

6 Exploring the Internationalisation and Glocalisation Constructs in EMEMUS Lecturers' Interviews and Focus Groups

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Introduction

As higher education is increasingly globalised and internationalised (Guimarães & Finardi, 2021), both opportunities and tensions have emerged owing to the synchronous international and local perspectives that higher education institutions (HEI) adopt. Internationalisation plays a critical role in the neoliberalisation of education (Watermeyer & Lewis, 2015), where HEIs are increasingly seeking to attract international students and scholars to position themselves as global leaders in education and knowledge production (Bashir & Mirza, 2019; Butrym, 2020). However, challenges emerge in internationalised education in a number of ways. For example, given the role of English as the global lingua franca, lecturers and students in non-English-speaking regions are increasingly shifting towards teaching and learning through English. Lecturers across the world have reported challenges in communicating their complex topics in a second language and also perceived difficulties for students to understand new content in a second language (Belyaeva & Kuznetsova, 2018; Ozer, 2020; Vu & Burns, 2014). Moreover, while the affordances of internationalisation are evident, the value of local cultures and ways of thinking should also be recognised. Education, knowledge construction, and communication are heavily cultured and contextualised, and engaging with all topics from an Anglocentric perspective further risks domain loss and diglossia of languages other than English in academic communication and education (for more on this topic see Coleman, 2006; Curry, 2021). Recognising not only these tensions, but also a potential synergy between global and local contexts, the concept of glocalisation has been brought into educational domains. Glocalisation, referring traditionally to business models that act both globally and locally (Robertson, 1994), is seen to offer a pathway for higher education to engage globally while maintaining a local identity. Dafouz and Smit (2020) have discussed this issue in detail in their work on ROAD-MAPPING which investigates how dimensions such as the Roles of English, Academic Disciplines, (language)

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Management, Agents, Practices and Processes, and Internationalisation and Glocalisation (ING) can shape contemporary HEIs.

The present study investigates how ING are constructed discursively in English-Medium instruction (EMI) lecturers' discourse by qualitatively analysing five interviews and two focus groups undertaken with EMI lecturers from a range of disciplinary areas at a Spanish English-Medium Education in Multilingual University Setting (EMEMUS, Dafouz & Smit, 2016). To situate the analysis and highlight the current state of the art, a brief literature review on ING in EMEMUS is presented in the section devoted to internationalisation and glocalisation in EMEMUS. Then, we will present the data and methodology, giving a detailed description of the interviews and focus groups, and a systematic outline of the methodology applied herein. This will be followed by the results and a discussion, focusing on how ING are realised discursively by EMEMUS lecturers and how this dimension relates to wider ROAD-MAPPING dimensions and the subthemes that emerge from the ING data. Finally, we will present a reflection on the application of ROAD-MAPPING in this study and the novel method of which it forms a part, as well as a conclusion, signalling future directions and considerations.

Internationalisation and Glocalisation in EMEMUS

Research on the internationalisation of higher education has investigated how HEIs position themselves globally (Bashir & Mirza, 2019), attract international students and scholars (Butrym, 2020), and internationalise curricula (Ryan et al., 2020). Internationalisation has given rise to English-Medium education in HEIs where English has become the language of academic education in a range of subjects in non-English-speaking contexts, globally. EMEMUS practices have been investigated in myriad ways, including foci on language norms in international contexts (Murata & Iino, 2017), language challenges for students (Rose, 2021), and management policies for governing institutional language practices (Dafouz & Smit, 2020). Owing to the complexity and globality of EMI, questions emerge in EMI research surrounding the variation in approaches internationally, the evolution in lecturer and student perspectives on EMI, the role of EMI for developing learners' language competences, and local and global tensions (Macaro et al., 2018).

The concept of glocalisation in EMEMUS is somewhat less represented in research in this area, when compared to internationalisation. Glocalisation refers to the ways in which an organisation can position itself globally while engaging locally with surrounding communities. In the context of higher education, glocalisation involves the creation of an internationalised institution that reciprocally responds to its local context (Choi, 2016). In EMEMUS, this has resulted in studies on materials development that have considered how glocalised materials can be developed for humanities programmes (Kao & Liao, 2017). Similarly, consideration has been given to language policy studies demonstrating the increasing importance that universities are placing on the representation of local

contexts in their internationalisation policies (Finardi et al., 2021). Arguably, Dafouz and Smit are the most prolific with regard to research on glocalisation in EMEMUS through their work on ROAD-MAPPING (2016, 2020), language policy (Smit, 2018), and EMEMUS (Dafouz, 2017), for example. Dafouz and Smit (2020) echo fears of epistemicide and Anglocentric homogenisation evident in wider discourses on academic practices, and specifically academic writing (Bennett, 2015; Curry, 2021), owing to the ever growing role of English in international higher education. Glocalisation offers a means to resist domain loss and diglossia by privileging local language and culture within the internationalisation process (Finardi et al., 2021). As such, glocalisation offers an alternative pathway to the coexistence of multiple languages and cultures in higher education to that of Mufwene (2005), for example, who notes that when languages other than English compete for domain space with English, they are rarely victorious. However, to better understand the development and impact of such a pathway, ongoing monitoring of the quality of glocalisation practices is needed (Finardi et al., 2021). Lecturers offer valuable recourse for such monitoring and can reveal insights into wider ING movements in EMEMUS (Curry & Pérez-Paredes, 2021; Dafouz et al., 2016; Solin & Hynninen, 2018). A challenge in the wider literature that centres on different agents is the ability to contextualise their perspectives within a wider system of internationalisation (Curry & Pérez-Paredes, 2021). ROAD-MAPPING offers a means to contextualise discourse on internationalisation and the ING dimension specifically captures sub-themes of ways of internationalising EMEMUS (e.g. through curricula), staff/student mobility, international and local students, local and global contexts/disciplinary language, mono- and multilingualism, critiques of and tensions with internationalisation, forces of globalisation, and motivations for internationalisation (Dafouz et al., 2016). Lecturers play a key role in engaging with teaching and learning, research and administration at HEIs and, as such, offer an acute means to a comprehensive perspective on the issue.

Studies on lecturers' perspectives in EMEMUS typically address practices, beliefs, and reflections on their views of internationalisation and its impact on their roles (Curry & Pérez-Paredes, 2021; Dafouz et al., 2016). English-Medium education lecturers have been seen to engage with internationalisation to varying degrees with limited engagement at early stages of the process (Ryan et al., 2020) and have performed in ways that can either facilitate ING (e.g. by taking a social constructivist approach to teaching disciplinary content) or that can impede it (e.g. forbidding students from translanguaging) (Curry & Pérez-Paredes, 2021). As a rich source of information, research on English-Medium education lecturers and academics evidently constitutes a growing body of work. However, working with lecturers' perspectives, beliefs, and reflections can be methodologically fraught, owing to the challenges in comparing beliefs across a range of contexts (Skott, 2014). ROAD-MAPPING offers a conceptual means for situating English-Medium education lecturers' discourse, allowing, as Borg and Alshumaimeri (2019) call for, a way in which to move beyond description towards theoretically grounded research.

Applying ROAD-MAPPING to the study of lecturers' discursive construction of ING responds directly to the espoused need to test ROAD-MAPPING in a range of contexts (Dafouz & Smit, 2016). However, to do so, a methodological approach that combines analytical processes with the ROAD-MAPPING conceptual framework is required. Hadley's critical grounded theory (2015, 2017) offers a means to bring bottom-up perspectives and the top-down ROAD-MAPPING conceptual framework together to offer a rigorous methodology. Notably, Hadley (2017) calls for the use of corpus linguistic approaches (Baker, 2006; Pérez-Paredes, 2020) in the development of relevant field codes, arguing that such an approach can reveal embedded discursive practices that may go unnoticed otherwise. With these views in mind, this chapter addresses the following research questions:

- How are Internationalisation and Glocalisation discursively constructed by EMEMUS lecturers?
- What can a combined use of corpus linguistics approaches and grounded theory afford research on ROAD-MAPPING and ING?

Data and Methodology

Data

The data used herein are composed of five semi-structured interviews and two focus groups with EMEMUS lecturers in a Spanish HEI. While the interviews lasted around 30 minutes, the focus groups lasted around 1 hour, approximately. All interviews and focus groups were conducted in English and were recorded and transcribed following so-called intelligent verbatim transcription processes (McMullin, 2021) where fillers and hesitations were not transcribed. [Table 6.1](#) presents key, descriptive information on each recording.

As these were semi-structured interviews, each lecturer was encouraged to dig deeply into their reflections, which afforded a critical engagement with their EMEMUS practices. The questions they were asked are presented in [Appendix 1](#)

Table 6.1 Interview and focus group details

| | <i>Code</i> | <i>Discipline</i> | <i>Length in minutes: Seconds</i> | <i>Word count</i> | <i>No. of participants</i> |
|----------------------|-------------|----------------------|---------------------------------------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| Interview 1 | I1 | Business and History | 29:33 | 5,046 | 2 |
| Interview 2 | I2 | Law | 26:21 | 4,754 | 1 |
| Interview 3 | I3 | Education | 33:18 | 5,256 | 1 |
| Interview 4 | I4 | Biology | 28:15 | 5,013 | 1 |
| Interview 5 | I5 | Physical Sciences | 27:11 | 4,743 | 1 |
| Focus Group 1 | FG1 | Multidisciplinary | 57:55 | 9,343 | 9 |
| Focus Group 2 | FG2 | Multidisciplinary | 55:12 | 8,974 | 9 |

and were designed to encourage an open discussion within the context of the development of bilingual education programmes. The questions in the interviews and focus groups were not aligned to the ROAD-MAPPING framework to avoid methodological circularity. To this effect, we wanted to see what notions of the ROAD-MAPPING framework would emerge from a wider discussion of their roles within their EMEMUS. Furthermore, in Interview 1, there are two participants, owing to the participants' availability. The inclusion of two participants in this interview has not impacted its quality, as participants spoke openly, sharing corresponding and diverging views based on their individual experiences and contexts. For Focus Group 1 and 2, there were different foci and the questions for each are also presented in [Appendix 1](#). Each focus group included nine participants who came from the following disciplines: Business and Economics, Law, Primary Education, New Technologies in Computer Sciences, Physical Sciences, and Biology. After the interviews and focus groups were transcribed, they were prepared for manual annotation and analysis.

Methodology

This study employed a methodological approach that merges the ROAD-MAPPING conceptual framework (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, 2020) with a critical grounded theory analytical framework (Hadley, 2017) and a corpus linguistics approach using keyword analysis (Pérez-Paredes, 2020). Overall, there were five distinct steps in this approach, as presented in [Figure 6.1](#).

In the first instance, the data were prepared for analysis. This involved parsing the interviews and focus groups at the level of the turn. We chose to work at the level of turn, as we were concerned with the discursive construction of ING, and, as we are using a combination of conceptual frameworks that are complex and integrated, meaning within the six dimensions of ROAD-MAPPING is likely to be

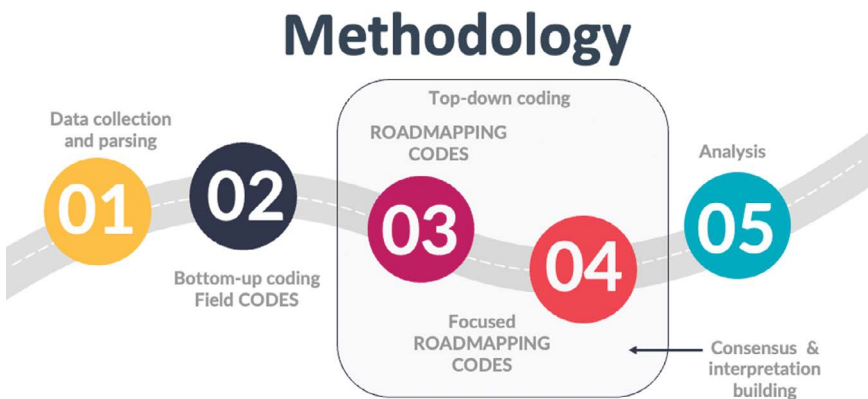


Figure 6.1 Overview of methodology

constructed in a non-linear, compounded, and iterative pattern. Following Drew (2004), we see turns as utterances bound by the changing of speakers, and parsing in this way allowed us to identify the multiple sites in the texts in which ING were socially constructed. As Talmy and Richards (2011) note, there is no consensus on how interviews can or should be theorised in applied linguistics. As corpus linguists, we place special emphasis on usage and how variation in usage reveals attitudes and ideologies towards reality, and parsing and coding by turn allowed us to identify such usage, as we discuss next. Overall, across all seven recordings, we identified 1,390 turns. It should be noted that interviewer turns were not analysed.

Once the data were prepared, the goal was to apply the ROAD-MAPPING framework. However, Dafouz and Smit identify key challenges in doing so. In recognising the breadth that the framework affords research on EMEMUS, there is a potential for overlap between the dimensions, which they also argue is equally a strength of the framework. To counteract the challenges in using the ROAD-MAPPING framework, they state that “a detailed account of the dimensions and their theoretical take is required from researchers” in order for the dimensions to become “truly operative and useful” (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 140). To respond to this requirement, in the second step, we employed a bottom-up approach. Following Hadley (2017), critical grounded theory allows for a focus on actions and social processes that are transferrable across similar social or educational environments and, procedurally, it involves tagging each turn with field, focussed, and, in the case of this study, ROAD-MAPPING codes. Fields codes are open bottom-up codes that emerge from the data, ROAD-MAPPING codes are top-down codes pertaining to the six aforementioned dimensions, i.e. Roles of English (RO), Academic Discipline (AD), (language) Management (M), Agents (A), Practices and Processes (PP), and ING. Focused codes are a bridge between these two sets of codes and a list of these codes is available in [Appendix 2](#).

In the context of this study, we used corpus linguistics to afford the generation of field codes (Hadley, 2017). To do this, we used keyword analysis¹ (Pérez-Paredes, 2020). We identified a set of keywords (single words) and key terms (phrases containing at least two words) that were annotated to each turn in which they occurred. Overall, we identified 84 keywords (e.g. Spanish, English, language, teaching) and 31 key terms (e.g. international context, second language, teaching content) that reflect education and EMEMUS-related discourse. These codes were applied to 229 and 99 turns, respectively. As an initial way into the discursive investigation of ROAD-MAPPING, these keywords and key terms served two purposes. First, they signalled the turns in which target discourse takes place and, second, they highlighted the words in these turns worthy of attention and around which EMEMUS and ROAD-MAPPING themed discourse was constructed.

Subsequently, the third step in the process involved applying the ROAD-MAPPING codes to the turns. Overall, we applied 736 ROAD-MAPPING codes across 415 turns. Several turns contain multiple codes and owing to the non-linear nature of the discourse, ROAD-MAPPING coded turns that did not contain field codes were identified as we read into the context surrounding the

field codes. These turns were included in the analysis as the overarching aim was to conduct a comprehensive investigation of the ING dimension across the texts. This tagging resulted in a comprehensive overview of the aspects of the discourse that correspond to the ROAD-MAPPING dimensions, a value indicated by Dafouz and Smit (2020).

In the fourth step, focused codes were applied to make sense of the ways in which ROAD-MAPPING was realised in the discourse. Drawing on Dafouz and Smit (2016), 58 focused codes were identified (see [Appendix 2](#) for the full list of focused codes). Multiple focused codes were applied to each turn to signal areas within the discourse that deal with multiple themes. In total, 835 instances of focused codes were applied across the 415 turns and these codes offered a nuanced and in-depth perspective on how the dimensions of ROAD-MAPPING were being realised in the interviews and focus groups. During steps three and four, to ensure coding consistency we used Stemler's (2004) consensus estimates, which is a coding approach based on the raters' dynamic agreement on the nature of the construct analysed. We iteratively and collaboratively developed the coding process and, upon completing the coding, we reviewed 20% of the codes to ensure agreement and consistency in coding practices. The final step involved the analysis of the interviews by drawing on field, focused, and ROAD-MAPPING codes, as well as the wider context. In analysing the data, first, the occurrence of all ROAD-MAPPING codes is identified to demonstrate which dimensions are present in the data. Second, ROAD-MAPPING profiles of each interview and focus group are created based on the comprehensive tagging process of the ROAD-MAPPING dimensions and these profiles are discussed with a view to identify shared patterns and idiosyncrasies in lecturers' discursive construction of internationalisation. Using ROAD-MAPPING codes, ING focused codes, and a subcorpus that includes all turns tagged with the ING code, we seek to offer an in-depth perspective on how ING is discursively constructed by the EMEMUS lecturers studied.

Results and Discussion

In the following sections, we discuss how the ROAD-MAPPING dimensions are spread across interviews and focus groups. We will pay special attention to ING and how it is co-constructed with the aid of related ROAD-MAPPING dimensions.

ROAD-MAPPING dimensions in the data

This section offers an overview of the spread of ROAD-MAPPING dimensions across our dataset. This is a necessary step to evaluate the presence of the dimensions across interviews and focus groups and understand how the different dimensions attract the lecturers' interest. We will then move on to focus on ROAD-MAPPING dimension profiles of the interviews and focus groups. The aim here is to inform readers about the construction of ING in lecturer discourse broadly, by examining the presence of ROAD-MAPPING codes.

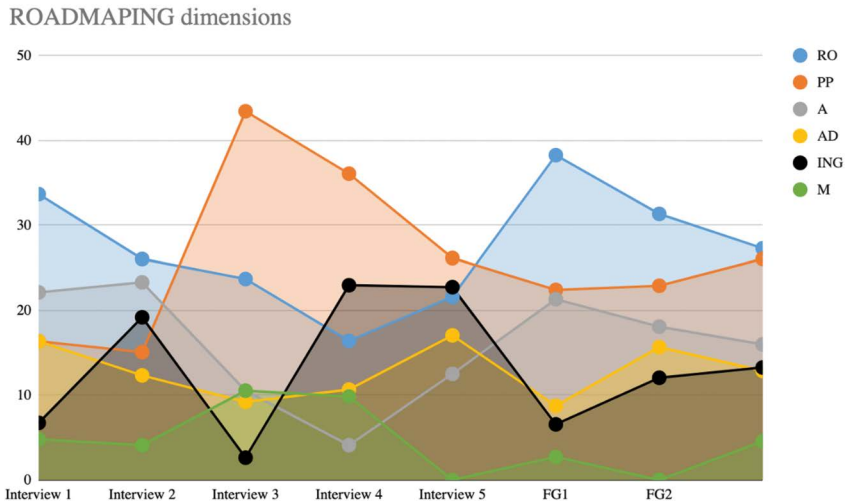


Figure 6.2 Overview of ROAD-MAPPING dimensions in the interviews and focus groups

The dominant codes in our data (Figure 6.2) are RO (27.6%) and PP (26.05%), followed by A (15.99%), ING (13.26%), and AD (12.86%). M received less attention in both interviews and focus groups (4.57%). Notably, the most frequently occurring dimensions reflect the foci of wider EMI literature (Curry & Pérez-Paredes, 2021; Solin & Hynninen, 2018).

ING is the fourth most frequent dimension in the data. The variation is considerable, though. In I4, 22.95% of the codes are ING related, whereas in I3 it is 2.63%. Variation is less prominent in dimensions such as RO, where FG1 attracted 38.25% of the codes whereas I4 attracted 16.39%.

ROAD-MAPPING dimensions in the interviews and focus groups

In the interview data, we find two distinct discursive patterns. In the first pattern, two of the dimensions are the focus of the lecturers' attention. This is the case of I4 (Figure 6.3), where PP and ING receive most of the attention and attract almost 60% of the ROAD-MAPPING codes.

Given a reported previous experience with EMEMUS teaching, I4 is often drawn to the discussion of his practices as a lecturer, offering insight into lessons as a site of engagement for the emergence of language- and content-related discursive practices, as in the following extract:

No, it would be example the same as in Spanish, because I ask a lot of questions [...] then I re-explain, or, no, I mean [...] my way of explaining, or how the class is prepared.

(I4)

Interview 4

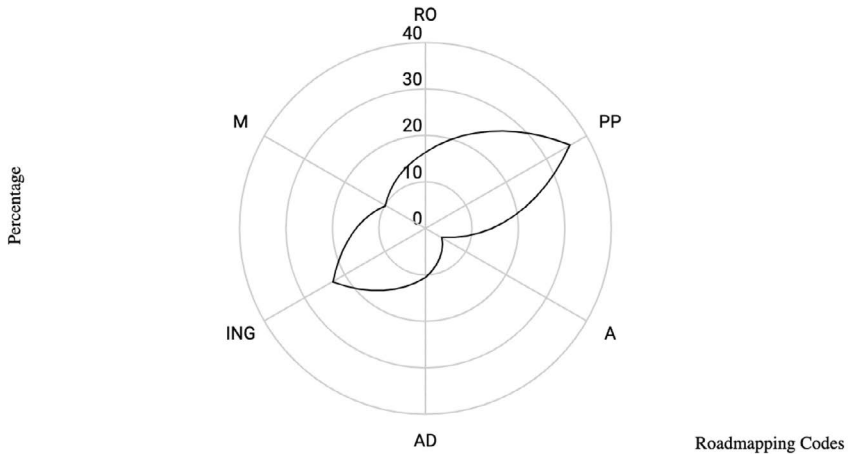


Figure 6.3 Interview 4 ROAD-MAPPING profile

I4 does not see a distinction between English and Spanish in PP-coded turns but recognises that English is a globalising force for his work, which may point to the presence of challenges to glocalisation forces with Spanish. In I3, 67% of the codes are either PP or RO. PP takes a “process rather than a product view to analyse praxis and development that might otherwise go undetected” (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 407). I3 (Figure 6.4) uses PP quite

Interview 3

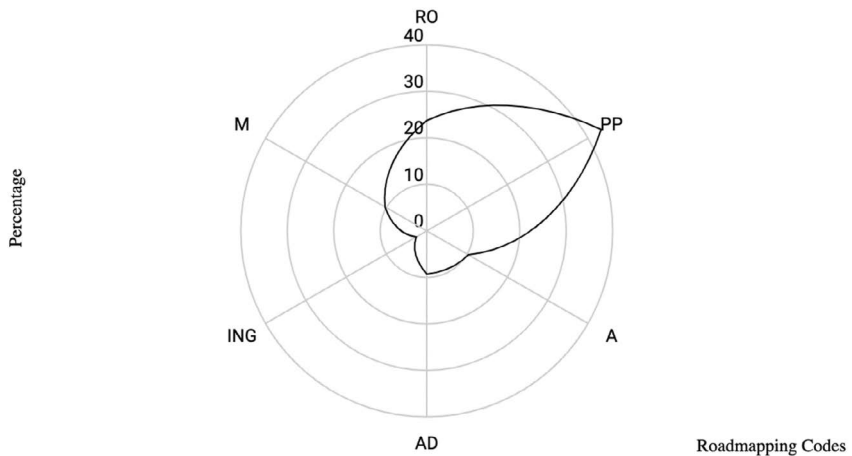


Figure 6.4 Interview 3 ROAD-MAPPING profile

often (43.4% of the codes) and it is not rare to find turns where both PP and RO are brought together:

And the presentation is everything – every interaction between them and me, even in the canteen, is in English. Even in the corridor, always that I identify someone from the bilingual group, I turn into English.

(I3)

I3 discusses “the language demands faced by the multilingual learners” (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 56) and shares evidence of the practices for language support that she, rather than the HEI, provides to learners in her group. I3 added very little to our understanding of internationalisation, as only 2.6% of the codes were ING related. While one may assume this is owing to the questions asked, arguably, the explanation is not that straightforward. There is evident variation across interviews in the degree to which ING is discussed. Therefore, it is reasonable to argue that the lecturers studied are not consistent in their considerations of ING.

In the second pattern, the lecturers focus on at least three dimensions. Their attention is, accordingly, more widely spread across a variety of topics. This is the dominant pattern in our interview data. I1 (Figure 6.5), for example, discusses Roles of English (RO), Agents (A), Practices and Processes (PP) and Academic Disciplines (AD) dimensions. These four dimensions account for almost 90% of the turns.

As with the case of I3, it can be seen that very little attention is paid to internationalisation in I1. I2 (Figure 6.6) focuses mainly on RO but his interest is spread out over A, ING, and PP.

Interview 1

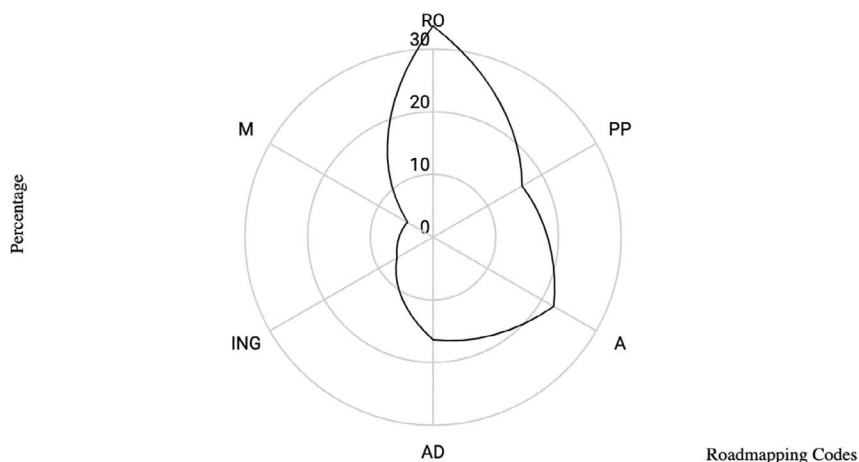


Figure 6.5 Interview 1 ROAD-MAPPING profile

Interview 2

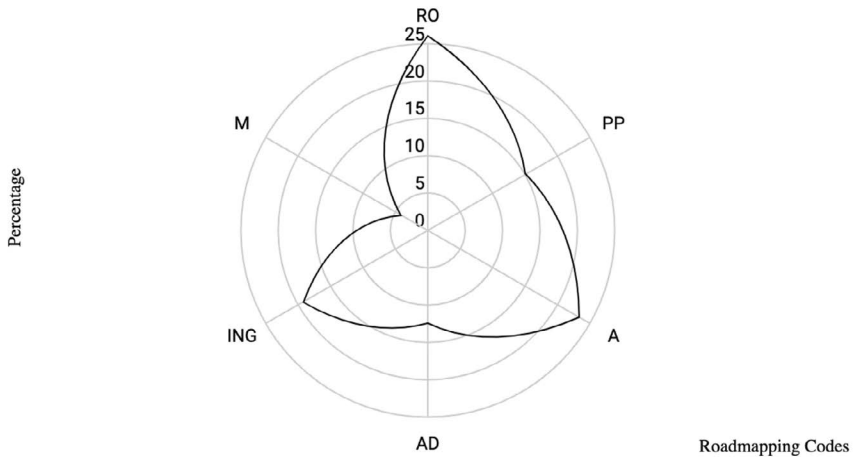


Figure 6.6 Interview 2 ROAD-MAPPING profile

I2 repeatedly engages with how the different roles of English afford a new relationship with law, as conceptualised in the home country and content lecturers in EMEMUS programmes:

At the end we are going to be teaching our subjects, but we are going to use a new tool [...] I think we should also explain maybe there the maintenance of English language.

(I2)

In I5 (Figure 6.7), PP, RO, and ING stand each for over 20% of the codes.

I5 reflects on localised practices and available pedagogic resources to support the heterogeneous nature of his group of learners (Dafouz & Smit, 2020):

If you kind of spread yourself and give good explanations with examples [...] whether you can interact and say, okay, how to improve the English through this scheme, apart from the practice itself.

(I5)

Figure 6.7 shows the presence of both PP and ING in I5. ING is arguably more relevant for I5 than for other lecturers, as his programme receives both international students and hosts lecturers from foreign institutions:

It's difficult to talk to them and to interact with them. But here the level of English is not terribly good [...] will come mostly from what they don't know, because also it's scientific English, so it's simpler, I think.

(I5)

Interview 5

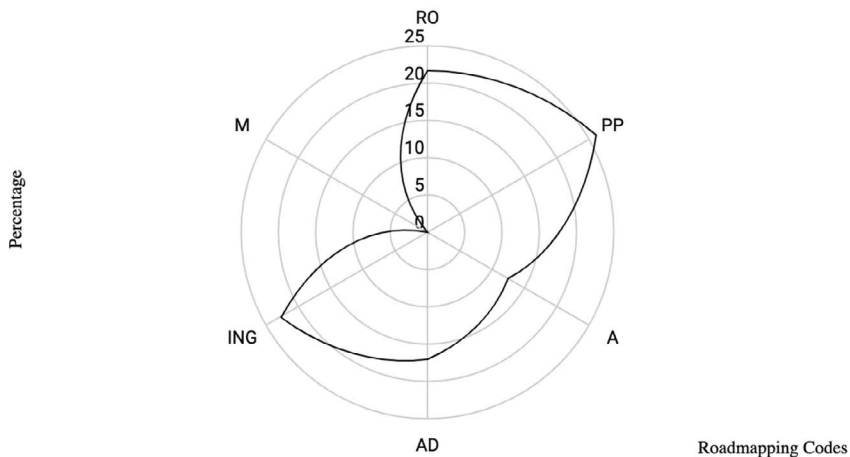


Figure 6.7 Interview 5 ROAD-MAPPING profile

The previous extract reveals tensions that emerge from the perceived lack of homogenisation of English competence across students, as exemplified in the divide between domestic vs. international students, possibly following the institutional drive to embrace an internationalisation strategy. Furthermore, unlike Ryan et al. (2020) who find hard science lecturers to be less engaged with internationalisation, both I4 and I5 discursively construct the ING theme more than any other interview or focus group.

As for the focus groups, the multidisciplinary nature of the lecturers involved as well as their number in each group ($n = 9$) may account for the differences found in their treatment of the ROAD-MAPPING dimensions. In both groups, PP and RO attract most of the lecturers' attention, which echoes Rose's (2021) points about language competence in EMEMUS and reflects the need for the ongoing monitoring of glocalisation processes (Finardi et al., 2021). However, while in FG1 attention is paid to agents (22% of the coded turns), particularly students, FG2 pays more attention to ING (13% of the coded turns). Figures 6.8 and 6.9 show the distribution of the dimensions across the two focus groups.

In FG2, we find discourse of employment goals and intercultural competence emerge (OECD, 2018; Zhang & Zhou, 2019) demonstrating lecturers' perspectives on glocalisation where they can bring the local to the global and thus cross international and local knowledge and ways of thinking:

the Latin wording is more similar to the Spanish word [...] I think that in law, our goal is not to attract foreign students, but to make our students able to develop their professional careers [...] So we have to transmit them that to grow in a bilingual system, it's just useful for those students who want, or are looking to develop their professional career.

(FG2)

Focus Group 1

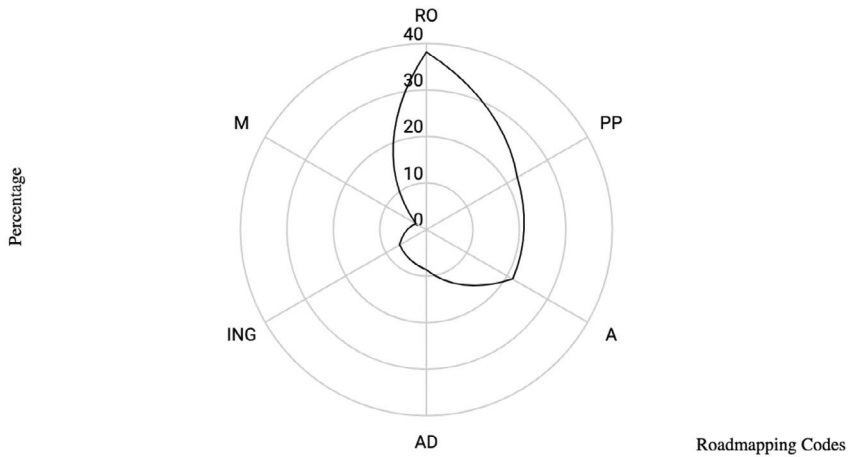


Figure 6.8 Focus Group 1 ROAD-MAPPING profile

Internationalisation and glocalisation codes

Having investigated the emergence of ROAD-MAPPING dimensions across the interviews and focus groups, it is now worth unpacking the ING codes with a view to understanding how the lecturers socially constructed ING discourses. In the turns coded as ING (6,359 words), we find different views on the bilingual programmes, different academic disciplines as well as different areas involved

Focus Group 2

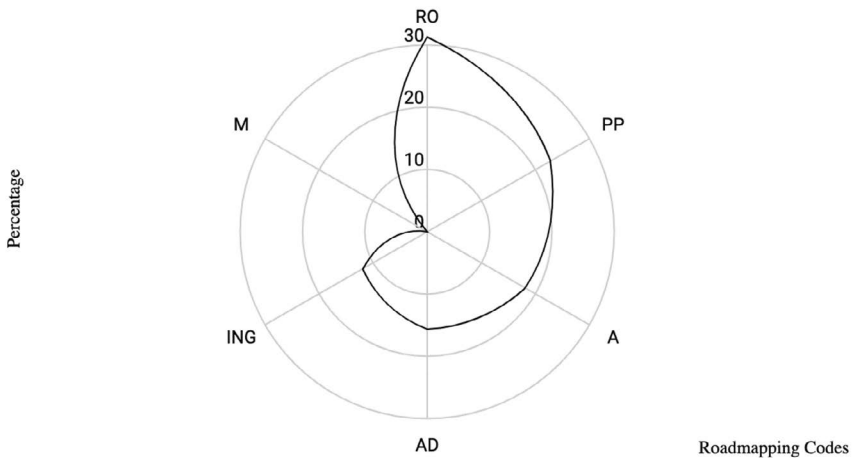


Figure 6.9 Focus Group 2 ROAD-MAPPING profile

in the communication and use of English. When considered in terms of other ROAD-MAPPING codes, RO, PP, A, and AD occur together most often with ING. In the following example, we can see the process of internationalising law content as one that generates language challenges:

Well, I suppose the difficulty will be, in my particular case, and many of the topics are the same and can't be explained exactly the same in English and in Spanish. But probably the difficulty will be to find a way to explain Spanish law in English, and through Spanish institutions, and constitutional law.
(I2)

This finding reflects Dafouz and Smit (2020) who identify that the use of English at university can negatively impact the ongoing development of students' first languages for academic purposes, the need for international curricula can limit engagement with relevant, local knowledge, and that financial and commercial aims can outrank pedagogical and disciplinary values. However, challenges emerge when the lecturers' views about local and international students do not serve to create a glocalised EMEMUS, which in Dafouz and Smit's (2020) view is one in which both forces of globalisation and local forces reflexively and dynamically construct a balanced, global, and contextualised EMEMUS. The following example reflects this point:

The Spanish pupils speak in Spanish, and each group speak in their own language [...] and I try to mix them and there's no real interaction.
(FG2)

To make sense of the breadth of the ING code, we draw on focus codes which effectively highlight subthemes in ING. For a detailed list of the focused codes, see [Appendix 2. Table 6.2](#) shows the distribution of the 168 instances of ING focused codes across the interviews and focused groups. The most frequent codes were:

- 28.5% ING1 – Different ways to internationalise (abroad, at home, internationalisation of the curriculum)
- 20% ING3 – Mobility (staff, students, programmes, research, policies, etc.)
- 18.4% ING2 – Internationalisation at home (attracting international students)
- 10.1% ING4 – Domestic students

These four codes account for over 75% of all turns coded as ING.

The distribution of the focused codes suggests the presence of a HEI model that emphasises the mobility of both domestic and international students in EMEMUS and internationalisation at home practices. As suggested by Dafouz and Smit (2016), student and teacher mobility are the “most noticeable (and sometimes only) criterion applied with regards to internationalization” (p. 408). The following section unpacks the ING focused codes.

Table 6.2 Internationalisation and Glocalisation subtheme percentages in the interviews and focus groups

| <i>ING code</i> | <i>Percentage</i> |
|-----------------|-------------------|
| ING1 | 28.5 |
| ING2 | 18.4 |
| ING3 | 20 |
| ING4 | 10.1 |
| ING5 | 1.2 |
| ING6 | 0 |
| ING7 | 6 |
| ING8 | 0 |
| ING9 | 2.3 |
| ING10 | 1.7 |
| ING11 | 2.3 |
| ING12 | 6 |
| ING13 | 0.6 |
| ING14 | 1.76 |
| Total | 100 |

Conceptualising internationalisation

Lecturers pay attention to different ways to internationalise the home institution and its activities. In turns coded as ING1, a subset of 3,500 words in the dataset, we find a wide range of subthemes that are brought into the mix. This includes the benefit of bilingual programmes, the emergence of English in the wider international research landscape, the ERASMUS programme, the evolution of the linguistic competence of new cohorts of domestic students throughout the years, as well as the conceptualisation of English as a tool to internationalise their activities. EMEMUS lecturers are dealing with increasingly multicultural and multilingual sites of engagement where both research and teaching activities are mediated by the use of the English language across different domains and academic genres. In the following paragraphs, we advance the conceptualisation of ING that emerges from the data.

While the mobility of domestic students and staff is widely perceived as a strength of the “bilingual programmes”, incoming international students are identified as contributing to the internationalisation of the university in complex ways. One of the lecturers in FG2 feels that ERASMUS and domestic students do not often interact:

The Spanish pupils speak in Spanish, and each group speak in their own language [...] I try to mix them and there’s no real interaction. I would like to think that they did better, and they just would tell me they are not really happy with the benefits of being in the bilingual group

(FG2)

It is perhaps suggested that having international students for a year or a semester may impact negatively on existing group dynamics. Preceding the extract above, the lecturer had argued that, before the arrival of the ERASMUS students, their local third year students had already created strong bonds with other peers. This is apparently perceived as an obstacle, pointing out to complex multilingual sites of engagement for students and lecturers where the roles of English and that of the local language need some further discussion in the HEI. In I5, the notion that international students will play a vital role in the internationalisation of the programme is not embraced:

I think that for the techniques of teaching, I think they would be similar because the contents will be similar [...] the message that foreign students will come [...] I don't think really that will make a difference.

(I5)

Given that internationalisation is seen to be facilitated by the presence of actors from different contexts, regions or countries (Guimarães & Finardi, 2021), words such as “foreign” and “ERASMUS” are worthy of attention. In FG2, a counter-perspective is shared when discussing foreign students:

I think that in law, our goal is not to attract foreign students, but to make our students able to develop their professional careers, and international careers.

(FG2)

The references to ERASMUS students in the ING data show a similar inclination. Thus, in I3, ERASMUS students are constructed as “having very limited levels of English” as they “do not come from England”. Conversely, I2 hopes that “international students” will contribute to an increased, meaningful use of English in the classrooms:

My dream will be for my students, the Spanish students and international students that came here to be able to work in groups, and to have [...], competitions.

(I2)

Despite the negative view of ERASMUS students, for I3, ERASMUS projects are represented as having affordances in her career:

I have been in England, from since I was in England, I continue working with that people and with other people all around Europe, and different kind of projects in big projects and also Erasmus Plus projects. So I use the English a lot.

(I3)

Furthermore, while I4 shows an appreciation for international students, the values are attributed primarily to English native speakers who join the programme

and the fact that monolingual lecturers will “force” domestic students to use English as “There’s no way for Spanish, or – no – from now on it has to be in English”. This mobility of staff and language use suggests a global presence that is perceived as successful, advancing the lecturers’ own careers as well as those of the students. The value of internationalisation is accordingly strong when there is a link with English native speakers or contexts where English is the academic lingua franca, but a lack of awareness about maintaining a local identity could be interpreted as a potential hazard for glocalisation.

Lecturers do not seem to question the need to run EMEMUS programmes in English, but, judging from the evidence above, the presence of ERASMUS students does not seem to present an advantage in terms of facilitating the use of English. The ERASMUS programme is perceived as playing a transversal role across undergraduate and graduate programmes, bilingual or not, in the HEI. The recent implementation of bilingual programmes in this university contrasts with the long tradition, almost 30 years now, of running and managing ERASMUS. We argue that there exists a complex and fragmented view of the internationalisation strategy in this HEI, where EMEMUS is perceived as an independent vector, and the incoming ERASMUS students are constructed as contingencies that may eventually either favour or disrupt the implementation of bilingual programmes.

Though internationalisation is generally perceived positively in the data, explicit mentions of tensions were found and coded as ING11. These are found in I1 and I4:

Well, I have to tell you something that you didn’t know, and we don’t have extra compensation for our classes in English. (I1)

I would [need] more assistance and more training on language [...] it’s difficult to consolidate working and personal life. [...] timetables for me here, it’s impossible [...] I would like someone who is, of course, native [...] to be on a class. (I4)

These tensions reveal that some of the lecturers are struggling with teaching on EMEMUS programmes in the HEI. As discussed in Belyaeva and Kuznetsova (2018), Ozer (2020), and Vu and Burns (2014), these tensions involve working conditions and the lack of both financial and pedagogical support. No explicit mentions to curricula or syllabi are made in all ING codes across our dataset. This absence may be explained by the fact that lecturers and institutions in early stages of internationalisation processes may find it challenging to embrace changes to curricula in order to reflect an interest in global perspectives and topics (Ryan et al., 2020).

Reflections about local and global perspectives were found in the data. ING12 is found in 6% of the ING codes, particularly across I4:

It’s an online [...] we arrange the time, usually four or five o’clock here in the morning, and in the States. And then the Master’s students from the

American side meet with the Spanish students here [...] the teaching professors before have agreed which paper they have to prepare, [...] And they interact [...] we are starting with this [...] journal club [...] and we started three years ago when this American professor came here for teaching. We all went crazy – ah, that’s fantastic!

(I4)

This fragment evidences the positive impact of international collaboration in the form of a journal club for graduate students, which could be interpreted as curricular innovation that tries to bridge the gap between Anglo-Saxon and southern European curricular practices. In a similar vein, I2 admits that having international students somehow makes him more aware of the wider European context and prompts him to search for examples and cases of interest to other contexts during his lessons.

ING1 codes provide evidence of comparative practices (Dafouz & Smit, 2020) that situate the HEI and other institutions and contexts both dialogically and materially. It is interesting that, as in Rose (2021), the home country is conceptualised as inefficient in terms of English language teaching (I2), displaying a generalised low level of English competence (I5). These views echo the findings in Macaro et al. (2019), who show that Spanish undergraduates “regard their command of English as being insufficient for EMI courses, while international students feel more confident” (p. 12). Therefore, a low proficiency in English is seen as both the condition and the cause for the need of EMEMUS programmes. However, these practices are strongly rooted in monolingual conceptualisations of EMEMUS.

Despite the widespread view that internationalisation of HEIs is driven by neoliberal policies² (Macaro et al., 2019), none of the lecturers in our data supported such views or defended the view that bilingual programmes could contribute to increasing the prestige or the ranking of the HEI (Bashir & Mirza, 2019; Butrym, 2020). ING9 is found in I5 in the following extract:

I mean, science, not yet Spanish is number one, it’s just in English, the language, so that’s what we have, just a working tool, and that’s it! [...] And even the Spanish people that are in this class are usually going into research for making a PhD [...] they see that in the future they will have to communicate with other members of the group that are not natives, Spanish, and they would have to speak English as a whole language.

(I5)

The use of English is a condition to become a member of the international research community. Other than in I5, the lack of engagement with the motivations behind EMEMUS in our data calls for specific analysis beyond the scope of this chapter. Tentatively, this lack of engagement could reveal an absence of shared values at the different strata of HEIs, and possibly a lack of awareness about how HEIs develop policies that internationalise and glocalise (Finardi

et al., 2021); however, such an absence could also indicate that these values have become accepted as given. Therefore, further investigation is required. In any event, as noted by Dafouz and Smit (2020), lecturers working across teaching, research, and administration may display gaps in knowledge or practice that make it difficult for HEIs to have a consistent view of ING. We argue that these gaps may be attributed to limited support that “can lead to poor engagement with internationalisation activities” (Ryan et al., 2020, p. 5). Therefore, further work is required to investigate and address the cause and impact of such gaps. Macaro et al. (2019) have noted that EMI and language shift “cannot be understood in isolation but must be considered as co-constitutive of the political, economic and social sphere” (p. 5). While the data-collection was not designed to access lecturers’ beliefs about the macro context where EMEMUS is situated, we find it of interest that, except for I5, the data do not afford further insight into how major political and global forces contribute to the shaping of HEIs well into the third decade of the 21st century. This could be seen as negative evidence of discourses “characterised by competition, commercialisation, self-interest and status building” (Knight & De Wit, 2018, p. 18).

What was found in ING discourses was that online teaching and the use of technology in EMEMUS play a relevant role. Online teaching and the use of videos are constructed as essential ingredients in EMEMUS well before the March 2020 pivot to online education:

When I’m teaching in English I need much more. Well, I need to use technology in order to making it clear.

(I1)

I normally – well, in my classroom my students have their own devices – all of them – so they bring their laptops, their compu- their tablets and their mobile phones, and they are reading from them; [...] They also develop – each week they had to create a cultural artefact with the results of their work

(I3)

This area, we argue, needs further attention as digital technologies have changed how we discuss, transform, share, and store ideas, identities, knowledge, and information (Traxler, 2018). Other areas that emerged in the data, and that could not be identified as part of the ROAD-MAPPING focused codes, were language learning ideologies, the creation of materials for EMEMUS, and, among others, linguistic meta-awareness in the context of EMEMUS. These too will need further attention in future research.

Applications of ROAD-MAPPING and Closing Remarks

In concluding this chapter, it is worth reflecting on the application of ROAD-MAPPING to the lecturers’ discourse studied herein. ROAD-MAPPING offers a recourse to expose complex EMEMUS realities through a discourse-driven

analysis. Working across the six dimensions of ROAD-MAPPING, it is necessary to see how other ROAD-MAPPING dimensions relate to one another and ING. While this research corroborates the view that ROAD-MAPPING enables researchers to spotlight on specific dimensions while holding all dimension in view (Dafouz & Smit, 2020), to do so, there was a need to address limitations in applying ROAD-MAPPING in EMEMUS research.

Responding to both Dafouz and Smit (2020) and Hadley (2017), this chapter proposes a novel methodology that combines corpus linguistics, elements of critical grounded theory, and ROAD-MAPPING as a means to rigorously generate field codes, construct the parameters of ROAD-MAPPING dimensions, and develop a nuanced perspective of each dimension through the focused codes presented in [Appendix 2](#). Moreover, the use of corpus linguistics to identify and code for field codes offers a means to identify salient aspects of the interviews and focus groups in which ROAD-MAPPING is constructed. An important point of note concerning this methodological approach is the need to focus on the process of coding and analysis and not the product. This is a qualitative study, and the coding process serves to create a pathway into the data, to organise the data, to compare within and across the interviews and focus groups, and to identify emerging themes under the ROAD-MAPPING framework. The number of codes applied at field, focused, and ROAD-MAPPING levels serves to illustrate the comprehensive nature of the process and the proportional distribution of codes within the coding process. The hinging of field codes on keywords and terms drew our attention to 115 distinct words and terms used to socially and discursively construct ROAD-MAPPING which would likely have not been identified without the computational approach. The keywords and terms signalled specific elements of the interviews and focus groups worthy of investigation. This approach allowed for a comprehensive identification of the six ROAD-MAPPING dimensions in the data as well as a means to determine the appropriate focused codes that align the field and ROAD-MAPPING codes. Therefore, this combined method and the focused codes ([Appendix 2](#)) are two of the key contributions that this research offers. The final contribution pertains to the findings surrounding lecturers' discursive construction of ING.

ROAD-MAPPING as a conceptual framework affords a number of advantages (e.g. it is comprehensive, discursive, reflexive, and flexible); however, a recognised challenge emerges in defining the parameters of each dimension (Dafouz & Smit, 2020). Dafouz and Smit identify that researchers need to take a detailed account of the dimension they are studying and how it is understood in their work. Overall, our study has revealed that while the lecturers appear to reflect wider held understandings of internationalised and glocalised HEIs, there is evidence of discrepancies in some lecturers' engagement with ING and inconsistencies across the group of lecturers studied. These discrepancies and inconsistencies pertain to the lecturers' views that international students do not always offer opportunities to glocalise and internationalise HEIs, and lecturers' engagement with macro perspectives on globalisation forces and internationalisation policies. Moreover, further themes emerge from the data that are relevant

to ROAD-MAPPING, including the role of digital technologies, language learning ideologies, materials development, and language awareness in EMI. Looking forward, future studies could make use of the method discussed herein and pursue the emerging themes identified.

Notes

- 1 “A keyword analysis offers statistical comparisons between the words in a target corpus and a reference corpus. Two wordlists are generated, one of the lexical items in the target corpus and the other of those in the reference corpus, and then a statistical significance test such as the log-likelihood test or the chi-square test is run. This test will give us a list that shows the *keyness* value of each word [...] A keyword analysis can identify either single word keywords or multiword keywords [...] the latter have been useful in order to identify recurrent topics and *topoi*, while the former is broadly instrumental in identifying nouns, both proper and common, that characterise a text” (Pérez-Paredes, 2020, p. 120). The reference corpus used in the analysis was the 19-billion-word English Web corpus 2013 (enTenTen13).
- 2 Hadley (2015, p. 5) conceptualises liberalism as policies that call “for the deregulation of the economy, the liberalization of trade and commerce, and the privatization of state-run organizations, [...] and state supported education”.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

For each interview, participants were asked about:

- their use and engagement with English, both professionally, and in everyday life;
- their views on teaching in English and Spanish;
- the roles of content and language in their teaching;
- their perceptions of their students' feelings about studying in English;
- their opinions on differences between academic English and academic Spanish; and
- the role of technology in their EMEMUS practices.

For the focus groups, there were two different foci. Focus Group 1 was concerned with the role of language in EMEMUS and questions and prompts pertained to:

- the roles of lecturers in EMEMUS;
- their views on language use;
- learner language;
- language challenges;
- the role of the first language; and
- the use of language technology in their EMEMUS practices.

Focus Group 2 centred on pedagogy and questions asked the group to reflect on:

- their EMEMUS pedagogies;
- the differences between teaching in English and Spanish;
- their approaches to EMEMUS instruction;
- their understanding of EMEMUS students' needs;
- their own staff development needs; and
- their use of educational technology.

Appendix 2

| <i>Focused codes</i> | <i>Definition</i> |
|----------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| RO1 | Position of English in higher education language planning |
| RO2 | Roles of other languages (foreign, national, regional, minority, or migrant languages) |
| RO3 | Multilingual policies |
| RO4 | English as the main language of dissemination of scientific ideas, and an increasingly relevant language of education |
| RO5 | Proof of English proficiency |
| RO6 | Entry requirements for EMI programmes |
| RO7 | Gatekeeper regulating (non-native) student intake |
| RO8 | Staff's proficiency level (as a necessity for teaching in EMI programmes) |
| RO9 | Educational aims linked to future professional language requirements |
| RO10 | English for specific purposes classes. |
| RO11 | Outcomes criterion. |
| RO12 | Coursework (as a subject in English for academic purposes classes, as means of teaching and learning). |
| RO13 | English can be drawn on in relation to some or all communicative skills. |
| RO14 | Lingua franca of many higher educational settings |
| AD1 | Academic disciplines |
| AD2 | Acquiring academic literacy |
| AD3 | Academic acculturation |
| AD4 | Socialisation into academic communities of practice |
| AD5 | Academic literacy knowledge: unconscious levels, the tacit, and implicit |

(Continued)

| <i>Focused codes</i> | <i>Definition</i> |
|----------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| AD6 | Epistemological characteristics of academic disciplines |
| AD7 | Hard vs. soft and pure vs. applied continuum. |
| AD8 | Assessment formats |
| AD9 | Genres |
| AD10 | Different discourses operating in different disciplines |
| AD11 | Anglocentric monocultural model potentially triggered by the use of English as the language of instruction |
| M1 | Language management statements (vary in terms of range of application and legal status) |
| M2 | Managerial decisions |
| M3 | Relevant agents |
| M4 | Appropriate practices (“de facto” policy statements) |
| M5 | Lack of explicit regulations |
| M6 | Multilingual practices |
| A1 | Institutional actors |
| A2 | Individual actors: teachers, teachers, students, admin staff |
| A3 | Collective actors (faculties, unions) |
| A4 | Contents teachers vs. language teachers |
| A5 | Agendas and interests |
| A6 | Hierarchical status |
| PP1 | Ways of doing |
| PP2 | Ways of thinking |
| PP3 | Discursive practices in the classroom |
| PP4 | Views and beliefs teachers have regarding the learning process and how their teaching can best support students |
| PP5 | Development of academic literacy skills |
| PP6 | Integrating academic literacies into disciplines based on collaborative partnerships between language experts and content specialists |
| ING1 | Different ways to internationalise (abroad, at home, intl. of the curriculum) |
| ING2 | Mobility (staff, students, programmes, research, policies, etc.) |
| ING3 | Internationalisation at home (attracting intl. ss) |
| ING4 | Domestic students |
| ING5 | Local university |
| ING6 | Monolingual vs. multilingual |
| ING7 | Value of ING |
| ING8 | Criticism of ING |
| ING9 | Motivation for the HEI to change or become international |
| ING10 | Glocalisation forces |
| ING11 | Tensions |
| ING12 | Local vs. global contexts |
| ING13 | Local curriculum vs. global curriculum |
| ING14 | Disciplinary language acquisition: local vs. global (English) |