality (Knight, 1997). By 2015, however, the emphasis had switched to the manner (process), purpose (improving the quality of research and education), and outcomes (benefitting all students, staff, and society) (De Wit et al., 2015). The shift in emphasis can be explained in light of the years between 2003 and 2015 when calls for internationalization to return to its core values and concerns about the growing gap between the effects of internationalization on institutions, students, and communities in the Global North and the Global South emerged (International Association of Universities, April 2012).

Key characteristics	Definition
A national policy response to globalization.	"National identity and culture are key to internationalization. The homogenization of culture is often cited as a critical concern or effect of globalization". In contrast, internationalization respects and may even strengthen local, regional, and national priorities and cultures (Knight & De Wit 1997: 6).
Also, a sector and institutional response to globalization.	"Internationalization at the national, sector, and institutional levels is defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education" (Knight, 2003: 2).
A process of deep and complex changes over time.	
May have international, intercultural, or global dimensions.	
Will be planned and systematic.	"The intentional process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions and delivery of post-secondary education, in order to enhance the quality of education and research for all students and staff, and to make a meaningful contribution to society" (De Wit et al., 2015: 29).
Specifically focused on improving the quality of education and research.	
Will result in improved outcomes for all students and society.	

Table 1.1 Key characteristics of internationalization of higher education over three decades (Leask, 2021)

Based on research that included perspectives from both the Global North and the Global South, the most recent definition in Table 1.1 (De Wit et al., 2015) was developed (De Wit & Merx, 2022). In addition to being international, intercultural, and globally focused, it also emphasizes the significance of aim and purpose. Intentionality entails coordinated planning for precise objectives connected to raising standards, involving all students and staff, and bringing advantages to the entire community outside of the academy. According to De Wit et al. (2015), universities are institutions that belong to and serve society (Leask, 2022).

The social influence of universities on a global scale has been a crucial aspect in the growth of higher education, even though the De Wit et al. (2015) definition does not specifically state which society/ies (national, international, or global) will gain from internationalization (Leask, 2022). According to Escrigas et al. (2014), colleges have a social obligation to foster the development of dynamic, long-lasting global communities. The complicated interdependence of the world, (concerning, for example, vaccine production, supply, and distribution), has undoubtedly been highlighted by COVID-19. They have the power to strengthen or exacerbate existing social and economic inequalities both within and between countries and regions. COVID-19 has also emphasized the significance of having a global mindedness, of having people and national leaders who are aware of how their actions affect people, whether they are near them or far away, and of the need to collaborate to find solutions to global issues through research and action (Leask, 2022). Understanding the history of the internationalization of higher education is crucial to comprehending the internationalization of the curriculum. The internationalization of the curriculum, teaching, and learning is at the core of the internationalization process inside institutions due to the explicit focus in the De Wit et al. (2015) definition on all students, staff, and education (Leask, 2022).

1.1.2 The history of internationalization of higher education

Gaining knowledge on the development of the internationalization of higher education concept over time can provide us with a better understanding of its significance and origins. Kerr (1994) argues that tertiary education is international by nature but at the same time confirms that they are designed by the nations they exist in. Study on the internationalization of higher education has its root in the Medieval ages and the Renaissance when students and professors traveled in Europe where they shared a common religion, language and academic practices through which one could observe the traces of mobility (De Ridder Symoens, 1992). According to some scholars, the history of international academic exchanges may be traced back to the medieval universities of Europe (Albach & Teichler, 2001; Jones & Olek-sivenko, 2011).

In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, most universities were founded with national orientations, and they prioritized their national ideologies and mobility was mainly prohibited. This process of de-Europeanization valued national needs and was the national period of higher education (De Wit & Altbach, 2021). However, during this period international projects weren't entirely missing. "The export of higher education systems, the dissemination of research, and the solitary mobility of students and scholars" can all be categorized as three international dimensions of those years (De Wit & Altbach, 2021: 30).

In the first half of the twentieth century, there was a shift towards international collaboration and because of the political changes of the first world war and the cold war, peace and mutual understanding were promoted which led to increased international cooperation. This development is evident in the formation of the Institute of International Education (IIE) in the United States in 1919, the Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst (DAAD) in Germany in 1925, and the British Council in the United Kingdom (UK) in 1934. This international collaboration was further extended after the First World War when many scholars immigrated to Europe through the Fulbright Program of 1946. In addition to peace and mutual understanding, national security and foreign policy were the reasons for internationalizing higher education as in the case of the Soviet Union where the national governments promoted an international aspect in higher education. The majority of activities took place in the context of bilateral agreements in the fields of culture, education, and development cooperation (De Wit & Altbach, 2021).

Initially, Europe had a very minor role in the area of internationalization of higher education. Small efforts that were launched in Germany and Sweden in the 1970s and a European pilot program in the early 1980s gave rise to ERASMUS program (De Wit, 2002). ERASMUS and related programs were reorganized under the SOCRATES umbrella program in the 1990s. More recently, ERASMUS+ has developed into an even bigger program that includes initiatives for youth, sports, and education. The internationalization and reform of higher education have benefited from ERASMUS more than the simple student and teacher exchange. Rather, the Bologna Process and the creation of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA) were made possible by ERASMUS (DeWit et al., 2015).

Globally speaking, in 1980 English-speaking countries such as the UK, Australia and the United States of America hosted international students intending to generate income and followed a commercial model while continental Europe has pursued a cooperative model of international education throughout the last 25 years. More recently, the recruitment of international students has also shifted toward a market model in

Canada, continental Europe, and other places (De Wit & Altbach, 2021). In addition, there is a shift away from internationalization as a purely Western idea. As Jones and De Wit (2014) argue:

> In the current global knowledge society, the concept of internationalization of higher education has itself become globalized, demanding further consideration of its impact on policy and practice as more countries and types of institutions around the world engage in the process. Internationalization should no longer be considered in terms of a westernized, largely Anglo-Saxon, and predominantly English-speaking paradigm (Jones & De Wit, 2014: 28).

Thondhlana et al. (2021) claim that the internationalization of higher education is still gaining attraction as indicated by the growing understanding of the necessity to approach it strategically as well as using contextual lenses, particularly decolonization. The factors that had even more attracted attention to the construct of internationalization in higher education over the last decade, had been globalization, the end of the Cold war, and the regionalization of economies and societies (De Wit & Altbach, 2021).

1.1.3 The rationales behind the internationalization of higher education

Internationalization has advanced from the periphery to the core of the academic enterprise and has become a more significant component of higher education in the majority of countries (De Wit, 2011). This phenomenon is affected by political, sociocultural, economic, and academic factors. Over the past half-century, it has become a key concept. In higher education, internationalization is a mixed practice with a variety of goals, manifestations, and actors (Bamberger et al., 2018). Academic, political, economic, and sociocultural factors have all been highlighted as rationales for internationalization (De Wit et al., 2015). These reasons are mutually inclusive, changing across time and space, and they have never been stable or solitary (Bamberger et al., 2019). In other words, for economic, political, intellectual, and sociocultural reasons, higher education administrators are working to internationalize their institutions (De Wit, 2002; Hudzik, 2011), and governments are investing more money in the effort. The rationales of academic and cultural exchange, peace and mutual understanding, and national competitiveness, commercial, and economic interests are all seen as stages of the internationalization of higher education (De Wit, 2002; Knight, 2015).

As stated in the previous part about the history of internationalization of higher education, these main rationales have undergone significant transformations throughout time, from colonial structures (Scott, 1998) to humanitarian ideals connected to peace and mutual understanding in the post-war era, to a development agenda connected to political objectives during the Cold War, and now with an emphasis on its economic and commercial potential (De Wit, 2002; Knight, 2015). The expansion of internationalization has been fueled by this turn toward an economic rationale (Bamberger et al., 2019).

Scholars contend that neoliberalism and the internationalization of higher education are linked (Marginson, 2000; Shields, 2013). In fact, the terms ‘internationalization’ and ‘neoliberalism’ entered the educational discourse at the same time in the early 1990s (De Wit, 2002; Rowlands & Rawolle, 2013). Regarding neoliberalism, scholars have observed the rising dominance of the economic motivations and commercial expressions of internationalization practice in recent decades (Brandenburg & De Wit, 2011). Neoliberalism's foundation is the conviction that markets are the most effective tool for making decisions and the best means to advance human welfare (Harvey, 2005). It is especially linked to critical scholarship on market-based, capitalist policies. However, neoliberalism, which is frequently used when the rationales for internationalization are portrayed as shifting from humanistic motives to those of a more commercial nature, thus serves merely as one of the many signifiers of economic practices that affect the internationalization of HE (Venugopal, 2015). Similar to neoliberalism, the term ‘internationalization’ in higher education (HE) is used to refer to a variety of manifestations; while some are more ostensibly in line with academic and humanitarian rationales, like the internationalization of the curriculum or internationalization in research, others are more connected with competitive and economic rationales, like the recruitment of international students (Woldegiyorgis et al., 2018).

Internationalization has spatial variations as well, and it has local interpretations (Bamberger et al., 2019). The humanistic aspects of internationalization are frequently emphasized, especially intercultural awareness, diversity, global citizenship, and tolerance. Internationalization is frequently seen as a constructive alternative to detrimental forms of globalized neoliberalism (Haigh, 2008; Yemini, 2015). This humanistic perspective generally denotes a more comprehensive understanding of the individual; it emphasizes collaboration over competitiveness (Bennett & Kottasz, 2011;

Van der Wende, 2007). The phrases that internationalization relates to reflect this humanitarian perspective are global citizenship and cosmopolitanism (Goren & Yemini, 2017). Indeed, according to Kehm (2011) and Kehm and Teichler (2007), internationalization is frequently encouraged for humanitarian reasons. Recently, some scholars have claimed that internationalization has economic and commercial motives of neoliberalism, on the other hand, Bamberger et al. (2019) argue that internationalization has maintained a close relationship with humanitarianism rationales.

1.1.4 Contextual factors affecting internationalization of higher education

In the previous part, the questions of how and why the internationalization of higher education was developed were addressed and now I turn to what contextual factors can affect this phenomenon. Although the internationalization of higher education is supposed to occur inside universities, the universities do not exist in a vacuum and are influenced by external factors (Wächter, 2003). According to Wächter (2003), internationalization takes place by contextual factors which do not originate from inside the university itself. He pointed out that these external factors have a profound impact on internationalizing a university. They can be either positive and encourage internationalization or negative and limit the institution's degree of freedom. It is the universities' duty to adopt strategies that are in line with these contextual factors. Revolving around these topics in literature gain importance when it comes to the debate on the factors that can impact its degree of effectiveness or ineffectiveness. Among the many contextual factors that affect internationalization, Wächter (2003) referred to the most important ones as governmental policies and the process of globalization. Although he also mentions other factors such as the changes in the environment brought about by the IT revolution and the widespread 'commodification' of higher education, they seem to be marginalized in his study. In the present study, the focus is not on these external contextual factors specifically, however; getting familiar with them might shed some light on the possible factors that could influence the formation and quality of internationalization of higher education.

1.1.4.1 Governmental policies

At least in Europe, which is the general context of this study, state-run institutions make up the vast majority of universities. Therefore, the authorities control a university's level of freedom to a large extent in a way that governments can set limiting or liberating conditions for a higher education institution. Accordingly, general higher education policies are affected by this and in turn, internationalization policies follow these governmental decisions. Governments intervene primarily in two ways: Firstly, through the creation of laws and secondly, through funding sources (Wächter, 2003). What Wächter (2003) meant by laws are legislative and regulatory acts related to higher education. In Europe, there are at least three major levels of government that affect policies of internationalization. These are the levels of the European Union, national government, and regional government. There is even a fourth layer, which is international intergovernmental organizations (UNESCO, OECD), yet they have very little regulatory authority.

At the European Union level, in certain policy fields including education, the Union has the power to contribute to proper training in the member states according to Articles 149 and 150 of the Amsterdam Treaty (Articles 126 and 127, Maastricht). The corresponding articles provide the Union with the authority to encourage the member states' mobility and encourage cooperation between states and aim to support internationalization and pave the way for better mobility (Wächter, 2003).

At the national level, with the exception of nations with a largely federalist structure, national governments today still have the majority of legislative and regulatory authority over education. The national government determines the format and content for higher education and affects the degree of internationalization at universities. The national framework also establishes restrictions on opportunities for hiring foreign nationals. It controls which languages may be used for instruction. National government policies in Europe have, for the most part, tended to encourage rather than restrict internationalization. Since the Sorbonne and Bologna Declarations' conclusion, this tendency has even intensified (Wächter, 2003). In Europe, with the programs of the European Union (E.U.) and the Bologna Process, internationalization started and gradually evolved in the European Commission, international organizations such as OECD, UNESCO, and the World Bank, national governments, as well as higher education organizations such as the International Association of Universities (IAU) and the European Universities Association (EUA) (De Wit & Altbach, 2021). International academic engagements have traditionally been a key component of the national government's foreign policies, which are now more commonly referred to as 'soft power,' 'public diplomacy,' or, as Knight (2020) prefers, 'knowledge diplomacy' and these measures differed by country even though this changed after the Cold War when institutions took a more active role. However, during the past ten years, governments have begun to acknowledge more and more that international higher education plays a significant role in the growth, trade, and prestige of their own countries (de Wit & Altbach, 2021). Governments are different in their approaches, rationales, and priorities. In terms of policies, there are differences between and within countries with greater, lower, and middle incomes. Furthermore, there are variations in their plans: some nations have well-documented plans, while others have no plans but well-defined activities (De Wit et al., 2019). Only a few nations and regions, such as the E.U. and Germany, have a more thorough strategy and methodology when it comes to internationalization. Other examples of national and regional policies with a more strategic approach are China and Southeast Asia (ASEAN) (De Wit & Altbach, 2021).

At the regional government level, in some countries, regional organizations, like the German Länder or the Swiss Kantone, are in charge of education (Wächter, 2003). In such federalist circumstances, a coordinating organization of some kind is typically present, with the aim of ensuring a minimal level of uniformity across the different sub-systems. Thus, a high degree of federalism and regional autonomy need not be detrimental regarding internationalization. Strong regional identities, however, frequently obstruct the creation of an international perspective. For instance, insisting on a regional language that is rarely used to be the medium of instruction acts as a barrier to international cooperation in some cases. Even though these “isolationist” measures are frequently taken against the country’s federal level or other constituent sections rather than other nations, the insistence on regional laws undermines an international perspective (Wächter, 2003). Initiatives are frequently taken at the regional level (EU, ASEAN) or in collaboration with international institutions like OECD, UNESCO, or the World Bank. They often consist of small, dispersed projects (De Wit & Altbach, 2021).

As for the funding issue, internationalization has historically been encouraged at the European, national, and regional levels, and this is still the case today. Encouragement simply refers to giving more money to institutions that are eager to internationalize themselves, in other words, funding programs aim to promote internationalization. Some European countries have a long tradition of supporting internationalization and the European Union emerged as the ‘Prime mover’ of international cooperation in Europe. The continent’s higher education institutions have been severely challenged by initiatives like ERASMUS, LINGUA or COMETT, and later the SOCRATES and LEONARDO schemes. While the public's interest in these programs has always centered on their mobility components, they have encouraged structural cooperation more pertinent to the topic of ‘internationalization at home,’ including curriculum development and network construction. However, the Union’s action is limited in this aspect due to its contractual restrictions and education’s “structure and content” are still entirely up to the national level. These structures are closely related to ‘internationalization at home’ particularly in the area of degrees and curriculum reform (Wächter, 2003).

Regarding national policies for the promotion of internationalization, several trends may be seen: Firstly, internationalization policies have become more explicit over time. Secondly, from a historical viewpoint, the funding of systemic internationalization is gradually replacing the earlier heavy concentration of most governments on the mobility of people. Thirdly, because of the Bologna Declaration and the pressures brought on by the globalization process, financial programs are now occasionally used to change the entire tertiary system. Almost all Nordic countries have, in some form or another, most often encouraged the development of programs taught in a foreign language in English. Also, the Netherlands and, more recently, Germany have both seen a significant shift in this direction. Even France, a country that has historically been a fierce defender of its own language, has started ‘internationalization at home’ (Wächter, 2003).

In summary, governmental policies, whether they are in the form of legislation or financial schemes, determine the internationalization of higher education in general. The various European nations do not all have the same level of development but historically speaking, national governments now have a more supportive approach to internationalization than they had in the past. Instead of restricting internationalization, more and more nations are embracing it. However, some undercurrents run the other way, mostly by way of strong regional preferences. In the majority of nations, the European Union has the most effective individual advocate for internationalization, but its scope is constrained, and further measures from this side likely won't happen without changes to the treaties (Wächter, 2003).

1.1.4.2 Globalization

Aside from legislative acts and funding that can impact the internationalization of higher education, since the 1990s globalization process has been influential as well. Governments’ power and influence are gradually being reduced by the effects of globalization. Internationalization is already beginning to be significantly influenced by globalization, and this trend is only expected to grow. Globalization can lead to a boost in internationalization. However, these two are not synonymous and we need to differentiate between them. Globalization refers to “forceful changes in the economic, social, political and cultural environment, brought about by global competition, the integration of markets, increasingly dense communication networks, information flows and mobility” (Reichert & Wächter, 2000: 32). Therefore, it can be concluded that globalization is an uncontrolled process whereas internationalization is based on conscious action, and it is primarily a response to the challenges posed by globalization. Also, globalization has altered the landscape of higher education worldwide, particularly in terms of competition. As a result, there is now global competition between various higher education systems and institutions. Competition for the best professors and researchers has begun, as well as for the scientists, who are becoming more and more scarce. These characteristics are those of the phenomenon known as the ‘commodification of higher education’ (Wächter, 2003).

According to Wächter (2003), regarding the connection between globalization and internationalization, the straightforward explanation is that internationalization's norms are changing as a result of globalization. First, the students’ qualifications should no longer be geared toward the demands of national labor markets, rather the universities must prepare students for an international market. This will undoubtedly affect syllabi and curricula which need to be ‘internationalized’. Students must gain international as well as intercultural skills. Second, higher education institutions will need to draw ‘customers’ from the global ‘pool’ as well as the domestic students due to greater competition among them. The falling demographic curve of Europe will provide additional support for this demand since occasionally entire institutions may be in danger of closure. Third, structural internationalization, or ‘internationalization at home,’ is necessary to meet the expectations of a potentially global student population. In most situations, successful programs will be taught in English which is widely used internationally. This is a significant challenge and naturally favors English-speaking nations which rival businesses must adhere to. Additional classes in the host nation’s universities for international students must be provided as a support service since students must eventually be able to converse with others outside of the classroom as well. As was previously mentioned, curricula are tailored to meet demands and usage across borders, and they must equip graduates with cross-cultural competencies. Fourth, support services for specific groups of international students must be developed in Europe. Universities in Europe must abandon their non-service-oriented mindset. Though it will be a significant barrier that must be overcome in order to draw in international students. The foreign relations offices at universities in Europe should become more professionally trained. It’s time for higher education administrators in Europe to start considering students, whether internal or foreign, as their primary motivation. Fifth, in order for European higher education to survive and prevail in global competition, the degrees and diplomas must be in a ‘readable’ or internationally compatible format. This basically demands the adoption of a Bachelor’s/Master’s degree across Europe. Many European nations have made a start, and one can only hope that the Bologna process will ultimately accomplish the urgently required revision of degrees in Europe. The last aspect that is enormously boosted by the globalization process is the advances in information and communication technologies (ICT) and their entry into teaching and learning at higher education institutions. However, the connection of this phenomenon to internationalization in general and internationalization at home, in particular, appears to be at best vague. The wise use of ICT will boost ‘internationalization at home’. If they combine their knowledge and resources, strengths, and if they are included in the particular institutions’ curricula, teaching ICT will significantly improve the educational opportunities and learning components that would otherwise not be available. ICT will greatly enhance the quality of higher education, through the import of international (foreign) elements (Wächter, 2003). Internationalization in higher education has become a concept of good quality over the last three decades, in academic terminology along with massive transformation processes that higher education systems worldwide have undergone. This contrasts with globalization, which is contested and questioned as to its meanings and consequences (Marginson & Rhodes, 2002).

1.1.5 Research on internationalization of higher education

A relatively recent, wide-ranging, and diverse phenomenon in tertiary education is the notion and strategic agenda of internationalization. Over the past few decades, the body of research on internationalization in higher education has grown significantly. This part seeks to present a summary of research trends on internationalization in higher education since 1980. The concept of internationalization in higher education has drawn more attention from academics and policymakers globally during the latter half of the 20th century (De Wit, 201l; Knight, 2013). This increased interest has led to the active development of institutional, local, national, and international policies, programs, and infrastructure (Yemini & Sagie, 2016).

Several studies have attempted to provide an overview of the research conducted on internationalization in higher education; the majority of these, however, focus on particular topics like research on online learning (Wallace, 2003), international students (Abdullah, Aziz; Ibrahim, 2013), and international education (Dolby & Rahman, 2008). According to Kehm and Teichler (2007), the internationalization of teaching, learning, and research are among the main research areas in higher education. Other major research areas include knowledge transfer, cooperative and competitive modes, national and sub-national policies, and the mutual influences of higher education systems on one another (Yemini & Sagie, 2016). According to a study by Yemini and Sagie in 2016, internationalization at home, a term used to describe those aspects of internationalization strategies and activities that take place at the institutional level (on a home campus), as well as in the intercultural and international dimensions of teaching and learning processes, extracurricular activities, and relationships with local, cultural and ethnic groups, was the most prevalent category in the literature for years. All campus-based activities, such as seminars, workshops, extracurricular activities, summer school programs, and guest lectures, that entail international experience without the actual mobility component are referred to as ‘internationalization at home’ (Jow, 2009). Student mobility was the second most prevalent issue in recent years (Yemini & Sagie, 2016).

Another area of research is foreign student recruitment which is a vital factor for institutional income and national economic reasons (Qiang, 2003). To facilitate effective communication with students from diverse cultural, ethnic, and racial backgrounds, elaborate pedagogical approaches, draw on the experiences of multiethnic student groups, and support student acquisition of intercultural competencies, it is becoming more and more crucial to emphasize intercultural learning alongside the significant increase in the recruitment of foreign students (Stier, 2006). Also, Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) or online learning research has grown dramatically over the years, reflecting institutions' recognition of the importance of ICTs in daily life (Jow, 2009). The significant presence of international students on campuses accelerates efforts to internationalize the curriculum and supports initiatives and strategies at the institutional level (Urban & Palmer, 2013). In contrast to the prior emphasis on activities abroad and physical mobility, the multicultural and intercultural components of internationalization have grown more significant, along with an increase in research on internationalization at home. These developments suggest that the concept of this process needs to change, along with an increase in studies on the technological aspects of internationalization (Yemini, 2014).

By referring to the era of the 21st century as ‘the end of internationalization,’ Brandenburg and De-Wit (2011) sparked a discussion on the future orientations of internationalization and questioned the axiom that participation in internationalization is a prerequisite for successful higher education. As a result, the discourse has changed from being centered on the importance of internationalization in education (which provides benefits like increasing academic quality and accessibility of education for diverse populations, promoting international scientific research, and reinforcing the independence of educational institutions) to a growing critique regarding the process’s utility and the incorrect way that counties and higher education institutions interpret its meaning. This criticism links neoliberalism to many of the negative effects of internationalization in the socioeconomic debate (Yemini & Sagie, 2016). Such criticisms highlight the risk involved in maintaining and extending the dominance of English at the expense of local languages (Choi, 2010; Le Ha, 2013). Additionally, they regret the influence on educational attainment held by western, developed nations, particularly the USA, due to their superior budgetary management, which allows them to draw in human resources from abroad while depriving developing nations and even some developed nations of their most gifted faculty and students (Yemini, 2014). In fact, ‘brain drain’ has emerged as one of the major issues in small and developing nations, and immigration rules have been established in various places to assist preserve local populations (Fan & Stark, 2007). Finally, some have criticized institutions for using internationalization initiatives cynically to improve their standing in particular categories within university ranking systems and for prioritizing financial considerations over other ones when making internationalization decisions (Branderburg & de Wit, 2011). Such critics show contempt for the influence of commercial and political factors that internationalization introduces, which works against academic and social rationales (Yemini & Sagie, 2016).

1.2 Internationalization abroad

There are two pillars in the internationalization of higher education: cross-border internationalization or internationalization abroad and internationalization at home or home-based internationalization (within national borders). The two pillars are closely linked and interdependent (Knight, 2003). The former is also known as mobility and is perceived as an activity in internationalization and exists in various forms. The latter equals curriculum and global professional and citizenship development. It has also received increased attention, but still not as much as mobility for economic reasons. Over the past 30 years, the focus has been and still is on mobility, in particular in Europe as a result of the Erasmus program. There has been more emphasis on internationalization abroad than on internationalization at home (de Wit & Altbach, 2021). Therefore, in the current study, I put effort into investigating internationalization at home to address the insufficient research in this area to some extent without underestimating the role of mobility in improving global citizenship.

As mentioned earlier, internationalization abroad is also known as mobility. According to De Wit and Altbach (2021), mobility comes in various forms including student mobility, academic staff mobility, program mobility and online or virtual mobility. Although the main theme of the current project does not revolve around internationalization abroad, knowing about this concept would help us investigate the context in which I conduct the research since most students have experienced mobility through internship and exchange programs throughout their studies. Therefore, various types of mobility are explained below.

The first type of mobility is student mobility which in turn exists in various forms: degree mobility through which students achieve a full degree (bachelor, master, or doctorate) abroad, credit mobility through which students go abroad for a short-term, up to an academic year, while transferring their credits to their home degree and finally certificate mobility with shorter stays abroad without pursuing a degree or credit to gain specific skills, primarily language proficiency (De Wit & Altbach, 2021). The second type of mobility is academic staff mobility, which encompasses teachers and staff mobility as the name suggests.

Now, I turn my attention from the teacher and student mobility to program mobility, often known as Cross-Border Delivery of Education (CBDE) or Transnational Education (TNE). Program mobility can take many different forms, with International Branch Campuses (IBCs) being the most well-known. It can also take the form of franchise operations or joint and dual degree programs. Program mobility is challenging to measure. Students at an IBC who successfully complete their studies are typically given a degree by a foreign mother institution. IBCs differ from ‘franchised’ academic programs, in which a university permits another university to deliver its degree or credential (De Wit & Altbach, 2021).

Online mobility known also as virtual mobility or virtual exchanges reveals that the usage of technology is more economical than physical mobility. Online distance education is an expansion and digitization of open university models. The State University of New York system invented the term "collaborative online international learning" (COIL), which is now widely used globally. An interactive teaching and learning methodology known as COIL (www.coil.suny.edu) involves students actively participating in joint courses that are taught online by teachers from partner institutions (De Wit & Altbach, 2021). This last form of mobility was experienced by almost everyone during the Covid-19 crisis and since this study has been conducted during the pandemic period, students' academic experiences were affected by virtual mobility rather than physical mobility due to travel restrictions imposed by the pandemic.

1.2.1 Limitations of internationalization abroad

Although one cannot neglect the positive effects of internationalization abroad or mobility, there have been limitations to this type of internationalization. Internationalization abroad in a traditional sense is equivalent to mobility, particularly student mobility through internship and study abroad programs. Bengt Nilsson, in the Spring of 1999, highlighted two main drawbacks of internationalization abroad. Firstly, it served the minority of mobile students and after more than ten years of European student mobility programs including ERASMUS, still, fewer than 10% of students traveled abroad to study by 1999. Secondly, it neglected the 90% of non-mobile students since there had been a lack of providing the remaining majority of non-mobile students with a European and global perspective, improving their cultural awareness and understanding of and respect for cultural diversity.

The Erasmus Impact Study, as well as other works including a study from Finland (Centre for International Mobility, 2014), claimed that many transversal skills can be acquired by students while studying or doing internships abroad. However, Beelen (2019) argues that students who claim to have acquired transversal abilities may have previously possessed them before traveling abroad. Another factor is that the effect of studying abroad is greatly influenced by the location and the conditions. There might not be much interaction with local students at the host university if a student travels to the same location with numerous other students from the same university. The student may only communicate with other international students throughout the exchange, depending on how it is set up. Another reason was that the mobility programs were merely beneficial for the mobile minority who could financially afford the costs of traveling abroad. According to studies from the UK and Norway, most students who study abroad are members of a sociocultural elite, and internationalization abroad tends to reinforce class distinctions (King, Findlay & Arens, 2010; Saarikallio-Torp & Wiers-Jenssen, 2010).

At the institutional and governmental level, in internationalization abroad, the policies of universities and governments tend to be less strategic, comprehensive, and central and more fragmented and marginal. Also, rather than aiming for outcomes that benefit all students, faculty, and institutions, a tiny, elite fraction will benefit. It is also directed by a diverse set of political, economic, societal, and educational rationales that are always changing, with an increased emphasis on economic drivers. It is also directed more and more by regional, international, and national rankings. The three main purposes of higher education—education, research, and service to society—are not well aligned on a global scale. Internationalization abroad is primarily a focus for institutions of higher education, but it is also becoming more of a top priority for national governments (due to soft power, reputation, and/or financial considerations) and for regions (the EU, Bologna signatories, the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), etc.). In internationalization abroad, businesses and commercialization are becoming more and more integrated into all facets of the global higher education agenda (De Wit & Altbach, 2021).

Due to the recent global changes, there has been a shift away from internationalization abroad or mobility. These changes include the rise of nationalist-populist movements, bans on immigration, anti-globalist protests, and natural disasters and health issues as in the case of the COVID-19 epidemic outbreak, which caused severe disruptions to academic life, shifting instruction, at least temporarily, to a mostly distance-learning model, and calling into question many of the conventional higher education methods (De Wit & Altbach, 2021). Regarding, the refugee crisis as another recent issue, the difficulties faced by higher-income countries hosting refugees, such as Syrian refugees in Germany, have received a lot of attention in recent years. However, the majority of refugees are housed in developing nations. In this regard, Ergin, De Wit, and Leask (2019) discuss the “forced internationalization of higher education”. Only 3% of eligible refugees, according to UNCHR, have fair access to higher education (UNCHR, 2019). For the above-mentioned reasons, a plan was required to serve all students, not only the mobile minority. In addition, having gained more awareness of the present global constraints of physical mobility led to the emergence of internationalization with an aim to cross this gap and reduce the dependence on mobility as the main requirement to raise global awareness. Awareness of the limitations of internationalization abroad highlights the significance of internationalization at home and a more inclusive terminology of comprehensive internationalization.

Over the last decade, the need to develop a more central, integrated, and systemic approach to internationalization to eradicate fragmentation and marginalization, as well as the relationship between internationalization at home and internationalization abroad, have sparked interest in 'comprehensive internationalization,' which is defined as follows:

> A commitment and action to infuse international, global, and comparative content and perspective throughout the teaching, research, and service missions of higher education. It shapes institutional ethos and values and touches the entire higher education enterprise. It not only impacts all of campus life, but the institution's external frameworks of reference, partnerships, and relationships (Hudzik, 2011: 6).

'Comprehensive internationalization,' which addresses all facets of education in an integrated manner and includes quality assurance mechanisms, institutional policies related to student learning outcomes, and national and discipline-specific accreditation, is also receiving support (Hudzik, 2011).

1.3 Internationalization at home

Universities with the freedom to develop their own unique policies frequently characterize internationalization as an institutional (rather than a state) reaction (e.g., Hudzik, 2015). Institutions continue to be the primary forces behind internationalization overall. More than 90% of institutions, with the exception of North America, where only one-third do so, mention internationalization in their mission or strategic plan, according to the International Association of Universities' (IAU) 5th Global Survey of Internationalization of Higher Education, which is based on data from 2018, (Marinoni, 2019). Significant obstacles and pressures must be overcome by institutions as they develop internationalization strategies, including the need to focus on international research and publications, attract international students and scholars, use English as a research and teaching language, and generate revenue and external pressures, such as national funding regulations. A more inclusive, less elitist strategy that considers the needs of local students and employees and provides opportunities for these groups clashes with these difficulties and pressures. To put it another way, there is a conflict between a short-term, neoliberal approach to internationalization that concentrates mostly on research and mobility and a long-term, all-encompassing approach that emphasizes global learning for everyone (De Wit & Altbach, 2021). This latter approach looks at internationalization at home as a solution.

Bernd Wächter (2003) defines internationalization at home as any internationally related activity with the exception of outbound student and staff mobility. In his definition, he not only focuses on the sum of all these activities but also highlights the importance of a coherent relationship between them in a given institution. Although the previous studies defined internationalization at home and abroad as two opposing concepts, Beelen (2017) considers the two concepts of internationalization at home and abroad as complementary since there are many connections between the two in a way that outgoing student mobility could lead to incoming student mobility and mobility can be one of the means of internationalization at home and it is not only confined to student mobility since it also includes teaching staff mobility and virtual mobility as tools to internationalize the curriculum of non-mobile students. Beelen and Jones (2015) redefined the concept of internationalization at home (IaH) as "the purposeful integration of international and intercultural dimensions into the formal and informal curriculum for all students within domestic learning environments" (: 76). This definition emphasizes that internationalization at home is intentional, outcomes-driven, and focuses on all students, not only those enrolled in international or English-medium programs. Jones (2013) also questions how non-mobile students will acquire transversal skills at home.

1.3.1 The development of internationalization at home

In this part, I will elaborate on the trends of internationalization at home and how it has developed in the past twenty-three years. Although mobility still dominates internationalization globally, internationalization at home is receiving more attention. At the turn of the century, a reaction to internationalization abroad which had become market-oriented emerged as internationalization at home. The European Union's 'Internationalization at Home' movement began in 1999 with the aim of drawing attention to the 90% of students who were not able to take part in Erasmus or other exchange programs (De Wit et al., 2015). Similar campaigns that reacted to the rising emphasis on recruiting revenue-generating international students were launched in Australia and the

UK, drawing attention to the need to internationalize the curriculum, teaching, and learning. Additionally, in the US, the internationalization of the campus has received more attention as an alternative to studying abroad programs (De Wit & Altbach, 2021). These reactions are against the competitive, elitist, and market-oriented nature of mobility and pay greater attention to the qualitative aspect of internationalization at home, such as fostering global citizenship, employability, raising the quality of research, education, and societal contribution, and switching from looking at the output to outcome and impact when evaluating results. Although economic rationales continue to set the agenda, political, academic, social, and cultural reasons for internationalization are increasingly given more weight (De Wit & Altbach, 2021).

The issue of how the international world could be brought to non-mobile students' campuses and the above-mentioned shortcomings of internationalization abroad led to the emergence of internationalization at home. This concept was first coined in Sweden in 1999 with the purpose to provide all students with internationalization. This terminology was also proposed by Bengt Nilsson (2003) in an article titled "Internationalization at Home: Theory and Praxis" as opposed to the internationalization abroad movement and traditional mobility (Knight, 2008). In Europe, this concept was widely accepted by 80 representatives from 50 universities which led to the formation of the Internationalization at Home (IaH) Special Interest Group which was recognized by the European Association for International Education (EAIE) in August 1999 and their plans were presented at the 11th annual EAIE conference in December 1999 for the first time and its members increased to 120 afterward. This network aimed to define the concept of internationalization at home, stimulate a debate on this issue at seminars and conferences, gather ideas and examples for the internationalization process for non-mobile university students, and produce publications as a result (Wächter, 2003).

In the global context, since 2010, redefining the values of internationalization has been a controversial issue around the world. Some said that internationalization had outgrown its moral justification and is now excessively centered on generating income through the international students who will pay fees, focusing more on tools and resources than the main objectives of internationalization (Brandenburg & De Wit, 2010). The International Association of Universities (2012) released a statement in response to this affirming moral values in internationalization. One of these values was increasing the focus on internationalization at home and related learning outcomes (De Wit & Jooste, 2014). Van der Wende (2017: 11) notes that universities should have "broadened their mission for internationalization" which would mean enhancing local access and "embracing diversity as the key to success in a global knowledge society; and to become truly international and intercultural learning communities where young people can effectively develop into global citizens." As a result, the idea of internationalization at home spread across the globe and has been welcomed by networks and associations of international education worldwide such as EAIE in Europe, IEASA in South Africa, IEAA in Australia, the Columbus network in Latin America, AMPEI in Mexico and FAUBAI in Brazil (Beelen, 2017). It is now widely accepted that all students will require international and intercultural skills as future citizens and professionals. Employers affirm that they seek graduates with abilities such as critical thinking, cross-cultural teamwork, and conflict resolution (World Economic Forum 2016). These skills include transversal skills, employability skills, 21st century skills, and soft skills (Beelen, 2019).

1.4 Internationalization of curriculum

In response to globalization, higher education systems around the world have expanded their international dimensions and the idea of bringing the international world into the university campus was only feasible through the development of internationalized curricula. The OECD defined an internationalized curriculum in 1996 as "a curriculum with an international orientation in content and/or form, aimed at preparing students for performing (professionally/socially) in an international and multicultural context, designed for domestic and/or foreign students" (: 9). Having found the above-mentioned definition passive and not practical enough with merely focusing on content and form, Nilsson (2000) proposed a new definition for this term as a curriculum which gives international and intercultural knowledge and abilities, aimed at preparing students for performing (professionally, socially, emotionally) in an international and multicultural context. In 2009, Leask defined internationalization of the curriculum in a broader sense "as the process of incorporating international, intercultural, and global dimensions into the content of the curriculum as well as the learning outcomes, assessment tasks, teaching methods and support services of a program of study" (: 209). Leask (2009) distinguishes the internationalization of curriculum as a process and an internationalized curriculum as its product. As a result, Leask (2009) defines an internationalized curriculum as a product in the following way: "An internationalized curriculum will engage students with internationally informed research and cultural and linguistic diversity and purposefully develop their international and intercultural perspectives as global professionals and citizens" (: 209).

In the European context, as noted by the European Parliament Study (De Wit et al., 2015) it was advised that more consideration be given to the importance of internationalization at home for all students. It demanded that international and intercultural learning objectives be incorporated into the curriculum. The necessity of students developing transversal skills was emphasized in studies on the employability of graduates that the European Union commissioned (Humburg, Van der Velden, & Verhagen, 2013). It was proven by the Erasmus Impact Study (European Union, 2014) that students learn these skills through global mobility, but it also raised the question of how the majority of students who are not mobile learn these skills. As a response to this question, the internationalization at home also became observable for the first time in the educational policies of the European Union (European Commission, 2013). To ensure that the vast majority of students, the 80–90% who are not internationally mobile for either degree or credit mobility, are still able to acquire the international skills necessary in a globalized world, there is an increasing emphasis on the integration of a global dimension in the design and content of all curricula and teaching/learning processes (European Commission, 2013). The European Commission (2017) reiterated the importance of internationalization at home in its agenda on higher education.

These definitions make it abundantly obvious that internationalization of the curriculum involves much more than just content, and that within the formal curriculum, the content will be supported by research that cuts across national and cultural barriers. It focuses on international and intercultural learning outcomes, students' engagement with diversity in the outside world, in the classroom, and on campus, along with teaching and learning methods. These definitions are in line with an overall strategy for internationalization that includes numerous tactics from both the formal and informal sectors. Informal curriculum emphasizes encourages intercultural interaction outside and inside the classroom (Leask, 2015).

In higher education, the phrase 'internationalization of the curriculum' is frequently used. However, the terms 'internationalization' and 'curriculum' both frequently refer to quite various individuals, groups, and contexts (Whitsed & Green, 2014). For instance, some people use the term 'curriculum' to indicate a list of readings and assigned tasks that students must complete (often referred to as a syllabus), while others interpret it to mean content, pedagogy, and assessment. In the opinion of

educational scholars, the intended curriculum and the received curriculum differ significantly, therefore it is critical that you consider not just what students will be taught but also how they will learn it (Leask, 2022). The essential values of the disciplines and the professions are put into practice, and students are shaped as persons and graduates through the curriculum (Barnett & Coate, 2017). Thus, the curriculum is highly valued by students, universities, professions, governments, and society at large (Leask, 2022).
The internationalization of the curriculum process (abbreviated IoC by Leask, 2015) and its final outcome, an internationalized curriculum, are clearly distinguished by Leask (2015) using educational theories. Leask (2015) defines these two terms as follows:

> Internationalization of the curriculum is the incorporation of international, intercultural and/or global dimensions into the content of the curriculum as well as the learning outcomes, assessment tasks, teaching methods, and support services of a program of study. […] An internationalized curriculum will engage students with internationally informed research and cultural and linguistic diversity and purposefully develop their international and intercultural perspectives as global professionals and citizens (Leask, 2015: 9-10).

The creation of intended learning outcomes serves as the foundation for the design of programs and courses. From there, teaching and learning activities that will help students achieve these goals are chosen, and finally, assessment tasks are developed to evaluate how well students are doing in relation to those goals (Leask, 2022).

1.4.1 Curriculum

Before I move on to further considerations about the internationalization of the curriculum, it is crucial to define the concept of curriculum, and the three different types of curricula: the formal, the informal and the hidden curriculum. The definition of curriculum has always been a matter of confusion since it was initially used by Kemmis and Fitzclarence (1991). If the curriculum was too narrowly defined, it might limit students' learning (Goodson, 1995). According to Kemmis and Fitzclarence (1991), curriculum should encompass all the aspects of the learning and teaching situation (:21). Leask (2015) also considers this practical notion in defining curriculum as “the processes by which we, as educators, select and order content, decide on and describe intended learning outcomes, organize learning activities, and assess learner achievement as part of the curriculum” (:8). Therefore, just as important as the content and the ordering and sequencing of that content are the objectives of the teaching, the actual processes of learning and teaching, including interactions in the classroom, and the competences produced by learners (Leask, 2015).

Regarding the explanations for formal, informal, and hidden curriculum, Leask (2015) defines the formal curriculum as “the syllabus as well as the orderly, planned schedule of experiences and activities that students must undertake as part of their degree program” and is ultimately assessed, the informal curriculum as “the support services and additional activities and options organized by the university that are not assessed and do not form part of the formal curriculum, although they might support learning within it including formal mentoring programs, peer assisted study sessions, and organized social activities”, and the hidden curriculum as “the various unintended, implicit and hidden messages sent to students” (: 8). Both the formal and informal curricula include the hidden curriculum in some capacity. The informal curriculum can either be consistent with and support the formal curriculum, or it can be discordant and run counter to it. Aspects of the informal curriculum frequently have connections to the formal curriculum (Leask, 2015).

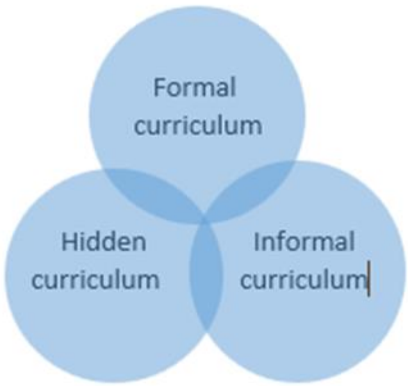


Figure 1.1 Three interactive elements of the curriculum

The curriculum’s formal, informal, and hidden components are interconnected and interactive rather than distinct, and students perceive this as a dynamic interplay of instructional strategies, subject matter, and extracurricular activities both within and outside of the classroom. Figure 1.1 shows how they are related to one another. All students’ living experiences are shaped by them collectively. They define students’ current learning while also helping them to acquire the skills, knowledge, and attitudes necessary to create possibilities for themselves and others in a society that is becoming more interconnected and globalized. They add up to the students’ experiences. All students have access to extensive learning opportunities in the center, where all three components come together to provide a potentially dynamic space (Leask, 2015).

1.4.2 Internationalization of curriculum VS. internationalization at home

Internationalization at Home (IaH) was a concept that was developing in Europe in the early 2000s as internationalization of the curriculum (IoC) was being explored in Australia, Canada, and the UK (Bourn, 2010; Clifford, 2009; Jones & Killick, 2013; Leask, 2009), as "anything other than mobility" at first, and later as "the purposeful integration of international and intercultural dimensions into the formal and informal curriculum for all students within domestic learning environments" (Beelen & Jones, 2015: 69).

IaH and IoC notions are in fact very similar, and they are currently being debated throughout Asia, South Africa, and Latin America (Leask, 2022). They both strive to reach all students, emphasize intercultural and international learning, and are integrated into the formal and informal core curriculum rather than just the elective courses. They are also both delivered through internationalized learning outcomes and assessment, do not rely on the presence of international students or staff and do not assume that their presence will automatically 'internationalize' the learning environment for students, and do not rely on English-language instruction, and they are unique to particular study programs and the academics who teach them. (Beelen & Jones, 2015).

The sole distinction between the two notions is that IoC does not explicitly and consciously reject mobility, in contrast to IaH. But that does not imply that IoC cannot or does not occur at home. Mobility is viewed by IoC as an optional supplement to IoC at home. Mobility is just considered one component, and it's not even the most crucial one. This is significant because, despite the fact that relatively few graduates will ever have the chance to participate in a mobility experience (less than 5% globally and considerably lower in some nations and areas, including Latin America), everyone who graduates will live in a globally interconnected society (Leask, 2022).

The topic of how to internationalize the curriculum has been debated for a long time. The idea that student mobility through exchange programs is the only, or at least the best, option to internationalize higher education has overshadowed this topic in Europe during the past ten years. However, over a longer period and for a greater number of students, the inclusion of international and intercultural components in the curriculum may have a more significant impact on the content (and even aims) of higher education than just increasing student mobility (Leask, 2022). Therefore, it is believed that one of the key components of the 'internationalization at home' project will be the process of internationalizing the curriculum.

1.4.3 Traditional objectives of an internationalized curriculum

The objectives of an internationalized curriculum have been determined by OECD and Nilsson through very different perspectives. In 1996, OECD proposed a typology for internationalized curricula as follows:

Type 1 Curricula with international subject matter (e.g., international relations, European law)

Type 2 Curricula in which the traditional/original subject area is broadened by an internationally comparative approach (e.g., international comparative education)

Type 3 Curricula which prepare students for international professions (e.g., international business administration)

Type 4 Curricula in foreign languages or linguistics which explicitly address cross-cultural communication issues and provide training in intercultural skills

Type 5 Interdisciplinary programs such as area and regional studies (e.g., European, Scandinavian, Asian studies)

Type 6 Curricula leading to internationally recognized professional qualifications

Type 7 Curricula leading to joint or double degrees

Type 8 Curricula of which compulsory parts are offered at institutions abroad, taught by local academics

Type 9 Curricula in which the content is especially designed for foreign students

However, according to Nilsson (2000), the major shortcoming of these objectives was that they were merely focused on disciplines and the development of professional fields whereas intercultural learning which was supposed to be one of the most important objectives of an internationalized curriculum had not been mentioned as an explicit goal. Therefore, Nilsson (2000) recategorized the objectives of an internationalized curriculum in the two groups of cognitive objectives and attitude-related objectives. The cognitive or intellectual objectives aimed at enhancing students' international competence such as foreign languages proficiency, regional and area studies such as knowing about the history or culture of a country, humanities, and subjects such as international law and international business skills. On the other hand, the attitude-related objectives aimed at increasing students' intercultural competence or their emphatic abilities. For instance, open-mindedness, respect for other people's cultures, values, and ways of life, and awareness of the nature of racism.

As can be seen in the objectives proposed by Nilsson (2000), both types of objectives should be included in an internationalized curriculum. The difference between cognitive skills and attitude-related goals is that the former can be relatively easily identified and measured whereas the latter is more challenging to define and evaluate. Cognitive skills have also been highlighted in typology by OECD with an emphasis on academic subjects. The reason why Nilsson does not focus on these skills is that the strong belief that international competence could increase intercultural competence was rejected by several studies including the one by the US council on Learning. Therefore, he concluded that international competence cannot guarantee the intercultural competence of students. Hence, the question still stands: How do we construct an effective curriculum for students to gain intercultural competence? An internationalized curriculum must pursue both goals which means students require courses which both increase their knowledge of global relations and various cultures and motivate them to collaborate and have empathy for people from other cultures. The extent to which any institution of higher education has pursued these goals in practice is a matter that needs to be evaluated from students' perspectives as the main receivers of this curriculum.

1.4.4 Newly emerging objectives of an internationalized curriculum

According to Leask (2022), six features of a newly emerging internationalization of the curriculum can be recognized in the literature and in practice including considering the curriculum as a system, focusing on learning outcomes for all students in a globalized world, having a decolonized and cognitively just curriculum, being intercultural first then international, creating an active experiential learning and being a purpose driven, context-dependent on-going process. All these features are related to educating students to become both social human beings, professionals, and global citizens.

First, this emergent paradigm is grounded in a conceptual and practical understanding of the curriculum as a system—a system in which many components interact to limit or expand students' learning and, as a result, their contributions to their communities and the wider world (Leask, 2022). Mestenhauser (1998) rejects the "fragmented, unintegrated and enclosed" approaches to internationalization of the curriculum (: 7). The formal, informal, and hidden curriculum are the three components of the curriculum system identified by Leask (2015). The syllabus's content as well as the systematic, planned schedule of experiences and activities that students are required to complete as part of their degree program make up the formal curriculum. The learning that takes place outside of the classroom includes, for instance, support services and extracurricular activities not just planned by the university but also by linked organizations, clubs, and societies. Although they could aid in supporting measured learning within the official curriculum, these activities are typically elective and unassessed. Peer mentoring initiatives, peer-assisted study sessions, and cultural festivals held by clubs and societies are a few examples. These events play a significant role in the overall student experience and can help foster an intercultural and international campus culture. The hidden curriculum, which is rarely mentioned and usually unnoticed by most people, is the third crucial aspect of the curriculum. The numerous unintended, implicit, and hidden messages conveyed in both the formal and informal curricula make up the hidden curriculum (Leask, 2015). For instance, the textbooks chosen to convey a 'hidden' message about whose knowledge is valuable to the curriculum and, implicitly, whose is not (Leask, 2022). As Leask (2022) points out, by requiring all international students to complete cross-cultural skills training prior to the start of classes but not domestic or home students, for instance, the informal curriculum also sends hidden messages. Is this a result of the domestic students possessing the necessary abilities? or perhaps domestic students don't need these abilities because international students must 'blend in' and make communications. In conclusion, the curriculum's formal, informal, and hidden components are interconnected rather than isolated, creating a dynamic system of parts that functions as a complicated whole. All students' lived experiences are shaped by the system's elements, which include intended learning outcomes, disciplinary knowledge, pedagogy, content, experiences in and outside the classroom, and assessment. These factors play a significant role in each student's international and intercultural learning throughout their degree program. The intersection of the three curriculum components offers all students a potentially dynamic and effective learning environment (Leask, 2015).

Second, providing the learning outcomes needed to live and work in a globalized world is the main focus of this new paradigm of internationalization of the curriculum (Leask, 2022). To prepare graduates for "the extremely interdependent and multicultural world in which they live and (will) have to function in the future," has been the goal of internationalizing the curriculum since a long time ago (Harari, 1992: 53). All graduates will be global citizens and professionals because of how globalization has affected local communities (Leask, 2022). In contrast to a planned, systematic approach to the development of the skills, knowledge, and values necessary for graduates to live in a globally interconnected world today, internationalization of the curriculum has for a long time been narrowly defined as, for instance, “mobility programs, the recruitment of international students, or the infusion of international content” (Leask, 2022: 47). Numerous scholars have criticized these narrow approaches to internationalization of the curriculum. Mestenhauser (1998), for instance, claimed that concentrating exclusively on student mobility was a waste of time unless students were also encouraged to acquire the critical self-reflection and reasoning skills necessary to incorporate their studying abroad experiences into their thinking. Leask and Carroll (2011) provided a summary of ten years of international research, demonstrating that the presence of foreign students in the classroom and on campus did not automatically lead to intercultural learning without careful planning and intervention by teachers and staff members of the student services department who were committed to fostering the growth of intercultural learning outcomes. Global citizenship is now “part of the internationalization discourse in higher education around the world” (Deardorff & Jones, 2012: 295), and internationalization of the curriculum is frequently linked with the development of students as global citizens with a dedication to ethical action and social responsibility on a global scale as well as the ability to work in multicultural/multinational groups (Lilley et al., 2014). Similar to this, De Wit and Hunter (2015) contend that the primary goal of internationalization should go beyond mobility-focused strategies and encompass learning outcomes.

The third characteristics of an emerging new paradigm of internationalization of the curriculum is having a decolonized, cognitively just curriculum (Leask, 2022). A decolonized curriculum considers various cultural views of the world and diverse knowledge systems (Leask, 2022). For instance, a decolonized curriculum might look at how dominant approaches to knowledge production and distribution are integrally and largely linked to the market and economy; how this reproduces and reinforces the current society from generation to generation, reinforcing and worsening inequalities; and explore alternative approaches and what they might offer (Escrigas et al., 2014). According to Leask (2022), programs of study may provide the chance for students to critically analyze dominant knowledge paradigms, their advantages, and disadvantages, as part of the process of internationalizing the curriculum, as opposed to being solely based on a limited set of worldviews that are largely the result of the distribution of power globally. Therefore, only relying on commercial research for curriculum development could lead to social injustice on a worldwide scale as well as an "enormous distortion" of the entire body of knowledge (McArthur, 2013: 75). Decolonizing the informal curriculum is another issue. Both in the formal and informal curriculum, local knowledge traditions and paradigms are frequently regarded as having less value than those from the West (Leask, 2022). The development of a campus culture that expresses the importance of various worldviews not only conveys the message that everyone is welcome here but also that indigenous experience and knowledge paradigms are valued (Leask, 2022). Breit et al. (2013), Green and Whitsed (2015), De Wit and Leask (2017), and Montgomery (2018) all provide additional examples of how internationalization of the curriculum can be used as a bridge to advance cognitive justice.

The fourth feature of the re-imagined internationalization of the curriculum is 'interculturalization of the curriculum' (Leask, 2022: 50). The international and intercultural components of the curriculum have historically had equal importance. The international orientation has previously dominated in the discourse (e.g., international/intercultural) (Leask, 2022). However, this focus is changing, with intercultural learning gaining more importance, in part due to a greater emphasis on internationalizing the curriculum at home for all students (Jones, 2019). As stated by Deardorff (2006), intercultural competence includes knowledge, skills, and attitudes such as "the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on one's intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes," (: 247), knowledge of oneself and of others, and the capacity to interpret, relate, discover, and interact as well as value other people's values, beliefs, and behaviors (Byram, 1997). Killick and Foster (2021: 10) include 'cross-cultural competences' in their concept of 'Global Literacy,' which "incline and enable students to connect successfully and with individuals they perceive to be different: socially, civically, and professionally". However, until recently, there were very few discussions of intercultural competence pedagogies that had been shown effective in a variety of academic situations (Leask, 2022). This is partially due to the long-held mistaken belief that intercultural learning was a natural byproduct and advantage of international engagement on campus, in the classroom, and abroad, and that such contact was more intense and almost immediately 'transformative' when it occurred abroad (Leask, 2022). However, research has been done on ways to foster intercultural awareness (Carroll, 2015; De Louw & Bulnes, 2021; Killick & Foster, 2021; Leask & Carroll, 2011; and Townsin & Walsh, 2016).

The fifth element of the emergent internationalization of curriculum is gaining active experiential learning. In an internationalized curriculum, both at home and abroad, active, experiential learning is being increasingly essential (Leask, 2022). Students are actively engaged in interactions with a variety of people and ideas through mobility experiences. However, students are rarely helped to interpret these experiences, learn from them through guided reflection, or apply what they have learned to their study program when they are back (Leask & Green, 2020). Active learning strategies in the classroom at home involve teachers creating timed, structured assignments. As part of a class assignment, students may engage in experiential learning by working on community-based projects both at home and abroad. On campus, online, and in the classroom, active learning is feasible. As a part of their formal and informal education, students can learn by interacting with local or international populations that are culturally diverse. The notion that participation in exchange and study abroad programs represent a privileged criterion for internationalizing the curriculum is being questioned more and more (Leask, 2022). The COVID-19 pandemic has provided creative combinations of in-person and online learning activities focused on the development of all students' international and intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, but before 2020, activities like Virtual Exchange and various forms of Collaborative Online Learning (COIL) had been used more and more in universities around the world (Helm & Guth, 2022). All students have new chances for active, experiential, international, and intercultural learning in local contexts thanks to the wise use of new and developing technology.

The sixth characteristic of internationalization of the curriculum is being a purpose driven, context-dependent on-going process. Internationalization of the curriculum is seen as a planned, purposeful, on-going process of review and quality improvement focused on the development of international and intercultural learning outcomes for all students. This calls for thorough planning and ongoing evaluation of the "what the students are learning and the who they are becoming" (Leask, 2022: 55). For instance, how they are evolving as individuals devoted to enhancing local and global community and how they are gaining skills such as language proficiency and intercultural competency. Courses at various levels of the degree may need the employment of a variety of tactics to help all students reach their full potential by the end of the program. (Leask, 2022). Internationalization of higher education and curriculum are both context-specific processes and mobility may be emphasized in one country or region while it may not be in another. For instance, in some areas, emphasizing employability and preparing graduates for the labor market are of utmost importance and the national policy frameworks will be more significant in some contexts than others. The process of internationalizing the curriculum places an ever-increasing emphasis on the global context, particularly how it interacts with the local setting to shape students' development as social, human, and economic beings (Leask, 2022).

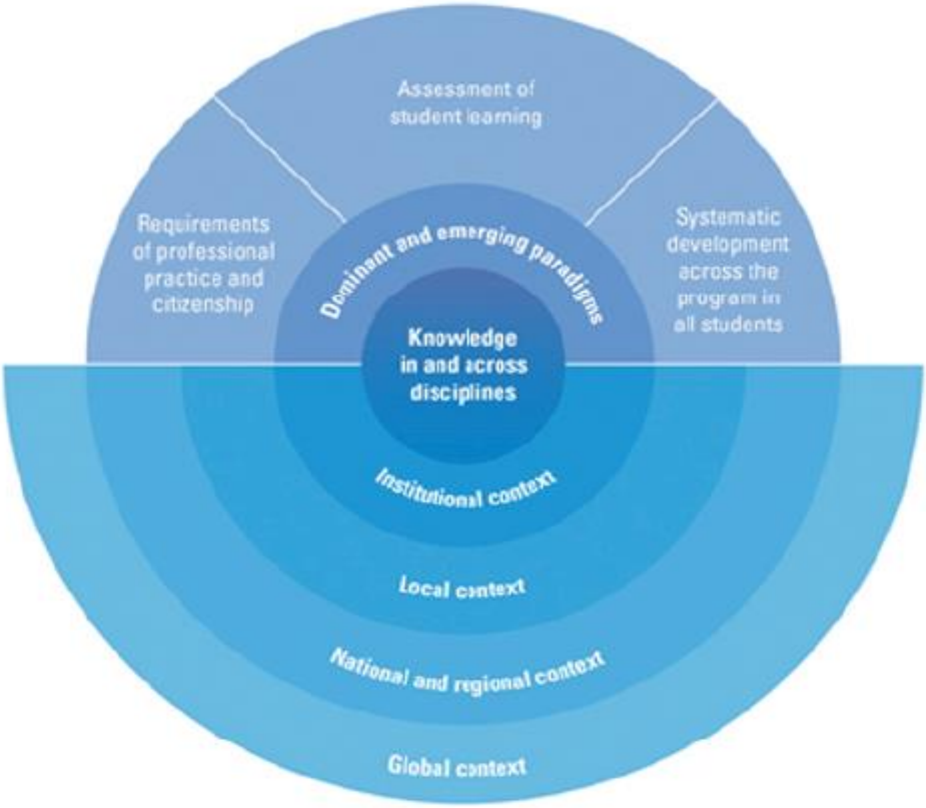


Figure 1.2 The concept of IoC (Leask, 2012: 20; Leask & Bridge, 2013: 84)

Figure 1.2 illustrates that the priorities in the various context layers (represented by the lower half of the framework) move and change on a frequent basis in the modern world, necessitating a regular evaluation and reconstruction of the curriculum. Emerging paradigms in the field and methods for designing learning environments may also have an impact on curriculum decisions (represented in the top half of the framework) (Leask, 2022).

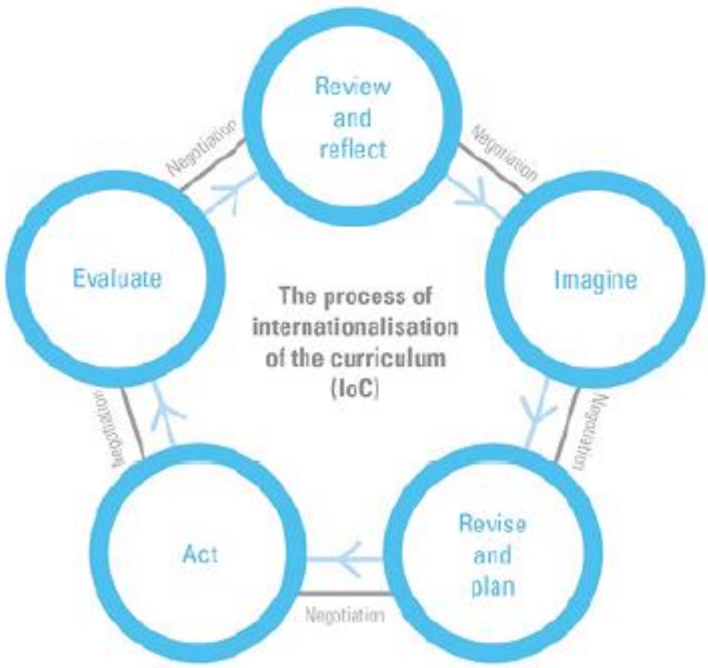


Figure 1.3. Process of IoC (Leask, 2013: 107b; 2015: 42)

The Process of IoC differs significantly from traditional approaches to curriculum review and redesign in one important way: it includes an 'Imagine' stage where those creating the formal curriculum (academic staff) are encouraged to consider novel possibilities, to challenge predominate paradigms, and to think in new ways while taking into consideration the viewpoints of others (Leask, 2022). The IoC process encourages staff to challenge prevailing disciplinary paradigms of content, teaching and learning, assessment, and support services to push the frontiers of what is possible in terms of the curriculum (Leask, 2022). Working with students as partners in the process of internationalizing the curriculum is another crucial component of the procedure in this newly emerging modern paradigm of internationalization (Cook-Sather, Bovill & Felton, 2014). According to Green's (2018) research on student involvement in internationalization, treating students as partners opens new possibilities and could be a potent tool for those looking to develop an inclusive and fair form of IoC. Based on the above-mentioned literature on characteristics of internationalization of the curriculum and the goals of internationalization of the curriculum which are implicitly stated in these features, instruments have been developed in the current study.

1.4.5 An internationalized program

The emphasis on ‘a program of study’ draws attention to the need to structure and plan opportunities for all students to acquire advanced knowledge and skills, moving beyond approaches to internationalizing the curriculum that rely on isolated, optional experiences and activities for a selected group of students (Leask, 2015).

A large portion of the internationalized programs are intended to draw international students and internationalize the student body, but they are also open to the ‘90% plus’ of domestic students who do not profit from international mobility. Additionally, a lot of them are not only international in terms of the language of instruction but also regarding the fields of study such as international politics, law, business, and management as examples of curriculum-based internationalization.

Internationalization at home varies by discipline. Even though there are certain overall standards, the international and intercultural aspects might vary greatly amongst disciplines. All disciplines may benefit from transversal skills, although the relative value of these skills will differ among programs. For instance, critical thinking is a key element of law and history programs. The main emphasis in medicine and nursing will be on working together with clients and colleagues from various cultural backgrounds. Intercultural communication is frequently emphasized in international business programs (Beelen, 2019).

In light of this, genuine internationalization at home can only be created ‘bottom up’ in each specific program of study. The international and multicultural characteristics of a program can only be determined by academics (Beelen, 2019). Researchers Leask and Bridge (2013) and Green and Whitsed (2015) examined the many ways that disciplines approach the internationalization of the curriculum and discovered significant variations in the conceptualization of internationalization. Not only are differences between disciplines evident, but also between programs within the same discipline which has led to various internationalization expressions. Identical programs may nonetheless establish their own distinct profiles at various colleges, depending on the location of the university and the local and regional labor market (Beelen, 2019). Although disciplines and programs play a significant role in manifesting internationalization at home differently, in the present study it has not been considered as a main distinctive variable even though it has still been investigated in form of a question asking students about their field of study and would complete the background information about the individuals.

1.4.6 Tools to promote internationalization of curriculum

Internationalization abroad and at home are instruments and not aims in themselves with an aim to provide all students with the skills they will need to function as citizens and professionals. The most important tools for internationalization at home are (Beelen, 2019):

1. International literature

Comparing literature from various contexts which are relevant to specific disciplines and their content can equip students with international skills and even though this literature is accepted worldwide as one universal body, it can be viewed and challenged by people from different contexts. For instance, the management discipline is dominated by literature from the US but can be seen through the lens of Asians.

2. Virtual mobility

Thanks to technology, it is now possible for students to collaborate with international peers abroad through a process frequently referred to as 'virtual mobility'. The provision of (inter)disciplinary content to such collaboration and the requirement that students produce something valuable are essential components. To help them develop both knowledge and skills in cross-cultural collaboration, students should also reflect on the process of collaboration. One well-known platform which was developed by State University New York to serve this aim is COIL which stands for Collaborative Online International Learning (http://coil.suny.edu).

3. Lectures

Another factor that can promote internationalization is lectures given by local and international guest lecturers that can create international and international learning opportunities in higher education.

4. Organizations

By collaborating with local and international organizations, students can gain transversal skills and it can also enrich the formal and informal curriculum.

5. International students

Studying along with international students is not a requirement for internationalization at home and cannot guarantee the meaningful exchange of knowledge between local and international students. However, academics who instruct in international classrooms require a variety of educational competencies in addition to proficiency in a foreign language to make that happen.

6. Internationalization of research

Research is a complex enterprise and involves international collaboration and competition than ever. In research, English is frequently used as a lingua franca (Montgomery, 2013). Some evidence suggests that research collaboration has not only continued but risen in the present COVID-19 epidemic, especially between the United States of America and China, however with less participation from academics from developing countries (Baker, 2020).

1.4.7 Stakeholders involved in the internationalization of curriculum process

The main stakeholders who are in charge of organizing study and internships abroad are international offices. However, with the rise of internationalization at home and with the shift away from internationalization abroad, academics became the limelight and they required to get training in curriculum development, didactics, and assessment. Therefore, specialists in education and internationalization should give the academics support and training (Beelen, 2019).

Several studies have been conducted on the issues and obstacles in internationalization at home that were relevant to academics and require exploration and treatment: lack of engagement, skills and expertise (Beelen, 2019). Some of these studies focused on academics' lack of involvement in internationalization. These academics include university staff members (Bond, 2003; Bond, Qian & Huang, 2003; Friesen, 2013; Stohl, 2007; Sanderson, 2008; Clifford, 2009; Childress, 2010; Leask & Beelen, 2010; Mestenhauser, 2011; and the American Council on Education, 2013, April, June). Among all the above mentioned researchers Mestenhauser (2011) tried to explain why the university staff do not sufficiently engage in internationalization and after examining their mindsets, he realized their dispositions and the extent to which they get involved in internationalization does do not merely stem from formal education but also from general experiences such as traveling, employment, interpersonal connections (particularly those with foreigners), the media, books, family socialization, political orientation, socioeconomic status, acculturation, and religious beliefs. In another study by Childress (2010), six levels of engagement for academic staff were identified. The compatibility of individual motivations with institutional justifications for internationalization is another element that influences lecturers' engagement. (Friesen, 2013). Some of the instructors believed that the institution's objectives for internationalization were more concerned with the university's reputation and financial gains than with fostering intercultural understanding and raising educational standards (Friesen, 2013). One other reason for academics' lack of engagement in internationalization could be the low priority it has for them and also organizations do not rank it as an important concern (Leask, 2015). Also, this lack of engagement can partially be explained by faculty apathy (LeBlanc, 2007).

Another obstacle in internationalization at home is lecturer's lack of skills and expertise (Beelen, 2019). According to the 3rd Global Survey, academics' lack of foreign language skills and limited expertise is one of the main obstacles to internationalization at home (Egron-Polak & Hudson, 2010). A European University Association survey that called for more English-language education delivery and more opportunities for staff and students to improve their language skills, also revealed a lack of proficiency in foreign languages (European University Association, 2013). The organization only emphasized this one academic skill, making no explicit claims that teaching in English equals internationalization. Lack of teaching skills is another obstacle to internationalization at home (Beelen, 2019). In countries where English is the primary language of education, much of the literature on teaching and learning related to internationalization was created (Caruana, 2009). Also, much of that literature focuses on teaching international students (e.g., Carroll & Ryan, 2005; Jones & Brown, 2007; Jones, 2010; Carroll, 2015). The importance of professional development was further acknowledged in Teekens' (2000) profile of an ideal lecturer where she highlights that lecturers should have some fundamental knowledge about teaching theories in an international classroom.

The other obstacle to internationalization at home that Beelen (2019) mentions is lack of curriculum development skills. According to Veness (2010), educational designers face challenges of ensuring that lecturers not only take into account the content of the courses they teach but also pay attention to the context, target audience, learning outcomes, ideal graduate qualities, academic accomplishment evaluation, and the proper curriculum growth. The final challenge in internationalization at home is the lack of academics' intercultural competence which has an impact on student learning (Schuerholz-Lehr, 2007).

1.4.8 Challenges and opportunities for the future

Nowadays, it is crucial to increase internationalization's social impact (Brandenburg et al., 2020), make it more carbon-neutral by limiting traveling through promoting Collaborative Online International Learning (COIL) and virtual exchanges (De Wit & Altbach, 2020), and connect the global and local. Internationalization is a dynamic process that adapts to local, national, regional, and international circumstances. Nationalist-populist movements, the need for climate change, and the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic are particularly crucial. The following objectives can promote internationalization of higher education in the future (De Wit and Altbach, 2021).

- Encourage global learning for all by focusing more on COIL, internationalizing teacher education, curricular internationalization, and foreign language education.
- Combine internationalization efforts with those aimed at achieving the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).
- Instead of concentrating solely on profit, soft power, and excellence, develop a more inclusive and social internationalization that addresses ethical issues.
- Encourage the study of foreign languages, intercultural competence, and global citizenship.
- Include local, national, regional, and international dimensions.
- Utilize new technological advancements, include globalization into the curriculum, and encourage carbon-neutral modes of mobility.
- To create a more international learning environment and reduce financial risk, diversify the international student population.
- Encourage and make it easier for underprivileged groups to participate in mobility, including indigenous and other ethnic communities, refugees, and immigrants.
- Attempt to take a more comprehensive approach by incorporating the various aspects of internationalization.

- Reduce the over commercialization of internationalization, and better manage and oversee prominent for-profit organizations and businesses.

It will be more challenging to prioritize these suggestions given the current global and higher education crises (COVID-19, racism, climate change, recession, and geopolitical tensions), but they can also be seen as opportunities for the future of higher education and its internationalization (De Wit & Altbach, 2021).

CHAPTER 2

English-medium instruction and English as a lingua franca

In the previous chapter, the concept of bringing internationalization to the home campus through internationalizing the curriculum was discussed. In this chapter, I look at how the internationalization of higher education (IHE) intersects with English-medium instruction (EMI), in fact, I turn to EMI programs as one of the tools that aim to facilitate this process while paying particular attention to the role of English and English as a lingua franca (ELF) in EMI programs. Accordingly, this chapter is divided into two main thematic sections: EMI and ELF. In the first section on EMI, the intersection of EMI and IHE, the definitions and development of the EMI concept, its global expansion, the reasons behind its expansion, the factors affecting its implementation, and its drawbacks, benefits, and challenges will be addressed and in the second section on ELF, I discuss the role of English in higher education (HE) in terms of Englishization of HE, the conceptualization of ELF, its connection with EMI, and research on ELF in EMI.

2.1 EMI

Prior to investigating how IHE and EMI are connected, it is primarily essential to understand what EMI is. English-medium instruction, or EMI for short, is the term used to describe the teaching of academic material anywhere in the world using English as the medium of instruction. EMI is typically defined as “the use of English for educational purposes carried out outside English-speaking countries and generally involves both teachers and students whose first language is not English” (Murata 2019: 46). Because how its use varies so greatly depending on the local context, EMI is difficult to define in a broad sense. For instance, according to Baird's (2013) research, “many East Asian university contexts are investing in English as the medium of instruction without a significant international student presence and without a significant level of linguistic diversity among the student body” (: 17). Therefore, the term EMI has various context-specific definitions. As argued by Macaro (2018), there are almost thirteen different definitions for the term EMI. In this part, I divide these definitions into two groups based on their objectives and context: Regarding the EMI objectives, these programs can either focus on explicit or implicit language learning goals along with content, and considering their context, they can be implemented in Anglophone or non-Anglophone contexts.

EMI programs can vary based on their goals. On the one hand, there are EMI programs that aim to directly teach language skills along with the subject knowledge or content. For instance, Taguchi defines EMI programs as “curricula using English as a medium of instruction for basic and advanced courses to improve students’ academic English proficiency” (2014: 89). This definition focuses on explicit language learning objectives which is not the primary goal of EMI programs and is more in line with Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) which is “a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language [second, foreign or minority language] is used for the learning and teaching of content and language” (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010: 1).

On the other hand, some definitions look at EMI as programs that aim to teach language skills indirectly. As an example, Macaro proposes that EMI is “the use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the populations is not English” (2018: 19). In Macaro’s definition of EMI, language learning is not the explicit but perceived aim of these programs. Similarly, in another definition, Madhavan and McDonald point out that EMI refers to “the teaching of a subject using the medium of the English language in a non-Anglophone context, but where there are no explicit language learning aims and where English is not the national language” (2014: 1). In the present study, I have based my conceptualization of EMI on Macaro, Madhavan and McDonald’s definition since it better describes the context of this study. Several other researchers consider that the concept of language learning is incidental or implicit in EMI and not explicit (e.g., Coleman, 2006; Doiz et al., 2013; Pecorari & Malmstrom, 2018).

Definitions of EMI could also vary based on the context of the study. According to some researchers, (e.g., Humphreys, 2017; Jenkins, 2019; Pecorari & Malmström, 2018) the definition of EMI should include both Anglophone and non-Anglophone contexts. In Anglophone countries (e.g., US, UK, Australia), English is the official language while the non-Anglophone countries are not natively English speaking. The context of the current study is non-anglophone.

Alternatively, the growth in the number of EMI programs over the past decades has led to the emergence of a broader definition termed as English-Medium Education (EME) which goes beyond instruction or teaching in English-taught programs using the phrase ‘education’ instead of the word ‘instruction’ and encompasses teaching, learning, research, and program administration in university settings (Dafouz & Smit, 2016; 2017; 2020). EME is defined as "the particular role that English plays both as an academic language of teaching and learning as well as a means of international communication" (Dafouz & Smit, 2016: 399). The notion of EME also applies to the current study since the focus in the present study is not only on instruction but also on learning and administrative issues and this more comprehensive definition could provide the theoretical basis for this end. Nevertheless, for this thesis, I use 'EMI' while conceding that 'education' rather than 'instruction' may better reflect the reality of this study.

2.1.1 EMI VS. other English-based programs

To understand where EMI stands, it is essential to look at the other English-based programs and notice their slightly different connotations. When the term EMI is explored in the literature, you come across various other terms such as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010), English for Academic Purposes (EAP) (Hutchinson & Walters, 1987), English-Taught Programs (ETP) (Wächter & Maiworm, 2014), English-Medium Programs (EMP) (Unterberger, 2012), English-Medium Teaching (EMT) (Coleman, 2006), Content-Based Instruction (CBI) (Lyster, 2017), etc. Although these terms might overlap to some extent with the concept of EMI, they are not synonymous, and they vary in some respects (Dafouz & Smit, 2021).

To better understand the aims of EMI programs, distinguishing them from other programs casts light on their stance on the continuum of content and language learning aims. In programs such as English for General Purposes (EGP), English for Academic Purposes (EAP), or English for Specific Purposes (ESP), the subject of the study is English and as can be seen in Figure. 1, they are at the end of the continuum which is close to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) programs in which the focus is on language learning. Also, EMI programs differ from CLIL or CBI programs in which the focus is on explicit language teaching and improving students' English proficiency along with improving content knowledge. As stated earlier in this chapter, CLIL is "a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language [second, foreign or minority language] is used for the learning and teaching of content and language" (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010: 1). In this definition, although the term 'CLIL' refers to the learning of any additional language while studying academic content, in reality, the language that is learned in this way is most frequently English (Jenkins, 2018). This argument in turn raises the question of what the distinction between CLIL and EMI is if it also focuses on

English. In this regard, Jenkins (2018) highlights the differences between EMI and CLIL stating that the primary distinction between CLIL and traditional EMI is that, while EMI never includes an explicit language component to enhance the teaching of content, CLIL always does. However, this does not imply that students who are learning content in the EMI programs never use linguistic support. Another, less pronounced difference between EMI and CLIL is that EMI typically occurs at the tertiary level, whereas CLIL is more frequently observed in school-level education at the secondary level and, increasingly, the primary level and it is only occasionally used in higher education (Jenkins, 2018). Finally, as Hüttner (2018) notes, it is frequently the case that just the local first language and the target language are used in CLIL classrooms, and as opposed to the traditional multilingual aspect of many EMI classrooms, this makes CLIL a bilingual setting. Therefore, EMI programs are not always 'English-only' programs. EMI may, for example, be used in conjunction with the national language on bilingual programs outside of anglophone HE, as is frequently the case in the Nordic region, or it may be a part of a trilingual policy involving the regional and national languages in addition to English, as is the case in the Basque Country (Smit, 2018). EMI can also refer to the overall language policy of a university, the language policy for just a few departments or programs within a university, or the language policy for just a few particular courses (Jenkins, 2018).

Figure 1. Continuum of programs that integrate content and language learning
(Adapted from Thompson & McKinley, 2018)

On the opposite end of the continuum, EMI programs rest with the closest position to content learning and with the least focus on language learning. Even though language learning is not an explicit goal of EMI, it could be considered a chance for students to improve their English language proficiency in addition to their content knowledge (Rose & Galloway, 2019). Furthermore, according to Galloway et al. (2020), the primary motivation for students to enroll in EMI programs is to acquire the English language. In other words, one of EMI's commonly touted advantages is that students simultaneously gain both English and subject-matter expertise (Rose et al., 2019).

However, there are still debates over the goals of EMI and the extent to which it focuses on content or language and that is partially due to the dynamic and diverse nature of university contexts (Bowles & Murphy, 2020).

2.1.2 EMI and IHE

Now that EMI programs have been described and compared with other English-based programs, it is time to delve into how EMI and IHE are connected. The IHE can be held responsible for a large portion of the increase in EMI growth (Hultgren, 2014b; Macaro, Curle et al., 2018; Macaro et al., 2019). Over the past decades, EMI programs have become increasingly popular among universities and students as well as researchers. Universities and students view it as an opportunity to modernize and internationalize HE which in turn benefits their career prospects (Galloway et al., 2020; Wächter & Maiworm, 2014). The connection between EMI and IHE is complicated since EMI is simultaneously a cause and effect of the IHE (Galloway et al., 2020). In general, three key elements are relevant to the increased adoption of EMI within HE, two of which are mobility related. These facts are increased recruitment of "international student and staff mobility, transnational education (TNE) programs and institutional mobility, and internationalization of the curriculum" (Galloway et al., 2020: 18).

As for the first element, the use of EMI in HE is closely correlated with an increase in the recruitment of international students and staff at universities globally (Galloway et al., 2020). However, there is an increasing understanding that IHE must go beyond globalization. This definition of globalization of education refers to the growing interconnection of educational processes globally, which is frequently characterized by student and staff mobility (Altbach, 2002). The mobility-related factors are not discussed deeply in the present thesis since they are not thoroughly pertinent to the internationalization at home (IaH) concept even though their impact on IaH cannot be overlooked since universities that are presenting EMI are also hosting international students, therefore; mobility might be an influential aspect in creating internationalized atmosphere at home and providing home students with intercultural awareness. Thus, the IHE goes beyond program and student mobility, and growingly, EMI adoption is viewed as a tool for internationalizing the curriculum for home students (Dafouz, 2014). While EMI is expanding significantly at all levels of education worldwide (Dearden, 2014), HE is where EMI adoption is most common (Fenton-Smith, Humphreys, & Walkinshaw, 2017; Wächter & Maiworm, 2014). In what follows the growth of EMI in HE all over the world and particularly in Europe as the general context of the present study is addressed.

The number of EMI programs provided by higher education institutions worldwide has increased dramatically over the past twenty years (Dearden, 2014; Macaro, Curle et al., 2018). In Europe, EMI has expanded since the Bologna declaration (1999) to foster the internationalization of higher education. The number of English-taught programs has risen dramatically since the early 2000s (Maiworm & Wächter, 2002; Brenn-White & van Rest, 2013; Wächter & Maiworm, 2008, 2014). Statistically, 2400 programs taught exclusively in English were established by over 400 higher education institutions in Europe by 2007 (Wächter & Maiworm, 2008) and according to estimates from 2014 (Macaro, 2014; Wächter & Maiworm, 2014), 60% of postgraduate courses in Europe were taught using EMI. According to Hultgren, Jensen, and Dimova (2015), Northern European countries—particularly those in the Scandinavian and Baltic regions—are more likely than Southern European countries to employ EMI. The Bologna Agreement, which emphasized the freedom of mobility for HE students within Europe, has played a vital part in the development of EMI in Europe (Saarinen & Nikula, 2012). However, it is acknowledged that EMI in Europe is influenced by other institutional, national, and international factors (Hultgren et al., 2015), with significant variations amongst universities (Hultgren, 2014a).

2.1.3 Rationales behind the expansion of EMI

Knowing the growth of EMI over the globe and in Europe arouses curiosity about the reasons behind this expansion. According to Galloway et al., several factors impact EMI development either explicitly or implicitly including the "inclusion of EMI in HE policies, desire to grow the international reputation of universities, increase institutional rankings, the role of HE in countries' knowledge diplomacy, bilingual education policies at school levels and policies towards English in the workplace" (2020: 10). Among these factors, the one that might require clarification is knowledge diplomacy by which we mean HE plays a significant role in establishing international relations between countries (Knight, 2015). This is evident in the case of Europe where the Bologna Agreement of the European Union led to the use of EMI to facilitate cross-border student exchanges internationally even though the policy does not specifically mention English (Räisänen & Fortanet-Gómez, 2008; Saarinen & Nikula, 2012). As for the factor related to teaching English at primary and secondary levels at school, some studies have revealed that the development of English proficiency at school levels might result in students' interest in EMI at HE levels (Corrales et al., 2016; Martinez, 2016; Porto et al., 2016).

Besides the reasons behind the expansion of EMI programs, several factors affect its implementation. EMI programs can be put into action in several different ways, based on their specific local context. These factors include the driving forces, policy, students' English, and curriculum which are summarized in Figure 2.

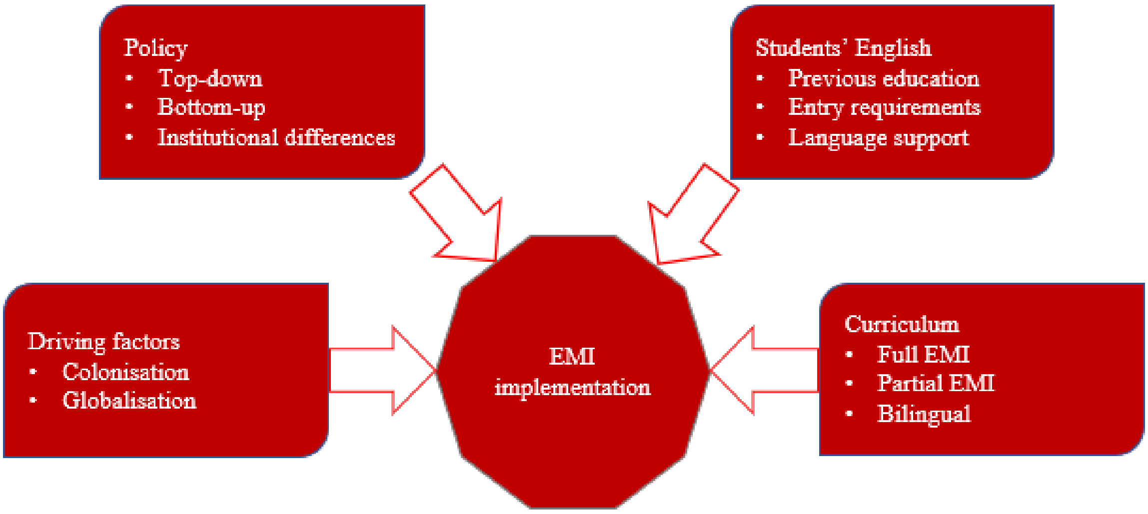


Figure 2. Factors affecting the implementation of EMI (Galloway et al., 2020)

The driving forces such as colonization and globalization explain why EMI is introduced. In many post-colonial contexts across Asia and Africa, where the use of English as a language of learning and teaching was mandated by imperial powers, EMI has a long history. While EMI has a long history in some contexts, it has developed due to globalization in other countries and government initiatives to internationalize the HE system favor EMI (Galloway et al., 2020). In Europe, the Bologna Process, which created the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), and the Erasmus program are often linked to internationalization policies at the institutional and the (supra-)national levels (Macaro, 2018). Despite the European Commission's commitment to multilingualism, Doiz, Lasagabaster, and Sierra (2011) observe that "reality indicates that it is English which reigns supreme and has become the main foreign language used as means of instruction at European universities" (: 345).

Another factor that has an impact on EMI implementation is policymaking. According to Galloway et al. (2020), the policies differ in being top-down, bottom-up, or institutional. The top-down EMI policies regulate official language regulations that provide criteria for language competence and classroom language use and may lead to compulsory EMI requirements, regardless of the teacher or student's motivation or preferences. Although EMI is frequently presented as a substitute for L1, the presence of international students may make the adoption of EMI necessary (Macaro, Curle et al., 2018) which is considered a bottom-up policy (Galloway et al., 2020). Particularly in Europe where there is a significant rate of student mobility, English may be used for communication (Björkman, 2010; 2011; Coleman, 2006; Jenkins, 2013). Policies can also be institutional which means the way that EMI is implemented at different universities within a country can also differ. According to Costa and Coleman (2013), in Italy, there is a geographical disparity, with the north of the country having more higher education institutions that offer EMI programs than the south. The authors attribute socioeconomic disparities between northern and southern Italy to regional variations in the accessibility of EMI programs. In addition, there are disparities in how EMI is implemented in the public and private sectors (Garcá, Ibáez, Hesse, Kogan, Sánchez, & Filippini, 2019; Macaro & Akincioglu, 2018). In Italy, private universities offer more EMI programs than state universities (Costa & Coleman, 2013).

Implementing EMI can also be influenced by students' English proficiency (Galloway et al., 2020). In some settings, students experience EMI for the first time at the university level (e.g., Macaro et al., 2019). In some other contexts, particularly post-colonial contexts, students may have encountered EMI at the primary and secondary levels before university (e.g., Manan et al., 2017; Sah & Li, 2018). Students frequently attend EMI university programs with varied degrees of English proficiency since the quality of English instruction may differ across schools (Galloway et al., 2020). The entrance requirements and English language support for EMI programs also differ. Before enrolling in EMI programs, several universities demand that students reach a specific level of English proficiency. However, English language proficiency is not a requirement for admission to EMI programs at other universities. Also, EMI programs differ in the quantity and kind of language support they provide to students. Regarding language support provisions, Macaro (2018) has identified four EMI implementation models, which are shown in Figure. 3 and described below.

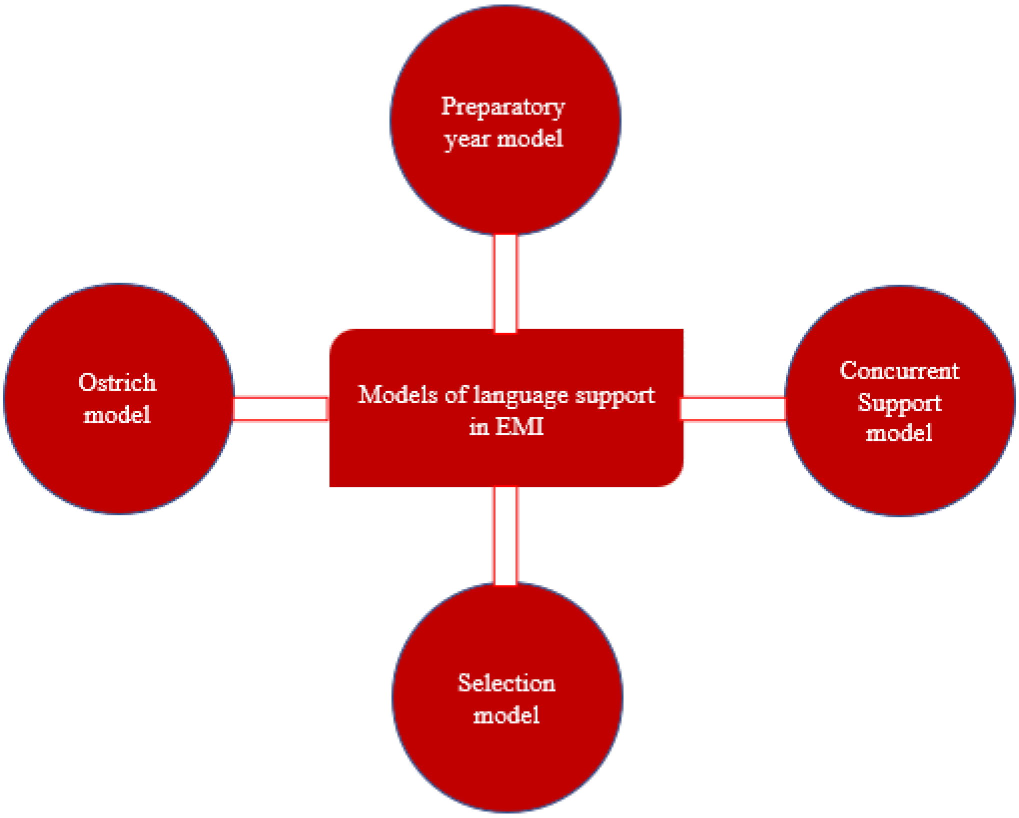


Figure 3. Models of EMI language support (Macaro, 2018)

1. Preparatory year model: In this EMI implementation model, before starting their EMI studies, students must undergo a one-year intensive English program.

2. Concurrent support model: In this model, students enroll in EAP/ESAP courses parallel to their EMI classes, hence these EMI programs do not necessarily impose L2 proficiency requirements for admittance. Even though language support courses are included in the curricula for these EMI programs, the curriculum design differs from CLIL programs in which language support is provided as a separate class that is offered alongside but separate from content classes. The program does not incorporate both content and language training, as is typical of CLIL.

3. Selection model: Before being admitted to these EMI programs, applicants must demonstrate a certain level of English proficiency. Students often submit their English proficiency test results, and those who don't pass the test aren't allowed to enroll in the course or program. International English Language Testing System (IELTS) scores of 5.0 to 7.0 (B1 to C1 levels on the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) are generally the minimum requirements for admission to most universities and programs worldwide (Galloway et al., 2017; Rose et al., 2019).

4. Ostrich model: In these EMI programs, "managers and teachers simply bury their heads in the sand and pretend that [language-related] problems … do not exist or will go away if they are ignored" (Macaro, 2018: 233). These kinds of EMI programs do not offer language support to students and do not have enrollment language requirements. Some university staff members are unconcerned with students' English competence since they believe that students who chose to enroll in an EMI course are competent enough (Rose et al., 2019).

In the current study, EMI programs in Italy follow the selection model which can ensure that students have adequate levels of English proficiency before beginning their EMI programs and this would be further clarified in the methodology chapter. Although, additional research is required on optimal levels of English proficiency and proper methodologies to assess such proficiency for EMI study. It is also crucial to keep in mind that standards and techniques for determining proficiency may vary by discipline.

According to Figure 3, the last factor that influences EMI implementation is the EMI curriculum. This factor discusses that programs also differ in the amount of English used for teaching and learning (Galloway et al., 2020). In some EMI contexts, language regulations may require English-only instruction, however; EMI is not always English-only. There are differences in EMI implementation in terms of how much and how English is employed in the course curriculum (Galloway et al., 2020). Bilingual (or multilingual) models of EMI implementation are promoted in some contexts (Rose et al., 2020). In some other contexts, EMI implementation involves the use of English language textbooks but with discussions in L.1. However, this method of implementing bilingual EMI could be due to the absence of sufficient academic resources in the L1 language (Macaro, Curle et al., 2018). According to Pecorari and Malmström (2018) and Poon (2013), there may be a difference between full and partial EMI programs in various instances. There are a variety of reasons why partial EMI programs are implemented, such as a shortage of staff members who are qualified to teach through English, doubts about students' English proficiency levels for full EMI programs, or a desire to give students the chance to participate in EMI at their home university (Galloway et al., 2020). Overall, EMI implementation is not consistent throughout countries or even within a single country, and it is influenced by several variables, such as the motivations of stakeholders, official language policies, and regional dynamics (Galloway et al., 2020).

2.1.4 Assumed demerits and merits of EMI

The development and implementation of EMI have had its own bright and dark sides. On the dark side, there have been controversies over the disadvantages of EMI throughout the decades. According to some studies, EMI may cause HE to become commodified, commercialized, and 'westernized' (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Knight, 2008). For instance, it has been criticized that EMI favors English and Western knowledge to the detriment of regional cultures and languages (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2012). The extent to which English supports "meaningful intercultural interactions" and educational learning as a central objective of internationalization is also still unknown (Leask & Carroll, 2011: 655). In addition, there are warnings that the connection between English and curriculum internationalization is oversimplified (Baker, 2016) and that more focused pedagogic reflections are required to support genuine intercultural learning (Bodycott, Mak & Ramburuth, 2014). After all, regardless of the language of instruction, one difficulty that many institutions face is knowing how to provide "pedagogically responsive and culturally suitable curricula to a student population that is increasingly massified and diverse" (Gu & Schweisfurth, 2011: 614). The extent to which EMI programs improve university rankings through materialistic channels and whether "Englishization" is a positive factor in institutional reputation are subject to debate (Hultgren, 2014). According to Macaro and Curle et al. (2018), academics have voiced worries regarding whether EMI supports the skills required for consistent work. Similar feelings from students have also been documented in certain research, such as a study conducted in Turkey that discovered students thought it would be simpler for them to learn educational material for their future through their L1 (Krkgöz 2014; British Council & TEPAV, 2015). According to Hamid et al. (2013), the use of EMI during colonial rule restricted textbook writing and academic discourses in local languages, which is why some nations have a dearth of resources in their own languages. However, subsequent EMI initiatives have been criticized for perpetuating this loop by affecting funding sources and attempts made to generate local language textbooks (Kedzierski, 2016).

On the bright side, EMI is seen to have several positive effects such as increasing international student revenue, elevating institutional rankings, enhancing students' English proficiency, enhancing students' employability, and granting access to teaching resources are among the frequently cited advantages (Galloway et al., 2020). As illustrated in Figure 4, all these factors affect EMI adoption. In the current study, I limit my scope to the four factors of developing students' employability, English language competency, interests of students in EMI and increased access to teaching materials all of which are relevant to students' perceived outcome within an EMI program.

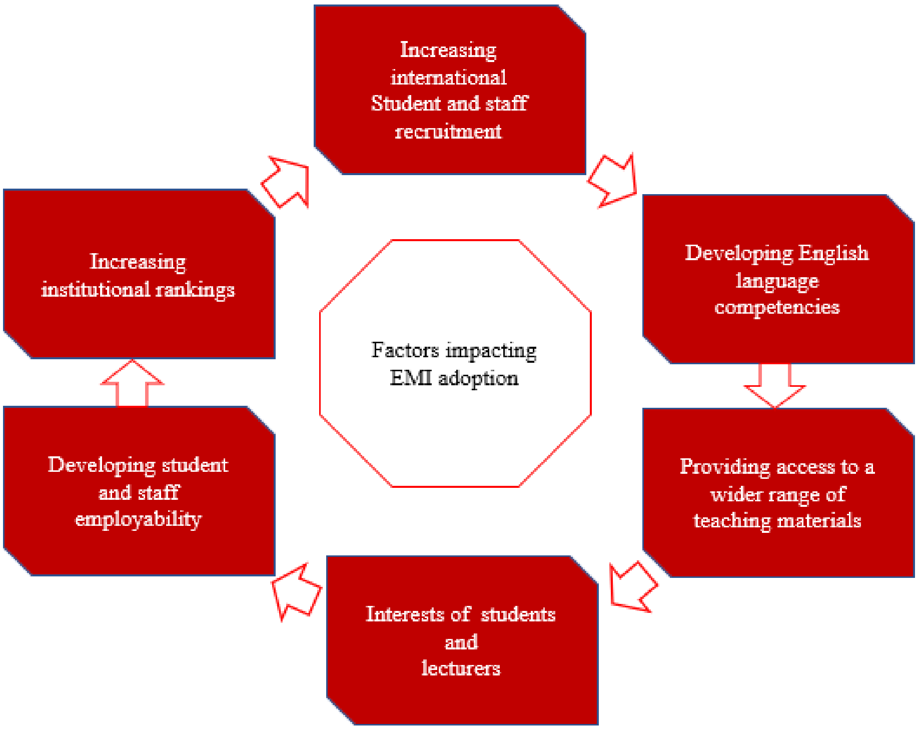


Figure 4. Perceived benefits of EMI (Galloway et al., 2020)

One of students' reasons to study an EMI program is to develop their English language proficiency (Bozdogan & Karlidag, 2013; Chapple, 2015; Galloway et al., 2017; 2020). Despite EMI having no explicit language learning goal, some countries, universities, or programs believe that it helps students' English language proficiency (Dearden, 2018; Rose et al., 2019). Also, EMI is perceived as a tool to develop student and staff employability and in this regard, the ability to speak English is crucial for students' employability in a globalized society (Hu et al., 2014). Similar attitudes toward EMI's ability to prepare students for successful careers in higher education have been shown by students (Dearden & Akincioglu, 2016; Galloway et al., 2017; 2020). HE students may explicitly go for EMI programs to improve their English language skills, have access to study abroad programs, or gain improved employment chances (e.g., Briggs et al., 2018; Galloway et al., 2017, 2020; Rose, McKinley, Xu, & Zhou, 2019). English language competence was deemed essential for employability across European borders by the Bologna Agreement (Räisänen & Fortanet-Gómez, 2008). EMI is widely believed to enhance graduates' 'social reputations,' wherein English-teaching universities may unconsciously be seen as having superior standards by international employers (Piller & Cho, 2013; Ellili-Cherif & Alkhateeb, 2015).

Regarding the increased access to teaching materials, the majority of scholarly publications are published in English, making it the language of choice for academic research and teaching materials globally (Liu, 2017; Montgomery, 2013). In Scandinavian countries, research findings are typically communicated in English (Werther, Denver, Jensen & Mees, 2014). Due to these factors, some universities may use EMI as a way to access and make use of a greater variety of course materials. For instance, according to some content lecturers, it is easier to find teaching resources in English than it is in their L1 (Basibek, Dolmaci, Cengiz, Burd, Dilek, & Kara, 2014; Galloway et al., 2017).

Another merit of EMI is the cultural diversity it creates. Several studies (e.g., Byun et al., 2011; Costa & Coleman, 2013; Nguyen et al., 2017; Wächter & Maiworm, 2014) have argued that the reason why EMI programs have gained importance was the chance they provide for students to interact with people from different cultures, broaden their horizons, and increase their prospects of finding employment. The sudden sharp increase in EMI universities entails integrating students from a variety of nationalities, and consequently from a variety of linguistic and cultural backgrounds, who conduct their everyday activities mostly in English (Jenkins, 2018).

2.1.5 Success in EMI programs

English proficiency and affective factors including students' perceptions of their own achievement and self-belief are important predictors for success in EM higher education. Despite not always having a language learning objective, EMI is frequently linked to increased English proficiency. As a result, in some circumstances, increased English proficiency may be seen as the standard for 'successful' EMI (Galloway et al., 2020). As previously stated, increased English proficiency is frequently seen as an advantage and is one of the reasons students enroll in EMI courses (Galloway et al., 2020). The students who join the course with a good level of English proficiency have the best chance of succeeding in EMI courses. However, the question of whether or not HE through English is 'successful' has recently attracted significant interest from academics (e.g., Rose et al., 2019; Xie & Curle, 2020).

Furthermore, it was discovered that perceived success also predicted actual success, emphasizing the necessity of raising students' self-perceptions of their own capacity for academic success in EMI (Galloway et al., 2020). As shown in a study by Thompson et al. (2019), self-efficacy is a direct predictor of EMI success. Universities must therefore offer possibilities for students to strengthen their self-belief and linguistic skills. However, it should be highlighted that additional research is required elsewhere and that these publications only cover China and Japan (Galloway et al., 2020).

In the above-mentioned studies, the conceptualization of 'success' was done in a simplistic manner considering academic course grade scores quantitatively. However, qualitative research found that students have complicated ideas about success in EMI. As Galloway et al. (2020: 32) points out, if the following conditions are met, one's EMI studies could be deemed 'successful': "acquires content knowledge, improves English proficiency, knows how to apply and transform knowledge, develops a new way of thinking (Xie & Curle, 2020), gets a good final grade, comprehends lectures, see gains in long-term career advancement (Rose et al., 2019)".

2.1.6 Perceived challenges of EMI

To accomplish the above-mentioned 'success' in EMI, immediate challenges to EM teaching and learning must be faced. The implementation of EMI programs in universities around the world is full of challenges (Tsuneyoshi, 2005; Hellekjaer, 2010; Wilkinson, 2011). Regardless of the national setting, attitudes research has shown that obstacles are faced by all parties involved in the university system, including students (both local and international), instructors, and administrative employees. The study by Galloway et al. (2017: 24) clearly illustrates these difficulties as shown in Figure. 5. Studies like Wächter & Maiworm (2014), Tange (2012), and Doiz, Lasagabaster, and Sierra (2014) also include these challenges.

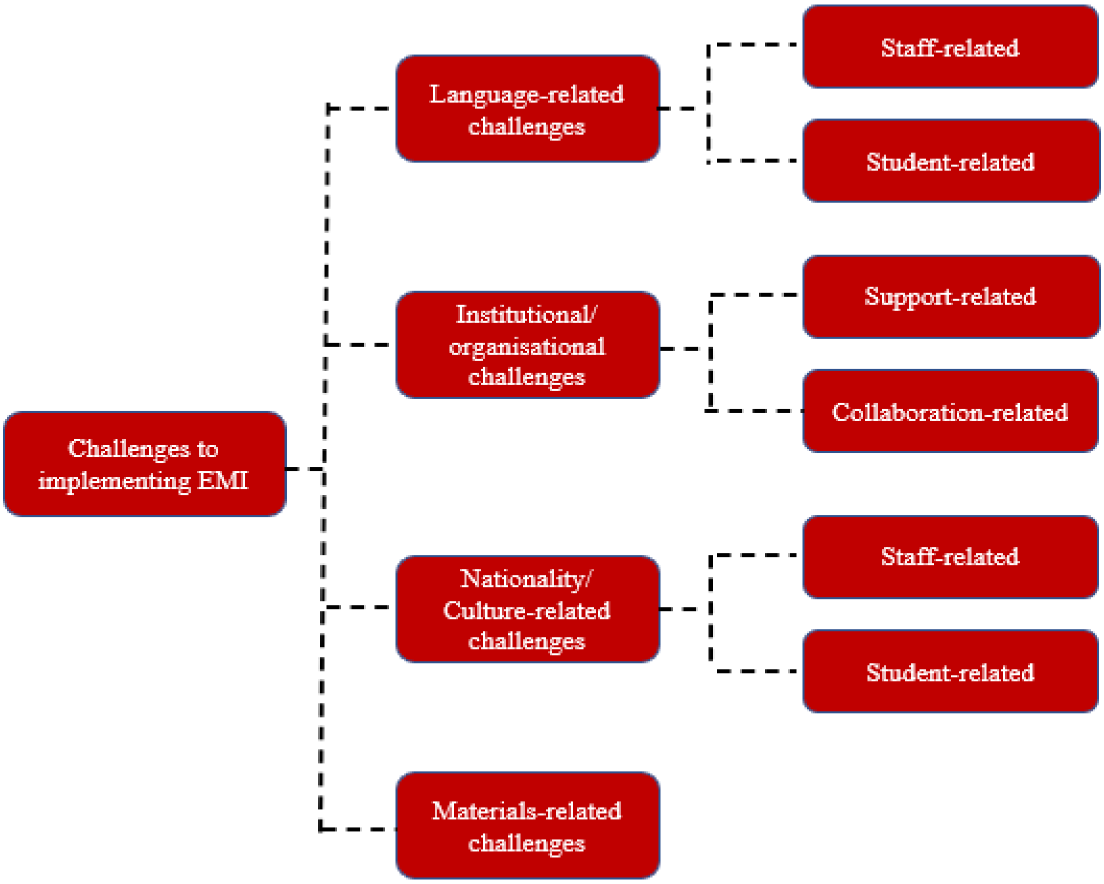


Figure 5. The typology of challenges to implementing EMI for staff and students (Galloway et al., 2017)

Galloway et al. (2020) state several linguistic challenges as follows: students and staff (lecturers and administrators) both have language-related difficulties (Jiang et al., 2019). There is a linguistic barrier between staff and students, especially when they are both from different countries (Kuteeva, 2020; Song, 2019). Because lecturers do not consider themselves to be language teachers, they do not provide students with linguistic feedback (Macaro et al., 2016), and the inability to employ humor in class, according to lecturers, prevents them from connecting with students on a personal level (Tsui, 2017). Also, studying in English requires more time because it requires looking up unknown words in a dictionary (see Nikula, Dafouz, Moore, & Smit, 2016; Henriksen, Holmen, Kling, Holmen & Kling, 2018).

Galloway et al. (2020) also state some of the institutional and organizational challenges as follows: For all parties involved, the burden of challenges has increased (Babicheva & Lee, 2018). Universities have acknowledged difficulties in finding qualified candidates to instruct in English (Hu, 2009; Tsuneyoshi, 2005). Communication difficulties with international staff and students have been reported by administrative staff

(Çankaya, 2017). Also, when changing the medium of instruction, lecturers lack pedagogical guidelines (Dearden, 2014). According to Jenkins and Mauranen (2019), the hard realities that universities face as institutions might further complicate the problems. Universities naturally compete for resources, including government and outside funding, students, and talent. The institution appreciates and finds appealing the international flair that students and staff from multiple countries bring to the institution. Institutions are aware that their performance in international rankings is also taken into account in their local contexts, and that this can have an impact on their chances of receiving funding, developing, and even remaining in operation. As a result, university administrations appreciate the variety of nationalities that their international students and staff bring to their campuses, and they frequently boast about it on their websites. They do not, however, extend the same welcome to the resulting, unavoidable linguistic diversity. Contrarily, there appears to be an underlying attitude among many university administrations that the diversity they observe and hear in their environment should not transfer into linguistic diversity and that English should only be encouraged, especially in the classroom. This is commonly taken to mean exclusively native English, by which specific types of 'standard' British and/or American English are meant.

Also, Galloway et al. (2020) refer to content lecturer-related challenges they encounter when instructing in English. According to Rose et al. (2019) and Macaro and Curle et al. (2018), 'high-level' English competence is needed in the majority of contexts. Kling (2015) reports that teaching through a second language does not influence a lecturer's identity, authority, or expertise in the classroom. The literature contains criticism from students about the English language abilities of content instructors. According to Macaro, Curle et al. (2018), Chang, Kim, and Lee (2017), and Aizawa and Rose (2019), students frequently find it difficult to understand and believe that the lack of a teacher's English competence may lead to difficulties in language learning. Research has revealed that there are not enough English-speaking content lecturers in the local area to meet this demand (Brown, 2017; Hu et al., 2016). According to Björkman (2010), even if content instructors are fluent in English, it does not follow that they are also competent at delivering engaging lectures. Therefore, it would seem that EM higher education demands language proficiency, knowledge of higher education pedagogy, and an optimistic outlook (Hellekjaer & Wilkinson, 2001). The challenges the academic staff face is not only language-related, but they also encounter difficulties as a result of the heterogeneity of EMI classrooms (Henriksen, Holmen, & Kling, 2019).

The last but most relevant challenges of EMI to the current study are the student challenges. The use of English as a language of instruction in higher education is also accompanied by obstacles for students, including difficulties comprehending lecturers' accents (Evans & Morrison, 2011) and problems with the production of spontaneous speech (Suzuki, Harada, Eguchi, Kudo, & Moriya, 2017). However, the issue of poor English competence (among students, classmates, and lecturers) is the one that is most commonly raised (Airey, 2011; Airey & Linder, 2006; Tsuneyoshi, 2005; Wilkinson & Yasuda, 2013). These difficulties could, however, be quite institution- and context-specific. The Swedish students in Shaw and McMillion's (2008) study were 'near-native' English speakers; therefore, they encountered relatively few difficulties when learning difficult academic material in English. This demonstrates the necessity to pay close attention to the 'macro' (country level), the 'meso' (institution level), and 'micro' (classroom level) contexts in which EM activities are implemented (Galloway et al., 2020).

When EMI courses are introduced in HE, research shows that students experience several perceived and actual challenges (Macaro, Curle et al., 2018); nevertheless, there is limited research regarding the particular challenges students face when learning in English, sitting exams, and taking part in EMI classes. According to a comprehensive study conducted in the Chinese context (Rose et al., 2019), the specific difficulties that students experienced were mainly related to their productive skills of speaking and writing while they did not find receptive skills of listening and reading difficult. Students felt less self-efficacious in EMI classes than in Chinese-taught courses about their ability to earn good grades. Language-related challenges include those relating to vocabulary and knowledge of various English dialects, as well as those relating to communication and language skills, such as the ability to communicate one's own views, respond to inquiries, and connect with other students.

Affective and cognitive difficulties include feelings like boredom, embarrassment, and a lack of confidence, according to research (Thompson et al., 2017; Soruc & Griffith, 2018). In Chapple's (2015) study, international students not only voiced discontent with the English ability of the local lecturers but also the local students which resulted in many international students leaving that EMI class.

2.2 The role of English in IHE

The first half of this chapter covered several dimensions of EMI and it appears that the relationship between the IHE and EMI is mediated by the use of English. Therefore, this second half centers primarily on the IHE and EMI by questioning the role of English and how English is viewed from different perspectives, and in what follows the role of English as a lingua franca in EMI is addressed. However, prior to that investigation, the role of English in a broader sense is discussed in the general context of HE.

Although there are still universities that operate exclusively at a national level and use their local language(s) instead of English, these institutions that claim national status are a decreasing minority (Jenkins, 2018). And while there are still, HE institutions that claim to be international but only offer instruction in other languages than English, they make up a relatively small proportion of all international universities (see Jenkins, 2017). Despite the global linguistic diversity, it appears that there is a presumption that only native English should be pushed on campuses as an acceptable language, which generally refers to certain so-called ‘standard’ varieties of British and/or North American English (Jenkins, 2018).

Language-related difficulties students encounter are one of the frequently cited problems with EMI implementation at the micro level (e.g., Tsuneyoshi, 2005; Hellekjaer, 2010; Wilkinson, 2013) and they are all assessed against ‘standard’ English. A growing body of EMI literature has extensively studied students’ linguistic difficulties, which are frequently summed up as difficulty understanding academic texts due to inadequate vocabulary knowledge (Krkgöz, 2005), difficulty understanding classes (Hellekjaer, 2010), difficulty understanding instructors’ accents (Tange, 2012), and difficulty taking notes from academic texts (Andrade 2006). One of the most common barriers to EMI implementation is the students’ poor English language proficiency (e.g., Hu et al., 2014; Chapple, 2015). According to certain researchers (Hellekjaer, 2010; Wong & Wu, 2011), EMI students who do not speak English well enough graduate without having enough content knowledge. While low English proficiency among students is a barrier to EMI, it is equally important to consider the English language skills of the instructors. EMI instructors face linguistic challenges such as teachers’ reduced capacity to employ accessible language (Tange, 2012), reduced academic content quality and quantity due to lack of competence (Wilkinson, 2005), and additional effort and preparation time due to insufficient language ability (Tsuneyoshi, 2005). Teaching and language proficiency go hand in hand in EMI. The poor quality of EMI teaching can be seriously impacted by instructors' weak English proficiency (Başbek et al., 2014; Werther et al., 2014), which can result in simplified lecture content (Chapple, 2015). As a result, they lose confidence in themselves (Goodman, 2014), which in turn affects how much teachers can meet the demands of students (Vinke et al., 1998). Low linguistic skills among EMI students affect their academic success and, in some situations, make it difficult for a course to be seen as authentic (Macaro, 2005; Borg, 2015).

As Aizawa and McKinley (2020) note, it has been demonstrated in several EMI contexts that a course designated as EMI does not always imply English-only instruction (Botha, 2013; Hu et al., 2014; Borg, 2015). Codeswitching (i.e., switching between L1 and L2 for convenience) and translanguaging (i.e., resourcing the L1 to support the use of the L2) are frequent (see Bowles and Cogo, 2016), frequently as a result of students' limited language proficiency and teachers' efforts to make lecture content more understandable in the L1 (see, for example, Evans, 2002 regarding EMI in Hong Kong).

Although an EMI university, discipline, program, or course may be 'English only' in theory, this is not often the case in reality. Administrations may be unaware of what is occurring in the classroom and of 'the teaching habits of their academic staff,' as Costa and Coleman point out (2012: 14). Additionally, this phenomenon fits with Spolsky's (2004) distinction between language practices (what people decide to do) and language management (what those in authority try to make them do). The national language(s) in non-Anglophone settings, as well as the languages of the diverse student population, will be spoken outside of the classroom in both Anglophone and Non-Anglophone settings (Jenkins, 2018). Even when non-native English speaker (NNES) students (and staff) are conversing outside of the classroom about EMI course-related matters, they do so in languages other than English. All these arguments signify that controversies over the use of English in EMI exist.

2.2.1 Internationalization VS. Englishization of HE

According to Duong and Chua (2016), English might be seen as a 'symbol' of the internationalization of HE. In addition, the literature indicates a strong tendency among students and teachers to identify any introduction of English in higher education with internationalization (e.g., Galloway et al., 2020; Cots et al., 2014; Coleman, 2006). Similarly, an overlap between English and internationalization in university language policy has been shown in prior studies (e.g., Baker & Huttner, 2018). However, there are conflicting ideologies towards adopting English in the internationalization of HE and EMI: There are those who oppose the use of English and those who favor it. The debates on the use of English lie at two extreme points of a spectrum ranging from positive outcomes to negative ones. These controversies have been given various names such as 'internationalization' versus 'Englishization' of higher education and 'culturalist' versus 'internationalist' positions.

In the context of EMI programs, Hultgren et al. (2014) call these ideologies toward English culturalist versus internationalist positions. Based on the culturalist ideology, universities are perceived as institutions for the protection and promotion of a national culture including the local language, and thus consider EMI and English as problematic to this end (Cots et al., 2012) while on the other side, internationalist positions tend to see universities as global players, in competition (internationally) with other institutions for resources (e.g., students, staff, funding, etc.) and therefore view English as a resource.

The above-mentioned positions have also been described in the literature as internationalization versus Englishization of higher education with internationalization being in line with the internationalist position and Englishization being equivalent to the culturalist position. The internationalization and Englishization of higher education go hand in hand, with university campuses paradoxically growing more linguistically diverse on the one hand and more English-focused on the other (Jenkins, 2018). These ideologies led to the formation of a distinction between internationalization and Englishization (Haberland & Mortensen, 2012). Englishization seems to entail assimilation rather than integration and it is a unidirectional movement and this assimilation is created by the dominance of English of a majority on a minority (Still & Squires, 2015) whereas internationalization aims at integration. It can be concluded that Englishization can be associated with negative connotations. According to some academics (Kirkpatrick, 2011; Lin, 2019; Dimova, Hultgren; Jensen, 2015), the development of EMI has supported the Englishization of HE. According to Saarinen and Nikula (2012), English is euphemistically referred to as a "foreign language" in internationalization policies, rendering other foreign languages invisible. To further clarify these two opposing viewpoints, I divide these ideologies into those for and against the use of English in IHE and EMI.

2.2.1.1 For the use of English

According to EMI research, English is necessary for the internationalization of HE institutions because it facilitates mobility and the exchange of ideas (Leask, 2015). Since 2001, with the sharp increase in the use of EMI programs (Wachter & Maiworm, 2014), some researchers have expressed the idea that undoubtedly the use of English in HE leads to several benefits: it can create diversity among the student body (e.g., Tira, 2021), enhance the university ranking (e.g., Kuteeva et al., 2020) and develop job prospects (Bull, 2012). The same benefits have been mirrored elsewhere stating that the use of English in EMI can enhance cross-cultural understanding and global awareness while also providing linguistic benefits and improving employment (Chapple, 2015). Furthermore, this diversity among students can also lead to better academic success by promoting competition, broader skills, more civic involvement, and decreased prejudice (e.g., Hurtado & Deangelo, 2012; Bowman, 2011; Engberg & Hurtado, 2011; Page, 2009). However, it is debatable if these alleged advantages exceed the disadvantages of using English in EMI.

2.2.1.2 Against the use of English

The use of English in HE and the EMI adoption has not always been praised or unquestioned, and there have been instances of disagreement in various global contexts. These opposing views are discussed at the institutional level regarding the use of English in internationalization at home and EMI in HE, and at the linguistic level in terms of its impact on the local language or L1.

At the institutional level, regarding internationalization at home and EMI, there are arguments opposing the use of English in HE. According to De Wit (2011) and Beelen (2019), considering IaH equal to teaching in English is a misconception since IaH aims to provide all students with global skills and knowledge rather than favoring only the students with English knowledge and skills. To this end, in Europe, the vast majority of students are enrolled in programs that are taught in their local language and the curricula of these programs can be internationalized without altering the language of instruction, for example, by including literature and content that provide various international viewpoints in the classroom (Beelen, 2019). When the teacher uses sources in English, they are not required to discuss them in English. Additionally, the majority of students will be able to comprehend English when used as a ‘listening’ language, like in a guest lecture (Beelen, 2019). However, an obstacle to having an internationalized curriculum in HE might be that HE institutions are not yet ready to administrate it. As an instance, Foskett (2010) criticizes the unpreparedness of international institutions and calls them in adopting an internationalized curriculum by calling them 'imperialist universities', which as he states, "have strong international recruitment activities to draw students from overseas but have done relatively little to change their organization, facilities, or services at home" (: 44) (see also Baker & Hüttner, 2016; Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019).

To be more specific, using English in EMI contexts might lead to difficulties with curriculum and course design, quality assurance, and language and content learning results, as well as inequities for both students and staff (Wilkinson, 2013) and several studies express opposition to the mere notion of EMI ensuring more access to knowledge and education (e.g., Lanvers & Hultgren, 2018; Lueg, 2018; Romaine, 2015; Lueg & Lueg, 2015; Tsuneyoshi, 2005). Bowles and Murphy also call the role of English into question by arguing that "if the unfettered political-economic drive towards internationalization is to be successful and fair, researchers need to question whether its English language policies help the process of internationalization by producing sustainable economic and social development" (2020: 2).

Nevertheless, Cots (2012) argues that policymakers might avoid the formal confirmation of the dominance of English in higher education settings with the perception that this would enhance the idea of superiority. As Galloway et al. (2017) notes, this superiority has been observed in EMI programs in China and Japan with cultural issues associated with the Westernization of the curricula. These findings, together with the growth of English in HE, have triggered concerns about linguistic imperialism (Phillipson, 1992, 2008) and they see the use of English as problematic because it might result in linguistic inequity and the westernization of the curriculum (Leask, 2015). Also, Ha (2013) asserts that "procedures and practices of the internationalization of HE in global contexts generally presuppose the primacy of English in the production, circulation, and dissemination of academic knowledge" (:160).

At the linguistic level, several academics have suggested that the use of English, the spread of EMI, and the Englishization of higher education may cause the domain loss of the local language (see, Hamel, 2007; Hültgren, 2013; Phillipson, 2015). This is often connected to the role of language in the formation of national and cultural identity (Galloway et al., 2020). The opposition to EMI in Europe has been portrayed as a threat to national languages and cultural identities in countries including the Netherlands (Matthews, 2018), France (Gallix, 2013), and Sweden (Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012).

Additionally, studies have shown that students participating in EMI university programs reported feeling separated from their L1 culture (Krkgöz, 2009).

On the other hand, the diversity of the student body in EMI that was referred to earlier is double-faced in a paradoxical manner since it can both increase linguistic diversity in, HE and at the same time focus on solely one language that is English (Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019: 7). Also, the widespread adoption of English might present EMI as a monolingual practice that seems hardly consistent with the goals of internationalization (e.g., Fabricius et al., 2017; Mortensen, 2014; Doiz et al., 2011: Preece & Martin, 2010). Although the internationalization of higher education has come to be associated with English, this is not always the case. According to some academics, EMI can be implemented in a way that takes advantage of the multilingual and multicultural resources of the international student body. (Dafouz, 2014; Dafouz & Smit, 2016; 2020). As a result, researchers have looked into how L1 and other languages are used in EMI settings. L1 in this section refers to the local language, which is frequently the L1 of most students and teachers in research settings. Studies on L1 use at EMI universities tend to focus on the beliefs or practices of stakeholders on L1 use in EMI classrooms. These kinds of research use a range of approaches to examine L1 use, using concepts like 'translanguaging' and 'codeswitching' to comprehend the issue. Codeswitching is the adoption of various and distinct linguistic codes (or languages) and is referred to 'switches' between languages in negative ways, such as "an unfortunate lapse from the prescribed language of instruction" (Pecorari & Malmström, 2018: 499) because of deficiencies in language knowledge, according to certain researchers (e.g. Creese & Blackledge, 2015; Garca, 2009; Garca & Li Wei, 2014), the word translanguaging, which defines the flexibility of language use as a natural bilingual or multilingual practice, is preferable. Using semi-structured interviews (e.g., Karakas, 2016; Kuteeva, 2020), questionnaires (e.g., Alkhudair, 2019; Kim et al., 2017), or both (e.g., Galloway et al., 2020; Rose & Galloway, 2019), studies have looked at content lecturers' and students' attitudes and perceptions of L1 use in EMI university contexts. An urgent need for more empirical, evidence-based research on EMI implementation and practice has resulted from the interaction of these advantages and problems, as well as the rapid growth of EMI programs around the world (Macaro et al., 2018).

Jenkins (2018) refers to the demise of EMI stating that the use of English as a language for teaching and research around the globe is one of the key elements of HE internationalization that the authors believe to be under threat. They point out, for instance, that the rector of the University of Amsterdam has stated that 'internationalization at home' (the integration of international/intercultural viewpoints into local educational contexts, (Turner & Robson, 2008 :15)), rather than 'English-taught academic programs', should be prioritized. They also mention discussions going on right now 'about the detrimental influence of English on the quality of education' in nations like Germany and Denmark, among others. and mention how a severe dispute at the Polytechnic University of Milan over the use of English in graduate education [led to] a recent court judgment that may severely restrict the use of English in Italian higher education on constitutional grounds. Overall, they believe that "the transnational education halcyon days may be over". However, as Jenkins (2018) notes, if EU members will begin to view English as a neutral working language, it might follow that European HE would not give up on EMI after all.

Other linguistic ideologies call the above-mentioned views on EMI into question. As Seidlhofer (2018: 89) notes, standard English does not exist, and it is "an ideological construct". However, as Seidlhofer continues to point out, this type of English only constitutes a tiny part of the world's English and holding the idea that native English speakers (NESs) use one form of English would be to oversimplify how all NESs use English. According to Maringe and Jenkins (2015), NESs frequently struggle to articulate what they mean by standard English. According to Macaro et al. (2018), there should be a discussion on how proficiency is defined in the context of EMI. This would imply that the many non-native English speaker (NNES) students who are studying in the English language and who have low self-esteem regarding their English skills would learn that the English they use to communicate does not necessarily have to be the same as the English that NESs use among themselves (Macaro et al., 2018) and see English in a more functional way as a matter of necessity, not status and superiority (Gramling, 2016) and this is where the idea of English as a lingua franca (ELF) emerges.

2.2.2 Origins and definitions of ELF

The EMI acronym commonly stands for English-medium instruction. However, Smit (2010) has reconceptualized EMI where E does not indicate English but English as a lingua franca (ELF) and this led to framing EMI communication as ELF communication. Therefore, EMI is considered "the domain of English as a lingua franca in academic settings" (Jenkins, 2018: 5). The relationship between ELF and EMI becomes even more clear when EFL is defined as "any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option" (Seidlhofer, 2011: 7). However, this definition does not fit all the contexts and all participants, and it is therefore not stable particularly when ELF is investigated in a context where the professors and students share the same L1 but teach and learn EMI programs through English as in the current study.

Prior to a more in-depth investigation of the intersection between ELF and EMI, the history and various definitions of ELF are discussed in this part. In the Eastern Mediterranean, Arabs and European sailors employed the classical 'Lingua Franca' as a trading language (Cremona, 2000). Hugo Schuchardt (1980 [1909]: 67) remarked at the beginning of the 20th century that "Many people are of the opinion that the Lingua Franca extends to all Mediterranean ports," while others "... consider that a Lingua Franca does not really exist anywhere." Because of the sailors' mobility, who are "the itinerant speakers of the Lingua Franca," Lingua Franca can occasionally "be heard everywhere" (Schuchardt, 1980 [1909]: 67).

Mortensen (2013) describes ELF as a 'puzzling terminological' notion (:29). It is undeniable that English is used as a lingua franca, but is "English as a lingua franca" a language, a system of languages, a code, or a variation in and of itself? These kinds of inquiries have frequently been made in the ELF literature and at ELF conferences, and numerous solutions have been offered (Mortensen, 2013). To draw too many parallels between the original Lingua Franca and the current use of English as a lingua franca would be misleading, because the former was essentially a regional trade language (Ostler 2010: 115), whereas the latter has a global reach and is not limited to serving a specific purpose, though it is undoubtedly a major factor in transnational business (Mortensen, 2013). The Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE) defines English as a lingua franca as "an additionally acquired language system which serves as a common means of communication for speakers of different first languages". According to Mortensen (2013), if we adopt the definition of the language system by P. H. Matthews in The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics: "The system of a specific language at a specific time, seen in abstraction from its history; from its use on specific occasions and by specific individuals; from other systems of culture, knowledge, etc."(Matthews, 1997: 200), consequently, it seems contradictory to classify ELF as a language system. In another place, Seidlhofer (2004: 222) labeled ELF 'a natural language'. In other instances, though, Seidlhofer disagrees with the notion that ELF ought to be viewed as a separate language system or something similar to a natural language. If ELF should be classified as a variety, she emphasizes clearly that it is 'an open subject' (Seidlhofer, 2006: 46). Similarly, Jenkins, Cogo, and Dewey (2011) disagreed with the notion that English as a lingua franca can be described as a language system or as a variety.

Another discipline that significantly affected ELF researchers in its early years was a relatively young discipline called world Englishes (WE). The linguistic ideology of WE, according to which native English speakers are neither the global owners of English nor the arbiters of its use and development, has been shared by ELF research ever since (Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019). According to this ideology, researchers working under the WE paradigm established the legitimacy of numerous Englishes in post-colonial contexts, contributing to the recognition of named varieties such as Indian English, Nigerian English, and similar ones (Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019). However, the realization that ELF is not amenable to the limited variety approach of WE arrived at the end of the first decade of the twenty-first century. According to Jenkins and Mauranen (2019), instead, ELF may be characterized as 'variably variable', with its variability dependent more on the participants in an interaction than the interlocutors' first languages and accommodation skills, which had already been identified as essential for ELF pronunciation (Jenkins, 2000) being foundational at all levels of language. This realization led to a shift in ELF study away from WE's variety approach and toward the implications of ELF's linguistic boundary-crossing and the processes underlying the consequent linguistic variability (Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019). ELF was then largely understood to be the use of English as a contact language among speakers of various first languages, with Seidlhofer's definition becoming one of the most popular ones shortly after: "any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice and often the only option" (2011: 7).

Efforts have been made to find characteristic features of ELF. The first instance relates to the continuous effort to find "developing patterns of lexical and grammatical forms" in ELF (Jenkins et al., 2011: 289), that is, to identify ELF's distinguishing characteristics, or 'ELF variants', as Cogo and Dewey (2012: 48) refer to them, such as the third person singular S variable as a characteristic feature of ELF. However, Mortensen (2013) does not consider the (-s) variable a characteristic of ELF interaction since he believes it is not unique and exclusive to ELF. Additionally, continuous efforts have been made to determine the distinctive pragmatic strategies used by ELF users. Early ELF research "pointed to mutual cooperation as a major characteristic of ELF communication along with a strong orientation towards securing mutual understanding regardless of correctness", (Jenkins, Cogo, & Dewey, 2011: 293). The core assumption seems to be that specific communicative behaviors may be recognized as being distinctive of ELF interaction and can therefore be utilized to differentiate ELF interaction from other types of contact (Mortensen, 2013). However, Mortensen (2013) does not consider the specific communicative behaviors a characteristic of ELF interaction since he believes they are not unique and exclusive to ELF.

Mortenson (2013) proposes that we describe English as a lingua franca as the use of English in a lingua franca 'language scenario' rather than thinking of ELF in terms of a system with all the drawbacks this involves. The linguistic resources that are available in a specific communicative encounter between two or more speakers as a result of their respective linguistic repertoires are referred to as a 'language scenario' in this context. It resembles a definition of ELF provided by Seidlhofer (2011): "I prefer [. . .] to think of ELF as any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option" (: 7). According to Mortensen (2013), ELF interactions always have a multilingual base in that there will be at least one multilingual speaker and the linguistic scenario will comprise at least two and frequently more languages; Since the speakers frequently come from more or less distinct cultural backgrounds, ELF encounters also have a multicultural foundation; Finally, because speakers frequently utilize various 'kinds' of English in conversation, ELF encounters are frequently multinormative (Mortensen, 2013). In sum, this in turn suggests that the usage of English that emerges in ELF interaction is fundamentally dynamic and not likely to crystallize into 'an English', as suggested by Canagarajah (2007), Firth (2009), Jenkins, Cogo, and Dewey (2011), Cogo and Dewey (2012), and Seidlhofer (2011). From a methodological perspective, this means that if we want to explain why the language use that we witness looks the way it does and why it could look different in different ELF contexts, we need to take the contextual factors that influence ELF encounters more seriously (Mortensen, 2013).

Although there appears to be some debate on the definition of ELF among academics (Mortensen, 2013), Alan Firth's is generally accepted as "a contact language between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common culture, and for whom English is the chosen foreign language of communication" (1996: 240). ELF lacks both a precise definition and a precise explanation of its linguistic features. Despite this, it is thought to be distinct from English spoken by native speakers (NS) due to the communication strategies utilized (Seidlhofer, 2009), such as translanguaging, or codeswitching explained earlier in this chapter (Jenkins, 2019). The use of non-standard English is also acceptable, and emphasis is placed on communicating effectively—that is, whether the message is understood.

According to ELF researchers, shifting from NS English ideology to ELF ideology could benefit various EMI stakeholders and alleviate problems related to political, social, language, and cultural identity (Jenkins, 2019). Smith (1976), who was likely the first who considered English as an 'International Auxiliary Language,' argued that English "may and should be de-nationalized" (: 41) so that "English belongs to any country which uses it and may have as wide or as limited a use...as is felt desirable" (: 38), adding that "every nation which uses it [English] does so with a different tone, color, and quality" (: 39) and that we "must become more tolerant of the English used by others. Just because the other person does not speak English the way we do, does not mean he/she is wrong or speaking incorrectly" (: 41). Furthermore, Smith noted that learning English should focus on teaching students how to convey their own cultural traditions to others in English rather than requiring them to "appreciate the culture of a country whose principal language is English to use it effectively" (: 39-41). Finally, Smith proposed that we stop referring to 'English as a second or foreign language' and instead begin referring to it as an 'international auxiliary language' (: 42).

As Widdowson (1994: 385) puts it "English is an international language means that no nation can have custody over it". This is also the origin of debates over the linguistic rights of L2 English speakers in the 'ELF movement' (Ranta, 2013). The claim is that since L2 speakers make up the majority of English speakers, their language should no longer be disparagingly contrasted to that of native speakers as if it were an inferior variety of the language. Instead, the ELF 'movement' is essentially advocating that non-native English speakers should be considered full-fledged speakers in their own right and that non-native English speakers should be recognized as a separate linguistic form from L1 English (Seidlhofer, 2011). There is no one uniform 'ELF community' just as there is no single, uniform linguistic entity called 'English as a Lingua Franca'. The subject of whether ELF can be classified as a distinct language variety is one that people new to ELF study frequently ask. According to Thomason (2001: 269), a lingua franca is:

> [a] language of wider communication – that is, a language that is used for communication between groups who do not speak each other's languages, as well as between native speakers (if any) of the lingua franca and other groups […]. A lingua franca is by definition learned as a second language by at least some of its speakers.

The inherent multilingualism of ELF has been given much more attention in ELF research (Jenkins, 2015). ELF had naturally always been viewed as a multilingual phenomenon because the vast majority of its users were multilingual and so gave rise to its existence (Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019). The majority of ELF scholars, on the other hand, were more likely to emphasize the 'Englishness' of ELF and view multilingualism as merely one of its characteristics than to emphasize its multilingual nature and examine it within a multilingual framework (Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019). Jenkins redefined ELF as "multilingual communication in which English is available as a contact language of choice but is not necessarily chosen" (2015: 73). Therefore, shifting the emphasis away from 'English' and toward ELF's multilingualism (Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019). Jenkins (2015) maintained that the phrase 'multilingual repertoire,' which ELF academics frequently use, should be replaced with 'repertoires in flux'. This is because it is more dynamic and transitory. Unlike 'multilingual repertoire' which suggests a fixed, all-purpose repertoire.

In sum, according to Braj B. Kachru (1985), English is becoming more international and further detached from the countries and cultures that speak it. Researchers are starting to look into the communications that occur in EMI classrooms. They claim that ELF is actually what is used at EMI, and they then utilize their research to explain how ELF diverges from other varieties of English (Smit, 2010; Bjorkman, 2011). According to ELF scholars, English is adopted as a lingua franca for academic and international business reasons and is a distinct linguistic variety (Seidlhofer et al., 2006).

2.2.3 ELF in EMI

In this section, the intersection between ELF and EMI in HE is initially discussed and in what follows, ELF is compared with native English in non-Anglophone academic settings, it is investigated as a multilingual phenomenon, and finally, its impact on L1 is addressed. Even though it would be an extreme exaggeration to assume that all institutions that claim international status use English as their only or even primary working language, it is accurate to argue that HE is a 'prototypical ELF scenario' (Smit, 2018: 387). As stated earlier in this chapter, EMI is typically defined as "the use of English for educational purposes carried out outside English-speaking countries and generally involves both teachers and students whose first language is not English" (Murata, 2019: 46). Even in English-speaking countries where the majority of institutions enroll significant numbers of international students from a variety of mostly non-English-speaking countries and instruct them in the English language, this is still applicable (Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019).

Having the above-mentioned background in mind, this section focuses on English in its lingua franca role in higher education, an aspect of global higher education that is frequently overlooked in the increasingly common discussions of the internationalization of higher education (Jenkins, 2019) and more specifically in EMI programs. According to Jenkins (2014), for several years, concerns about the use of English as the Lingua Franca in international higher education have been disregarded for two basic reasons. First off, language is not valued in higher education; rather, it is perceived as a tool for carrying out the institution's administrative, teaching, and research activities, which are frequently done in English in 'international' universities. Second, even though English is used largely to internationalize HE, there is no desire to think about what kind of English this is or should be. When it comes to university English language policy and practice, the results of in-depth research into ELF are disregarded (see, Cogo & Dewey, 2012; Mauranen, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2011).

Higher education is a significant example of the growth and application of ELF because many universities have made the switch to teaching in the English language as part of their internationalization efforts to attract more students and staff from outside of their home countries (Jenkins, 2018). It is crucial how we understand what the letter 'E' in 'EMI' means. English as a Lingua Franca is a phenomenon that occurs in international university settings where students and staff come from a wide variety of different language backgrounds. This type of English is used in practice rather than native (or even native-like) English (Jenkins, 2018). However, there is a presumption among people outside of ELF research (including more traditional-minded linguists like mainstream SLA scholars) that the only genuinely acceptable method to use any language is how its native speakers do; this presumption is then extended to EMI situations (Jenkins, 2018). A good example is Dearden's (2015) extensive survey, because "[her] research on EMI has nothing to do with ELF, [her] 'E' in EMI being solidly and without a doubt based on native speakers' E (Murata & Iino, 2018: 403). But when it comes to lingua francas, where it is frequently the case that few if any, participants in an interaction are themselves, native speakers of the particular language, they are seriously defective and when English is being employed as a lingua franca, this is especially true (Jenkins, 2018). In contrast, ELF researchers who investigate EMI contexts begin from the premise that they are, by definition, ELF contexts. Smit (2010), who suggested that the E in EMI should be regarded to signify ‘ELF’ and not ‘English’, was the first to make the connection explicitly. ELF is defined as “any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice and often the only option” (Seidlhofer, 2011: 7).

The global proliferation of English in HE, or the phenomena of ELF, is frequently misunderstood to signify the spread of native English (Jenkins, 2018). There is a misguided assumption that English used in its national role within the US and UK in particular is and should be the same as English used in its international lingua franca role (Jenkins, 2014). Mauranen, who started her ELFA Corpus in 2003, was the first researcher to use ELFA. In the ensuing decade, Mauranen and her Tampere and Helsinki teams conducted research on the ELFA corpus, and the results revealed that not only is ELF the most common form of English used in HE EMI settings but that native English is of limited relevance: (Jenkins, 2018). The widespread perception that the English of non-native speakers (NNESs), including both students and staff, is inadequate to the point where it deviates from certain ‘standard’ versions of native English raises questions about fairness and equity for NNESs in university settings as well as the marginalization of the vast body of research into ELF concerning these settings (Jenkins, 2014). In other words, an ‘international’ approach to English is incompatible with a ‘national’ approach (Jenkins, 2014). The home staff and managers tend to be NNESs themselves outside of Anglophone settings, therefore they are likely to be advocating a uniform type of English that is not even local to their own context but rather to a remote from US or UK one (Jenkins, 2014). According to Jenkins (2018), unfairness has been found to be significantly less pronounced in non-Anglophone contexts for a variety of reasons. To put it another way, home students in non-Anglophone contexts are by definition also NNESs, therefore the native English ethos is likely to be less strict (to the extent that an institution is not overrun with NES staff). Furthermore, the home students do not constantly remind the teacher how (native) English ‘should’ be spoken. It is a well-known fact that speakers of English, the majority of whom are not native speakers, have made the language their preferred lingua franca and as studies into the phenomenon of English as a Lingua Franca have shown, for more than twenty years, the varieties of English used in lingua franca communication frequently diverge from those used by native English speakers and that are (still) taught to ‘foreign’ learners in EFL classrooms (Jenkins, 2018). It should be noted that the linguistic dynamic between home and international students is typically of a different order when the local language is something other than English, with both groups frequently viewing themselves as ‘in the same (non-native English) boat’. The native-English-only issue may therefore be lessened, if not completely solved, in non-Anglophone environments; however, the extent to which this is the case is still an empirical matter (Jenkins, 2018).

Understanding the role of ELF in EMI HE education contexts requires understanding that English is used by far more NNESs than NESs, that the communication they engage in differs from NES-NES communication, that good English in ELF contexts is not related to its native-likeness, and that there is no one user's way of using English that is inherently better than another user's way: it all depends on how effective they are as communicators in their specific ELF interaction. And to do that, one must possess strong adaptability abilities (and therefore speak other languages than English) (Jenkins, 2018). According to Jenkins (2018), the unquestioning belief held by everyone in higher education (except ELF scholars) that ‘excellent English’ equates to that of the ‘educated native speaker’ needs to be abandoned in light of the ramifications of this ELF reality. Numerous native speakers have been employed to help non-native scientists and academics who are struggling to communicate in native English, and it is common practice in publishers’ style sheets to demand that non-native writers have their text proofread by a native speaker of English before publication. But in the context of global HE, many NESs require the most assistance to overcome their monolingualism, develop their intercultural communication and accommodation skills, and comprehend that they do not possess English in the field of global HE or any other context.

ELF is the language used for EMI interaction; hence it makes sense that practitioners would take an ELF perspective when teaching (Jenkins, 2019). It is not necessary to adhere to the native English speaker’s notion of grammatical and lexical correctness in an ELF-oriented approach to language learning. As opposed to insisting on learning native speaker norms, it places more emphasis on the value of codeswitching and translanguaging practices, knowledge of the language of the host country, the varied linguistic backgrounds of the students, as well as acceptance of and attention to mutual intelligibility (Bowles and Murphy, 2020). Galloway, Kriukow, and Numajiri (2017) refer to linguistic proficiency and what proficiency means in an ELF setting rather than a native English setting. For one thing, the ELF HE settings say that native English should not be assumed, and on the other hand, the multilingualism of ELF users implies that other languages other than English should have a role. But most, if not all, EMI institutions are very far from being like this.

Regarding the investigation of ELF as a multilingual phenomenon, Jenkins (2015) explains the conceptual implications of multilingualism to ELF. Similarly, several contemporary definitions of ELF have emphasized the Englishness of ELF while leaving the significance of its multilingualism unstated (Jenkins, 2019). Contrary to what should have been the case, the English of ELF tended to be highlighted while its multilingualism was relegated to the background (Jenkins, 2018). However, lately, there has been a more multilingual turn in ELF studies (Jenkins, 2019). This prompted Jenkins (2018) to redefine ELF as “multilingual communication in which English is available as a contact language of choice, but is not necessarily chosen,” (: 73). In other words, even though English is available to everyone present in an ELF interaction by default, participants may prefer another language or languages on any given occasion, or interlocutors may decide to translanguage among their various languages (Jenkins, 2018). On campus, however, there is not just extensive use of English but also other languages, whether the institution is in an Anglophone or Non-Anglophone country (Jenkins, 2018). Since speaking many languages is the norm for them, it is abnormal to limit them to using only English instead of their entire multilingual repertoires when necessary (Jenkins, 2018).

In addition to being a multilingual phenomenon in and of itself, ELF has been found to encourage rather than discourage interest in and learning of other languages by bringing together speakers of various first languages (Jenkins, 2018). Asserting the same point, Palfreyman and Van der Walt (2017) write that “the movement by policy-makers, students, and academics towards English has, paradoxically, resulted in increased multilingualism on campuses, as increasing numbers of students from different language backgrounds use the lingua franca to access and develop knowledge and competencies in a variety of languages” (: 2-3). While bringing the multilingualism of ELF HE situations to the forefront with their notion of EMEMUS, or ‘English- Medium Education in Multilingual Settings’, Dafouz and Smit (2016) completely avoid the term ‘instruction’ in favor of the term ‘education’.

The greatest linguistic diversity that many campuses in many regions of the world have ever encountered is coinciding with the growing demand for English on HE campuses by university management and other language policymakers around the world (Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019). According to Dafouz and Smit (2014), the interdisciplinary viewpoint that encompasses all of the social practices involved in a university should be adopted rather than using a limited, monolingual vision of English to describe university education internationally. Since English is the only language that is spoken in these environments, it has emerged as the language of communication in both academic and non-academic university discourse and has become the subject of intense debate. Using the linguistic features of one language to enhance the communicative potential of interaction in another is known as translanguaging (Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Canagarajah, 2011). Native English speakers are also said to be irrelevant to ELF communication because of their assumed lack of multilingualism, which makes them insensitive to the language needs of ELF students (Bowles & Murphy, 2020).

Regarding pragmatics, ELF research in EMI has demonstrated that multilingualism may be advantageous when providing one-to-one or small-group tutoring (Kaur, 2010), and ELF pragmatic techniques have proved effective in global situations (see, for example, Björkman, 2010). There is, however, still little concrete proof that adopting an ELF-oriented approach is a good match for the academic needs of EMI students, despite the communication benefits of ELF (Bowles & Murphy, 2020). Most importantly, there is uncertainty about the efficacy of teaching and learning via ELF (Bowles & Murphy, 2020). It will not function, for instance, in lectures for international classes where it is challenging to imagine how a map of mutual intelligibility might ever be developed in situations when there are up to twenty different first languages involved (Bowles & Murphy, 2020). The more linguistically diverse an EMI class is, the more consistent the lecturer's model of English may need to be for learning purposes—a coherent and unifying model for a heterogeneous and diversifying class (Bowles & Murphy, 2020). Therefore, the 'international university' presents one of the most intriguing places for studying topics relating to multilingual settings (Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019). The use of English as their common language, or lingua franca, has been the subject of several studies examining how international students and/or staff communicate, negotiate meaning, and come to shared understandings (e.g., Björkman, 2013; Jenkins, 2014; Mauranen, 2006, 2012). Studies on language regulation and policy in universities have also been conducted (e.g., Hynninen, 2016; Soler & Vihman, 2018). Even though the university is monolingual outside of its specific international programs, ELF encounters inherently involve multilingualism and take occur in multilingual settings (Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019).

Despite this, there are still certain universities that operate exclusively on a national level and use their local language(s) in place of English. This is also consistent with Mauranen's (2012) conceptualization of ELF communication as being composed of each speaker's L1-influenced English (their 'similect') and the influence on each other's language use when their various similects are in contact ('second order contact'), as well as the role played by the local, or 'host' language, which is rarely English (Jenkins, 2018). According to Baker (2016), this creates a linguacultural scenario that is especially complex in HE contexts, for which he suggests the term 'transcultural university'. Due to the relative proportion of NNESs to NESs, NNESs are typically the majority of participants in any given ELF interaction. Particularly in international HE, this condition is common. This is the area of English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings, to be more precise (Jenkins, 2018). The most important thing to remember when it comes to language implementation is that, for everyone who is studying something other than English through English (which includes the great majority of students in international HE), language is just a method of communication. On the one hand, the majority of English speakers in HE are NNESs who deploy accommodation skills to ensure mutual comprehension while using English (or, more precisely, ELF) in a broad variety of different ways. Also, the scope for multilingualism and translanguaging (e.g. Garca & Li, 2014) would greatly lessen the threat of domain loss of the local language if university management encouraged an ELF rather than a native English approach to EMI on their campuses (Jenkins, 2018). However, similar to the domain loss issue, ELF scholars contend that many of the EMI inequities would be quickly resolved if university managements were more aware of ELF and less preoccupied with promoting native-like English in their institutions (Jenkins, 2018).

2.2.4 Research on ELF in EMI

In what follows, I explore the development of research on EMI in higher education, ELF, ELF in EMI, and the most frequent research topics. A rapid rise in EMI activity in HE has been accompanied by an expansion of related research publications. Wilkinson (2017) mentions a Google Scholar search he had done over six years on EMI in HE in this regard. His search turned up 550 books and articles; interestingly, the total only climbed by 50 when he extended his search to ten years as opposed to six (Jenkins, 2018). Through the

ERASMUS project, EMI research has received recognition in Europe (Björkman, 2016; Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012; Coleman, 2006, Cots, Llurda & Garrett, 2014; Dafouz & Smit, 2016; Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2013; Jenkins, 2014; Kuteeva & Airey, 2014; Smit, 2010). However, Wilkinson notes that a significant portion of this rise in EMI research interest is related to East and Southeast Asia, particularly China, Japan, Malaysia, and South Korea. Therefore, it appears that EMI, which began as a European project as a result of the Erasmus program and was later strengthened by the Bologna Declaration (Murata & Iino, 2018), has grown significantly outside of its original European context (Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019). Some broad reviews have been conducted on EMI which provide a holistic view of its research development (e.g., Bowles & Murphy, 2020; Galloway, 2020; Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019; Murata, 2019; Macaro, 2018; Doiz et al., 2013). EMI has also gained popularity among other researchers (e.g., Hultgren, 2014; Macaro, 2018; Fenton-Smith et al., 2017; Wächter & Maiworm, 2014; Dafouz & Guerrini, 2009).

Regarding the research on ELF, one should consider that in many regions of the world, English has been used as a lingua franca for centuries, but since the second half of the 20th century, its use has increased exponentially, and empirical research into it just started in the 1990s (Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019). Since then, it has broadened its scope to include an increasing number of areas, with business and higher education taking precedence. Regarding the connection between ELF and business, Business ELF, or BELF, has been the subject of a vast corpus of research. Higher education, however, was the first to be studied and is still the most popular ELF domain (Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019). After, Mauranen created her corpus of ELF in Academic Settings, or ELFA (see Mauranen, 2003), the publication of the Journal of English as a Lingua Franca is a sign that, after a decade of active development and serious debate, the study of English used as a lingua franca has become a recognized area of research (Mortensen, 2013). This is an essential development because the use of English as a lingua franca poses new challenges for theoretical and applied linguistics, and as such, calls for specialized research (Mortensen, 2013).

For several years, ELF researchers have made clear connections between EMI and ELF. English as a Lingua Franca research is a more recent topic that partially overlaps with EMI because of the academic and international nature of EMI classrooms (Murata, 2019). As was already mentioned, Mauranen (2003) was the first ELF scholar to interact with academic ELF, though not precisely with EMI. Several other ELF academics, including Jenkins (2008), started presenting conference papers on a variety of language policy issues pertaining to foreign universities in the years that followed (Jenkins, 2018). Then came Kirkpatrick's (2010) examination of suitable English language models in ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) education policy and pedagogy and Smit’s (2010) book-length longitudinal study of ELF in a university EMI tourism program in Vienna. The following significant contribution was made by Mauranen (2012), who conducted a thorough analysis of academic ELF using her ELFA Corpus and provided extensive evidence of how English is typically used in international university settings by students and staff from various linguistic backgrounds. Another linguistic analysis of ELF in an EMI environment was conducted in Sweden afterward by Björkman (2013). She gives examples of how communicative efficacy in ELF communication in HE is achieved by focusing on form and pragmatic issues. Two other book-length analyses of ELF in HE contexts appeared a year later: Initially, Kalocsai (2014), a study of the social behaviors of a group of Erasmus students from various first languages in a context of an EMI university in Hungary; Secondly, there is Jenkins’ book (2014), which examines ELF in international universities from the standpoint of a strict language policy. The number of doctorate theses on ELF in EMI settings has steadily increased since then, and there has also been a continuous flow of uncritical EMI-related papers that ignore the importance of ELF (and occasionally any linguistic concerns) entirely (Murata, 2019). A particularly noteworthy aspect of many of the more recent ELF-oriented EMI publications is that they concentrate on Asian EMI contexts rather than the more common European settings of most of the earlier EMI research (Murata, 2019). Examples include Galloway et al. (2017), several contributions to Fenton-Smith et al. (2017), and several doctoral studies like Hu (2015), Ishikawa (2016), Karakas (2016), Cavanagh (2017), and Ra (2018).

Among the most common research topics in the above-mentioned areas, one of the main topics of study for ELF scholars is how English is employed as a lingua franca in academic settings (Mauranen, 2012) since more and more universities offer English-medium instruction to attract students from around the globe (Murata, 2018). With the current acceleration of globalization, EMI has spread dramatically. This trend is particularly prominent in European countries, where staff and student mobility is very considerable (Björkman, 2016; Jenkins, 2014; Kuteeva, 2016; Mauranen, 2012; Murata, 2016a; Murata, Iino 2018; Smit, 2010). According to Murata (2018), some researchers concentrate more on language policies and attitudinal factors in EMI settings in HE

(Björkman, 2016; Jenkins, 2014; Kuteeva, 2016; Mauranen; Murata, 2016; Murata & Iino, 2018; Smit, 2010) whereas others examine the features of English as a lingua franca in academic contexts (ELFA) from grammatical, lexical, and discoursal perspectives (Jenkins, 2014; Mauranen, 2012, 2016).

Since ELF is a relatively new area of study, the majority of past and present research on the topic has focused on either the in-depth description of ELF features seen during interactions in different contexts (see Ehrenreich, 2009, 2011, 2012; Firth, 1996; House, 2009, 2016; Jenkins, 2000; Kaur, 2009, 2011a, 2011b, Mauranen, 2006, 2012, 2016; Seidlhofer, 2011; Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 2009, among many others) or investigations of the identities and attitudes that underlie the use of ELF (Jenkins, 2007, 2014; Galloway, 2011; Karakaş, 2015; Takino, 2015; Wang, 2015) in addition to its conceptualization (Jenkins, 2015; Mauranen, 2012; Seidlhofer, 2001, 2004, 2011, 2016; Widdowson, 2016) and several studies have looked at ELF as a multiligual phenomenon among which I can refer to two main books on the 'multilingual turn' to ELF in higher education: *Exploring ELF: Academic English shaped by non-native speakers* (Mauranen, 2012) and *English as a lingua franca in the international university: The politics of academic English language policy* (Jenkins, 2014).

Having discussed the research development on ELF in EMI, it should still be considered that one problem with EMI is that its provision is exceeding its research (Aizawa & McKinley, 2020) and there are areas of EMI that require more research and attention. One of these research areas in EMI is the stakeholders' necessary degree of language proficiency which is currently lacking. The relationship between ELF interaction and learning processes has also received very little attention in the literature on ELF. Bowles and Murphy (2020) raise the following questions: Is ELF the best way to accomplish this goal if the goal of higher education is for students to acquire specialized knowledge? Does using a lingua franca affect our ability to learn if it is assumed that ELF will always be the primary means of communication in EMI? Is it inevitable that EMI courses would become 'dumbed down' as a result of ELF interaction's inability to reach the linguistic sophistication required for students to learn novel and intricate concepts? How does this additional cognitive burden affect the quality of EMI students' learning if working in English as a second or third language is 'so much tougher' (Jenkins, 2019) for them? The connection between subject learning and discourse must be examined, in general, to respond to these problems.

2.2.5 Concluding remarks

In the previous chapter, I discussed the internationalization of higher education and its two main pillars internationalization abroad and internationalization at home, and subsequently internationalization of the curriculum as a sub-category of the internationalization at home movement. In this chapter, I examined the relationship between English-medium instruction and the internationalization of higher education, turning to EMI programs as one of the means to facilitate this process while paying close attention to the function of English and English as a lingua franca ELF in EMI programs. Following this discussion, the next chapter will zoom in on students as the main stakeholders and receivers of EMI programs and explore their identity as ELF users to provide more background for this study.

CHAPTER 3
Identity

To internationalize the higher education, EMI programs have been implemented and English appears as the academic language to serve this purpose. This third theoretical chapter revolves around the concept of learner's language identity which is connected to the socio-symbolic function of academic language, and the focus is on students' identity as English as lingua franca users specifically. Accordingly, the development of the concept of identity is initially discussed and the related research on ELF in EMI are highlighted.

3.1 Conceptual development of identity

In this section and before moving on to the issue of the relationship between language and identity, I present a brief and selective history of some of the strands of thought that led to the rise of identity as an important construct in the psychology and the social sciences in general, and in applied linguistics in particular. An elaboration on the complex term of identity, the strands of research on this concept and its various definitions and types is crucial to further clarification of the topic. In this section, the review of literature on identity research has been mainly adapted from a book recently written by David Block entitled *Innovations and challenges in identity research* (2022). In his book, David Block examined the established and emergent issues within identity research and provided an overview of the research path all along from psychology and the social sciences to applied linguistics.

3.1.1 In psychology

According to David Block (2022), two founders of modern psychology, William James and Sigmund Freud referred to identity merely in words and not as a key construct. William James (1890) focused on self and stated that "a man's self is the sum total of all that he can call his, not only his body and his physical powers, but his clothes, and his house, his wife and children, his ancestors and friends, his reputation and works, his lands and horses, and yacht and bank account" (: 291). On the other hand, Sigmund Freud

(1923) revolutionized understandings of the self by situating its development at the crossroads of the id “the unconscious inner world of emotions and instinct”, the ego “derived from the id, but the socially shaped organizer and repressor of it” and the super-ego “the internalization of cultural rules and parental guidance”. It can be observed that in both cases, the two psychologists refer to identity as self or ego.

3.1.2 In sociology

There are different approaches to the study of identity in social sciences: biological determinism, social structuralist, essentialist and poststructuralist (Block, 2007). According to the biological determinism, individuals are made of their genes which means basic physical characteristics, such as skin color, biological sex, facial features, body size and so on, which make them different from others (Baron-Cohen, 2003). Therefore, according to biological determinists like Simon Baron-Cohen (2003), both the traits and behavior of humans originate from their genes.

A social structuralist approach to identity involves the search for universal laws or rules of human behavior (Block, 2007). This perspective on identity emerged in sociology, functionalism and anthropology in the studies by Emile Durkheim’s (1895–1964), Talcott Parsons (1937) and Claude Levi–Strauss (1972), subsequently. The self is seen as the product of the social conditions in and under which it has developed. This has meant that individuals are determined by their membership in social categories based on social class, religion, education, family, peer groups and so on (Block, 2007). Additionally, it has meant that they are formed and created by their ‘culture’, which is thought to be a relatively fixed worldview, behavioral norms, and artifacts of a specific group of individuals (Block, 2007). This view is an environmental argument which believes that identity is formed by the environment.

The biological determinism and social structuralist approach have something in common and that is they both focus on the belief that individuals are shaped and formed (David, 2007). Both approaches to identity that emphasize biological determinism and social structuralism are forms of essentialism which is defined by Mary Bucholtz (2003) as:

> the position that the attributes and behavior of socially defined groups can be determined and explained by reference to cultural and/or biological characteristics believed to be inherent to the group. As an ideology, essentialism rests on two assumptions: (1) that groups can be clearly delimited; and (2) that group members are more or less alike (: 400).

The essentialist view, which holds that a person's biology or environment determines who they are, has been criticized recently by a number of social theorists (Block, 2007). These theorists have been influenced by a broader approach to identity which was known as poststructuralism. This approach has been an ambiguous term and has been defined differently. According to Smart (1999), poststructuralists exhibit a variety of issues, including:

> (i) the crisis of representation and associated instability of meaning; (ii) the absence of secure foundations for knowledge; (iii) the analytic centrality of language, discourses and texts; and (iv) the inappropriateness of the Enlightenment assumption of the rational autonomous subject and a counter, contrasting concentration on the ways in which individuals are constituted as subjects (: 38).

To provide a timeline of the development of social science research on identity, an overview is initially presented. According to Block (2022), from the 1950s onwards, the term identity also known as self, self-identity, social self, subject position and subjectivity became central to debates in social sciences and humanities (Gleason, 1983). During the subsequent three decades and until 1980s there was no discussion on identity and its various types (Marie Moran, 2015), and it was from 1980s onwards that identity became a frequently used construct in social sciences and humanities.

Although the above-mentioned psychologists mentioned the term self, and it was sometimes used as a synonym of identity, it only referred to individual inner being in contrast with social being. In 1968, Erik Erikson a social scientist in his monograph 'identity, youth and crisis' which was about the study of the development of personality and identity over the life span, was a turning point in paying attention to identity across the social sciences so he reached beyond psychology to the social realm, and he focused both on the inner and outer realms of human existence (Block, 2022).

Since identity is not a concept in vacuum, attention was drawn to some external factors that could influence it such as globalization. At the end of the 20th century, Anthony Giddens (2000) wrote about globalization as a process that was associated with a diverse range of processes that rapidly extended interconnectedness of economic, social, and cultural relations and from the 1980s to 2000s, globalization gave rise to social and cultural diversity and as a result, mobility increased (Block, 2022). From 1990s, there was a great literature reflecting such changes which focused on transnationalism and transmigrants and ever since immigration research began to develop (e.g., Basch et al., 1994; Faist, 2000; Papstergiadis, 2000).

Gidden's work (1991) was groundbreaking since he was the one who is best known for bringing self and identity together although few scholars had basically formulated this perspective earlier (e.g., Gergen, 1991; Lasch, 1984; Rose, 1990). Gidden created a sociology that was focused on the social transformations occurring from the 1960s onward, covering in depth important aspects of self-identity such as lifestyle, relationships, self-help/therapy culture, and consumerism. Moreover, he developed research in cultural studies, social theory sociology, psychology, and anthropology (Block, 2022). He defined self-identity as "not something that is just given, as a result of the continuities of the individuals' action-system, but something that has to be routinely created and sustained in the reflexive activities of individuals" (: 52). The notion that identities are constantly created and reconstructed through reflexive behavior has outcomes. Scott Lasch (1984) argued that identities come to be viewed "as existential options that can be adopted and discarded like a change of costume" (: 38). Elsewhere, Kenneth Gergen (1991) described the individual as "a social chameleon, constantly borrowing bits and pieces of identity from whatever sources are available and constructing them as useful or desirable in a given situation" (: 150). According to Gordon Mathews (2000), "our choices in home decor, in food and clothing, in what we read, watch, and listen to in music, art, and popular culture, in our religious belief, and in ethnic and national identity itself define us" (: 21).

Giddens (1991) defined self-identity as "a reflexive project, for which the individual is responsible and as reflexive beings, we are, not what we are, but what we make of ourselves" (: 75). Giddens elaborated on how people make themselves as a "trajectory of development from the past to the anticipated future", which implies "a cognitive awareness of the various phases of the lifespan" (: 75). This points to self-identity as an ongoing narrative. Narrative is described as the means through which "temporal experience is configured and given coherence and narrative structure and organizational features function as an organizing scheme of everyday experience and action" (Polkinghorne, 1991: 141). According to Beck (1992), this idea is similar to asking oneself ongoing questions about what is happening, what one is thinking, how one is feeling, and so on, the responses to which help one comprehend one's identity at a particular moment in time.

Later, Stuart Hall (1997) examined the multiracial and multicultural issues and defined identity as an evolving and fluid phenomenon which was contrary to the essentialist views of considering identity as a fixed and unified entity being confined to biological, psychological, historical, social, and cultural essence of a relevant group. He argued that:

> identities are about questions of using the resources of history, language, and culture in the process of becoming rather than being not 'who we are' or 'where we came from', so much as what we might become, how we have been represented and how that bears on how we might represent ourselves (Hall, 1996: 4).

Claire Kramsch (2009) writes that "identity refers to the identification with a social or cultural group, while subjectivity focuses on the ways in which the self is formed through the use of language and other symbolic systems, both intrapersonally and interpersonally" (: 20). Similarly, Benson et al. (2013) acknowledge that from a poststructuralist viewpoint, although people play a role in the development of identities, we see identities as socially conditioned and confined. Ultimately, identities are both social and personal. Identities are dynamic, multifaceted, and complex because they emerge over time in a variety of settings.

3.1.3 In applied linguistics

The poststructuralist approach to identity has been borrowed from the social sciences by applied linguists (Block, 2022). According to Block (2000), the 1980s was the time when the studies in second language acquisition were clearly recognized by the researchers and the first full-length textbooks on language learning appeared (e.g., Brown, 1980; Ellis, 1985; McLaughlin, 1987). Douglas Brown (1980) was the first figure who implicitly referred to the connection between language learning and identity when he stated:

> Becoming bilingual is a way of life. Every bone and fiber of your being is affected in some way as you struggle to reach beyond the confines of your first language and into a new language, a new culture, a new way of thinking, feeling, and acting. Total commitment, total involvement, and a total physical, intellectual, and emotional response are necessary to successfully send and receive messages in a second language (Brown, 1980: 1).

However, in his book entitled *Principles of language learning and teaching*, Brown (1980) explicitly states the word identity when he argues that: the study of second language learning as the acquisition of a second identity might pose a fruitful and important issue in understanding not only some differences between child and adult first and second language learning, but second language learning in general (Brown, 1980: 55).

Brown divided affective factors into two categories: egocentric and transactional. In his view, egocentric factors include the notions of self-esteem and inhibition and are related to “one’s view of self and its relevance to language learning” (Brown, 1980: 102). Transactional factors include empathy, extroversion and aggression and are related to “how the self is transacted to others” (Brown, 1980: 102-3). However, Brown’s discussion does not explain the impact of learning a new language on one’s sense of self rather it elaborates on affective factors related to successful language learning (Block, 2022). Furthermore, in another study Kathleen Bailey (1983) focuses on two other constructs of competitiveness and anxiety and Tom Scovel (1987) distinguishes between facilitating and debilitating anxiety and accordingly develops a model shown in figure 1.2 below. It is worth mentioning that in the three studies mentioned above, identity was framed as a fixed and measurable phenomenon and observed through a socio-psychological perspective (Block, 2022).

Regarding applied linguistics, in the mid-1990s Bonny Norton aroused interest in identity when she criticized second language learning (SLL) researchers for the absence of developing a theory of social identity and power as a vital construct in understanding second language learning processes (Norton-Pierce, 1995). Also, later the concept of identity was introduced by Alan Firth and Johannes Wagner in 1997 and in 2000, Norton expanded on this concept with more information in a book (Block, 2022). In several studies, an attempt to integrate this social concept with the psychological aspects of language learning is clearly evident (e.g., Atkinson, 2002; Block, 2003;

Watson-Gegeo, 2004; DeWaele, 2005; Zuengler and Miller, 2006). For more than 25 years, academics have been writing papers, volumes and monographs addressing the topic of language and identity since then (e.g., Omoniyi & White,2006; Pavlenko & Blackledge, 2004; Preece, 2016; Benwell & Stokoe, 2006; Block, 2007, Coulmas, 2019; Joseph, 2004; McNamara, 2019: McEnte-Atalianis, 2019; Norton,2013: Riley: 2007). In 1995, Norton drew on the work of social theorist Chris Weedon (1987) and the sociologist Pierre Bourdieu (1977) in her early attempt to develop a theory of social identity in SLL (Block, 2022).

3.2 Types and facets of identity

Race, ethnicity, nationality, migration, gender, social class, and language are the seven main viewpoints on identity that have been present in theories and research on identity to varied degrees (Block, 2007). In Table 3.1, adapted from the book entitled *Second Language Identities* by David Block (2007) the different perspectives on identity are summarized. It is worth mentioning that each identity stated in the table is about positionings made by others or "ascriptions from without" and "self-positionings or affiliations from within" and the listed types of identity are social and psychological in nature (Block, 2007: 42). Although Block (2007) listed them in the table separately, they are all in one person's identity.

Ascription/affiliation	Based on
Ethnic identity	shared history, descent, belief systems, practices, language, and religion, all associated with a cultural group
Racial identity	biological/genetic make-up, i.e., racial phenotype
National identity	shared history, descent, belief systems, practices, language, and religion associated with a nation state
Migrant identity	Ways of living in a new country, on a scale ranging from classic immigrant to transmigrant
Gender identity	nature of conformity to socially constructed notions of femininities and masculinities, as well as orientations to sexuality and sexual activity
Social Class identity	income level, occupation, education, and symbolic behavior
Language identity	relationship between one's sense of self and different means of communication, understood in terms of language, a dialect or sociolect, as well as multimodality.

Table 3.1 Individual/collective identity types (Block, 2007)

Moreover, there are other types of identity that are not included in the table above known as 'consumer identities' (du Gay, 1997) or 'commodified identities' (Benwell & Stokoe, 2006), 'religious identities' (e.g., Smith, 2003; Sardar, 2004; Fetzer & Soper, 2005; Modood, 2005), 'spatial and place identity' (Scollon & Scollon, 2003; Collins & Slembrouck, 2005; Benwell & Stokoe, 2006) and this chapter is not the place to discuss these identity types at length since they are not relevant to the linguistic identity as the core construct of the present study.

Identity can refer to a variety of facets of how we relate to ourselves and the outside world, including our 'inner' and 'outer' selves, our relationships with others, and our place in society (Benson et al., 2013). Consider, for instance, whether identity appropriately describes how people view themselves, how they present themselves to others, how they are viewed and represented by others, or how they are affected by external social pressures. Accordingly, a model of six interconnected facets of identity is discussed below.

Table 2.1 Facets of identity

Facet 1	Embodied identity	The self as a mobile point of perception located in a particular body
Facet 2	Reflexive identity	The self's view of the self, incorporating self-concept and attributes and capacities
Facet 3	Projected identity	The self as it is semiotically represented to others in interaction
Facet 4	Recognized identity	The self as it is preconceived and recognized by others in the course of interaction
Facet 5	Imagined identity	The self's view of its future possibilities
Facet 6	Identity categories and resources	The self as it is represented (by self or others) using established social categories and semiotic resources

Table 3.2 Facets of identity (Benson et al., 2013)

Table 3.2 shows that Facets 1, 2, and 3 correlate to Harré's (2001) three different conceptions of self (labeled Self 1, 2, and 3). According to Harré's Self 1, the self is conceptualized as a 'point of perception' and corresponds to 'embodied identity' (Facet 1). The concept of embodied identity acknowledges that the self is connected to a certain body and that it is thanks to this connection that we can identify persons as unique individuals who occupy particular bodies (Benson et al., 2013). However, it does not reveal much about who a person is. Self 1 is singular, invariant, and mobile in Harré's view since it is "always tied to where the body is in space and strictly contemporary" (: 61). The embodiment of identity is consequently unaffected directly by learning a second language, but the relocation of the embodied self that results from learning a second language may open up new opportunities for encountering people, places, and linguistic and cultural practices (Benson et al., 2013).

Self 2 and Self 3 in Harré's (2001) work are multiple and variable in comparison to Self 1. According to Harre (2001), Self 2 is what is referred to as 'reflexive identity', and it is the self's view of the self (Facet 2). It contains both our actual traits and our 'self-concept' (who we think we are). Because of this, the reflexive self is a tangled web of very various traits, such as images, feelings, and inner dialogues, but most are 'dispositional, including skills, capacities, and powers' (: 61). Therefore, reflexive identity for second language learners encompasses both the learner's conceptions of their second language skill and their actual ability to use the language in a variety of social contexts (Benson et al., 2013).

Harré's (2001) Self 3 refers to "the way that certain aspects of a person's actual or self-attributed Self 2 are manifested to others in the course of some life episode" (: 61) and relates to what we call 'projected identity' (Facet 3). This facet of identity in psychology focuses on how identities are constructed consciously. The difference between projected identity and reflexive identity is that while projected identity relates to public representations of the 'outer' self, reflexive identity refers to the 'inner' self. There is frequently a discrepancy between individuals' projected and reflexive identities as a result of the tendency for people to strategically try to hide who they perceive to be their 'real selves' (Benson et al., 2013). However, reflexive identity must in some way serve as a foundation for projected identities. Since identities must be projected through semiotic resources like look, gesture, attire, and, most importantly, words, language is key in this situation. Reflective and projected identity are closely linked to social interaction. Students must project their identities not only to unfamiliar individuals in unfamiliar settings, but also through the use of a second language and other semiotic forms that are culturally varied (Benson et al., 2013).

The opposite of projected identity is known as 'recognized identity' (Facet 4), and it describes how projected identities are understood and utilized by others (Benson et al., 2013). Blommaert (2006: 238) argues that this has to do with the identities that others 'ascribe or attribute' to us as opposed to those that we 'inhabit or achieve' (what Benson et al. (2013) would refer to as ‘reflexive’ and ‘projected’ identities). Projected identities are always projected to certain others in particular contexts and settings. Others project their own identities at the same time; thus, interaction may be seen of as a continuous exchange of identity-related signs and signals (Goffman, 1990). This is referred to by Goffman as a gap between the intentional and unintended expressions that a person gives off. Thus, projected identities may fall short of recognition, for instance, if they contradict what others already know about a person or feel they know about him or her (Benson et al., 2013). According to Tedeschi (1989), identity recognition affects reflexive identity as well because successful self-presentation strengthens one’s self-concept while unsuccessful self-presentation weakens it. The risk of projecting desired identities through a second language grows when studying abroad, and these risks are heightened by the difficulties of comprehending feedback given in the second language (Benson et al., 2013).

‘Imagined identity’ (Facet 5) is founded on the psychological theory of ‘possible selves’ or ‘the ideal selves’ “we would like to become and the selves we are afraid of becoming” (Markus & Nurius, 1986: 954). These possible selves “derive from representations of the self in the past and they include representations of the self in the future,” claim Markus and Nurius. When future ambitions, anxieties, and goals are interwoven into one's self-concept, they become issues of identity (Benson et al., 2013). In this regard, imagined identity is strongly related to reflexive identity. It might be viewed as an idea of who we might turn out to be that is layered over our conception of who we are right now. According to Benson et al. (2013), in second language learning studies, imagined identity has been integrated in two different ways: First, through research on ‘imagined communities’ which examines students’ membership in larger and/or far further target language communities through the imagination (Kanno & Norton, 2003),and in research on ‘ideal L2 self’ (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009), which has incorporated ‘self-discrepancy theory’ (Higgins, 1987) to create a theory of motivation that emphasizes learners’ orientations toward imagined target language communities (Ryan, 2006; Yashima, 2013). Imagined identities in study abroad are associated with goals and expectations and can be viewed as representations of what the student hopes to become or expects to become while participating in the program. While it is our presumption that students will work to project and gain recognition for identities that are consistent with their reflexive sense of self, we equally acknowledge that they may desire to be perceived as a different person when they use their second language.

Reflexive/imagined identity is the term we frequently use to describe the 'inner' part of identity that underlies and may be affected by the 'outer' aspect of identity negotiation in second language interaction.

Last but not least, I refer to the terminology that is used to discuss individual and social identity as 'identity categories and resources. According to poststructuralism, identities are never created from scratch but rather always draw on categories and resources that are culturally embedded (Benson et al., 2013). This is expressed by Markus and Nurius (1986: 954) in their statement that "the pool of possible selves derives from the categories made salient by the individual's particular sociocultural and historical context as well as from the models, images, and symbols provided by the media and by the individual's immediate social experiences". These include categories that identify professional, social, and family roles as well as categories that describe people in terms of gender, age, social class, nationality, and ethnicity. In the context of learning a second language, terms like 'native' and 'non-native speaker,' 'monolingual' and 'bilingual,' 'learner' and 'user' also take on a cultural significance. Studying abroad comes with its own set of roles, including that of the 'overseas' or 'international' student and the different 'visitors' and 'hosts' responsibilities. When we talk about identity resources, we mean the poststructuralist idea of identities as 'free-floating' or separate from culturally embedded categories (Benson et al., 2013). When viewed in this light, a second language can be used as a source of identity or, as Ros I Solé and Fenoulhet (2010: 11) put it, a 'luxury product'. The desire to gain cultural capital for a new aspirational lifestyle that will enable people to belong to various social and cultural groups may be the driving force behind learning a second language. In this sense, studying abroad might be a chance to use the linguistic and cultural resources of a new environment to temporarily 'try on' new identities.

3.3 Identity and language

If we adopt the stance that linguistic communities are frequently heterogeneous and contested rather than homogeneous and consensual, we must comprehend the role that power plays in connections between people, communities, and countries. This has a direct bearing on how we see the connection between identity and language (Norton, 2010). The value attached to speech, according to Bourdieu (1977), cannot be understood in isolation from the speaker, and the speaker cannot be understood in isolation from wider networks of social interactions. Every time we talk, we are rearranging our relationship to the broader social world and negotiating and renegotiating our sense of self in relation to it (Norton, 2010). Among other qualities, our gender, race, class, ethnicity, and sexual orientation are all involved in this identity negotiation (Norton, 2010). Theorizing identity, or what feminist poststructuralists refer to as subjectivity, which is derived from the term 'subject', has benefited greatly from the study of feminist poststructuralists like Weedon (1997). The term 'subject' is used because it constantly acts as a reminder that one is either the subject of a set of relationships (such as when in a position of power) or subject to a set of relationships (i.e., in a position of reduced power) (Norton, 2010). Language educators are particularly interested in three qualities of subjectivity: its multiple, non-unitary nature; its role as a site of conflict; and its changeability across time (Norton, 2010). From the viewpoint of a language educator, the idea that subjectivity is multifaceted, and dynamic is congruent with the idea that pedagogical approaches can have transforming effects. While some identity positions may restrict and limit learners' opportunities to speak, read, or write, other identity positions might provide greater opportunities for interpersonal communication and human agency (Norton, 2010). Theoretically, subjectivity and language are mutually constitutive according to poststructuralist theory (Norton, 2010). According to Weedon (1997), a person negotiates their sense of self through language within and across a variety of settings at various moments in time, and it is via language that a person is allowed access to — or barred access to — strong social networks that provide speakers the chance to engage in conversation (Norton, 2010). The primary objective of language educators and researchers is to investigate the social, historical, and cultural contexts in which language learning and teaching take place, as well as how students and teachers negotiate and occasionally resist the varied positions those contexts offer them (Norton, 2010). Thus, language is theorized as both a linguistic system and a social practice where experiences are structured, and identities are negotiated.

Wolf (2006: 17) makes the same claim as Benveniste (1966), stating that "language is the very foundation upon which the concept of 'self' is based". According to Kramsch (2009: 2), language constructs the accumulation of meanings that we name our 'selves' since language is both a code and a meaning-making system. In this sense, Heller and Morek (2015) identify three different functions of academic language: communicative, epistemic and socio symbolic. The communication function is the transmission of complex knowledge via specific linguistic structure, the epistemic function deals with the completion of complex cognitive operations or a tool for thinking and assumes that language, cognition and learning are interconnected and the socio-symbolic function of academic language which represents one of the main points of reflection in the present thesis is defined as "a complex of functions connected to questions of identity" (Heller & Morek, 2015: 178).

3.3.1 Language identity

In sociolinguistic and within a poststructuralist approach, language identity is called ethnolinguistic identity (Block, 2007). Block (2007) defines language identity "as the assumed and/or attributed relationship between one's sense of self and a means of communication which might be known as a language (e.g., English) a dialect (Geordie) or a sociolect (e.g., football-speak)" (: 40). Harris and Rampton (1997) note three kinds of relationship between language and identity: language expertise, language affiliation and language inheritance. Expertise is an individual's level of proficiency in a language. Affiliation is about the individual's attitudes towards and affective connection to a language. In essence, it refers to how much a person connects with and feels emotionally connected to a specific language. Finally, inheritance involves being born into a family or community that speaks a specific language or dialect (Rampton, 1990). Even if one may have inherited a language or dialect, they may not feel any affiliation to it or have expertise in it (Block, 2007). As Block (2007) points out, language identities can change significantly over time. So, it is possible to be born into one language community and subsequently develop a strong affiliation with and expertise in another language community.

In addition, Le Page and Tabouret-Keller (1985) used the term 'acts of identity' to describe how language identity is understood. According to these academics, all utterances serve as an indicator of the speaker's identity (Block, 2007). Additionally, unlike early sociolinguistic research that concentrated on correlations like accent-social class (e.g., Labov, 1966), this indexing process is multidimensional rather than just two dimensional, that is, utterances index ethnicity, nationality, social class, gender, and other dimensions of identity at the same time (Block, 2007).

One might also consider linguistic identity with reference to 'language' and 'speech' communities (Silverstein, 1998). Language communities are groups who adhere to a standard language while speech communities are the ones who agree with the "actual use of specific language forms" (Blommaert, 2006: 243). Thus, a person's language expertise, language affiliation, and language inheritance may be related to the orientations toward a standard form of language or to the same dispositions toward language in use (Block, 2007).

3.3.2 Second language identity

Gaining competency in a second language is frequently a long-term process that involves combining life experiences with language learning and use. Over the course of a person's career as a language learner, a second language identity can also form and the process of the learner changing into a new person starts with the act of beginning to study a second language, and it continues along with the growth of second language skills and knowledge (Benson, 2011). Adopting a post-structuralist viewpoint, it may be argued that identity is a continuous process and that experiences with second language learning have the potential to challenge the identities of second language learners (Benson et al., 2013). As in many other academic domains, identity has gained importance in language teaching and learning research. In his book *Second Language Identities,* Block (2007) presents a clear and thorough summary of this research. However, the notion of second language identity is not well-defined, and even Block's work does not provide a precise explanation of this concept (Benson et al., 2013). Benson et al. propose a working definition for this concept: "Second language identity refers to any aspect of a person's identity that is related to their knowledge and use of a second language" (2013: 17). However, since this definition does not specify what these aspects of identity are, Benson et al. (2013) do not consider it adequate and comprehensive. Nevertheless, they believe it is helpful in two different ways: Firstly, it implies that second language identities are integrated with, rather than separate from, people's personal or social identities. Secondly, it also implies that identities that have been impacted by learning a second language have a unique quality (Benson et al., 2013). This is where second language identity differs from what Block (2007: 40) refers to as 'language identity' or the "relationship between one's sense of self and a means of communication," which entails indexical ties to particular languages and language varieties as well as membership in particular language communities (Benson et al., 2013). This is, thus, a sociological theory that holds that a person's identity is, in part, determined by the languages and linguistic varieties they use and by their membership in the relevant language communities (Benson et al., 2013). The concept of 'second language identity' as Benson et al. (2013) define it encompasses more than just a person's connection to a specific second language. It refers more generally to the identities of speakers of many languages, which includes but differs slightly from their links to each of those languages (Benson et al., 2013). First and foremost, second language identity denotes bilingualism or multilingualism as well as a particular set of identity challenges that result from having widened the categories and resources available for identity work beyond those available to those who speak one language only (Benson et al., 2013). Benson et al. (2013) are specifically interested in the identity issues that surround various levels of second-language competence and performance, as well as the sense of being a 'learner' or 'user' of a second language, as well as the various identity terms (first, second, and foreign language speakers, language learner and user, native and nonnative speaker, etc.) that are used to describe multilingual people in different contexts. Benson et al. (2013) also differentiate language identity and second language identity and argue that second language identity reflects a more flexible, poststructuralist perspective of language affiliations (Leung, Harris and Rampton, 1997) in comparison to the sociological notion of language identity. A second language identity is more than just a second 'language identity'; rather, it is a component of a person's social and personal identity that results from the possibility that having knowledge of many languages entails (Benson et al., 2013).

Although Byram (1997) asserts that learning a second language inevitably affects one's identity, Block (2007) questions whether this necessarily entails the creation of new identities or what he refers to as "target language-mediated subject positions". Target language-mediated subject positions, according to Block, are fundamentally new personal identities that are enacted through a second language (Benson et al., 2013). When people cross geographical and societal borders, these become most obvious. Although learning a second language is not always necessary for crossing borders, when it is, it creates the added issue of the possibility of losing one's first language identities and the necessity to recreate them using the second language (Benson et al., 2013).

As a type of index for identity development in three major contexts—migration, the foreign language classroom, and study abroad—Block (2007) uses the emergence of target language-mediated subject positions. In his conclusion, he claims that while the chances of these new subject positions emerging in a foreign language learning classroom are 'minimal to non-existent', their emergence in the experience of migration is more likely to occur (: 109). Similarly, Pavlenko (2005: 9) argues that learning a language in a classroom only involves "mapping of new linguistic elements onto the pre-existing conceptual system", which does not result in significant transformation (for a contrary view, see Kramsch, 2009: 4). However, Block's views on studying abroad are more conservative, and he urges further investigation to fully unveil the potential of these opportunities as contexts rich with "new target language-mediated subject positions" (: 185). According to Block's research, learning a second language may not only cause the learner's identity to become unstable, but that learning a second language may also become problematic the more deeply students are involved in it (Benson et al., 2013). Benson et al. (2013) acknowledge that certain types of identity crises can result from learning a second language, but they do not believe that this is a prerequisite for the establishment of a second language identity.

According to Benson et al. (2013), numerous research that are interested in how study abroad affects participants' identities have been published (Alred & Byram, 2002; Chik & Benson, 2008; Coleman, 2007; Crawshaw, Callen & Tusting, 2001; Jackson, 2008; Kinginger, 2004; Larzén-Östermark, 2011; Patron, 2007; Pellegrino Aveni, 2005, 2007; Stewart, 2010). Kinginger (2009: 155) defines identity in study abroad as a matter of "what kinds of people learners take themselves to be and to become, and how they are welcomed and assisted, or not, in the social settings where they are involved". A similar viewpoint is taken by Pellegrino Aveni (2005: 7), who describes identity in study abroad as an "overarching experience of self-presentation in a second language and the maintenance of security (i.e., status, validation, safety, and control) in a second culture". Studying abroad often involves relocating embodied identities as well as challenging reflexive/imagined identities due to the pressure to be accepted in a foreign culture (Benson et al., 2013). The development of second language identity does not occur independently of language skill development (Benson et al., 2013). The educational benefits of studying abroad are numerous. According to Coleman (2001), these advantages fall under the categories of linguistic, cultural, personal, professional, academic, and intercultural outcomes. Identity development is another outcome that some researchers would add, or they would consider it as a catch-all category for advances falling under other headings (Benson et al., 2013). Benson et al. (2012) have created a model of probable outcomes as a framework for reviewing participant descriptions of their experiences with second language study abroad programs. As shown in Figure 3.1 with second language identity development taking up a large portion of the space between the two extremes, this model places outcomes along a continuum from second language proficiency to personal competence (Benson et al., 2013).

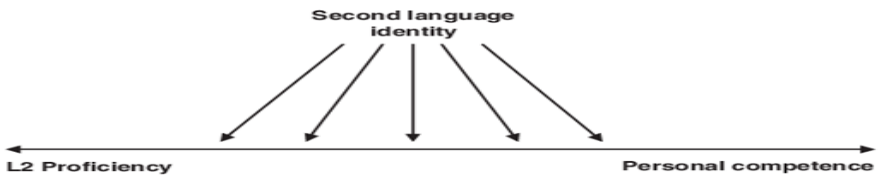


Figure 3.1 Potential outcomes of study abroad (Benson et al., 2012)

Figure 3.1 demonstrates that changes in personal competence and language proficiency may not be related to second language identity. However, Figure 3.2, which depicts the core part of the continuum, demonstrates that while personal competence outcomes can be read in terms of language development, language proficiency outcomes can frequently be interpreted in terms of identity development. The middle of the continuum contains the results that are transparently related to second language identity because they are focused on the participant's perception of themselves as language learners or users (Benson et al., 2013). As we move towards the endpoints of the continuum, we discover outcomes that are less obviously linked to identity, but they all entail the intersections of language and personal development. On the left side of the continuum, we are interested in language developments that affect students' ability to project identities, and on the right, we are interested in personal developments that result from language use in interaction (Benson et al., 2013).

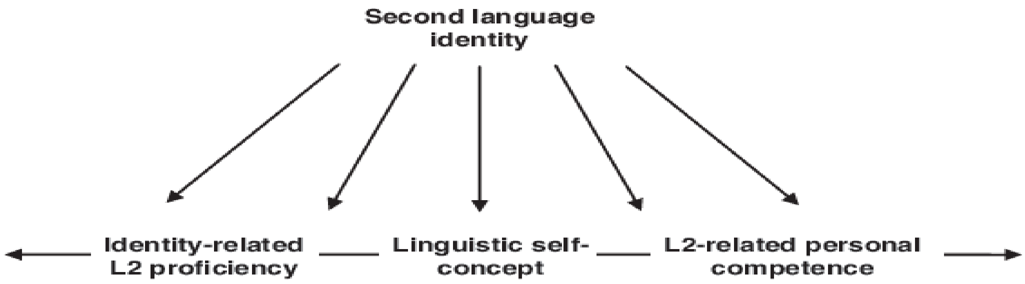


Figure 3.2 Potential second language outcomes of study abroad (Benson et al., 2012)

The three dimensions of this model of second language identity development by Benson et al. (2012) outlined in Figure 3.2 are discussed below: Identity-related second language competence, linguistic self-concept, and second language-mediated personal competence.

The first dimension of this model is identity-related second language competence, also known as socio-pragmatic competence and it involves the ability to project desired identities. The concept of socio - pragmatic competence was first suggested by Thomas (1983). Thomas claims that pragmatic competence is known as the capability to use language to achieve certain goals or to understand language in context. Recent definitions of socio-pragmatic competence include the "ability to accurately interpret and appropriately express social meaning in interaction" and the "ability to analyze the sociocultural dimensions of social interaction in order to select appropriate forms" (Holmes & Riddiford, 2011: 377). For students with low levels of second language proficiency who study abroad, their knowledge of second language their sense of self (Aveni, 2007). It can be more of a socio-pragmatic competence issue for more advanced students (Benson et al., 2013). The capacity to use a second language to achieve particular effects is frequently linked to the capacity to get things done in a study abroad context. The students' ability to project desired identities and win acceptance is correlated with their capacity to negotiate sociolinguistic norms, which in turn affects their capacity to make friends and develop fulfilling relationships with others (Benson et al., 2013). In this view, socio-pragmatic competence essentially entails the ability to represent oneself as a fully functional person in transactional and interpersonal situations while speaking a second language (Benson et al., 2013). Studying abroad is also likely to improve one's sociolinguistic competence. Shardakova (2005: 423) noted that students "develop their own interlanguage and an associated identity in the learning process" rather than "blindly copying the norms of native speakers." There are two ways in which socio-pragmatic competence and second language identity are linked: Firstly, it is an issue of being able to function as a competent person, perform things in a second language, and establish desired identities in a study abroad context. Secondly, it is essential to express individual second language identities that are in harmony with students' reflexive identities as well as the social norms of the study abroad context (Benson et al., 2013).

The second dimension of the model above is linguistic self-concept. Self-concept is a part of reflexive identity and reflexive identity is the phrase used to describe 'the self's view of the self' which is in line with what individuals frequently refer to as their real selves (Benson et al., 2013). The term linguistic self-concept is used to describe reflexive identity as it is concerned with the knowledge and use of a second language while discussing the development of second language identity (Benson et al., 2013). The same phrase is used by Ellis (2004: 543) to describe how students "perceive their abilities as language learners and their progress in connection to the specific setting in which they are learning". This phrase is also used by Mercer (2011: 336), who claims that 'language learner self-concept' refers to a comprehensive set of beliefs and feelings regarding the field of language learning in a variety of settings. Self-concept, according to Mercer, is concerned with “the self-beliefs that a learner maintains and brings with them into any encounter, not just in respect to one specific context”. Language proficiency and socio-pragmatic competence in this model substantially cover the component of reflexive identity (Benson et al., 2013). These give the student’s linguistic self-concept some support. This refers more to the student’s affiliations with the languages they are familiar with and their conceptions of their capabilities as they are expressed, for instance, in self-assessments of proficiency, goals, self-esteem, self-efficacy, self-confidence, willingness to communicate, communicative anxiety, motivation, language awareness and beliefs (Benson et al., 2013). The participants’ reflexive awareness of their identities as second language ‘learners’ or ‘users’ is likewise concerned with developments in linguistic self-concept. In some instances, the learner's orientation to the second language changes significantly while studying abroad. In several situations, once students overcame their initial resistance to engaging with the language and culture of the study abroad environment, their skill in the second language increased significantly (Bacon, 2002; Douglass, 2007; Stewart, 2010).

The third dimension of the model above is second language-mediated personal competence. Larzén-stermark (2011: 457) provides a comprehensive list of possible non-linguistic outcomes for second language learning, including improved intercultural sensitivity, improved tolerance and understanding of cultural differences, improved knowledge of the host culture’s intellectual life, and improved personal growth (independence, self-reliance, and decision-making skills). The question that needs to be addressed in this situation is whether these developments, when they are mediated by second language use, may be viewed as components of second language identity development (Benson et al., 2013). One strategy for answering this question is to break down the big topic of personal development into two smaller ones. In the first part, results like personal growth, self-confidence, maturity, independence, and global awareness are included. From the standpoint of developing a second language identity, these kinds of results are rather problematic because they could not be directly tied to exposure to the language and culture of the study abroad environment. When studying abroad is a student’s first time being away from home, although the challenges they have during their visit might not be language-based, they are capable of being resolved or greatly ameliorated by the use of language (Benson et al., 2013). Additionally, it relates to socio-pragmatic competence. Socio-pragmatic competence is implied by the capacity to solve problems in a second language and, as a result, by the capacity to grow as a person while studying abroad. Similarly, socio-pragmatic achievements are likely to boost students' self-efficacy and self-confidence as second language users, which may translate into better self-efficacy and self-confidence in other areas of the student's life while studying abroad (Benson et al., 2013). The second sub-area focuses mostly on intercultural competence development, which is defined as "the ability to interact effectively with people of cultures that we recognize as being different from our own" (Guilherme, 2000: 297). Study abroad participants' exposure to and observations on unfamiliar cultural practices and norms, rather than their experience using a foreign language, are what lead to the development of intercultural competence (Benson et al., 2013). Since participants' perception of themselves as culturally situated individuals develops through second language use, there is a clear connection between intercultural competence and second language identity (Benson et al., 2013).

3.4 Identity transitions in EMI: Multidimensional Model of Transition

Following the identification of second language identity in study abroad context as a potentially critical experience in second language identity development in the previous part, this section looks more closely at EMI contexts and the transitions in the identity of ELF users as the core focus of the current study.

A theoretical framework known as the Multidimensional Model of Transition (MMT) has been used to analyze and explain transitions in a variety of situations, including education, career development, and changes in personal life (Schlossberg, 1981; Schlossberg et al., 1995). According to the MMT, transitions involve changes in a variety of aspects, such as situation, self, social support, and strategies (Schlossberg et al., 1995).

The MMT's emphasis on the significance of contextual elements in determining transitions is one of its key features. According to Schlossberg (1981), situational elements can significantly affect a person's ability to adjust to a new scenario. These factors can include changes in the physical environment, social roles, or relationships. For instance, a student making the transition from high school to college can see considerable changes in both their immediate physical surroundings and their social responsibilities and relationships. Their capacity to adjust to the pressures of college life may be impacted by these contextual circumstances.

The term ‘self’ which refers to a person’s unique personal traits, values, and beliefs, is another crucial MMT component. According to Schlossberg et al. (1995), people are better able to successfully manage transitions when they have a strong sense of self and a clear grasp of their values and aspirations. An individual who values education and is driven to achieve in college, for instance, is more likely to be resilient and adaptable to the challenges of the shift.

A significant component of the MMT is social support, which is the assistance and resources a person receives from their social network. According to Schlossberg et al. (1995), people with significant social support networks have a higher chance of surviving transitions because they have access to emotional, informational, and practical help. For instance, a student who has a mentor or a family member who is encouraging may be better prepared to handle the difficulties of college life.

The MMT emphasizes the value of techniques in supporting smooth transitions in its final point. Strategies can include tactics for goal setting, problem-solving, and coping, in accordance with Schlossberg et al. (1995). Positive outcomes are more likely to occur for people who are able to recognize efficient solutions and put them to use in dealing with the demands of the shift.

The MMT offers a thorough framework for comprehending transitions in a variety of circumstances. In order to shape transitions and make it easier to adapt to new circumstances, the MMT places a strong emphasis on the role of situational elements, the self, social support, and tactics. Practitioners can create efficient interventions to support people through transitions and encourage positive outcomes by taking these factors into account.

Students enrolled in EMI programs must adjust to a new language, culture, and educational system, which can significantly alter their sense of who they are. These changes in identity are intricate and multifaceted, impacted by a person’s personal, cultural, and environmental circumstances. The earlier linguistic experiences of students are one aspect that may affect their identity shifts. The transition to EMI may be difficult for students whose first language is not English in terms of their sense of self. As individuals attempt to communicate in a foreign language, they could feel lost or confused and might feel anxious or inadequate (Choi & Lee, 2017).

Students’ cultural backgrounds can also have an impact on how they shift from one identity to another. A student’s sense of identity may be impacted by having to negotiate cultural differences and adapt to new cultural norms and expectations. They could feel disoriented as they attempt to balance the values of their own culture with those of the new environment (Zhang, 2016).

The educational environment that students are entering can also have an impact on their identity shifts. The instructional methods and academic standards used in EMI programs are frequently different from what students are used to. Due to the changing learning styles and success criteria that students must adapt to, these changes may have an effect on their sense of self and academic identity (Feng & Liu, 2018).

Additionally, social connections can be crucial in students' identity shifts. The necessity to establish new social networks and connections among students may have an impact on their feeling of identity and belonging. Due to linguistic or cultural barriers, they may also have disagreements or miscommunications with classmates or professors (Chen & Liu, 2020).

In situations where English is a foreign language, students' interactions with English as a lingua Academica (Phillipson, 2008) result in a variety of student experiences. The study of the nature of these experiences is the focus of this research in the discipline of EMI. Moving from one setting and set of interpersonal interactions to another is a continuous process called transition (Jindal-Snape, 2010). According to the theory of multiple and multi-dimensional transition (MMT), a person's life and experiences can be identified simultaneously across several domains (physical, cultural, psychological, and social). Each of these domains is complex in its own way (Jindal-Snape & Ingram, 2013; Jindal-Snape & Rienties, 2016). Any change in one domain ripples out to other domains, possibly causing other domains to likewise undergo change (Gordon et al., 2017).

In MMT theory, 'transition' does not refer to linear or sequential change (Gordon et al., 2020). According to MMT theory, transition is a dynamic, ongoing, and simultaneous process "of educational, social, and psychological adaptations due to changes in context, interpersonal relationships and identity, which can be both exciting and worrying" (Glazzard et al., 2020: 4). The student EMI experience can be seen as an educational and life transition when seen within the larger scheme of MMT. Students join EMI in order to achieve certain goals, so there is a positive element to the move into EMI at the beginning stage. A student is introduced to a new context and set of interpersonal relationships with others when entering the EMI setting (Jindal-Snape & Rienties, 2016). This entry into and transition through an EMI environment is a dynamic process of multiple student life domain adaptations and changes. These adjustments would influence one another, indicating that transitions are numerous and multifaceted (Jindal-Snape, 2012). These transitions can form at different levels of a student’s life. They can be academic, psychological, cognitive, emotional, and social transitions. In the following sub-sections, we discuss these transitions and the relevant studies on these transitions in detail.

3.4.1 Emotional transitions

The benefits and drawbacks of EMI for university students have been the subject of several research, including ones on language-related difficulties (Kamasak et al., 2021), linguistically accommodating teaching methods (Chang, 2021), and students’ coping mechanisms (Soruç & Griffiths, 2018). Studies have also examined how students use their multilingual repertoires to develop new linguistic conventions that meet their demands in terms of communication, academics, and social interaction (Kuteeva, 2020). However, only a small number of studies (Al Khalili, 2021; Chun et al., 2017; Chou, 2018; Thompson et al., 2022; Turhan & Krkgöz, 2018) have examined the affective components of EMI learning for students. According to a poststructuralist perspective, emotions are discursively constructed in accordance with the sociocultural framework that learners are embedded in (De Costa et al., 2020). Emotions vary depending on a person’s personality, social expectations, and the balance of power in a given situation (Benesch, 2019; Song, 2016). This implies that in a learning environment, students’ emotional experiences vary depending on their personal histories, cultural identities, and social context (Sahan & ¸Sahan, 2023). This understanding of emotions is different from cognitive approaches, which consider emotions to be mental constructs that may be classified as positive or negative (Resnik & Dewaele, 2020). Language teachers, notably EMI teachers in higher education, have typically been the subject of research in applied linguistics theorizing emotions from a post-structuralist viewpoint (Yuan, 2021, Benesch, 2017; De Costa et al., 2020; Her & De Costa, 2022; Hofstadler et al., 2020; Nazari & Karimpour, 2022; Song, 2016; Yuan & Lee, 2016). De Costa et al. (2020) used emotions as a lens through which to study the professional difficulties that two English instructors in Nepal encountered in EMI. Song (2016) investigated teachers’ feelings while interacting with students who had just returned from a study abroad, illuminating the role that emotions play in language teachers’ identity construction and instructional strategies. Together, these studies also demonstrate the intimate relationship between identity and emotion (Sahan & ¸Sahan, 2023). Few studies have been done on the emotions of EMI students (Sahan & ¸Sahan, 2023), despite the fact that research has shown that students experience stronger emotions (such as excitement and anxiety) in foreign language lessons compared to L1 sessions (Resnik & Dewaele, 2020).

3.4.2 Cognitive transitions

Students' beliefs, including intercultural belief transitions and self-belief, can be significantly impacted by English as a medium of instruction. Self-belief is a student's confidence that they can learn and function well in an EMI environment, whereas intercultural belief transformations are shifts in attitudes toward other cultures and ways of thinking. In many ways, EMI might affect students' self-belief. Markus and Wurf (1987) looked at the function of self-beliefs in identity formation in one of their studies. They discovered that a person's identity is significantly shaped by their self-beliefs, or notions about who they are and what they stand for. Over time, these beliefs can have a substantial impact on a person's behavior and self-image since they can be persistent and resistant to change. For instance, linguistic obstacles and a challenge comprehending the course material may result in lower levels of self-confidence in students who are not skilled in English (Chen & Chen, 2019). However, exposure to EMI can also boost self-confidence by giving students chances to develop their language abilities and participate in academic discourse in English (Zhang & Zhang, 2019). The notion of social support is another element that may have an impact on self-belief in EMI. Teachers, peers, and family are just a few examples of the many people who can provide social support. According to Guo and Wang (2020), students who feel higher levels of social support may have more confidence in their capacity to perform in an EMI environment. Self-efficacy, or a student's confidence in the ability to do a given task, is also mediated by EMI. By giving students the chance to develop their language abilities and participate in academic discourse in English, EMI can have an impact on self-efficacy (Zhang & Zhang, 2019).

By exposing students to various cultures and thought processes, EMI can also have an impact on their intercultural belief shifts. Changes in attitudes toward other cultures and a greater respect for variety may result through exposure to various viewpoints and ideas (Wang, 2020). The effect of EMI on intercultural belief transitions, however, can vary depending on several variables, including the cultural backgrounds of the students and the EMI-specific teaching strategies (Zhang & Hu, 2020). Perspective-taking, or the capacity to comprehend and adopt the viewpoint of others, is another factor that contributes to intercultural belief shifts. By exposing students to a variety of viewpoints and ideas, EMI can encourage perspective-taking, resulting in more complex and informed opinions about different cultures (Wang, 2020).

3.4.3 Social transitions

Transitions in social relationships can occur in EMI in a variety of ways. The formation of new connections and networks is one sort of social relationship transformation. Students have the chance to interact with people from various cultural backgrounds and strengthen new relationships thanks to EMI (Wang & Li, 2020). The necessity for students to manage cultural differences and communication limitations, however, can provide difficulties (Liu & Huang, 2021).

The emergence of a sense of belonging in the new academic and social context is a different sort of social relationship shift. It is possible for EMI students to have to adjust to new academic and social norms, which may affect how they feel about themselves and where they fit in (Xie & Guo, 2021). Additionally, students could go through homesickness and cultural shock, which can have an impact on their mental health and social interactions (Wang & Li, 2020).

Transitions in social relationships in EMI can be both challenging and advantageous for students. On the one hand, it may be challenging for students to form new friendships and fit into the social and academic culture of the EMI class due to cultural differences and communication hurdles. Additionally, they could feel lonely and isolated from others, which can have an adverse effect on their emotional well-being and academic progress (Liu & Huang, 2021).

On the other side, social relationship changes in EMI might also present chances for academic and personal development. Students might increase their social networks, learn how to communicate across cultural boundaries, and comprehend other cultures better. Through immersion in an English-speaking setting, they may also enhance their language abilities and academic achievement (Xie & Guo, 2021).

Transitions in social relationships in EMI can be mediated by a number of different ways. The ability to communicate effectively and adjust to new social and academic situations can be facilitated by language proficiency, cross-cultural competence, and social support (Wang & Li, 2020). Peer mentoring initiatives and other types of social support can also give students the chance to forge new connections and get advice and assistance from peers and mentors (Liu & Huang, 2021).

3.5 Concluding remarks

This chapter was devoted to the review of literature on different identity types and models of identity in different contexts including the foreign and local EMI contexts with the major focus on language identity and explored transitions in student's identity in EMI contexts, specifically. In the next chapter, the research design and the methodology will be discussed.

CHAPTER 4
Research methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the philosophical and methodological decisions that underpin the research framework of the study and explains and justifies the research design. Then the research questions are reviewed, and the research methods are explained and justified. This is followed by a description of the setting of the study, and sampling procedures before addressing the data collection procedures and analysis. Finally, the steps taken to ensure the ethical considerations of the research are presented before the challenges and limitations of the study are outlined.

4.2 Research design: Mixed methods

In this section, the research paradigms upon which the research design of the current study is based are justified before addressing the research questions and methodology. Any research work is built on a philosophical framework known as a research paradigm. It offers a set of presumptions and understandings around which the theories and research study methods may be built. Research philosophy is comprised of epistemology and ontology and research methodology and research philosophy combine to form a research paradigm. The approach and methods chosen for educational research are significantly influenced by the researcher's philosophical presumptions about ontology (the nature of reality and social reality) or what reality is and epistemology (the nature of knowledge) or how we can know reality (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Creswell, 2009). Which research paradigm should be chosen is a debated issue. The three primary categories of educational research methodologies are positivist, interpretive, and critical. These methodologies are sometimes known as worldviews (Creswell, 2009) or paradigms (Grix, 2010; Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

According to positivists, there is just one concrete reality that can be understood, identified and measured and positivism is, therefore; less likely to produce biased results since only 'factual' information can be relied upon (Crowther & Lancaster, 2008). The researcher's responsibility in positivist studies is restricted to the collection and objective analysis of data. As a result, they are most likely to use quantitative methods as their foundation for their research and research needs to be objectively measurable with the five senses (Hammersley, 2013). Positivism frequently presents a hypothesis that can be confirmed or refuted using statistical data analysis, and it aims to determine whether there is a relationship between two variables rather than concentrating on what causes it (Cohen, Manion & Marison, 2011). This paradigm bases interpretations on a collective understanding of social context. Positivists have the same criteria for studying natural science and social science (Crotty, 1998). Additionally, controlled experiments, closed surveys, and structured interviews are preferred by positivists since they lead to more concrete methods of data collection (Cohen, 2007) and their results are generalized to the vast majority of population (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

The constructivists or interpretive researchers may adopt an inter-subjective epistemology and the ontological view that reality is socially constructed because they think that reality is made up of people's subjective views of the outside world (Creswell, 2007; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). They argue that there are many realities rather than just one truth or reality which have been constructed through conscious interaction between individuals and the world (Crotty, 2003; Grix, 2010). The ultimate aim in this paradigm is to understand a phenomenon in a particular social context. Constructivists spend their time figuring out and evaluating the meaning of an action (Mack, 2010). Richards (2003: 38) argues that "The fundamental tenet of this position is that reality is socially constructed". Interpretivism holds the subjectivist epistemological position. Truth and knowledge are constructed, not discovered. The researcher must interact with the participants in a certain situation to understand their perspectives in order to investigate the social world (Richards, 2003). Constructivists commonly use qualitative research methods, such as case studies and interviews, that emphasize providing several points of view (Taylor, 2008). Constructivism, also known as interpretive paradigm, seeks to answer the question 'why' instead of focusing just on the relationship between two variables (Riyami, 2015). They make an effort to comprehend a phenomenon by interpreting the study's component parts and context is their obsession.

The critical paradigm contrasts with the positivist viewpoint in that it is neither set or stable and has been shaped by social, historical, cultural, political, and economic forces. Critical researchers believe that power structures in society have an impact on knowledge as well as how it is socially constructed (Taylor & Medina, 2013). The critical paradigm's key themes are power, inequality, and social change (Calhoun, Gerteis, Moody, Pfaff, & Virk, 2007). According to the critical paradigm, it is impossible for social science to be completely unbiased or value-free s (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). In addition to researching power inequalities, the critical paradigm works to alleviate them (Taylor & Medina, 2013).

In the current study, I follow a combination of an interpretive and an embedded critical paradigm and do not build my research methodology upon a positivist or scientific paradigm since the main themes of internationalization at home and students' identity in this study cannot be considered single and concrete realities by nature and therefore, they cannot be objectively measured based on a positivist paradigm.

On the other hand, what requires further explanations is the logic behind adopting an interpretive paradigm and a critical paradigm respectively. The present study aims to understand students' perspectives on internationalization at home (IaH) and the English-medium instruction (EMI) programs specifically regarding the use of English as a lingua franca (ELF) and critically examine how this academic context has affected their identities as ELF users. This study's ontological premise is that reality is socially constructed and influenced by societal power structures and their policies. There are several realities on how IaH and EMI affect students' academic experiences rather than a single reality. The experience of learning through English at higher education is something that all students share in EMI settings, yet their conceptions and interpretations of reality and how they choose to perceive it are not the same. Finding these many realities and meanings that the participants have created based on their personal experiences in a given context is one of the goals of this research. It is only from the perspectives of the individuals and their own experiences that the social world be comprehended, and it cannot be analyzed objectively from the outside (Cohen et al., 2011). As stated earlier in this section, instead of being discovered, knowledge is constructed through an individual's interactions within a particular context and in the current study this context is the EMI setting. This shows that subjectivism serves as the study's guiding epistemological attitude. Consequently, it appears that the interpretive paradigm is applicable for this investigation.

Regarding the critical paradigm, I hereby argue that this paradigm does not directly serve as the basis for my research design but since the student's experiences in IaH and EMI contexts do not exist in a vacuum they are indirectly affected by higher education policies and power relations and these policies can implicitly influence student's attitudes. Therefore, it is not sufficient to interpret and comprehend the students' attitudes and impressions about EMI regardless the higher education policies and in turn higher education language policies are inextricably linked to matters of hegemony, ideology, and power relations. Consequently, it is crucial to consider the power structures that influenced participants' impressions of the language policies (Fairclough, 1989). Despite this, the critical approach has not been used as the primary paradigm of the framework of the present study since government officials, not students, often decide on language issues within an internationalized curriculum. In conclusion, the interpretative paradigm used in the current investigation embraces the critical paradigm.

Having discussed the paradigmatic position of this study and its justifications, I turn to the research objectives at this point. The following two research aims will be addressed in this study in accordance with the research framework I discussed earlier in this section:

1. Do UNIBO Italian students have positive or negative experiences with using English within their EMI program?

2. Do these attitudes affect their language identity as users of English as a lingua franca (ELF)?

With an aim to develop the research objectives and investigate the issue of IaH, I considered three levels: macro, meso and micro levels. At the macro institutional level, the purpose was to investigate UNIBO Italian students' positive, negative or neutral perspectives on the practices of internationalization at home at UNIBO in general and at the meso classroom level, UNIBO Italian students' perspectives of EMI programs within an internationalized curriculum, in an EMI classroom were addressed in terms of their attitudes towards several contextual factors including the use of English, their interactions with international students studying English materials and textbooks, being instructed by English-speaking professors and etc. (all of which will be discussed in instrument development section). At the micro level, I narrowed down the topic to the local students' identity as ELF users to explore whether these students' positive or negative experiences of using English within an EMI program have affected their language identity as users of English as a lingua franca; an area that has been rarely addressed in the literature. Finally, to provide feedback on IaH and EMI to reflect on conditions of EMI programs at UNIBO.

Regarding the research methodology of this study along with its justifications, a critical exploratory methodology was adopted with a mixed methods approach of data collection and data analysis. The research objective of the study, which strives to investigate the varied viewpoints of students in a particular educational setting regarding their experiences in EMI programs, is reflected in the selection of a critical exploratory technique. In addition, a mixed methods approach which is defined as

> .. the type of research in which a researcher or team of researchers combine elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration (Burke Johnson et al., 2007: 123).

would enable the triangulation of the methods to improve the reliability and consistency of the data, with each method coming before and informing the design of the others (Grbich, 2010; Richards, 2003). Using a mixed methods approach is justified because we can conduct an in-depth investigation if we combine the strength of both methods focused on quantitative and qualitative data, while simultaneously compensating for the weaknesses of each method (Creswell, 2002). The strength of qualitative data rests in its focus on meaning and in-depth analysis of smaller samples, whereas quantitative data delivers the strength of identifying general trends embraced by a wide and representative sample of the population (Punch & Oancea, 2014).

Explanatory designs are thought of as two-stage processes whereby qualitative data is built and explained using quantitative data as the foundation. The qualitative data selection process is informed by the quantitative data, which is a significant strength since it enables researchers to precisely identify the data that are pertinent to a particular research project (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). In the current study, an online survey with both closed and open-ended questions is used. The closed-ended questions collect quantitative data, and the open-ended questions are used for qualitative data collection. As for the second qualitative phase of the study, I conducted semi-structured interviews which were based on the previous phase. A mixed methods design has therefore been adopted to achieve the goal of gaining a thorough grasp of the phenomenon under study. In the section on the research instruments, I further clarify and justify why I chose the above-mentioned instruments for data collection in detail.

4.3 Research setting

The significance of choosing the context of the study is revealed in an argument made by Doiz, Lasagabaster, and Sierra (2013) stating that:

> Every context has its own characteristics and, therefore, studies rooted in each specific context will be much welcomed. Results from other contexts may always be helpful and enlightening, but every institution should carry out its own research, which ideally will lay the foundations of the most appropriate language policy for them (Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2013: 219).

As the major theme of the current study, it is worth mentioning that the concept of EMI does not have just one form because it differs depending on the context of the study (e.g., Costa, 2017; Mortensen, 2014; Cots, 2013; Doiz et al., 2011; Airey & Linder, 2006; Lassegard, 2006; Sercu, 2004).

In this section, I firstly focus on the general context of the current project which is Italy, and I will then elaborate on the University of Bologna in Italy as the particular context of this study, as I justify my choices. To provide a background of the educational system in Italy, I will briefly review the main characteristics of earlier educational levels prior to initiating higher education levels in Italy while highlighting learning English at each level of education. Children in Italy are required to attend school for ten years, typically from the ages of six to sixteen (Circular of the Ministry 30/12/2010, n. 101; Ministerial Decree 22/08/2007, n. 139; Law 27/12/2006, n. 296). This includes the five years of Scuola Primaria (often referred to as Scuola elementare), the three years of Scuola Secondaria di Primo Grado (commonly referred to as Scuola medium), and the first two years of Scuola Secondaria di Secondo Grado (commonly referred to as Scuola Superiore) (Zuaro, 2022). It is important to note that these final two years of secondary education do not mark the end of the cycle. As a result, although a certificate stating that the obligatory education requirements have been met is issued, no formal diploma will be obtained. After completing all five years of high school, students take the maturità national exam in order to receive their diploma (Zuaro, 2022). Ten subjects, including the English language, are often taught in Scuola Elementare (Article 5 Legislative Decree n. 59/2004). English and one other European language are two of the 10 disciplines that make up Scuola Media's established curriculum (Ministerial Decree n. 254/2012). Scuola superiore come in three different varieties: licei (six fixed curricula; marked academic orientation), istituti tecnici (eleven fixed curricula; technical/scientific education typically aiming for immediate work placement), and istituti professionali (eleven fixed curricula; professional education generally aiming for immediate work placement) (Zuaro, 2022). Due to this diversity, the picture of language learning at this level of education is more fragmented: in addition to English, many other curricula call for the study of another EU language, and in the case of liceo linguistico (a curriculum that focuses on foreign languages), English is taught alongside two other EU languages (Zuaro, 2022). Domestic students have engaged in some L2 learning by the time they decide to pursue higher education, especially English. However, the level of this education can vary greatly depending on a number of variables, such as the type of high school the students attended (Zuaro, 2022). It is also important to highlight that because of the fixed curricula system, students are not expected to customize their course of study and, as a result, have little real control over the amount or quality of L2 learning they engage in. The above-mentioned background will provide a big picture of students' prior English education before entering higher education levels.

The logics behind choosing Italy as the context of the current study generally root in two justifications: The vital role of Italy in setting EMI laws and regulations along with its historical movement in this area at the national and European level and the limited research on EMI in Italy. Regarding the legal role Italy played in initiating EMI movement, the university system in Italy underwent numerous modifications in 2010 after the Gelmini Law (240/2010) was passed. This law advocated for better collaboration between universities in regard to the study, research, and beginning of degree programs in a foreign language and fostered the mobility of both teachers and students. However, this law only led to a certain level of openness toward internationalization, collaboration, English language teaching, and increased mobility (Costa, 2021), and it was the Bologna Declaration (1999) that initiated this push toward English language instruction not only in Italy but throughout Europe (Kuteeva & Airey, 2014). However, compared to several northern European countries, EMI is a relatively new phenomenon in Italy (Zuaro, 2022). Based on information from 2012, the OECD (2014) designated Italy as a nation offering 'No or practically no programs in English'. Even at a certain point in the history of EMI in Italy, traces of disagreement could be observed when the Politecnico of Milan and the Academic Senate decided to support the introduction of Master's and PhD programs in

English in 2014, EMI in Italy sparked a significant internal controversy (Costa, 2021). A group of professors who disagreed with that decision then filed an appeal with the Administrative Tribunal (TAR), which they ultimately won in 2013. Their victory was made possible in part by the old Royal Decree, R.D. 1933, which established Italian as the language to be used in universities, but primarily by the principles of the Italian Constitution. In response to an appeal from the Politecnico and the MIUR, the Constitutional Court issued a ruling in 2017 which mandated parallel language use, which states that any educational programs offered in English, or any other foreign language must also be provided to students in Italian (Costa, 2021). The Italian Constitution aims to protect all languages, including minority languages, and contains extremely specific sections about freedom of teaching and university autonomy. On the other hand, as more private and public universities around the nation offer second and third-level degree programs taught in English, the number of English-taught programs is expanding quickly (Costa & Coleman, 2013) and the purpose of research similar to the study at hand is to help resolve the ideology towards the dominance of English in EMI programs and paving the way to promote a less threatening view on English by merely considering it as English as a lingua franca or a functional means of communication.

Another justification for the choice of Italy as the context of the current study is the insufficient research in EMI research. Italy is a country where EMI research is still generally limited, similar to other Southern European countries. Recently, the literature has begun to address this research gap (e.g., Costa & Murphy, 2018; Bowles, 2017; Broggini & Costa, 2017; Costa, 2017; Pulcini & Campagna, 2015; Costa & Coleman, 2013; Zuaro, 2022); however, additional study is required to address the phenomenon’s numerous facets. Additionally, EMI implementation may be hampered by Italy’s average (see Broggini & Costa, 2017; Pulcini & Campagna, 2015; Costa & Coleman, 2013; Grandinetti et al., 2013; Zuaro, 2022) mastery of the English language, even among higher education stakeholders. Finally, in terms of the number of historical languages spoken inside its boundaries, Italy may be the richest country in Western Europe (Coluzzi, 2012) and this has important ramifications for the national linguistic issues (Zuaro, 2022). An apparent motivation for a study of this nature is the dearth of research from a country with the population of Italy, which historically values higher education highly. Consequently, there is justification for thinking that the study of Italian EMI can bring new features to the research around EMI, and this could advance a more thorough and complex knowledge of EMI as a phenomenon and reveal discoveries that might be applicable to other HE situations.

Regarding the research topics that have focused on Italian EMI research, four thematic areas have been identified: institutional policies, lecturers, students, and outcomes (Costa, 2021). According to Costa (2021), surveys have been the primary method of examining policies (e.g. Anderson, 2019; Broggini & Costa, 2017; Campagna, 2017, 2015; Costa, 2016; Pulcini, 2015; Pulcini & Campagna, 2015; Bendazzoli, 2015; Santulli, 2015; Campagna & Pulcini, 2014; Costa & Coleman, 2013). According to all these studies, institutional rules governing the delivery of English-language courses have increased even at the level of individual universities, rising from 74% to 85% between 2012 and 2017, including universities in the South, with a bigger increase for private universities (Costa, 2021). Broggini and Costa (2017) provide evidence of the evolving Italian EMI background and state that universities have introduced EMI programs primarily to raise their worldwide standing and draw in international students. The lack of teacher participation and the low level of English proficiency among Italian students and their teachers are two of the main challenges. The study also discovered that EMI was more prevalent at the master's and PhD levels, where the most economics and engineering courses were offered. The second area of focus is on lecturers. Case studies, interviews, and questionnaires were the main research methods used in these investigations (Costa, 2021) as highlighted in studies by Long (2018), Guarda and Helm (2016), Costa (2016, 2013), and Helm and Guarda (2015). As Costa (2021) points out research findings suggest that native Italian lecturers make up the majority of lecturers and that they typically have positive opinions of their EMI experiences, however some issues arise that are primarily linguistic in nature (Bendazzoli 2015; Campagna, 2016; Pulcini & Campagna, 2015). These issues include, for instance, a reduced capacity for improvisation during the session and an absence of proper pronunciation (Costa, 2021). As in other Southern European countries, non-native speakers teach EMI classes in Italy (Costa, 2013). It is regrettable to observe that there are still gaps in Italy's lecturer training programs (Long, 2017; Guarda & Helm, 2017). Additionally, language receives some unintentional attention, primarily as an emphasis on form (Costa, 2012a). While many lecturers are aware of the necessity to set an appropriate example for their students (Costa, 2013; Mariotti, 2012), their teaching methods do not always align with their teaching philosophies (Picciuolo & Johnson, 2020). The third topic that has received widespread attention in research to date is students' experiences, which have primarily been examined through surveying students using questionnaires and is the one addressed by the current study (e.g., Doiz, Costa, Lasagabaster, Mariotti, 2019; Ackerley, 2017; Clark, 2017; Costa & Mariotti, 2017). As Costa (2021) points out, these studies often demonstrate that students have positive opinions of English-language courses (Argondizzo & Laugier, 2004) although they are unsure whether these courses have improved their language skills (Costa & Mariotti, 2020). Using questionnaires, Ackerley (2017) and Clark (2017) looked into students' perspectives and discovered that while there was a lot of interest in EMI courses, there was also a lot of anxiety on the side of the students that they would not understand the lectures (Costa, 2021). The attitudes of international and local students toward language education varies, according to Clark (2017) and Costa and Mariotti (2020). 160 students were polled by Costa and Mariotti (2017b) to create a language profile that included information on their interest in learning foreign languages, their travel experiences, and their perceptions on the value of formal language learning. Student responses indicate that they value their writing and listening abilities more highly than their English language speaking ability (Costa, 2021). In their study of oral exams in EMI, Degano and Zuaro (2019) focused on the interactional tendencies of the students. As stated earlier in this section, one of the major areas of concern in Italian EMI research is students and it is the focus of the current study. The fact that the research in this area has mostly highlighted students' linguistic skills sheds light on the necessity of investigating other aspects of students' EMI experience such as their language identity. The final area of research relates to students' outcomes and comprises of research done mostly through statistical comparison of the results of students who complete quantitative EMI (Costa & Mariotti, 2017a, 2017c). These studies demonstrate a distinction in grades between subjects taught in English and those in Italian, particularly at the bachelor's level and for scientific disciplines, where students enrolling in English-taught courses appear to get significantly worse grades (Costa, 2020). This overview shows that the areas involving all stakeholders involved in higher education in Italian EMI contexts have been researched. However, in order to analyze the efficacy of EMI in Italian higher education at this juncture, specific research highlighting the students' perspectives on EMI as a recent phenomenon in Italy and its probable effect on their language identity as ELF users would be desirable.

The University of Bologna (UNIBO) as the context of the current study is a large multi-campus with a well-developed international vision offering 260 programs in its five campuses: Bologna, Cesena, Forlì, Ravenna and Rimini. Out of this number, 89 are

English-taught courses that is to say over one third of UNIBO programs are taught in English. These statistics turn UNIBO to a rich context to study EMI programs and what would add to this value is that the students can voluntarily and freely choose either to study their course in Italian or in English and this differs from the nature of the majority of programs specially in higher education institutions in Scandinavian countries which are only taught in English. The significance of this study rests also upon the scarcity of research on IaH and EMI at UNIBO. However, in the current research, I have drawn upon a recent main study on IaH in the context of UNIBO by Borghetti and Zanoni (2020) with which I share the context and the theme of IaH. Another main work that enhanced my knowledge on IaH policies at UNIBO is a self-evaluation report on the University of Bologna's progress toward comprehensive internationalization (Ubertini, 2019) stating that all 32 of UNIBO's departments actively engage in internationalization. Thousands of international periodicals, e-books, and databases are all freely accessible through the University and each of its specific departments, and the university actively encourages the invitation of international visiting lecturers and welcomes international students (Borghetti & Zanoni, 2020). Another distinguishing quality of the university is its involvement in worldwide research initiatives. The above-mentioned features of the University of Bologna turn it into an appropriate context to investigate internationalization at home and EMI.

4.4 Overview of participants and sampling

Purposive sampling was the primary sampling strategy used for the current study through which the participants were chosen based on predetermined criteria and characteristics (Dörnyei, 2007). Accordingly, the participants were chosen based on their nationality (Italian students) and the language of the program they studied at UNIBO (English). To be able to discover a wide range of attitudes that relate to IaH and EMI concerns, it was important to ensure that the sample was as diverse as possible. Therefore, the participants were chosen regardless of their field of study and faculty to include more diversity. In doing so, I aimed to give a wider picture of the issue being investigated and to give individuals from faculties with fewer English-taught programs an equal opportunity to participate and express their attitudes toward IaH and EMI. Another criterion was that the sample included students in various academic years. Even though at the semi-structured interview phase, this criterion was limited to only those participants who were in the last year of their studies since I tended to explore the impact of studying an EMI program on their identity over time. In addition, variables including age and gender were not considered limiting criteria.

The survey was distributed online among the students studying EMI courses at UNIBO and met the aforementioned requirements with the support of the university authorities. The participation was voluntarily, and 99 students responded among which 78 were Italian students and 21 were international students. However, since my target group were those 78 Italian students, the international students were filtered out. Furthermore, the three participants who piloted the survey voluntarily were eliminated from the data. This resulted in a final sample of 78 respondents for the questionnaire, with more female students (78%) than male respondents (22%). However, not all respondents took part in the study's subsequent phase (the semi-structured interview). The survey's descriptive analysis showed that 78% of the participants were between the ages of 20 and 24, with just a small number (12%) older than 24. Moreover, the sample was heterogeneous regarding the languages they knew other than Italian and English. Appendix 1 contains the survey questions related to participants' background information (part. 1).

The same criteria used for the online survey were used to choose participants for the semi-structured interview (Appendix 2) except that the participants were only those who were in the last year of their studies since I tended to explore their perception toward the impact of IaH and studying an EMI program on their identity over time and this led to adopting a purposive sampling again for the interviews. The survey helped in selecting the participants for the semi-structured interviews. After obtaining consent from the students who showed willingness to participate in the interview through the online survey and wrote their email addresses at the end of the questionnaire, the arrangement for semi-structured interviews was made. I managed to interview, 14 Italian students (3 males and 11 females) out of the total number of 78 participants who took part in the online survey, all in their last year of studies at UNIBO.

4.5 Data collection: Methods and procedures

Data from this study, both quantitative and qualitative, were collected online during the Covid-19 pandemic and lasted longer than expected. An online survey was used to collect both quantitative and qualitative data and semi-structured interviews were conducted to collect qualitative data at the later stages. In this section, the logic behind using the above-mentioned data collection procedures, the process of the research instruments development, the structure of the research instruments and their administration are discussed in depth in the sections that follow.

4.5.1 On-line survey

According to Brown (2001) and Dörnyei (2003), one of the most frequently used research methods in the social sciences is the survey. This method of data collection is popular because it provides a quick and effective way to collect a lot of data from large sample sizes (Dörnyei, 2007). However, they also have significant drawbacks because they typically only offer superficial information, making them inappropriate for a thorough analysis of a phenomenon (Dörnyei, 2007). However, the survey is the primary tool for collecting data in EMI-related investigations (Chapple, 2015; Kym & Kym, 2014; Sert, 2008). In this investigation, a self-developed survey consisting of closed-ended and open-ended questions was used. The statistical analysis of the survey's quantitative data provided the possibility to illustrate the participants' broad IaH and EMI-related attitudes. Additionally, it gave some demographical data about the participants and those who were willing to take part in the study's second phase. Also, it helped the development of the interview questions for the second phase of the study.

Having discussed my justifications for choosing the online survey instrument for data collection, I turn to how it was developed. To develop a 5-point Likert-scale online survey (Appendix 1), I adopted the survey titled 'ATIAH- Approaches and tools for internationalization at home in higher education' (Borghetti and Zanoni, 2020). The questions on the questionnaire were created in accordance with the research questions, and the pertinent literature. The initial version of the questionnaire went under several revisions by my supervisors before the final version was constructed. The finalized survey consisted of six parts and 58 close and open-ended questions. The first section, with 10 items, was intended to learn more about the participants' backgrounds. These items aimed to elicit demographical data on student's age, gender, nationality, first and second language/s, their level of proficiency and subject and level of study. The other five parts consisted of items that explored students' attitudes towards IaH, IoC and EMI and all the items in these parts corresponded to research question 1 which aimed to investigate how the UNIBO Italian students evaluate Internationalization at Home (IaH) and Internationalization of Curriculum (IC), in terms of existing contextual factors within

English-medium instruction (EMI) programs. In these five parts the students were asked to choose answers from strongly agree, somewhat agree, neither agree nor disagree, somewhat disagree, strongly disagree that reflects the extend they agree with the relevant statements and at the end of each part they answered open-ended questions. To provide more details on each section I will discuss each section and its items separately. The second section asked about student's opinions on IaH practices at UNIBO. The third section contained questions on students' reflections on Internationalization of curriculum and EMI programs with the sub-categories collecting data on: Student's in-class interactions, English textbooks, languages of instruction, English-speaking professors and their teaching. The fourth section addressed students' reflections on internationalization outside the classroom (on campus). The fifth part was devoted to students' reflections on international relationships in their daily life (off campus). The sixth part asked whether students showed willingness to take part in the interviews. To this end, there was a separate section at the end of the questionnaire where participants may indicate whether they were interested in participating in interviews and provide their email address. The questionnaire was concluded by thanking the students for their participation.

To verify that the questionnaire is understandable (Wellington, 2015), the survey was piloted by three volunteer participants and the phrasing of a few items were changed in response to their feedback. For example, in order to avoid ambiguity, I replaced the word 'instruction' with teaching. To determine the internal consistency of the items in the survey, data from the piloting group was loaded into the SPSS Statistics software version 26 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). For all the 58 items, Cronbach's alpha demonstrated strong internal consistency (=0.79). After the piloting process, I realized that items 12 and 13 were similar in the survey but in a reversed mode. However, I decided not to eliminate them since they could help me understand whether the students have read the items carefully.

As for the administration stage, the survey which was written in English was designed and uploaded via Feedback Server software and was distributed among both the international and local students in EMI programs through sending the link of the survey to the EMI student's email addresses. Even though my target were the local (Italian) students, the online administration of the survey by the university authorities could not allow the division of students based on their nationalities. Moreover, some students had dual nationalities and they could not be separated from the target population in advance.

Consequently, the survey was distributed online among the students studying EMI programs at UNIBO regardless of their nationality and then the international students were filtered out which left the local Italian students as my target population. These students had a variety of academic levels and studied in a variety of specializations. The email sent to the students containing the link to the online survey explained the purpose of the questionnaire and what their involvement entailed and the significance of their cooperation and at the end of the email I left my email address in case they required further clarifications. I provided assurances of privacy, anonymity, and the voluntary nature of their participation. Afterwards, the students who were willing to take part gained access to the online survey through the link in the email and in the introduction of the survey they were informed that the survey completion took approximately 20 minutes, and they were free to leave the survey at any stage if they found it lengthy. Also, they were notified that they were required to click on the 'submit' button before they left the page. I concluded by thanking the students for their time and participation and asked for their email address in case they were willing to take part in the interview. The administration of the online survey provided me with both quantitative and qualitative data.

4.5.2 Semi-structured interviews

In qualitative research, interviews are the most popular research approach (Dörnyei, 2007; Punch & Oancea, 2014). In studies on EMI, interviews and questionnaires are occasionally combined (Chang, 2010; Evans & Morrison, 2011; Troudi & Jendli, 2011). In this study, interviews were chosen because they enable the researcher to examine the participants' opinions and perceptions as well as how they construct their reality and interpret their experiences (Punch & Oancea, 2014). In interviews, knowledge is socially constructed rather than conveyed since the researcher and interviewee interact (Kvale, 2007). This is in line with the epistemological perspective that guides this work. In the current study, the interviews delved deeper into the issues that the questionnaire had brought to light, providing a more complete picture of the attitudes, actions, and feelings of the students. Additionally, it revealed the motivations behind their opinions and behaviors, which was not investigated in-depth through the online survey. The interviews showed not just the participants' shared opinions but also those that were not. To best respond to the research questions, the interview results were triangulated with the data gathered from the online survey.

Having discussed my reasons for choosing the semi-structured interview as an instrument for data collection, I turn to how it was developed. The research questions served as the major inspiration for the interview schedule, but the preliminary analysis of the data collected in the first phase also provided guidance. I took into consideration the recommendations made by Wellington (2015) when formulating interview questions to achieve the covering of important themes and depth of content especially regarding the student's identity as ELF users. The interview's structure was semi-structured and even though the questions were prearranged, the emphasis was on answering the questions while letting the participant comment on any new issues that came up during the interview. The interview questions were revised several times to better address the research question 2: To investigate whether the Italian students' positive or negative experiences of using English within an EMI program (addressed in the online survey) affected their language identity as users of English as a lingua franca (ELF). Having revised the interview questions, I modified the use of the word 'identity' as a technical word which could be hard to comprehend to how the student's see themselves as compared with how they perceived themselves regarding the use of English before attending EMI programs. Also, the items which were more relevant to the cultural issues asking students directly about their intercultural competence were eliminated to avoid ambiguity and deviation from the main topic of the research. Overall, the interview schedule became more focused and reasonable with fewer items and could be managed in approximately 45 minutes thanks to several revisions by my supervisors. The wording and the order of the questions were also adjustable because they were based on how each interview went. Therefore, rather than being a rigidly adhered-to closed-ended question style, the schedule served as a guide. The final format of the interview questions (Appendix 2) with the aim to focus on learners' English as a lingua franca identity, with guided open-ended questions, were developed with 4 sub-divisions addressing: Students' English background, reasons of studying EMI programs, impacts of studying EMI on their identity and their expectations of these courses.

As for the administration stage, the interviews were conducted in English and 14 interviewees were contacted through email to schedule an interview. All participants received a brief explanation of the interview's objectives and its duration and if they were interested, they were asked to submit their available times so that an appointment could be scheduled. Before the interview a privacy consent form (Appendix 3) was sent to the interviewees to read and sign two copies of the privacy consent form (one for themselves and the other for me). I also requested their consent to audio/video record the interview. The interviews were conducted on Microsoft Teams online platform, so the link of the interview was sent to the participants emails before the interview asking them to join. For the audio/video recording process, I used the ZD Soft Screen Recorder software. This also provided an option to have audio scripts of the recording in the form of sub-titles which could help the data analysis process. I tried to pay close attention to what was being stated during the interview so that I could ask follow-up questions (Kvale, 2007; Ritchie et al., 2014). Additionally, I tried to maintain my friendliness, and impartiality while listening carefully to the participants' opinions. I used prompts where necessary and probed for clarification. Finally, I thanked them for their participation and gave them a quick explanation of what would happen to the data.

4.6 Data analysis

The data analysis was divided into quantitative and qualitative data analysis. Regarding the online survey, the data from the closed-ended questions required quantitative data analysis while the open-ended questions the qualitative analysis of the data was required. Regarding the semi-structured interviews, the qualitative analysis of the data was conducted. Both methods are described in detail in this section.

4.6.1. Quantitative data analysis

Preparing the survey data for statistical analysis, I eliminated the international participants and only the Italian students remained. Then I highlighted the student's codes who had left their email addresses for the interview section to contact them later. In section 1 of the survey the data had to be transformed into numerical form. The participant's gender, for instance, was transformed into the number 1 for male and the number 2 for female. To make data analysis easier, the participants' ages were transformed from an age group into a number. For the other parts the closed-ended questions were based on a Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree and each scale was converted into numerical data as follows: Strongly agree (5), somewhat agree (4), neither agree nor disagree (3), somewhat disagree (2), strongly disagree (1).

Then, all the data from the survey was entered into the SPSS Statistics software version 26. Descriptive statistics were used. For items 1 through 55, the Cronbach's alpha score indicated a reliable internal consistency (=0.79) which demonstrates a reasonable level of reliability (over 0.70) in social sciences (Cohen et al., 2011). For each item and each section, participants' frequency and percentages of agreement and disagreement were also calculated along with their Mean, Mediun, Standard Daviation, One sample test and T-test.

4.6.2 Qualitative data analysis

The significance of qualitative data analysis is reflected in the investigation on social constructs such as identity and this is identified in Kvale's emphasis on the importance of qualitative research in exploring complex social realities.

> The complexities of validating qualitative research need not be due to a weakness of qualitative methods, but on the contrary, may rest upon their extraordinary power to reflect and conceptualize the nature of the phenomenon investigated, to capture the complexity of the social reality. The validation of qualitative research becomes intrinsically linked to the development of a theory of social reality (Kvale, 2007: 23).

In this study, a qualitative thematic analysis of interview transcripts and the answers to the open-ended questions in the online survey was conducted to identify emergent themes of how Italian UNIBO students identify themselves as ELF users in the light of IaH and EMI. Regarding interviews, all the 14 interviews were conducted in English. To preserve the original message of the interviews, every attempt was taken to accurately depict the spoken language throughout the transcription of interviews in English including all the errors and interruptions that occurred. The transcripts were written under pseudonyms to protect the participants' privacy. A total of thirteen hours and fifteen minutes of audio data were captured, and about 42000 words of data were transcribed from that. All Word files were uploaded to NVivo 12, a software program for qualitative research analysis that would accelerate the analysis process.

For the thematic analysis of data, the steps of thematic analyses (Braun & Clarke, 2006) were followed which included becoming familiar with the data, generating codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, and then defining themes. I first became familiar with the data by carefully reading the audio scripts of the interviews. I also made notes about potential codes that were pertinent to the research questions and the literature. Using nodes, I created in NVivo 12, I digitally coded or tagged the data, which is a means to group data extracts into a certain category. While coding, emphasis was placed on particular themes that are intriguing and pertinent to the research objectives. I had to make new nodes most of the time, but I was also able to assign some of the subsequent data extracts to already-existing nodes in addition to making new ones whenever a new category emerged. Data was also exported from NVivo 12 software into Excel files to simplify further analysis. I checked through the codes multiple times after the initial coding to check that the extracts had been assigned to each category carefully and in this process the new nodes merged with the already existing nodes. I then turned my attention to the interpretive analysis. I arranged the nodes based on how pertinent they were to the research questions. After that, I organized the nodes into potential topics while keeping the study questions in mind. The results from all study methodologies were combined for the final analysis stage.

4.7 Ethical considerations

The literature agrees that research should be beneficial and should not have any negative effects on the participants. Research is a public trust that must be ethically conducted, trustworthy, and socially responsible if the results are to be valuable (Bassey & Owan, 2019). Participation must be voluntary, pressure-free, and founded on informed consent. Participants should be informed that they have the option to withdraw at any time and not participate. Furthermore, it is important to always retain anonymity and privacy. For the present study, it was necessary to request authorization from the University of Bologna to conduct the data collection. Therefore, before initiating the data collection phase the purpose of the research and procedures of data collection were communicated to the university authorities officially. After their confirmation to proceed with data collection, the link to the online survey was sent to the participants and I did not face ethical issues at this stage since the online survey was conducted completely anonymously. The participants were not obliged to write down their personal information in order to preserve their identities. The only ones whose email addresses were requested were those who consented to an interview at the end of the survey. In addition, prior to responding to the online survey, the students were informed by email about the aims of the study briefly. They were also given explicit instructions about how to respond to questions.

On the other hand, the interview phase was different from the online survey, and it required student's consent to be audio/video recorded. To this end, the UNIBO original privacy consent form related to educational research was adapted and revised to match the audio/video recording procedure for the interviews. Therefore, some parts of the original consent form were eliminated after several revisions. For example, some regulations about longitudinal research had to be eliminated. After the consent form was officially authorized and approved, the form was sent to the volunteer interviewees to be signed. Each participant signed a consent form twice, with a copy sent to them and the other was kept with the researcher. However, to safeguard their identities throughout interview transcribing, pseudonyms were given to them. In the email, I also made it clear that their involvement was voluntary and that they had the option to decline. They also have the choice to withdraw at any moment if they desire. Prior to the interview, they were urged to ask any questions they might have, and they were informed that the interview could last approximately 45 minutes. During both phases of data collection, I was respectful to each individual and expressed my appreciation for their involvement. All participants received my contact information as well as information about how to request the study's findings if they are interested.

4.8 Challenges and limitations

Among all the challenges of the data collection in the present study, a major one could be the Covid-19 pandemic with both advantages and disadvantages. On the dark side, it was challenging to request students to participate in research studies virtually and finding interview participants was not simple and on the bright side, a possible advantage of conducting a virtual data collection could be that the participants devoted quality time and more concentration in answering the questions since they were free to take part any time they desired. However, events such as university examination periods, as well as vacations, interrupted data collection procedures at times. Although initially over 20 students expressed interest in participating in the interview process, I was unable to schedule interviews with every one of them since some of them became preoccupied with exam preparation. The interview dates were also rescheduled several times since the students ran into personal problems. However, since the interviews were conducted online the students were more comfortable with choosing a wider range of time that better fit their schedule.

4.9 Concluding remarks

In what was described in this chapter, I attempted to describe and support the research design as well as the philosophical and methodological choices. This review of different methodological procedures provided me with a whole picture of the project, and it also helped understand what aspects had to be added to the literature review to include topics that are pertinent to the subject but that had not previously properly been investigated as a result of the themes that emerged when conducting the data analysis. Having discussed how the research was conducted, in what follows the findings of the study will be presented.

CHAPTER 5

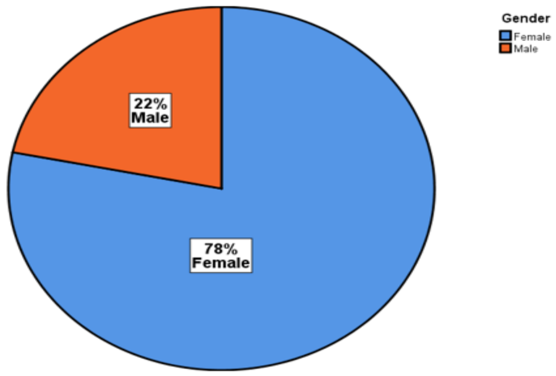
Results

5.1 Introduction

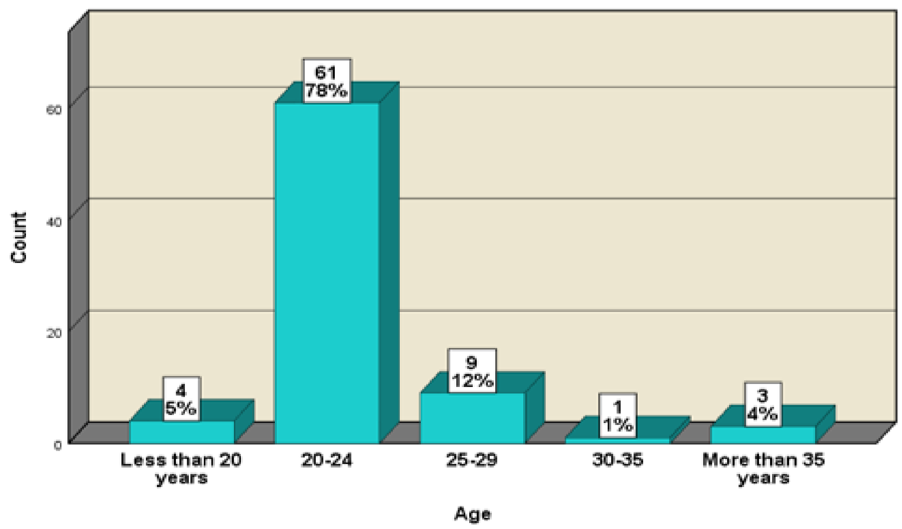
This chapter is intended to report the results obtained from the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the data. The results are organized into three main sections in correspondence to the methods of data analysis and the research questions. The first section presents the demographic results obtained from the background information of the online survey participants. The second section also reports the quantitative results of the online survey on the participants' perceptions of internationalization at home and English-medium instruction programs at UNIBO and the third section reports the qualitative results of the semi-structured interview on the EMI students' perspectives on their identity as ELF users. It should be noted that the quantitative and qualitative results will be synthesized in the discussion chapter, and they are reported independently in this chapter.

5.2 Demographical results

Demography is a field of study in which researchers examine the quantifiable statistics of a particular population (Vogt & Johnson, 2011). In the current study, the first part of the online survey in Appendix 1 (Items 1-10) asked about the demographical data including students' gender, age, nationality, first and additional language/s, their level of proficiency and subject and level of study. This kind of data provided me with a clear picture of my sample population. In this research, only local Italian students are considered, so all 78 participants in this survey are local. The results were obtained and analyzed using SPSS Statistics 26 software using descriptive analysis in this part. Regarding the participants' gender and age and in response to questions 2 and 3, as illustrated in Pie chart 5.1 and Bar chart 5.2 below: 22% of the participants were male and 78% were female and the age of 78% of the participants is between 20 and 24 years old and 12% is between 25 and 29 years old.



Pie chart 5.1 Gender



Bar chart 5.2 Age

Questions 4 and 5 were about people's nationality and their first languages, respectively. According to Table 5.1, about 94% of the people participating in this survey are of Italian nationality, and the rest have dual nationality in addition to their Italian nationality and Table 5.2 shows that the first language of about 95% of people is Italian and the rest 'other languages'.

Nationality	Frequency	Percent
Italy	73	93.6
Italy#China	1	1.3
Italy#Lebanon	1	1.3
Italy#San Marino	1	1.3
Italy#Serbia	1	1.3
Italy#Tunisia	1	1.3
Total	78	100.0

Table 5.1 Nationality

First language	Frequency	Percent
Italian	74	94.9
Italian #Arabic	2	2.6
Italian #English	1	1.3
Mandarin Chinese	1	1.3
Total	78	100.0

Table 5.2 First language/s

It is noteworthy that based on the above-mentioned results, the participants for the interview phase of the project were not chosen from the ones with dual nationalities or the ones whose first language was not Italian since my target group was Italian students.

In question 6, students were asked to state the additional languages they know. The answer to this question was possible for the announcement of five additional languages within specified textboxes, the results of which are shown in Tables 5.3 and 5.4 as follows. In response to the first and second additional languages, the results show that the first additional language of more than 90% of participants was English and the second additional languages of approximately 30% of participants were Spanish and French. The third most frequent additional languages they knew were German over 10% and Russian 5%, respectively and over 11% did not know a third additional language.

Additional language 1		
	Frequency	*Percent*
1	1	1.3
Chinese	1	1.3
English	72	92.4
French	1	1.3
Italian	1	1.3
Serbian	1	1.3
Spagnolo	1	1.3
Total	78	100.0

Table 5.3 First additional languages

Additional language 2		
	Frequency	*Percent*
No Answer	9	11.5
Cantonese	1	1.3
Chinese	2	2.6
English	2	2.6
French	23	29.5
German	8	10.3
Hebrew	1	1.3
Inglese	1	1.3
Italian	1	1.3
Romanian	1	1.3
Russian	4	5.1
Spanish	25	32.1
Total	78	100.0

Table 5.4 Second additional languages

The next question was about the participants' current level of education and the academic year they were in at the time of data collection. Based on what the results clearly show, 32 students, equal to 41%, were in their first year, 28 students, equal to 36%, in their second year, and 11 students, equal to 14%, were in the third year of their studies at UNIBO. This information can be observed in Table 5.5 below.

Current level of study		
	Frequency	*Percent*
First year - Undergraduate	12	15.4
First year – Master's degree	20	25.6
I have already completed my master's degree.	4	5.1
Off course [fuori corso] - Master's degree	2	2.6
Off course [fuori corso] - Undergraduate	1	1.3
Second year - Undergraduate	12	15.4
Second year – Master's degree	16	20.5
Third year - Undergraduate	11	14.1
Total	78	100.0

Table 5.5 Level of Education

As shown in Table 5.5, almost 20% of the participants were in their second year and they had almost two years of experiencing EMI programs at UNIBO. Therefore, after selecting the ‘Italian’ participants as my sample for the interview in the next phase, another criterion of this purposive selection was to choose interviewees who were close to graduation and in some cases thanks to the time interval between the online survey and the interview students of the first year of Master’s degree (over 25%) gained more experience in EMI programs and could better reflect on that in their interviews which provided more in-depth details regarding their longer exposure to EMI.

The next question was about the subject area that the students were studying. According to the percentage of frequency, about 35% chosen other fields other than the mentioned options, which is shown in Table 5.7. But as illustrated in Table 5.6 below, among the available options, about 26% were studying in the field of social sciences and about 21% were studying in the field of business and economics.

Main subject area

	Frequency	*Percent*
Arts and humanities	6	7.7
Business and economics	16	20.5
Engineering and technology	2	2.6
Management	5	6.4
Natural sciences	2	2.6
Other : (Please specify)	27	34.6
Social sciences	20	25.6
Total	78	100.0

Table 5.6 Fields of study

In the previous part, it was found that about 35% of the students were studying other fields, which is shown in the frequency table of the fields of study of these students. It should be noted that the frequency percentage declared in the last column was calculated based on 78 total of students. Therefore, over 21 percent of the students are studying in the field of statistics (statistics and mathematical statistics) and other fields can be seen in Table 5.7 below.

Other main subject areas		
	Frequency	*Percent*
Cultural Heritage	1	1.3
International Cooperation	1	1.3
International relations	1	1.3
Languages and communication	2	2.6
Political science	2	2.6
Scienze per i beni culturali	1	1.3
Statistics	17	21.8
Statistics and mathematics	1	1.3
tourism related to the economy	1	1.3
Total	27	34.6

Table 5.7 Fields of study

It should be noted that, even though the participants field of study is not a main criterion in the current study and the interviewee were not chosen based on the subject they study, this information could support more background information on the wide range of EMI programs at UNIBO and the participants' academic background. In what follows, I have divided the results from the other parts of the online survey and the semi-structured interview into two parts based on the type of results: quantitative and qualitative data as well as their relevance to the research questions they address. However, this does not mean that I have explored the quantitative and qualitative results independently and in the discussion chapter that follows these two categories of results merge and synthesize to better address the research questions.

5.3 Quantitative results: Student's perceptions on the use of English in EMI

In parts 2 to 5 of the online survey, the participants were asked about their attitudes towards and experiences of studying EMI programs within an internationalized curriculum in light of internationalization at home. These parts seek students' perception on a range of factors in an internationalized curriculum as follows: Part 2: Opinions about practices of internationalization at Home at UNIBO in general; Part 3: EMI in-class factors such as interactions, textbooks, the use of English, teachers, and their methodologies; Part 4: On campus social activities, Part 5: Off campus social life. The closed-ended questions in each part were based on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from ‘strongly agree’ to ‘strongly disagree’. To make statistical analysis possible, quantification (numbering) of the results, which is inevitable for the use of statistical techniques was considered, for this purpose, number 5 for the ‘strongly agree’ option, number 4 for the ‘somewhat agree’ option, ‘neither agree nor disagree’ number 3, ‘somewhat disagree’ number 2, and ‘completely disagree’ number 1 were assigned (Table 5.8).

Choice	**Corresponding numerical value**
Strongly Agree	5
Somewhat Agree	4
Neither Agree nor Disagree	3
Somewhat Disagree	2
Strongly Disagree	1

Table 5.8 Numerical values of options

According to the mentioned preliminaries, in order to find out the answers of local Italian students to the considered topics, it is necessary to compare the questions and the average of each part with number 3, which is actually the median, and it also signifies the average of the numbers 1 to 5 (the numbers I used to quantify my options). Thus, I compare the average (factor) of each part with number 3 (this comparison will be done with the help of valid statistical tests, which will be explained later). If the results obtained for any question or any section is higher than 3, the students’ opinions in that question or that section indicate agreement, if it is less than 3, the students’ opinions in that section are not in agreement, and if the results of the comparison did not have a significant difference with number 3, it means that the students neither agreed nor disagreed on that issue. The statistical method that is used to compare a variable (question or the average of questions in a section) with a number is the One Sample T Test, which is conditional on the normality of the variables. The condition of normality is considered fulfilled when the number of samples is higher than 30. Here, according to the fact that the answers of 78 students are available as a statistical sample, it can safely be assumed that the condition of normality has been met. In what follows, I report the results of each part.

The results of the analysis of part 2 (Items 11-16) on student’s attitudes towards internationalization at home at UNIBO are reported below. As was said before, the number of the examined sample is 78 and the descriptive results of this section are reported as follows for each item.

Questions	Strongly agree		Somewhat agree		Neither agree nor disagree		Somewhat disagree		Strongly disagree	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Q11	26	33	40	51	7	9	5	6	0	0
Q12	2	3	3	4	1	1	25	32	47	60
Q13	10	13	21	27	27	35	16	21	4	5
Q14	15	19	36	46	15	19	10	13	2	3
Q15	3	4	7	9	23	29	22	28	23	29
Q16	5	6	28	36	23	29	17	22	5	6

Table 5.9 Frequency and percentage (Items 11-16)

According to the table above and in response to question 11 (UNIBO offers students possibilities to foster their abilities to interact effectively with others who are linguistically and culturally different), a total of 84% have chosen the options ‘I agree’ and ‘strongly agree’. In response to question 12 (There is no need for UNIBO to pursue internationalization because students will gain a global perspective elsewhere), 92% of people chose the two options of disagree and strongly disagree. In response to questions 13 (UNIBO has arranged effective international social events to foster a more international environment), 14 (UNIBO has paved the way to develop students’ international skills that can help them find international job opportunities in the future) and 16 (UNIBO has been able to help students gain international experiences even during the COVID-19 crisis), the opinions have become more balanced and also in question 15 (I missed the international-oriented opportunities offered by UNIBO due to the COVID situation), a total of 57% of people disagree or completely disagree. The mean and median, which are summarized as indicators to show the centrality of the answers given to the questions, are specified below. As expected, these two indicators are the highest for questions 11 (UNIBO offers students possibilities to foster their abilities to interact effectively with others who are linguistically and culturally different) and 12 (There is no need for UNIBO to pursue internationalization because students will gain a global perspective elsewhere) and the lowest for question 15 (I missed the international-oriented opportunities offered by UNIBO due to the COVID situation).

One-Sample Statistics					
	N	Mean	Median	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q11	78	4.12	4	.821	.093
Q12	78	4.44	5	.906	.103
Q13	78	3.22	3	1.077	.122
Q14	78	3.67	4	1.015	.115
Q15	78	2.29	2	1.106	.125
Q16	78	3.14	3	1.041	.118
Fact02	78	3.47	3.5	0.504	0.057

Table 5.10 One-Sample test (Items 11-16)

In the table above, the descriptive results of part 2 for questions 11 to 16 are mentioned. The second column shows the average obtained for each question, where the average obtained for question 12 (There is no need for UNIBO to pursue internationalization because students will gain a global perspective elsewhere) is the maximum and the average obtained for question 15 (I missed the international-oriented opportunities offered by UNIBO due to the COVID situation) is the minimum value of the average. But whether these average values are higher than the average (number 3) or not, must be answered by a statistical and scientific test, which will be discussed further. Also, the third column shows the median, the fourth column shows the standard deviation of the questions and the second factor (Fact02), and the last column shows the standard deviation of the average.

To summarize the results of part 2 of the online survey, I have reported the participant's degree of agreement or disagreement in the table below. As shown in the following table as an example for questions 13 (UNIBO has arranged effective international social events to foster a more international environment) and 16 (UNIBO has been able to help students gain international experiences even during the COVID-19 crisis), it is necessary to refer to their average scores; If it is more than 3, it shows agreement with the question asked (because the option 'I strongly agree' was coded with number 5 and 'I agree' with number 4) and if the average is less than 3, it reveals disagreement with the question asked (because the option 'I strongly disagree' is coded with number 1 and 'I disagree' is coded with number 2). The results of these questions are shown in the table below.

Items	Mean	Sig. (2-tailed)	Opinions
Q11	4.12	.000	Agreement
Q12	2.63	.000	Disagreement
Q13	3.22	.078	Neutral
Q14	3.67	.000	Agreement
Q15	2.29	.000	Disagreement
Q16	3.14	.235	Neutral
Fact02	3.47	.000	Total: Agreement

Table 5.11 Summary of the Mean of opinions

In sum, Table 5.11 shows that the participants agreed that the practices of IaH at UNIBO had been beneficial and they held a positive view towards IaH efforts at the institutional level (Note that Questions 12 (There is no need for UNIBO to pursue internationalization because students will gain a global perspective elsewhere) and 15 (I missed the international-oriented opportunities offered by UNIBO due to the COVID situation) were analyzed in the reversed mode). It should also be noted that responses to Questions 13 and 16 addressing the UNIBO international activities during Covid-19 Crisis were neutral.

Part 3 of the survey mainly focused on different contextual factors within EMI programs at the classroom level and asked students' opinions towards them. This section includes 19 questions (from questions 18 to 41). As it was said before, the number of the examined sample is 78. Part 3 consists of four sub-sections: class interaction (questions 18-24), textbooks (questions 25-30), English as the language of instruction (questions 31-36) and teaching sub-section (questions 37-42). The frequency and percentage of the answers to each item are given for those questions that have been capable of quantitative analysis in Table 5.12.

Questions	Strongly agree		Somewhat agree		Neither agree nor disagree		Somewhat disagree		Strongly disagree	
	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent	Freq.	Percent
Q18	21	27	34	44	14	18	5	6	4	5
Q19	15	19	28	36	17	22	12	15	6	8
Q20	59	76	17	22	2	3	0	0	0	0
Q21	21	27	27	35	14	18	14	18	2	3
Q22	69	88	7	9	2	3	0	0	0	0
Q23	61	78	14	18	2	3	1	1	0	0
Q25	39	50	18	23	8	10	10	13	3	4
Q26	43	55	11	14	13	17	7	9	4	5
Q27	29	37	30	38	11	14	5	6	3	4
Q28	21	27	27	35	18	23	7	9	5	6
Q29	50	64	18	23	4	5	5	6	1	1
Q33	47	60	22	28	4	5	4	5	1	1
Q34	58	74	15	19	3	4	2	3	0	0
Q35	52	67	21	27	4	5	1	1	0	0
Q37	40	51	23	29	12	15	1	1	2	3
Q38	42	54	20	26	14	18	1	1	1	1
Q39	50	64	18	23	8	10	1	1	1	1
Q40	12	15	27	35	10	13	19	24	10	13
Q41	25	32	27	35	16	21	6	8	4	5

Table 5.12 Frequency and percentage (Items 18-41)

In the first sub-section on classroom interaction and in response to questions 20 (Mixing local and international students in a course promotes intercultural learning for all) and 22 (It is enjoyable to connect with students of different nationalities), 76% and in response to question 23 (Culturally diverse classes allow gaining different perspectives about one's area of study), 75% of students have chosen the options of strongly agree and agree. In the second subsection on textbooks, 68% agreed or completely agreed in response to question 29 (I find it hard to read texts in English), 54% in response to question 26 (In my study program, readings and textbooks address international issues), and 57% in response to question 25 (Our international degree course exposes students to readings in different languages). Answers to other questions are also more scattered. In the third subsection on English as the language of instructions, which includes questions 33 (English-taught courses can help one improve his/her overall level of English), 34 (I am satisfied that I chose to take an International degree course where everything is taught in English), and 35 (I like the challenge of expressing my thoughts in English), the expression of agreement is very evident, so that 88, 94, and 94%, respectively, have expressed their agreement or strongly agreed in response to these questions. In the fourth subsection on teachers, the rate of agreement and strong agreement in response to questions 37 (Teachers should be trained to incorporate intercultural perspectives into the curricula), 38 (Teachers should be chosen from different countries), and 39 (Teachers should encourage students to work in cross-cultural groups) is above 60%, and more dispersion is observed for the other two questions: 40 (I believe that our teachers are fluent enough in English) and 41 (The teachers in my courses appear to have a deep understanding of how my discipline or profession operates in different cultures and countries around the world).

One-Sample Statistics					
	N	*Mean*	*Median*	*Std. Deviation*	*Std. Error Mean*
Q18	78	3.81	4.0	1.070	.121
Q19	78	3.44	4.0	1.191	.135
Q20	78	4.73	5.0	0.501	.094
Q21	78	3.65	4.0	1.138	.129
Q22	78	4.86	5.0	0.418	.067
Q23	78	4.73	5.0	.574	.065
Fact03-01	78	3.38	3.3	.399	.045
Q25	78	4.03	4.5	1.216	.138
Q26	78	4.05	5.0	1.247	.141
Q27	78	3.99	4.0	1.063	.120
Q28	78	3.67	4.0	1.158	.131
Q29	78	4.42	5.0	.947	.107
Fact03-02	78	4.00	4.2	.751	.085
Q33	78	4.41	5.0	.904	.102
Q34	78	4.65	5.0	.680	.077
Q35	78	4.59	5.0	.653	.074
Fact03-03	78	4.66	4.7	.585	.066
Q37	78	4.26	5.0	.946	.107
Q38	78	4.29	5.0	.899	.102
Q39	78	4.47	5.0	.833	.094
Q40	78	3.15	3.5	1.310	.148
Q41	78	3.81	4.0	1.129	.128
Fact03-04	78	3.99	4.0	.547	.061
Fact03	78	3.89	3.92	.398	.045

Table 5.13 One-Sample test (Items 18-41)

In Table 5.13, the descriptive results of part 3 for questions 18 to 41 are mentioned. The second column shows the average obtained for each question, where the average obtained for question 22 (It is enjoyable to connect with students of different nationalities) is the maximum and the average obtained for question 40 (I believe that our teachers are fluent enough in English) is the minimum value, which means that the average of all questions in this section is greater than 3. However, whether these average values are higher than the average (number 3) or not, must be answered by a statistical and scientific test, which will be discussed further.

In what follows, the results of the one-sample t-test - with the stipulation that the standard number for comparison is 3 - are given.

One-Sample Test						
	Test Value = 3					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Q18	6.66	77	.000	.808	.57	1.05
Q19	3.23	77	.002	.436	.17	.70
Q20	30.49	77	.000	1.73	1.62	1.84
Q21	5.07	77	.000	.654	.40	.91
Q22	39.28	77	.000	1.86	1.76	1.95
Q23	26.64	77	.000	1.731	1.60	1.86
Fact03-01	8.45	77	.000	0.382	0.29	0.47
Q25	7.44	77	.000	1.026	.75	1.30
Q26	7.44	77	.000	1.051	.77	1.33
Q27	8.20	77	.000	.987	.75	1.23
Q28	5.08	77	.000	.667	.41	.93
Q29	13.27	77	.000	1.423	1.21	1.64
Fact03-02	12.12	77	.000	1.031	0.86	1.20
Q33	13.78	77	.000	1.410	1.21	1.61
Q34	21.46	77	.000	1.654	1.50	1.81
Q35	21.48	77	.000	1.590	1.44	1.74
Fact03-03	23.40	77	.000	1.551	1.42	1.68
Q37	11.73	77	.000	1.256	1.04	1.47
Q38	12.72	77	.000	1.295	1.09	1.50
Q39	15.62	77	.000	1.474	1.29	1.66
Q40	1.03	77	.303	.154	-.14	.45
Q41	6.31	77	.000	.808	.55	1.06
Fact03-04	16.09	77	.000	0.997	0.87	1.12
Fact03	19.93	77	.000	.899	.80	.98

Table 5.14 One-Sample t-test (Items 18-41)

Table 5.14 is related to the one-sample t-test that compares the average of the questions and the third factor (Fact03) and the four sub-factors, which are actually the average scores of the same questions, with the number 3.

In sum, Table 5.15 shows that participants held a positive attitude towards different aspects of EMI programs at UNIBO at the classroom level. Table 5.15 illustrates that their average scores had a significant difference with number 3 and were, therefore; meaningful. The results of these questions are shown in the table below.

Items	Mean	Sig. (2-tailed)	Opinions
Q18	3.81	.000	Agreement
Q19	3.44	.002	Agreement
Q20	4.73	.000	Agreement
Q21	3.65	.000	Agreement
Q22	4.86	.000	Agreement
Q23	4.73	.000	Agreement
Fact03-01	3.38	.000	Agreement
Q25	4.03	.000	Agreement
Q26	4.05	.000	Agreement
Q27	3.99	.000	Agreement
Q28	3.67	.000	Agreement
Q29	4.42	.000	Agreement
Fact03-02	4.03	.000	Agreement
Q33	4.41	.000	Agreement
Q34	4.65	.000	Agreement
Q35	4.59	.000	Agreement
Fact03-03	4.55	.000	Agreement
Q37	4.26	.000	Agreement
Q38	4.29	.000	Agreement
Q39	4.47	.000	Agreement
Q40	3.15	.303	Neutral
Q41	3.81	.000	Agreement
Fact03-04	4.00	.000	Agreement
Fact02	3.89	.000	Agreement

Table 5.15 Summary of the Mean of opinions

The overall review of the quantitative results reveals that the participants held a positive attitude towards IaH, IoC and EMI practices at UNIBO. The quantitative analysis of questions 42 to 56 were not included at this stage since they were analyzed individually for the interviewees and the answers to those questions were complementary to the interview result in the qualitative section. Also, the analysis of some items had been eliminated since they deviated from the main aims of the research. Further meaningful interpretations of this section will be addressed in the discussion chapter of the thesis.

5.4 Qualitative results: Student's perspectives on their language identity as ELF users

The data from the semi-structured interviews were analyzed through the NVivo 12 software. The interviewees' demographical data obtained from the online survey was considered to select the interviewees based on two main criteria: Being Italian and having at least two years of experience with EMI programs at UNIBO. The analysis of the data from the online survey revealed the following demographical information about the interviewees (14): 11 females and 3 Males, their ages ranged from 20-24, all Italians, with only one first language being Italian, and they were all Master's level students. To report the thematic analysis of the interviews I have used pseudonyms to protect the participant's privacy, for example, Interviewee 1 is contracted as Int.1. The semi-structured interview is presented in Appendix 2.

All 14 interviewees expressed positive attitudes towards EMI programs which was in line with what they stated in online surveys. Nevertheless, they also referred to some of its challenges. The interview excerpt by Int.6 demonstrates participants' satisfaction with the EMI programs:

> In Italy, it is possible to choose to study in English or Italian. My friend who is a student in Norway always complains about the force to study in English. I think one reason I love to study in English is because I am free to choose. I know it can be more difficult than Italian, but I like the challenge.

Their motivation behind studying EMI varied from person to person. For example, Int. 11 refers to having an international career as her motivation as she states:

> I study business and I like to work in international companies so I should talk and communicate in English. I want to have a lot of choices in the future at the market.

While others stated reasons such as improving their level of proficiency in English, the affordability of studying in English in Italy, more job opportunity, the possibility to publish papers and take part in international conferences. However, this is no place to focus on the results obtained about these factors but merely to highlight that the interviewees were well-motivated, and their perception was in line with the results of their online survey.

I now turn to a major part of the results which focus on the students' perceptions of their identities as ELF users. In this section, the students were asked about how they perceived themselves as ELF users in light of EMI. For the thematic analysis of the data, as mentioned earlier in chapter 4, a total of thirteen hours and fifteen minutes of audio data were captured, and about 42000 words of data were transcribed from that and all Word files were uploaded to NVivo 12 and consequently, following Miles et al.'s (2014) two-cycle process, the transcripts of the interviews were coded in the first cycle, and these codes were then synthesized into themes in the second cycle and the following themes emerged:

5.4.1 Emotional transitions

The use of English in EMI programs had certain challenges for the students' emotionally. The codes that appeared in the corpus and were classified under this category were numerous. I can refer to some of these codes here such as feel, like, love, fear, anger, stressed, self-confident, etc. All students expressed transitions in their affections and feelings since getting involved with EMI. As Int. 4 stated:

> I feel better when I speak English. I do not know why but I am more confident, but I am a little afraid of making mistakes, but I am sure I will not be judged by others, than when I spoke Italian in class before because I know everyone speaks English with mistakes. So, it is ok. When we spoke Italian in class in high school, everybody knew Italian, so I was more afraid to make a mistake about the content.

What the excerpt above shows is that the students experienced emotional transitions when they compared their feelings in EMI settings with non-EMI setting as in high school or Bachelor and what they all shared was their Italian-medium instruction background. However, they expressed this transition with different codes. Similar influences were felt by the other participants. Another expression of student's emotional transition was evident in the interview with Int. 13 where he states that he feels comfortable with English.

> When I write an article in English, I feel comfortable, and I know what exactly to write. You know I have a format. I know how to start and end but when I studied in Italian I was always confused. I feel clearer with English. In Italian I say the same thing with more words, and I am not clear yet.

It can be concluded that the participant's emotional transition from a non-EMI to an EMI setting appeared positive and that could be due to the opportunity they had to choose between an EMI or non-EMI higher education program which is probably evidence of their motivation. Most of the participants (9 out of 14) also considered English as a functional tool to communicate rather that a threat to their cultural or national identity, as evident in the excerpt from Int. 14 below:

> I just use English to learn and study. I think it is a means of communication. I think it is for everyone in the world, not just England. Basically, I do not see it as a threat that can change who I am as an Italian.

5.4.2 Cognitive transitions

The codes that appeared in the corpus and were classified under the cognitive transition category signaled some forms of attitude, belief, or way of thinking (e.g., think, believe, idea, opinion, attitude, etc.). 12 students expressed transitions in their attitudes since getting involved with EMI and as compared with their former non-EMI academic experience. These transitions can be further divided into two sub-themes: 1. Intercultural beliefs 2. Self-beliefs. It should be noted that the thematic analysis of this part was done manually since the codes of the two sub-themes overlapped with each other and could not be categorized using the NVivo software. The participants' perceptions of their cognitive transitions in both sub-themes were dispersed which means 7 participants expressed positive and 5 conveyed negative cognitive transitions while 2 of them held the viewpoint that they see no transition in their beliefs.

5.4.2.1 Intercultural beliefs

For the thematic analysis of the text that fell into this category the main code was 'culture'. The results revealed that 12 participants reported transitions in their cultural beliefs because of being in contact with international students as indicated in two excerpts below:

> I used to have very few friends from other countries also I was not in much contact with them but studying in English helped me find friends from all around the world in our class. I think I can understand cultural differences better now and it's a good way to practice English. I also like the challenge and I think establishing these relationships was not possible without the help of English. (Excerpt from Int.6)

In the above excerpt, a positive transition in the participant's beliefs towards other cultures is evident and this view has been mirrored in the attitudes of 11 participants and only 1 participant expressed a negative transition in her intercultural beliefs and in contact with other nationalities.

> I thought studying in an EMI program would give me the chance to think differently about other cultures, but I did not find it very helpful in that sense (Excerpt from Int.3).

5.4.2.2 Self-beliefs

The main codes for the analysis of this part were the words 'I' and 'self'. In the manual analysis of the audio scripts the most frequent code that was repeated in the corpus 89 times was 'self-confidence' and in all cases (12), the interviewees linked the development of their level of proficiency in English with the increase in their level self-confidence and they perceived themselves as able selves as a result of their EMI experience.

> One reason to study my course in English was to improve my English. My general English was ok even before this degree (EMI) but my academic knowledge in English was poor. I can say it was really effective. In fact, I am more confident now even more than when I speak Italian. I don't know why but I feel less shy in English. (Excerpt from Int. 5)

The most striking result was that all students reported having a better self-confidence in English than their L.1 (Italian) in EMI context without clearly knowing their reasons.

5.4.3 Social transitions

The analysis of the corpus using codes such as 'behave', 'communicate', 'contact', 'interaction', 'sociable', relationships, etc., were thematically classified as social transitions in participants' behaviors. These transitions are about how students behave in relationships with other international students, friends, and family members and in some cases colleagues in EMI settings. 13 students expressed positive social transitions in relationships with international students, friends, family members and occasionally colleagues.

> Since I have begun my studies in English, others think about me differently. It is prestigious and the others respect me more, my father think I am an expert in my field when I am preparing a conference in English at home (laughs) they are proud of me and feel better about myself. (Excerpt from Int.10)

In the excerpt above the participant expressed a higher self-esteem and in other cases (7) traces of assertiveness were reflected.

> Talking about everything in English at university at least in classrooms, I think I am in more exposure to English every day and I think I am more assertive now maybe it is because English on its own is different from Italian. I am more direct in English. In Italian, it is not very polite to be direct and short, explanations are usually longer.

The participants (13) also confirmed that they initiated conversations and small talks with internationals students. This is evident in the excerpt below:

> I feel bad to speak Italian when my classmates from other nationalities are around and I don't want to make them feel isolated so if we are speaking Italian we shift to English when one of them arrives. Also, when one of them (international students) is a newcomer, I approach them and start a conversation.

The Italian EMI context welcoming international students has created a multicultural environment for local Italian students and 11 participants see this setting as an opportunity that has boosted their intercultural social skills. The following excerpts of the interviews reveal these intercultural social transitions implicitly.

> I have experienced a shift in my social manners and skills as I interact with peers and from different cultural backgrounds and I need to navigate new social norms and expectations, which can be both exciting and challenging but I always look at this as an opportunity to enhance my social sensitivity to cultural differences and at the same time learn from the students from other cultures and countries and this is not possible I think without English. (Excerpt from Int.10)

> I do not see English as a threat. I believe it is a tool that helps me establish relationships with people from around the world. Since my admission to this program in English I have become less stressed when I come across foreigners. I also like to know about them. They are different you know, and this is attractive. I do not care about the history of English or where it came from as long as it is helping me and raising my cultural awareness. You can make more friends and it is an achievement. (Excerpt from Int.2)

In most of the interviews the students referred to their emotional, cognitive, and social transitions in the EMI context simultaneously and this can be observed in the following excerpts.

> The other student's apparent confidence in their English-speaking skills initially made me feel very intimidated. I was afraid I would never be able to fit in or make friends. But as I started participating in organizations and extracurricular activities, I realized that meeting new people was lot easier when we were doing something together. Additionally, I tried to improve my English outside of class, which also increased my confidence. (Excerpt from Int.5)

In the above excerpt the codes of 'confidence', 'making friends' and 'feeling intimidated' belong to the major transitions in students' cognition, social behaviors and emotions, respectively and they were reported simultaneously. This synthesis is also evident in the following excerpts.

5.5 Concluding remarks

The reported quantities and qualitative results in this chapter will be interpreted in the next chapter and their stance in the existing literature will be discussed. These transitions are complex and interrelated, and they can have a significant impact on students' personal and academic growth. It is noteworthy that these transitions have not been reported by students in a linear and separate way and the interrelation between these emotional, cognitive and social transitions will be discussed further in the next chapter. Also, the implications and limitations of the study are addressed in what follows in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6

Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter is designed to discuss the key findings from the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data to respond to the following research questions: Do UNIBO Italian students have positive or negative experiences with using English within their EMI program? Do these attitudes affect their language identity as users of English as a lingua franca (ELF)? In accordance with these two research questions, the major findings are divided into two major areas: students' perspectives on the use of English in EMI and their perception of their identities as ELF users. To address the second question, the findings from the two data collection methods are synthesized based on three emergent themes: students' emotional, cognitive, and social transitions. These major findings would also be interpreted in relation to the existing literature on the main themes of IHE, IaH, EMI and learner's language identity. In the other sub-sections in this chapter, the implications and limitations of the study are described.

6.2 Students' perspectives on the use of English in EMI

Italian students' perspectives on the use of English in EMI programs at UNIBO were generally positive 92% (n=78), in all five sections of the online survey. Having analyzed the results, I interpret that their attitudes towards various factors in all parts of the survey such as the use of English in their interactions with international students, the use of English textbooks, the use of English as the language of instruction, and the use of English by teachers in EMI programs were positive. In the interviews, they generally held a positive attitude towards the use of English in EMI programs and their views were in line with what they expressed through the online survey with no contradictory points. However, in the interview, the main focus was on student's perception of their language identities as users of ELF and the interviewees merely confirmed their positive attitudes towards the use of English in EMI in general since they had already provided me with their perspectives through the online survey and I merely asked for their attitudes to see if the results contradicted.

In this section the stance of the findings through different parts of the online survey will be highlighted in the body of the relevant literature. Even though IaH can have a lot of advantages, including enhanced intercultural competency and exposure to many viewpoints, it can also have disadvantages. Here I highlight some important findings from research on students' both positive and negative experiences with IaH. Some studies have shown that the practices of IaH have been beneficial in terms of improved intercultural competence which is the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately with people from various cultural backgrounds (Vande Berg, Connor-Linton and Paige, 2009), exposure to diverse perspectives which may help them have a broader perspective of the world (Breit & Cohen, 2014) and enhanced sense of community which fosters friendships and remove cultural barriers between local and international students (Deardorff, 2009) while the finding of some studies have shown students' negative experiences with IaH. In these studies students referred to these negative experiences as tokenism, cultural insensitivity and limited impact. Some students believe that they are not respected for their distinctive contributions and experiences but are being exploited as tokens to advance the institution's diversity goals (Kunz, 2015), through their IaH activities, institutions run the risk of unintentionally fostering cultural stereotypes or offending students from particular backgrounds (VanderStoep & Deibel, 2015), and IaH limited impact has been reported in the study by Wilkins (2016) arguing that although some students have claimed positive results, it is yet unknown how IaH programs have affected overall student learning and development. The findings of the current study are in line with the studies revealing UNIBO Italian student's positive attitudes towards IaH practices in terms of improving their intercultural competence and exposure to diverse perspectives and fostering relationships between local and international students. Overall, to guarantee that IaH programs are inclusive, respectful, and successful, institutions must carefully plan and administer them.

The next part of the survey specifically asked about the students' experiences with their in-class interactions with international students through English in an EMI classroom. Several studies have explored students 'perception of their in-class interactions and they have revealed contradictory results. On the one hand, there are studies that have shown positive outcomes such as improved language proficiency (Smit & Dafouz, 2012), exposure to different cultures (Hu, 2017) and enhanced critical thinking skills (Choi & Lee, 2018). According to several students, taking EMI classes has helped them become more proficient in listening and speaking in English (Smit & Dafouz, 2012).

Also, intercultural learning and exchange can occur in EMI lessons by bringing together students from various cultural backgrounds (Hu, 2017) and critical thinking skills can be developed in EMI lessons by requiring students to interact with complicated ideas and concepts (Choi & Lee, 2018). On the other hand, there are studies that contradict these positive outcomes of interaction through English in EMI settings and their findings refer to students' negative experiences with EMI classroom interactions. These negative perceptions are expressed as communication difficulties (Fung, 2018), unequal participation (Airey & Linder, 2006) and frustration and anxiety (Lei & Hu, 2019). Effective class interactions can be hampered by misunderstandings caused by language limitations and communication style variations (Fung, 2018). Students with weaker English language skills may struggle to participate in class discussions, leading to unequal participation and limited learning opportunities (Airey & Linder, 2006). In EMI classrooms, some students could experience frustration or anxiety, especially if they find it difficult to comprehend the course material or communicate clearly with their peers and instructor (Lei & Hu, 2019). The findings of the present study reveal that the UNIBO Italian students generally hold a positive viewpoint toward their interaction with international students and this could be justified by the fact that they were primarily motivated to choose to study in English thanks to the availability of the same programs in Italian which is in fact rare in some countries where students are forced to study in English at higher education levels. Therefore, they voluntarily attend EMI programs and see these classroom interactions as an opportunity rather than a barrier. Overall, it is critical for teachers to be aware of the difficulties that students can encounter in EMI contexts and to offer assistance and resources to promote productive classroom interactions. It might be noteworthy that elements such as the use of English textbooks and the teachers and their methodology will be skipped since they were not considered as the key findings of the current study, and they are not much relevant to the findings in the next phase of the research which is about student's identity as ELF users in EMI.

In summary, the purpose of the online survey in the first place was to collect data on students' demographical information and use the answers as a guide to address the contradictory points in the second phase of this study which is the semi-structured interview. The online survey also addressed the first research question: Do UNIBO Italian students have positive or negative experiences with using English within their EMI program? The answer to this question was generally positive in terms of their overall evaluation of IaH practices and EMI programs at UNIBO.

6.3 Student's perspectives on their language identity as ELF users

The second phase of the current study addresses the second research question: Do the Italian students' attitudes toward EMI affect their language identity as users of English as a lingua franca (ELF)? At this stage the students participated in semi-structured interviews and the results show that the participants experienced changes in their emotional, cognitive, and social life when transitioned from a non-EMI to an EMI context. Having done the thematic analysis of the data, the participants (14) fell into two groups: those who believed the use of English had affected their language identity as English users (3) and those who believed they had no affiliation with English and viewed it as merely instrumental (9), and very few fell in between (2). Although they expressed their understanding of language identity differently, in response to the second research question it can be concluded that the EMI context provides few opportunities for the emergence of significant new subject positions mediated by English. However, considering the construct of identity as a transitional notion rather than a fixed and stable one, is also in line with Block (2022) who considers using and learning a second language as a cause for the learner's identity to become unstable. Keeping in mind this assumption, three main themes were identified in the overall corpus; participants in the study linked internationalization at home and the use of English in EMI to the emotional, cognitive and social aspects of who they were before EMI (in non-EMI contexts) and who they are now in terms of how they feel, think, and behave in their L.1 and in English in a way that they projected different selves in different situations. In what follows, I elaborate on the emotional, cognitive, and social modes of students' transitions as ELF users. These transitions should have been interpreted as multiple and synchronous rather than linear and sequential in accordance with the Multiple and Multi-dimensional Transitions (MMT) theory by Jindal-Snap (2016). However, for the sake of organization and clarity, these transitions are interpreted separately while keeping in mind that any transition in one domain has an impact on other domains as well and may lead to changes in those domains (Gordon et al., 2017).

In the following sub-sections, the current findings are described within two theoretical frameworks of language identity: Multiple and Multi-dimensional Transitions (MMT) theory by Jindal-Snap (2016) and the model of second language identity development by Benson et al. (2012).

6.3.1 Multiple and Multi-dimensional Transitions

In the search for traces of change in students' identity as ELF users, the themes that emerged through the analysis of the interview transcripts fit into the multiple and multi-dimensional transitions theory (MMT) by Jindal-Snap (2016). Although this model has not explored identity transition in isolation it encompasses different levels of change in an individual's life. These levels of change are emotional, academic, professional, psychological, cognitive, and social. Students' interactions with English as a lingua academica (Phillipson, 2008) in contexts where English is a foreign language provide a range of student experiences. This EMI-related research focuses on the examination of the nature of these encounters. The process of transitioning from one environment and set of social contacts to another is ongoing (Jindal-Snape, 2010). The multiple and multi-dimensional transition (MMT) hypothesis contends that a person's life and experiences can be simultaneously identified in several domains (physical, cultural, psychological, and social). According to Jindal-Snape & Ingram (2013) and Jindal-Snape & Rienties (2016), each of these fields is complex in its own specific way. Any change in one domain has an impact on others, possibly leading those other domains to change as well (Gordon et al., 2017). When entering the EMI setting, a student is exposed to a new context and set of interpersonal relationships with others (Jindal-Snape & Rienties, 2016). The process of entering and moving through an EMI environment is a dynamic one that involves modifications and adaptations in many different areas of a student's life. The findings of this study are in line with this transition theory and agrees that the students express different selves at different levels as ELF users in their new EMI context as compared with their use of Italian in their previous non-EMI setting. However, Block (2020) points out that language identities can change significantly over time, and it is possible to be born into one language community and subsequently develop a strong affiliation with and expertise in another language community. The findings of this study suggest that studying English in an EMI context provides few opportunities for the emergence of significant new subject positions mediated by English and 9 out of 14 interviewees they had no affiliation with English and viewed it as merely instrumental. These findings can be also supported by the possibility that the EMI context is not rich enough with English language exposure in a way students would be immersed in this context and project new subject positions and as Block (2020) points out further investigation is required to fully unveil the potential of these opportunities as contexts rich with new language-mediated subject positions. On the other hand, regardless of the extent to which these transitions in a persons' emotional, social, and cognitive aspects root in their new language identity as ELF users, awareness of these even superficial changes

can alleviate Englishization tensions in planning EMI programs (Jenkins, 2019). Also, as the findings of this study suggest the student's do not see English in EMI as a threat to their Italian language identity. However, these findings cannot be generalizable to all EMI contexts and more research needs to be conducted on the possible effects of EMI contexts on student's language identity as ELF users. In the following sub-sections, the findings on the student's transitions are highlighted in relevance to the existing literature.

6.3.1.1 Emotional transitions

The first reaction to any new change is apparently an emotional response. In the current study, the challenge of using English in EMI programs led to transformations in students' feelings, and the participant's emotional transitions from a non-EMI to an EMI setting appeared generally positive and that might be due to their being well-motivated to choose between an EMI or non-EMI higher education program in the educational context of Italy as they were not obliged to choose EMI. Apparently, these positive reflections on their emotional transition could be explained also by their adequate level of English proficiency as evident in their interviews which were conducted in English and also as a pre-requirement to enroll in the EMI program. These positive emotional transitions in this study contradict several other studies where students had low levels of proficiency and their choice of EMI was obligatory and as a result student's emotional transitions were reported as negative (e.g., Tatzl, 2011; Yeh, 2014; Bolton et al., 2017; Chun et al., 2017; Aizawa & Rose, 2020). This study's findings also conflict with those of Zhang (2018), who claimed that students' "low English competence was not an impediment to EMI content learning" (: 360) since the findings of this study support the role that the participants' adequate level of proficiency plays in developing positive emotions towards EMI.

In addition, the participants in this study did not consider English as a threat to their nationality or L1 since they perceived themselves 'users' rather than 'learners' of English in EMI (Blaj-Ward, 2017) and were comfortable with making linguistic mistakes since they considered the goal of EMI programs as learning content through English not learning English and as results indicate they use English as a communicative tool rather than a superior 'standard English' that affects who they are. This finding is in line with the fundamental tenet of EMI arguing that content courses should be taught in English without any explicit language learning objectives and views English as functional (Macaro 2018; Madhavan & McDonald, 2014) not as a threat to language identity and this could argue that EMI does not lead to the loss of L.1 in students' views and therefore contradicts the studies that acknowledge the loss of L.1 (e.g., Hamel, 2007; Hültgren, 2013; Phillipson, 2015).

The findings of this study also support the viewpoints about leaners emotional adaptations to new sociocultural settings and learning environments and their projection of new emotions depending on their personal history, cultural identity, and social context (De Costa et al., 2020; Benesch, 2019; Song, 2016; Sahan & ¸Sahan, 2023). These studies also demonstrate the intimate relationship between identity and emotion.

The students also expressed strong emotions of joy and excitement in using English in their EMI setting compared to their L.1 and some of them justified these feelings by viewing English as a positive challenge that pushed them to succeed in the future careers. These findings are in line with the studies by (Sahan & ¸Sahan, 2023; Resnik & Dewaele, 2020). Overall, despite the assumption that using English could bring about certain transitions in students' emotions in EMI contexts, these shifts have been situational and transient and might not lead to the construction of a new language identity and to investigate more permanent effects longitudinal studies could be of help.

6.3.1.2 Cognitive transitions

The second major transition indicated by the results is the participants' cognitive transitions. The participants (12 out of 14) expressed shifts in the ways they think and believe in light of EMI both about other cultures and about themselves while 2 of them held the viewpoint that they see no transition in their intercultural or self-beliefs. These transitions varied extensively and were expressed differently. However, they all shared how participants used to think before experiencing EMI and how they think now (cognitive transitions). These transitions were further divided into two sub-themes:1. Intercultural beliefs 2. Self-beliefs.

Regarding the intercultural belief sub-theme, the majority of the students (11 out of 12) expressed positive transitions in their ideology towards other cultures. These findings demonstrate how much the students' EMI experience has increased their degree of receptivity to other cultures and could be assumed as a shift into a new intercultural global identity. These results regarding the transition in student's intercultural beliefs and the increase in their intercultural awareness support the studies by Kim et al., (2017) and Rose et al., (2020) who consider the development of student's intercultural awareness that originates from the dynamic interaction among students (international and local), staff and internationalized curriculum in an EMI setting. These findings also support the study by Wang (2020) who argues that through exposure to other points of view and ideas, attitudes toward other cultures and a better respect for variety may change. Another element that leads to intercultural thinking shifts is perspective-taking, or the ability to understand and accept the viewpoint of others. EMI can promote perspective-taking by exposing students to a range of perspectives and ideas, leading to more complex and knowledgeable attitudes on many cultures (Wang, 2020).

The findings are also in line with the humanistic aspects of internationalization, especially intercultural awareness, diversity, global citizenship, and tolerance. The notions of global citizenship and cosmopolitanism within the humanitarian perspective are reflected in these results (Goren & Yemini, 2017). These reactions are against the competitive, elitist, and market-oriented nature of mobility and pay greater attention to the qualitative aspect of internationalization at home, such as fostering global citizenship, employability, raising the quality of research, education, and societal contribution, and switching from looking at the output to outcome and impact when evaluating results (Haigh, 2008; Yemini, 2015). Although economic rationales continue to set the agenda, political, academic, social, and cultural reasons for internationalization are increasingly given more weight (De Wit & Altbach, 2021) and the above-mentioned findings of the interview, being synthesized with the positive attitudes (92%) expressed in the online survey regarding the role of internationalization at home and curriculum through EMI programs demonstrate that these are apparently in line with the aims of IaH to develop students into global citizens (Leask, 2022). However, more research is required in other contexts and on larger scales to add value to the generalizability of these results.

As for the self-beliefs, the second emerged sub-theme of the cognition transition, which is a student's confidence that they can learn and function well in an EMI environment, the results showed that the 12 participants who reported cognitive transitions unanimously believed that their level of English proficiency enhanced as a result of studying EMI and consequently their self-confidence developed in using English. These findings are reflected in the studies in which students' linguistic obstacles and challenge comprehending the course material resulted in lower levels of self-confidence in students who are not skilled in English (Chen & Chen, 2019) and are in line with studies arguing that exposure to EMI can also boost self-confidence by giving students chances to develop their language abilities and participate in academic discourse in English (Zhang & Zhang, 2019). Transitions in self-belief can also be mediated by self-efficacy, or a student's confidence in the ability to do a given task. By giving students the chance to develop their language abilities and participate in academic discourse in English, EMI can have an impact on self-efficacy as well (Zhang & Zhang, 2019). In the current study the findings also reveal that the students surprisingly believe that they are more confident in expressing their ideas in English than in Italian in EMI as compared with non-EMI settings and they generally justified this by stating that they feel less judged in terms of making linguistic mistakes and they are all non-native English speakers, therefore, they are less judged by their insufficient proficiency in English.

6.3.1.3 Social transitions

The third major transition that emerged from the thematic analysis of the data was the social transitions of students. These transitions are about how students behave in relationships with other international students, friends and family members using English in EMI settings. Most participants (13) expressed positive social transitions in a variety of ways. The results suggest that some students developed their self-worth and self-esteem (in a sense of being important to others) and others stated they have become more assertive in relation to others. These findings are supported by the view that transition is an ongoing process that involves making changes to interpersonal relationships and adjustments to diverse conditions (Jindal-Snape, 2010). The improvement in the students' social relationships is in line with Glazzard et al.'s (2020) argument that "during transitions individuals may lose the relationships that have previously contributed to positive or negative self-worth, and they may receive different feedback from new relationships which can have a positive or negative effect on self-concept" (: 9). This positive social transition supports the argument that students have the chance to interact with people from various cultural backgrounds and strengthen new relationships thanks to EMI (Wang & Li, 2020). On the other hand, there are studies that reveal the negative social transitions of students in EMI settings such as feeling lonely and isolated due to cultural differences and communication hurdles (Liu & Huang, 2021). However, the ability to communicate effectively and adjust to new social and academic situations can be facilitated by language proficiency, cross-cultural competence, and social support (Wang & Li, 2020).

It should be recalled that the above-mentioned transitions are non-linear, and they are intertwined. Therefore, emotional transitions could lead to cognitive transitions and these two could influence the social transitions or they could occur simultaneously (Jindal-Snape and Rienties, 2016). In general, these positive transitions reported in this study, no matter to what extent transient and situational they might be, still have shown emotional, cognitive, and social developments in students using English in EMI and these findings are also in line with the studies that focus on humanistic aspects and goals of IHE regarding the development of students into global intercultural citizens who can raise their cultural awareness and tolerance for diversity and can perform socially, emotionally and professionally in today's international and multicultural context (e.g.,Van der Wende, 2007; Bennett & Kottasz, 2011; Yemini, 2015).

In conclusion, emotional transitions can lead to cognitive shifts and cognitive shifts will in turn result in social transitions. In other words, how a person feels affects how they think and what they believe in and ultimately how they socially behave in relationship with other. Several studies have linked these domino-like transitions with identity formation arguing that although emotions can have an impact on someone's identity, their effects are frequently more fleeting than the effects of beliefs and while emotions may have an immediate impact on behavior and self-perception, beliefs are more likely to influence a person's long-term identity (Kroska & Harkness, 2006; McAdams, 1995; Markus & Wurf, 1987). To better support the findings of this study theoretically, these transitions have also been described as identity development through the lens of another model which will be discussed in the following section.

6.3.2 Second language identity development model

The current study contradicts the notion of 'second language identity' in the second language identity development model by Phil Benson et al. (2012) since English in the Italian educational context is considered a 'foreign language' not a second language and also the context of the study is not a study abroad context. Despite these points of difference, this model is in line with the findings of this study. This match can be observed if the personal development aspect of this model is considered equal to the positive transitions that students expressed about themselves when using English in EMI. The multiple transitions mentioned in the previous section are discussed through the lens of language identity development model. The three dimensions of this model of second language identity development by Benson et al. (2012) are: Identity-related second language competence, linguistic self-concept, and second language-mediated personal competence. The key findings of this study will be discussed against these three dimensions. The first dimension of this model is identity-related second language competence which entails the ability to represent oneself as a fully functional person in transactional and interpersonal situations while speaking a second language (Benson et al., 2013). This dimension of identity development is mostly reflected in the studies on student's academic and linguistic transition through EMI which is not the focus of the current study (Kamasak et al., 2021; Chang, 2021; Soruç & Griffiths, 2018).

The second dimension of the model is linguistic self-concept. Self-concept is a part of reflexive identity and reflexive identity is the phrase used to describe 'the self's view of the self' which is in line with what individuals frequently refer to as their real selves (Benson et al., 2013). It is concerned with the knowledge and use of a second language while discussing the development of second language identity (Benson et al., 2013; Ellis, 2004; Mercer, 2011). Self-concept is also used by Mercer (2011), who claims that 'language learner self-concept' refers to a comprehensive set of beliefs and feelings regarding the field of language learning in a variety of settings. Self-concept, according to Mercer, is concerned with "the self-beliefs that a learner maintains and brings with them into any encounter, not just in respect to one specific context". The keywords of 'beliefs' and 'feelings' in this definition encompass the emotional and cognitive transitions found in the current study. The degree of proficiency in one language can affect and shape self-esteem, self-efficacy, self-confidence, willingness to communicate, communicative anxiety, motivation, language awareness and beliefs in using the second language (Benson et al., 2013). In the current study, the students' emotional and cognitive transition falls under the category of self-concept in Benson et al's (2013) model.

The third dimension of the model above is second language-mediated personal competence. Larzén-stermark (2011) provides a comprehensive list of possible non-linguistic outcomes for second language learning, including improved intercultural sensitivity, improved tolerance and understanding of cultural differences, improved knowledge of the host culture's intellectual life, and improved personal growth (independence, self-reliance, and decision-making skills). At this point, the persons' view of themselves is not highlighted and their relationship with others matters (Benson et al., 2013). The second-language mediated competence dimension supports the positive social transitions of the participants in the current study. All the above-mentioned transitions could interactively lead to other transitions and also in the opposite direction. For example, high linguistic competence can be both the cause and effect of high self-confidence or personal competence. Therefore, the separation of these multi-layered and integrative transitions could be misleading as they might occur simultaneously and in different directions.

6.4 Implications of the study

The implications of the current study could be considered both theoretical and practical. In turn the practical contributions of these findings will be discussed at the individual and institutional levels. From the theoretical viewpoint, this study has attempted to address certain gaps in the existing research on EMI education and language identity of ELF users. While several studies have been conducted on the linguistic achievement of EMI programs (Kamasak et al., 2021; Chang, 2021; Soruç & Griffiths, 2018), only a few studies have addressed the affective components of EMI learning for students (Al Khalili, 2021; Chun et al., 2017; Chou, 2018; Thompson et al., 2022; Turhan & Krkgöz, 2018). Also, language teachers, notably EMI teachers in higher education, have typically been the subject of research in applied linguistics theorizing emotions (Yuan, 2021, Benesch, 2017; De Costa et al., 2020; Her & De Costa, 2022; Hofstadler et al., 2020; Nazari & Karimpour, 2022; Song, 2016; Yuan & Lee, 2016) which in turn signifies the necessity of conducting research on students since few studies have been done on the emotions of EMI students (Sahan & ¸Sahan, 2023; Resnik & Dewaele, 2020).

At the individual level, the results of this study can contribute to students at the personal level. At the micro, individual level, it provides a platform for students to express their attitudes on different involving factors in EMI and more specifically the use of English. These negotiations of meaning between the researcher and the students might also make students think critically about their academic and social life. In addition, it makes them reflect on their personal developments that could help them grow emotionally, cognitively, and socially as well as professionally regarding their preparations for future careers in international markets.

Besides being thought-provoking for students, this research has implications for policymakers and instructors at the institutional level by providing feedback on their language policies in EMI programs. One factor that could enhance the EMI quality is to do more research on individual differences considering students' emotional, cognitive, and social aspects to be able to provide better quality programs and serve a wider diversity of both international and local students. Academics, researchers, professionals, and policymakers need to be made more aware of the student's transitions so they may build on them as well as the drawbacks so they can properly address them. Priority should be given to developing supportive relationships (both formal and informal) to help students with their transition from a non-EMI to an EMI context and to make this shift run smoothly.

Regarding the specific context of the current study, UNIBO, the results of this study highlight that Italy as a country which is offering programs in both English and Italian based on its policy of the parallel-language instruction can be perceived as a role model for educational systems where the choice of EMI is obligatory which in turn creates numerous psychological and linguistic problems for students who suffer from a low level of proficiency in English and for those who have insufficient motivation to study in English. This policy could possibly be the reason behind the positive transitions observed in participants in the current setting who declared to be motivated and they were also proficient enough to engage in EMI since they had the possibility to choose to study in either English or Italian. However, more steps should be taken to improve these EMI programs at the site of the study and educating students and policymakers about the issues with EMI could be a step in the right direction for future improvements in students' learning environments. In addition, research on EMI as a context-specific area which varies from context to context signifies the importance of doing research on more and more EMI context.

6.5 Limitations of the study

Despite the contributions, certain challenges and limitations emerged. At the very beginning of my research journey, when reviewing the existing literature, I realized there are very few studies that covered the student's language identity within internationalization at home or EMI settings and the main studies addressed the study abroad contexts (e.g., Block, 2020: Benson et al., 2013). Also, when it came to the intersection between ELF users' identity and EMI. This lack of theoretical foundations became even more evident. To bridge this gap, I attempted to draw on existing literature on second language identity in study abroad contexts and tried to study the notion of ELF users' identity against these already existing foundations while keeping in mind that they differ in many aspects.

Another limitation of the study revolves around the nature of EMI studies as being context-specific which might be an obstacle to their generalizability to other contexts and limit them only to the site of the study. However, in my view, the positive aspects of the EMI contexts could be adapted to other settings with minor changes to make them adjust that certain setting as in the case of the parallel-language instruction policy in Italy referred to earlier in the research implications section.

In terms of the research design, what made this study challenging was the qualitative analysis of the data, in particular the parts on identity which is the most complicated part as in the case of the analysis of any other abstract social constructs. Also, as a mixed-method study, synthesizing the results of the quantitative and qualitative analysis and relating them to existing literature was the most challenging part. However, it is worth the in-depth investigation of abstract concepts such as identity.

Finally, since this project was conducted during the Covid-19 crisis, I faced lots of constraints in terms of the data collection process. Among the many issues that were raised I can refer to the lack of easy physical access to students, nevertheless, the virtual administration of the research had its own pros and cons.

6.6 Recommendations for further studies

Drawing on the multimodal transitions the students expressed in this study, longitudinal future research is advised to shed light on the uncertainty regarding how deeply these transitions penetrate the students' language identity as a stable social construct that is rooted in their beliefs and investigating the causes of these transitions. Among the various cognitive, emotional and social transitions which were addressed in this study, researchers could focus merely on one of these aspects and conduct case studies to reveal more in-depth investigation of each dimension.

Reviewing literature on the connection between language identity and EMI could add to the scarcity of studies in this area and could provide researchers with access to more relevant sources.

Regarding the numerous EMI contexts, study should be done to increase the generalizability of EMI research in diverse educational settings. More study is needed to solve all the other EMI-related issues because research is still a relatively new phenomena in Italy. Additionally, this study can be done while considering other variables like EMI policies and different EMI disciplines. Additionally, comparative studies between two

EMI settings with various language policies can be covered in future research. For instance, a comparison between EMI in Scandinavian nations like Sweden, where selecting EMI is required for the majority of tertiary disciplines, and EMI in Italy, where selecting EMI or non-EMI is a personal decision, should be made to address students' perspectives on these two settings with different language policies. Additional investigation can also focus on how other EMI stakeholders, such as teachers and staff, feel about using English in EMI.

6.7 Concluding remarks

The interpretive nature of this chapter intended to make the raw results, presented in the chapter on results meaningful by synthesizing the findings obtained from the analysis of the data. In what follows, the research questions will be addressed along with the major findings of the study in the form of a conclusion.

Conclusion

The study will come to a close in this chapter, which will summarize the major findings in relation to the objectives and research questions and analyze their significance and contribution. Additionally, it will discuss the study's limitations and suggest areas for future investigation.

This study aimed to investigate UNIBO Italian higher education students' views on the use of English in EMI and its effect on their language identity as ELF users. In response to the first research question about UNIBO Italian higher education students' views on the use of English in EMI, the findings of the present study indicate that the majority of participants (92%, n=78) in the online survey held a positive perspective toward the use of English in EMI programs and the findings from the interviews were in line with the results of the survey. In other words, in the interview that followed the survey, they also confirmed their positive views. In addition, the majority of interviewees viewed English as a functional language and a tool for communication, which is more consistent with perceiving English as ELF rather than a superior standard English and their viewpoints might alleviate the concerns about the role of EMI implementation and expansion and the use of English in particular as an academic language that can lead to the Englishization of higher education. The participants were positive about EMI and with the functional view they held toward English, they did not conceive it as a threat to their national, cultural or L.1 identity. However, varied views in very few cases emerged which could be indirectly interpreted as their concern about the use of English as a threat to their L.1 as one participant showed concern about English leading to the marginalization of Italian.

The second research question intended to explore the students' attitudes toward the effect of using English in EMI on their language identity as ELF users. The participants acknowledged that as compared to their previous non- EMI experience, using English in EMI has led to transitions in how they felt, thought, and behaved. Therefore, if we assume identity as a transitional notion that is not fixed, and that changes based on contextual factors. These emotional, cognitive, and social transitions as a result of using English in EMI as compared with students' previous non-EMI experiences were reported positive by students and could be interpreted as a sign of personal growth and development. These positive transitions reported in this study have shown emotional, cognitive, and social developments in students using English in EMI, regardless of how temporary, and situational they might be. However, since the students expressed their understanding of language identity differently, it could be concluded that studying English in this EMI context provides few opportunities for the emergence of significant new subject positions mediated by English. Also, one reason that can justify these positive transitions is that in the EMI context of Italy, thanks to the parallel-language policy that allows students to choose to study a program either in Italian or English, the EMI students are well-motivated to choose an EMI over a non-EMI higher education program and this reveals that the students have been well-motivated and eager to enroll in an EMI program, at least at the time they begin their studies in EMI since they were not obliged to choose EMI. These positive mentalities, in turn, might bring about multimodal positive transformations in the students' feelings, and these positive emotional transitions can in turn lead to further positive cognitive and social transitions.

It is noteworthy that the underpinning theoretical models used for the analysis of the interview data have been the Multiple and Multi-dimensional Transition model (MMT) (Jindal-Snap, 2016) and the second language identity development model (Benson et al., 2012). Accordingly, based on MMT model, students' transitions were classified into emotional or affective transitions, cognitive transitions in student's self-beliefs and intercultural beliefs and social transition. These include the shift they experienced in how they felt, thought, and behaved using English when transitioned from a non-EMI to an EMI context. These findings were also evaluated against the model identity development for a better theoretical foundation and support. Additionally, these findings are consistent with the humanistic aspects and goals of IHE regarding the development of students into global intercultural citizens who can increase their cultural awareness and tolerance for diversity and can function socially, emotionally, and professionally in the global and multicultural environment of today.

To conclude these findings in response to the research questions, it should be noted that the UNIBO Italian students in this study generally held a positive attitude toward the use of English in EMI and they have expressed transitions in their feelings, beliefs, and social behaviors as ELF users. However, these transitions cannot be interpreted as driving forces behind the emergence of totally new subject positions mediated by English. Although being aware of these transformations in student's emotions, thoughts and social behaviors could contribute to improvements both at the theoretical and practical levels. This study aims to address gaps in existing research on EMI education and language identity of ELF users. It seeks to address the affective components of EMI learning for students, as well as language teachers, who have traditionally been the subject of research in applied linguistics theorizing emotions. At the individual level, it provides a platform for students to express their attitudes on different involving factors in EMI and more specifically the use of English, which could help them grow emotionally, cognitively, and socially as well as professionally. This research has implications for policymakers and instructors at the institutional level by providing feedback on their language policies in EMI programs.

The challenges and limitations of this study include the lack of theoretical foundations for the intersection between ELF users' identity and EMI, the nature of EMI studies being context-specific, the challenge of the qualitative analysis of the data, the lack of easy physical access to students due to Covid-19 crisis, and the virtual administration of the research.

As for recommendations for further research, as far as the EMI various contexts are concerned, research should be conducted to add to the generalizability of EMI research in different educational settings. Since research in Italy is a relatively new phenomenon, more research is required to address all the other aspects of EMI. Also, this study can be conducted considering other variables such as EMI policies and various EMI disciplines. In addition, further research can address comparative studies between two EMI settings with different language policies. For example, a comparison between the EMI in Scandinavian countries such as Sweden where choosing EMI is obligatory for a majority of disciplines at the tertiary level and a country like Italy where choosing EMI or non-EMI is a personal decision should be conducted to address student's perspectives on these two settings with different language policies. Further research can also address other stakeholders in EMI regarding their attitudes toward the use of English such as teachers and staff.

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Appendix 1

On-line Survey

Introduction

Dear students,

In this survey you will be asked how you have personally experienced internationalization at home, namely what is your opinion about the opportunities offered by the University of Bologna (UNIBO) in terms of intercultural development in and outside the classroom.

Your contribution to this study would be invaluable, as your responses will help formulate suggestions for improving internationalization activities and strategies at UNIBO.

The survey should not take more than 20 minutes to complete, and we would be grateful if you could answer the questionnaire by May 31st, 2021. Your responses are completely anonymous, and your participation is entirely voluntary. You may discontinue the survey at any time. When you have completed the survey, please click the "Submit" button.

If you would like further information, please feel free to contact us at marjan.jahangiri@studio.unibo.it.

Thank you in advance for your participation!

Marjan Jahangiri

Part 1- Demographic Information

Please choose the response which best describes you.

1. Are you an international student or an Italian local student? [Only one answer]

    - International
    - Italian (Local)

2. Gender: [Only one answer]

- F
- M
- I prefer not to answer

3. Age: [Only one answer]

- 20-24
- 25-29
- 30-35
- Other: Please, specify

4. Nationality: [More than one answer is possible]

5. What is/are your first language/s? [More than one answer is possible]

6. What additional language/s do you know? (Please, specify the language/s.)

7. Please, indicate your level of proficiency in each additional language.

Elementary Intermediate Upper Intermediate Advanced

8. What is your current level of study and in which year are you enrolled? [Only one answer]

a) First year - Undergraduate

b) Second year - Undergraduate

c) Third year - Undergraduate

d) Off course [fuori corso] - Undergraduate

e) First year – Master’s degree

f) Second year – Master’s degree

g) Off course [fuori corso] - Master’s degree

h) I have already completed my master’s degree.

9. What is the main subject area that you are currently studying? [Only one answer]

- Arts and humanities
- Business and economics

- Engineering and technology
- Life sciences and health
- Natural sciences
- Social sciences
- Management
- Other (please specify)

10. Why have you decided to enroll in an international course and what are your expectations?

Part 2- Opinions about Practices of Internationalization at Home at UNIBO

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

Strongly agree   Somewhat agree   Neither agree nor disagree   Somewhat disagree   Strongly disagree

11. UNIBO offers students possibilities to foster their abilities to interact effectively with others who are linguistically and culturally different.

12. There is no need for UNIBO to pursue internationalization because students will gain a global perspective elsewhere.

13. UNIBO has arranged effective international social events to foster a more international environment.

14. UNIBO has paved the way to develop students' international skills that can help them find international job opportunities in the future.

15. I missed the international-oriented opportunities offered by UNIBO due to the COVID situation.

16. UNIBO has been able to help students gain international experiences even during the COVID-19 crisis.

17. Please, explain your answers to the previous questions.

Part 3-Reflections on Internationalization of Curriculum

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements about class interaction?

18. Teaching activities promote interaction between home and international or exchange students inside the classroom (e.g., student group work across cultures)

19. Home students are encouraged to interact with international or exchange students inside the classroom.

20. Mixing local and international students in a course promotes intercultural learning for all.

21. It is hard to connect with international students inside the classroom.

22. It is enjoyable to connect with students of different nationalities.

23. Culturally diverse classes allow gaining different perspectives about one's area of study.

24. Please, explain your answers to the previous questions, also considering the COVID situation.

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements about textbooks?

25. Our international degree course exposes students to readings in different languages.

26. In my study program, readings and textbooks address international issues.

27. Course readings and textbooks illustrate contents providing examples from different cultural contexts or which can be applied to a range of cultural and international situations.

28. The content of our textbooks has made us more aware of cultural similarities and differences.

29. I find it hard to read texts in English.

30. Please, explain your answers to the previous questions, also considering the COVID situation.

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements about languages of instruction?

31. What language(s) do you mainly use in class with teachers? [More than one answer is possible.]

32. What language(s) do you mainly use in class with the other students? [More than one answer is possible.]

33. English-taught courses can help one improve his/her overall level of English.

34. I am satisfied that I chose to take an international degree course where everything is taught in English.

35. I like the challenge of expressing my thoughts in English.

36. Please, explain your answers to the previous questions, also considering the COVID situation.

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements about teaching?

37. Teachers should be trained to incorporate intercultural perspectives into the curricula.

38. Teachers should be chosen from different countries.

39. Teachers should encourage students to work in cross-cultural groups.
40. I believe that our teachers are fluent enough in English.

41. The teachers in my courses appear to have a deep understanding of how my discipline or profession operates in different cultures and countries around the world.

42. Please, explain your answers to the previous questions, also considering the COVID situation.

Part 4- Reflections on Internationalization Outside the Classroom (on Campus)

How much do you agree or disagree with the following statements about Internationalization outside the classroom (on campus)?

43. What language(s) do you mainly use out of class at the university (e.g., online or offline interactions with your classmates and professors, considering your life on campus)? [More than one answer is possible.]

44. Socializing with students from other cultures/countries is/was part of my daily campus life.

45. The social environment on campus has enabled me to gain an understanding of different cultural perspectives.

46. Extra-curricular activities have promoted cultural awareness outside the classroom for all students (e.g., international dinners, cultural events)

47. Outside the classroom, how often do you socialize with co-nationals (in person or online)?

Always	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

48. Outside the classroom, how often do you socialize with international students (in person or online)?

Always	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely	Never

49. Please, explain your answers to the previous questions, also considering the COVID situation.

Part 5- Reflections on International Relationships in your Daily Life

50. How do you usually meet new friends? [More than one answer is possible]

- Academic and professional events (e.g., at work, career fair, competition)
- Leisure activities (e.g., sports, music)
- Online social networks (e.g., Facebook, Twitter)
- Parties
- Volunteering activities
- Others (please specify)

51. How many of your friends are from different countries from your own? [Only one answer]

- 1-4
- 5-9
- 10 or more

52. Have you visited or are you considering visiting your above-mentioned friends in their respective countries?

- Yes
- No

53. Why? Please, explain your reason(s):

54. In the future, are you considering studying, working, or living abroad again?

- Yes
- No

55. Why? Please, explain your reason(s):

56. Please, explain your answers to the previous questions, also considering the COVID situation.

Part 6- Before concluding

57. In view of the next phase of the project, would you be willing to take part in a brief online interview in the coming months?

- Yes
- No

58. If yes, please leave your name and institutional email address below and we will contact you.

Please, Leave your name and email here:

Thank you for your time and participation!
If you have any questions or remarks about the survey, you can contact us at Marjan.jahangiri@studio.unibo.it

Appendix 2

Semi-structured interview

Interview Questions

Date:
Time:
Name of interviewee:
Respondent Number:
Nationality/ies:
International / Local:
First language:
Second language/s:
Level of education:
Field of study:
Email address:

1. Could you describe your English background?
Prompts:

- When, where and how did you start learning English?
- How did your English learning proceed?

2. Why did you choose to study an English-taught course and take part in an English international course, as opposed to another course in your native language? (Locals)
Why did you choose to study abroad and in English (and in Bologna in particular)? (Internationals)

3. What were your expectations of studying an English-taught course at Unibo?
Prompts:

- How did you think studying an international program (abroad) would differ from studying courses in your own language?
- Is there anything about your experience of studying your course in English (abroad) you would change if you could?
- Where did you think an English-taught program (abroad) could take you in the future?

4. What is your attitude towards English language itself and its use in general?

5. Some learners believe that studying English taught programs have a profound impact on their English level of proficiency in terms of ………. Do you agree? (Please, give examples)

Prompts:

- Vocabulary size, grammatical knowledge or pronunciation
- Linguistic skills (listening-writing-reading-speaking)

6. Do you feel your definition of who you are has changed since you have started your English taught course. For instance, as an English user have you become more/less …………………?

- capable of accomplishing a task in English
- like a native-like user of English
- self-confident in using English
- willing to communicate with others in English
- motivated to use English
- flexible in adapting to new situations in English
- anxious when facing new situations in which you need to use English

IF YES → What positive or negative impacts has studying your course in English had on your personal development?

IF NO → How do you feel now that English has not impacted you? Do you feel positive or negative? Please explain.

7. Apart from learning and using English, have you experienced any personal development or growth while studying along with international students? For example, in gaining social skills such as ……………

- making friends or being outgoing or independent.
- gaining a broader world view and more awareness and acceptance of cultural differences
- achieving a greater appreciation of your own culture, language and identity

8. What challenges do you face as a result of studying your course in English?

- Linguistic
- Emotional
- Cognitive
- Social

9. Is there anything you would like to add to what you said?

Please, feel free to ask any questions about our research.

Are you willing to know about the results of this study via email?

Appendix 3

Privacy consent form of interviews

Information on the processing of personal data

pursuant to art. 13 of Regulation (EU) 2016/679

You are invited to participate in a study conducted as part of the preparation of the PhD thesis on Italian higher education students' perspectives on Internationalization at home and its impact on their second language identities, as part of the study course of Pedagogical sciences carried out in the Department of Education at the Alma Mater Studiorum- University of Bologna. This study aims to collect the students' opinions on their experiences, attitudes and feelings towards the use of English in their English-taught courses.

Pursuant to art. 13 of Regulation (EU) 2016/679 (General Data Protection Regulation), please note that Alma Mater Studiorum – University of Bologna is the Data Controller and will process your personal data in compliance with the requirements of Regulation (EU) 2016/679 (General Data Protection Regulation) and Decree 196 dated 30 June 2003 as amended (Data Protection Code).

PARTIES INVOLVED IN PROCESSING

- **Data Controller**

Alma Mater Studiorum – University of Bologna (registered office: via Zamboni 33, 40126 - Bologna, Italy; e-mail: privacy@unibo.it; PEC: scriviunibo@pec.unibo.it).

- **Data Protection Officer of Alma Mater Studiorum – University of Bologna**

Registered office: via Zamboni 33, 40126 - Bologna, Italy; e-mail: dpo@unibo.it; PEC: scriviunibo@pec.unibo.it.

PURPOSES AND METHODS OF PROCESSING

Your personal data and, in particular, the data relating to *your name*, *surname*, *image*, *voice and contact details* will be processed by specifically authorised persons, both with and without the use of automated equipment, to contact you and video record the interview (point A below).

(A) PARTICIPATION IN THE RESEARCH AND RELATED OPERATIONS AND ACTIVITIES

If you give your consent to participate in the study in question, some of your personal data will be collected through interview that will be sound recorded/filmed.

The processing may also have as object some of your images (photographs, video recordings, audio-video recordings). The processing of these images will take place in compliance with the provisions of the law, guaranteeing, in all cases where this is possible, anonymity by obscuring the physical features. We would like to point out that, for the processing of images, you are required to express a specific consent, considering that, even in special cases, also images related to people whose face has been obscured may allow their identification.

The data collected and stored for the realization of the study in question, will be kept for *[two years]*.

INFORMATION CONCERNING THE DISSEMINATION

It should be noted that the data will be disseminated only in strictly anonymous form, for example through scientific publications, statistics and scientific conferences.

LEGAL BASIS AND NATURE OF THE PROVISION OF DATA

The legal basis of the treatments referred to in point (A) described above lies in the consent, pursuant to art. 6, first paragraph, lett. a) of the Regulation (EU) 2016/679 (General Regulation on Data Protection) and, in the case of special categories of personal data, of art. 9, second paragraph, lett. a) of Regulation (EU) 2016/679. The consent to the processing for the purposes described above is optional.
However, it is specified that the provision of data for the purposes referred to in point (A) is not mandatory but is essential for the achievement of the purposes described. The refusal to grant them will not allow you to participate in the study in question.

RIGHTS OF THE DATA SUBJECT

Without prejudice to the limitations placed on exercise of the rights of data subjects by arts. 2-*undecies* and 2-*duodecies* of the Data Protection Code (Decree 196/03), you, as a participant in this study and therefore a data subject, may exercise the rights granted pursuant and consequent to arts. 15-21 of the Regulation, including the right to request access to your personal data and its rectification or erasure, as well as to restrict the processing of your data, object to its processing and request its portability.

Please note that any consent given by you is given freely and may be revoked at any time, without any penalties or adverse effects, and without prejudicing the lawfulness of processing based on the consent given prior to revocation.

Requests to exercise the above rights may be presented to the data controller.

Lastly, should you believe that the processing of your personal data is in infringement of the provisions of Regulation (EU) 2016/679 or Decree 196/03 and subsequent amendments and additions, you have the right to lodge a complaint with the Italian data protection authority (known as the "Garante per la protezione dei dati personali"), pursuant to Article 77of the Regulation (UE) 2016/679, or to refer to the appropriate courts (art. 79 of the Regulation).

Consent for the processing of personal data

I, the undersigned ____, born on ______________________________ in ________________________________,

pursuant to the provisions of Regulation (EU) 2016/679 and Decree 196/2003 and subsequent amendments and additions and having read the above "Information on the processing of personal data".

☐ *give consent* ☐ *deny consent*

for the processing - NECESSARY for the purpose of participating in the study in question – of my personal data for scientific research and statistical purposes in the manner and for the reasons described in the section entitled "Purposes and methods of processing" (point A).

☐ *give consent* ☐ *deny consent*

to the processing - NECESSARY for the research purposes described in point (A) - of the images of the interested party and the identification data related to them, also pursuant to art. 96 of the copyright law.

Date *Signature*

________________ ____________________________________