

# Becoming A Digital Global Engineer



## Intellectual Output No 8



# English Medium Instruction

## Guide for Academic Teachers

**Poznan University of Technology**

PUT prof. dr Liliana Szczuka-Dorna

Dr Katarzyna Matuszak

M.A. Małgorzata Bączyńska

**Universitat Politècnica de Valencia**

Dra Cristina Perez- Guillot

## Table of Contents

|   |    |
|---|----|
| Introduction to EMI – academic teachers’ perspective .....  | 6  |
| 1. What is EMI .....  | 7  |
| 2. Best Practice Guidelines for Faculty .....   | 9  |
| 2. 1. Objectives of teaching through EMI .....  | 9  |
| 2.2. The student perspective .....  | 9  |
| 2. 3. Retaining integrity of content .....  | 11 |
| 2. 4. Language differences and diversity .....  | 11 |
| 2.4.1. Linguistic structures and focus .....  | 11 |
| 2.4.2. Evaluative strategies.....   | 12 |
| 2.4.3 Cohesion: A native language vs English writing .....  | 12 |
| 2. 5. Best Practice Pedagogy.....   | 12 |
| 2.5.1. Level of interaction.....  | 13 |
| 2.5.2. Speed of delivery .....  | 13 |
| 2.5.3. Staging and silence .....  | 13 |
| 2.5.4. Setting expectations .....   | 14 |
| 2.5.5. Critical thinking & independent learning .....   | 14 |
| 2.5.6. Managing questions .....   | 14 |
| 2.5.7. Pedagogical advice .....   | 14 |
| 2.6. FAQ .....  | 15 |
| 2.6.1. Could I use my mother tongue and English in my classes?.....   | 15 |
| 2.6.2. Should I correct their terminology in English? .....   | 15 |
| 2.6.3. Why do I have to approach Centre of Languages at my university?.....   | 15 |
| 2.6.4. Do I need extra meeting with students who come from different educational environments?.....   | 16 |
| 2.6.5. What is the role of IRO? .....   | 16 |
| 2.6.6. What could happen if students complain on academic teachers' pronunciation, English language competence and content understanding? ..... | 16 |
| 2.6.7. Do students who study in English need extra courses of English (EAP, ESP, writing, communication)?.....                                  | 16 |
| 2.7. Quality Assurance.....   | 16 |

|  |    |
|--|----|
| 2.8. Collaboration and Dissemination .....                                 | 18 |
| 2.9. Assessment in EMI contexts .....                                      | 18 |
| 2.9.1. Validity .....  | 19 |
| 2.9.2. Reliability .....   | 19 |
| 2.9.3. Practicality .....  | 19 |
| 2.9.4. Impact .....  | 20 |
| 2.10. Continuing Professional Development (CPD) / training support .....   | 23 |
| 2.11. Tutor checklist .....  | 24 |
| 3. Presentation Skills of Content Academic Teachers .....                  | 25 |
| 3.1. Tips for academic teachers teaching in an international setting ..... | 26 |
| 3.2. Presentation skills - an online mode .....                            | 28 |
| 4. Intercultural Communication in International Groups .....               | 30 |
| 4.1. Geert Hofstede .....  | 30 |
| 4.1.1. Geert Hofstede Dimensions .....                                     | 31 |
| 4.2. Edward Hall .....   | 38 |
| 4.2.1. Edward Hall Dimensions .....  | 38 |
| 4.3. Richard Gesteland .....   | 40 |
| 4.3.1. Richard Gesteland Dimensions .....                                  | 40 |
| 5. EMI Scenarios .....   | 43 |
| 5.1. Lesson Scenario 1 .....   | 44 |
| 5.2. Lesson scenario 2 .....   | 48 |
| 5.3. Lesson scenario 3 .....   | 52 |
| 5.4. Teaching Tips .....   | 55 |
| 6. Glossary Terms .....  | 57 |
| EMI Bibliography .....   | 60 |
| Appendixes .....   | 62 |
| Appendix A: Best practice teaching suggestions .....                       | 62 |
| Appendix B: Giving feedback .....  | 63 |
| Appendix C : Intra-departmental collaboration .....                        | 65 |
| Appendix D: Assessment .....   | 66 |

Tables:

|  |    |
|--|----|
| Table 1. Important factors when preparing classes..... | 10 |
| Table 2. Test purposes.....                            | 20 |
| Table 3. Task-related risks.....                       | 21 |
| Table 4. Support strategies.....                       | 22 |
| Table 5. Tutor checklist.....                          | 24 |
| Table 6. Tips for academic teachers.....               | 27 |
| Table 7. Tips for online presentations.....            | 28 |
| Table 8. Tips on intercultural communication.....      | 41 |
| Table 9. Teaching tips.....                            | 55 |
| Table 10. Glossary terms.....                          | 57 |
| Table 11 . Best practice teaching suggestions.....     | 62 |
| Table 12. Giving feedback.....                         | 64 |
| Table 13. Collaboration.....                           | 65 |
| Table 14. Reasons for testing.....                     | 66 |
| Table 15. Testing principles.....                      | 66 |



## Introduction to EMI – academic teachers’ perspective

English Medium Instruction (EMI) has received a lot of attention in recent years because of the potential benefits for students. EMI is seen to give students a double advantage: both knowledge of their subject and an improvement in their English proficiency. The reasons for the popularity of EMI in higher education vary depending on the country. However, despite the results of some studies indicating that students understand more content when learning in their first language compared to studying in English, the move towards teaching in English is becoming increasingly common at many European Universities.

In order to address this change, the authors of the Guide for Academic Teachers have prepared a concise document which examines the different issues and problems associated with EMI. Given that EMI context has different characteristics, this document focuses on how teachers can implement EMI in their teaching, taking into consideration the local classroom characteristic and culture.

How should the Guide for Academic Teachers be used?

*The Guide for Academic Teachers can be read as a whole document or in chapters.*

Who should read the Guide for Academic Teachers ?

*The Guide for Academic Teachers is prepared for academics who are just starting or those who are continuing to teach in English in an international environment.*

Could an academic teacher implement the ideas from the Guide?

*Yes, academic teachers may adopt the theoretical knowledge or lesson scenarios for their own use.*



## 1. What is EMI

There are many definitions of what English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) is. This Guide will mention the most common:

*The use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English (Macaro et al., 2018).*

or

*An educational system where content is taught through English in contexts where English is not used as the primary, first, or official language (Rose and McKinley, 2018).*

The following question may be considered, taking into account the above definitions: Is there a difference between teaching a subject through EMI and teaching it through your native language? It should be emphasized that teaching in English requires not only changing the language, but also the method of teaching, and this change helps academic teachers to accommodate the diversity they may have in the classroom.

It may not be possible to design the course and classes given in EMI in the same way as a native language course or classes. There are numerous and often predictable challenges and limitations when delivering lessons in English: the language proficiency of the lecturers, an inadequate level of English language proficiency of domestic and international students, a lack of interest and motivation among students and staff, a lack of confidence to learn in a foreign language, the additional workload for lecturers and students, a lower quality of teaching and lower transfer of knowledge, and the unwillingness of lecturers to teach in a foreign language.

One might ask why universities offer courses in English if they have to face so many challenges. There are many different reasons for this. Firstly, English has become a *Lingua Franca* and the globalization of higher education is taking place in English. Most experts and researchers tend to agree on the main advantages and benefits of EMI in a globalized and increasingly interconnected world. These include the internationalization of curricula in higher education, the attraction of international partner universities and expansion of international networks, student and staff mobility, participation in international projects and research, access to teaching and research materials, graduate employability worldwide, cultural diversity, intercultural competences, foreign language proficiency and an international reputation and visibility.



*Internationalization of higher education remains a priority for universities worldwide, and movements are inextricably linked with increasing the role of English in the university setting (Galloway and Rose, 2015).*







## **2. Best Practice Guidelines for Faculty**

This part of the Guide for Academic Teachers presents the document developed for academic teachers working at European universities. The tips, pieces of advice and additional information presented in the document can be adopted in different contexts at non-English speaking universities.

### ***2.1. Objectives of teaching through EMI***

EMI essentially refers to the teaching of a subject using the medium of the English language, but where there are no explicit language learning aims and where English is not the national language.

While the focus of the teaching is on subject content, teachers cannot ignore some linguistic elements such as cohesion, fluency, logical connections in arguments, etc., much as they would do in their first language. This means teachers will need to pay some attention to how subject content is expressed so that it considers academic language sub-skills rather than English language per se. This is an important point that affects pedagogy.

### ***2.2. The student perspective***

It is critical to think first and foremost about the students – the receivers of the content through EMI and what might affect the quality of their learning and experience. Most classes will have a range of contexts for teaching EMI. These would include classes where all the students are native languages speakers (e.g. Spanish L1), as well as ones which have a mix of international students, some of whom may be native speakers of English and may have a very limited knowledge of the official language or none at all.

These students will come from a range of different learning backgrounds and will also be operating in a second language, therefore you will need to take certain factors into account when preparing classes. These features will guide how teaching is conducted in terms of quantity of content per lecture and teaching approach.



| No. | Factors  |
|-----|--|
| 1.  | The 15-20 minute attention span for listening and concentration may be reduced when listening in a second language.  |
| 2.  | Different languages express similar ideas through different linguistic structures. This means students may have an extra cognitive load when listening and learning in a second language.  |
| 3.  | Students will have different learning styles depending on where they come from. They may come from a very teacher-centred approach (e.g. many South-East Asian countries) or from a more didactic or student-centred approach (e.g. some countries in northern Europe). Their experience of learning style will affect how quickly and effectively they understand information.  |
| 4.  | Most students will be focused on content not language learning. They may be frustrated by their language level but, nevertheless, their concern will be to absorb content.   |
| 5.  | Many students, especially those from teacher-centred learning experiences, will have a very heightened sense of the relationship between students and teacher. In some cultures asking questions is seen as a threat to the teacher and also a risk for students in case they display a lack of knowledge. This means teachers cannot rely on students to raise questions, for example for clarification, even if they have a significant problem. |
| 6.  | For most 1 <sup>st</sup> year students everything will be very new, i.e. the whole university experience. Even if they are post-graduates, university life here may be new to them. They will need time to adjust to academic life and its expectations, as well as to operating fully in English, therefore it is best not to overload them in early lectures/sessions.   |

Table 1. Important factors when preparing classes



### ***2. 3. Retaining integrity of content***

Most teachers are concerned about ensuring that their EMI classes cover the same curriculum as would be required in their specific country. This can sometimes present problems if you feel your EMI classes run at a slower pace, or even lower level, than your mother-tongue -based courses.

It may not be possible to design the course and classes given in EMI in the same way as the mother tongue classes, especially if the focus is on depth of learning and retention rather than quantity of learning, therefore you may want to consider the following to ensure your EMI classes are properly supported:

- agree a subject specialist vocabulary / terminology within the Faculty (please see Framework document on university policy on this)
- look at ways in which work can be given over to the students to ensure that content is covered either in preparation or as follow-up (supporting learner autonomy / independent learning stats)

### ***2. 4. Language differences and diversity***

Students coming to university are already learning a new language - academic or discipline-specific language. This can still be true at Masters/Postgraduate level. On top of this, students may find working in academic English challenging because of specific differences with their first language (L1). You cannot be expected to adjust your style to accommodate these but it is worth thinking about their impact on learning if you feel an individual or group of students is struggling.

#### **2.4.1. Linguistic structures and focus**

Different languages process information differently and this can be reflected in the order of information. For example, many European languages have a Subject Verb Object (SVO) order but some languages such as Greek and Russian might have an OVS order. In this case, students with these L1 backgrounds may need to do extra work to process information. This supports pedagogies which promote slightly slower, more repetitive, and more interactive presentations.



### **2.4.2. Evaluative strategies**

Different languages have very diverse approaches to how the speaker or writer represents their evaluation of a proposition. We generally do this by taking an epistemic stance with language which represents certainty and uncertainty, such as using *maybe*, *possibly*, *certainly*, *probably*, *it could be that*, *it might be that*, etc. In general, research shows that, for example, Indian speakers use less of these epistemic features and Chinese speakers use them a lot. Academic English prefers to use epistemic features rather than present ‘absolute’ facts and students need to learn this style. However, Spanish tends to use these features a lot, therefore when you present information in English you are likely to replicate this as it is part of your speaker identity. This means students whose L1s are different may again need more time to process information and your stance on it. Again this supports pedagogies which foster interactive activities that allow students to discuss certainty and uncertainty and place it in their own context.

### **2.4.3 Cohesion: A native language vs English writing**

Most L1 academics are aware that a native language and English, especially English academic writing, differ in that English is very concise and wholly focused on the main thread of a proposition. In contrast, a native language can allow some digressions and further explanations and clarifications. Other languages, which will represent those of the wider student group, also vary enormously in how ideas and information are presented in writing. If students are studying in English, they will need to ‘learn’ an English academic style of writing through reading, etc. While it is not the tutor’s role to ‘teach’ students English, the students will probably need guidance on how to write concisely and in the very focused way that academic English demands. This can be dealt with via feedback on overall cohesion in their writing and by encouraging detailed planning before they start writing (or doing a formal presentation).

## **2. 5. Best Practice Pedagogy**

Most teachers will be aware that there is a significant difference in teaching approaches across different cultures. This can range from the highly interactive UK model to the very teacher-centred model commonly found in S. E. Asian



countries. By teaching in English it is not expected that teachers should adopt an English teaching model and it is not part of EMI methodology to promote one teaching style over another. It is recognized that teachers will have their own teaching style and approach, and they will want to retain this. However, teachers will need to think about how students absorb information in a second language and it is a good idea to adjust your teaching style to make sure that it allows the students the best and easiest access to the information you are trying to get across. In general, this means some or all of the following should be considered when delivering lectures, seminars, etc. The behavioural pedagogical demands differ from institution to institution and, of course, across disciplines.

### **2.5.1. Level of interaction**

In order to ensure that teachers can check students' understanding, it is particularly important to build in some staged interaction into lectures. This may need to be much more than you would have when teaching in your first language. This can involve short, mini-activities for students to do in pairs, direct problem-solving questions or concept checking questions.

### **2.5.2. Speed of delivery**

Most first language speakers speak much faster than English speakers and those speaking other European languages. In addition, students may need slower delivery as they are functioning through a second language. Remind yourself not to speak too fast and use stressed words for emphasis. (Watching TED talks can give you a good idea of pace and stress timing).

### **2.5.3. Staging and silence**

In terms of the above-mentioned issue of shortened concentration spans when listening in a second language, it is a good idea to explicitly divide your lecture into sections or stages with a mini activity or even silence in between. Therefore, with a one-hour lecture you might want to 'chunk' the information into 3 or 4 parts with space in between for students to absorb what they have just heard. This is less important in lab sessions where interaction is ongoing and the activity changes regularly.



#### **2.5.4. Setting expectations**

It is vital that teachers set aside time to outline their expectations clearly at the beginning of a course. This should certainly include features such as rules about speaking in English, the kind of learning you expect them to engage in, a recognition of the challenges they may encounter and encouragement to speak about any issues, as well as a proposal for a partnership with them as you negotiate English together.

#### **2.5.5. Critical thinking & independent learning**

Teachers considered critical thinking and independent learning the two most essential skills required for academic studies and the least evident in students. Students need to be made aware that these are skills they need to acquire. Teachers could preface activities by stating which of these skills the activity, task or project promotes and what is expected from them.

#### **2.5.6. Managing questions**

Many teachers can be nervous about dealing with questions when functioning in English and ensuring that their response meets students' needs. When students ask questions, this is, in fact, an opportunity to promote independent learning by asking students to offer suggestions or do their own research to find out the answers, rather than the answer always being given by the teacher. This is especially important for students who come from teacher-centred learning cultures who may expect to be 'spoon-fed' answers. Use questions as an opportunity for student-ownership of their learning.

#### **2.5.7. Pedagogical advice**

Academic teachers might improve their skills following some pieces of advice:

- Use grouping models and cooperative learning as a strategy for classroom management;
- Use project work as stimulation for autonomous learning;



- Use integrated tasks and activities to motivate learners;
- Correct any misuse of academic language, e.g. cohesion in writing, etc.
- Explore the use of technology for accessing materials in English (or other languages), doing collective projects across geographies and establishing connections with foreign universities.

## **2.6. FAQ**

### **2.6.1. Could I use my mother tongue and English in my classes?**

It is fine to code-switch but it should be kept to a minimum and within a class. This should be for key explanations if students indicate confusion. It is not acceptable to either:

- a) start a class in English and switch to official language half way through
- b) start a whole course in English and then switch to official language after a few weeks.

### **2.6.2. Should I correct their terminology in English?**

Terminology is important and it is vital, as in a first language, to ensure students use it correctly. However, teachers should not devote their time to correcting students' general English; advise them to contact the Language Centre and take extra lessons if you are worried about them.

### **2.6.3. Why do I have to approach Centre of Languages at my university?**

Centre of Languages at your university could help you with:

- materials and books on methodology of teaching in English,
- language support,
- short intensive courses tailor-made,



- peer review and coaching of your classes,
- and many others you might have.

**2.6.4. Do I need extra meeting with students who come from different educational environments?**

Yes, it could be beneficial for your course to organise extra class (it could be also your first meeting with a group) with ice-breaking activities. We recommend reading the chapter on intercultural issues.

**2.6.5. What is the role of IRO?**

Staff employed in IRO closely cooperate with faculty administrative staff on lists of students, visa documents and orientation sessions organized at different universities.

**2.6.6. What could happen if students complain on academic teachers' pronunciation, English language competence and content understanding?**

We would recommend a student representative to consult the problems with the Dean of the Faculty.

**2.6.7. Do students who study in English need extra courses of English (EAP, ESP, writing, communication)?**

Yes, it would be beneficial for students (especially those who need improvement in writing and academic skills) to participate in such courses.

**2.7. Quality Assurance**

It is sensible for teachers to measure themselves against some university-wide standards to reassure themselves that students are getting a consistent offer. This can help increase confidence in your approach while consistency helps to reduce anxiety and complaints from students. However, it is also worth considering a self-evaluation of your 'standards' within a class or course. For each course:





- a) share with students:
  - set standards of learning outcomes in English;
  - details of what you expect students to understand;
  - information about how they will be assessed (e.g. ongoing assessment, projects, a final exam, etc.)
- b) have a systemized approach to feedback which students have access to. Feedback is very important for students and it needs to go beyond 'right vs wrong'. They need details of how to improve and can share work as peers to help with this. Explain to them what kind of feedback you will give and how you expect them to respond to this feedback, e.g. by repeating work, double-checking gaps / errors in the next assignment, etc. See Appendix B for suggestions.
- c) collaborate with colleagues on intra-departmental checks both for yourself and to check consistency for students. Share standards and expectations so that students get a consistent and coherent message. You do not need to do everything in the same way but there should be some broad approaches which are consistent for the students and which explicitly support their learning. See Appendix C for suggestions.
- d) collaborate with peers on challenges and assessments. Make sure you have the same goals even if they are achieved in different ways, and share ideas for resolving challenges.
- e) make it clear what it is that you expect from the students via learning objectives, assessment criteria, aspects of independent learning, etc.
- f) foster wider academic skills in students. Teachers should ensure students are aware of their need to acquire these skills and should help students in that journey. These skills need to be actively and overtly practised by building them into any work or tasks. If students successfully acquire these skills, it will make learning more effective. The skills identified are, in order:
  - independent learning
  - critical thinking, analysis and evaluation



- constructing an argument in writing and organizing written work
- active listening and note-taking
- summarizing in writing and using source texts

## ***2.8. Collaboration and Dissemination***

Although this may involve initial work, once the following options are set up, they can be used to save time and improve quality. Work with colleagues to set up processes within your Faculty that can advance and support skills in teaching in EMI, e.g.:

- a) a system for cascade training
- b) a mentor programme where teachers with experience in teaching EMI can be a support system for those new to the process. NB. this does not have to be within the same department or Faculty.
- c) develop wiki pages (or in excel) for terminology used across your field. This may vary, e.g. UK vs US English, but it is important to have a consistent reference point which can eventually be shared with students so that they can take responsibility for their learning.
- d) video your class and watch yourself back and/or share it with others

## ***2.9. Assessment in EMI contexts***

Any assessment tasks, whether in English or another language, need to adhere to the four key testing principles in order to make sure they are valid, fair and reliable. Subject areas will assess learners in different ways and at different times, but these principles apply to all assessments whether part of learning progression or summative (end of year) assessment. See also Appendix D.

The four principles - **validity, reliability, practicality, and impact** - have been developed from normal ethical research principles.



### 2.9.1. Validity

**Validity** refers to whether the test is valid in two ways:

- a) ensure that you are testing what you think you are testing
- b) ensure that the test task reflects a real life task and/or classroom practice

Test tasks that focus on one skill should not be overburdened with the need to understand other skills. This may mean it is necessary to stage or break up tasks.

Test tasks should also require the test taker to represent what they might do in a real life situation or tasks that they have done in class. A good example in an academic setting is a presentation or the writing of a report which reflects both usual class practice and the real world of work, which graduates hope to enter.

The requirement of validity also means that any results or feedback should be contained within the extent of the test task. For example, if multiple-choice questions are used to check knowledge, then the results should not be used to draw other conclusions.

### 2.9.2. Reliability

**Reliability** focuses on the quality of a test which ensures it is the same for each test taker. This might be across year groups or within a year. It also overlaps with validity in that the test task must be rigorous enough to draw reliable conclusions, i.e. there must not be elements of the test creating 'noise' or irrelevancies which affect the results. This is a key factor in a bilingual setting where language can interfere with content and thus create risks around the results.

### 2.9.3. Practicality

The third principle is **practicality** which means that it must be possible to conduct the test within a reasonable time frame for both test taker and assessor so that fatigue does not affect assessment, etc. and it is practical for a number of takers, e.g. a large class.



### 2.9.4. Impact

The fourth principle is now seen as increasingly important in assessment theory and refers to the **impact** that the test has on learning. For example, a test biased towards multiple choice might overly focus students on this type of learning or practice. It also refers more broadly to how a test affects the wider learning context, e.g. how a summative test may affect self-esteem in future learning, etc.

These four principles overlap and support each other in an ideal test and should be borne in mind when constructing any test via a checklist (see appendix D) which test designers can use to validate their tasks.

#### *Tasks and test purpose*

It is important to connect the task to the testing purpose and the kind of information you need about students' learning, progress or achievement.

| Task type                                  | Useful for testing   |
|--|--|
| Multiple- choice questions                 | Facts, details and understanding concepts  |
| Visuals such as graphs, graphics, etc.     | Details  |
| Labeling diagrams, matching features, etc. | Details and cognitive understanding  |
| Open answers (i.e. short sentences)        | Main points and details  |
| Reports or essays                          | Holistic skills and understanding, summary skills, evaluative skills, expressing & supporting ideas and opinions |
| Presentations                              | Focus, clarity and summary skills; detail and main points  |
| Collaborative tasks                        | Teamwork and holistic skills; expressing and supporting ideas and opinions                                       |

**Table 2: Test purposes**



### Risks

When a cohort of students are operating in a second language, there is a test risk that it may be hard to assess content knowledge if language interferes. This aspect, where language knowledge may interfere with expressing subject knowledge, is classified as high, medium or low risk and teachers need to be aware that this can cause issues in reliability in assessing subject knowledge.

| Task type                                  | Linguistic risk  |
|--|--|
| Multiple-choice questions                  | Can be high or low depending on if it is factual or conceptual (effect of English in test items) |
| Visuals such as graphs, graphics, etc.     | Generally low  |
| Labeling diagrams, matching features, etc. | Generally low  |
| Open answers (i.e. short sentences)        | Medium or high (effect of students' expressive English)  |
| Reports or essays                          | High (effect of students' expressive English)  |
| Presentations                              | High (effect of students' expressive English + anxiety)  |
| Collaborative tasks                        | Generally low as team can support and repair   |

Table 3. Task related risks

### Assessment criteria

All tests should be developed with the performance criteria as a starting point, i.e. what are you trying to assess and what kind of performance is acceptable? Criteria can be Holistic (general performance such as when you mark an essay) or Analytical (specific to aspects of subject knowledge). Assessment criteria



should ALWAYS be communicated to the students in very specific terms (eg. via a handout) for each assessment task. It is not enough to assume that they understand the criteria from a generic student handbook. You need to let them know exactly what you are assessing them on so that they have every chance to perform to these standards.

Teachers can vary how the assessment is applied, e.g. by oneself, by a peer or by the teacher, and it is a good idea to vary this across the course. You will also need to consider the weighting or balance of your criteria. Generally, if you weigh one criteria heavily (e.g. organization of work), then students will pay most attention to that, so this can be a good way to ‘correct’ any gaps or weaknesses that the class has.

### *Collaboration for reliability*

Collaboration is a key feature in ensuring reliability in all forms of assessment.

- a) In task design, this means checking with peers that the task makes sense and is an effective assessment tool. You can also check any standardization with similar courses.
- b) In assessment: this is probably the most important area to collaborate on. Time is of course always an issue but it is worth, for example, asking a colleague to simply re- mark an essay or report to ensure that you agree on the standard, or to swap sets of assignments to mark. The more collaboration that can be built in, the better for standards and reliability. This collaboration is also support for the teacher of a student who questions a mark. Collaboration can evidence reliability.



### Support strategies

| No. | Support strategy  |
|-----|---|
| 1.  | Simplify instructions, e.g. use lower level words, shorter sentences, bullet points, etc. |
| 2.  | Create glossaries if the terminology is ambiguous   |
| 3.  | Encourage pair work   |
| 4.  | Demonstrate and give examples   |
| 5.  | Use a variety of testing methods across the year  |
| 6.  | Collaborate on marking with colleagues  |

**Table 4. Support strategies**

### **2.10. Continuing Professional Development (CPD) / training support**

The university via Language Centres (LC) offers a full range of support for teachers who wish to develop both language and other skills in teaching via EMI. There are also external CPD opportunities. Training provision is based on teachers' needs, therefore it is helpful if you can approach LC when you have a particular requirement as solutions can then be proposed which may incorporate a wider group.



### 2.11. Tutor checklist

A final 'checklist' for tutors to consider when reviewing their EMI course content, e.g.

| No. | Question  |
|-----|---|
| 1.  | Does your course offer a variety of student interaction? When? How?   |
| 2.  | Does your presentation have 'silence' or gaps for content absorption?   |
| 3.  | Have you 'staged' your content presentations into 15/20min subtopics?   |
| 4.  | Do you ask a range of questions, including ones which are easy to answer as well as concept checking questions? |
| 5.  | Have you included activities to promote critical thinking and/or independent learning?                          |
| 6.  | Have you got a process for offering meaningful feedback that improves learning?                                 |
| 7.  | Have you explained clearly to students the assessment criteria for any assignments you want them to complete?   |

Table 5. Tutor checklist







### **3. Presentation Skills of Content Academic Teachers**

Being an academic teacher is not only an art, but also a serious challenge. Skills in communication and presentation seem to be as important as skills in listening, collaboration, adaptability and empathy. A passion for academic teaching means both a lifelong love of self-learning and developing presentation skills which are absolutely necessary for academic teaching. Lectures, tutorials, conference participation, panel discussions and many other forms of academic teaching require advanced presentation skills.

Presentation skills are an important part of communication and are useful in different aspects of life. Academic teachers realize when they choose their profession that they will be up in front of a group of students or other people on a daily basis. But many may not realize that the acquisition of presentation skills can make their job easier and more effective.

Public speaking and communication skills are crucial for academic teachers, trainers and education staff. Public speaking is the process of delivering a speech or a presentation to a live audience in a structured, deliberate manner in order to educate, inform, convince or influence them. As for every process, public speaking and presentation skills can be learned and improved. However, it is true that some people have natural communication skills while others need to work on their public speaking competences. Mastering public speaking techniques, learning how to structure a speech or a presentation effectively and how to engage the audience, as well as how to receive personalized feedback, are some crucial elements to consider. Effective presentation skills are important because they help keep a presentation interesting, help the presenter communicate with confidence, and motivate the audience to listen. The preparation and delivery of a presentation, its structure, the language you use, your manner, your body language and visual aids together with the content all give the final overall impression. When preparing any speech, you need to take into account the audience and time limit allowed, the purpose of the speech, the method of speaking you wish to use as well as how you select and limit the topic. Ways of collecting material and researching the topic, writing the outline and notes for delivery, preparing slides and rehearsing the speech are also of extreme importance. Being aware of anxiety and knowing ways of dealing with stress can be also very helpful in public speaking.



### ***3.1. Tips for academic teachers teaching in an international setting***

Bearing in mind that different cultures approach public speaking differently, before delivering your speech, you should do your homework and find out what the nationalities of your students are. Europeans, for example, prefer a more formal style of presentation in comparison to Americans. They do not like a lot of moving, walking or gesturing during the presentation, and they usually stand during speech making. (North) Americans, however, prefer an animated style of presentation. They use expressive and theatrical gestures, may walk around the room or sit on the edge of a table, maintain eye contact during the last few words of a sentence and hold it for a second or two, or sometimes even keep one hand in a pocket, etc., all of which make their presentation more vivid, chilled out and dynamic. There are, however, some aspects to consider when delivering a presentation to an international audience.

The tips below provide a quick reference point and may serve as a useful prompt for staff who are teaching courses or modules and delivering presentations to groups containing international students.



| No. | Tips  |
|-----|---|
| 1.  | Find out what the typical cultural codes are for the students you will teach and what the similarities and differences are between your culture and theirs.   |
| 2.  | It is good to consider your assumptions and answer the questions: What expectations do you have of your students or audience and what expectations do they have of you? Do you understand each other correctly? Do not necessarily expect them to understand all the academic conventions you may take for granted. |
| 3.  | Remember that your audience needs to get accustomed to your use of language and your accent. Try to pronounce sounds clearly and do not speak too fast.   |
| 4.  | Hand gestures are a great way of reinforcing what you're saying but in different cultures they can have different meanings and interpretations.   |
| 5.  | Be careful with your use of metaphors, idioms or jokes. If you use them, remember to explain them properly.   |
| 6.  | Encourage your audience to speak but do not push and force them. Respect students who are reluctant to give their own views or feedback.  |
| 7.  | Acknowledge and celebrate the diversity of the audience. A multinational audience may make for more active participation and a more rewarding experience both for you and the audience members themselves.  |

Table 6. Tips for academic teachers

The opportunity to deliver a professional presentation to an international audience is a privilege. However, you can never have enough experience, as each presentation can differ enormously.



### 3.2. Presentation skills - an online mode

As soon as the knowledge of how to deliver a speech effectively in front of a large audience has been acquired, mastered and practiced, there comes the issue of electronic meetings, online conferences, webinars, e-courses held synchronously as well as lectures or professional trainings. Adjusting a presentation to the online environment together with the way of delivery, manner of speaking and electronic equipment seem to be crucial in this aspect. The knowledge of how to present oneself online and how to provide the information online may result in a successful communication.

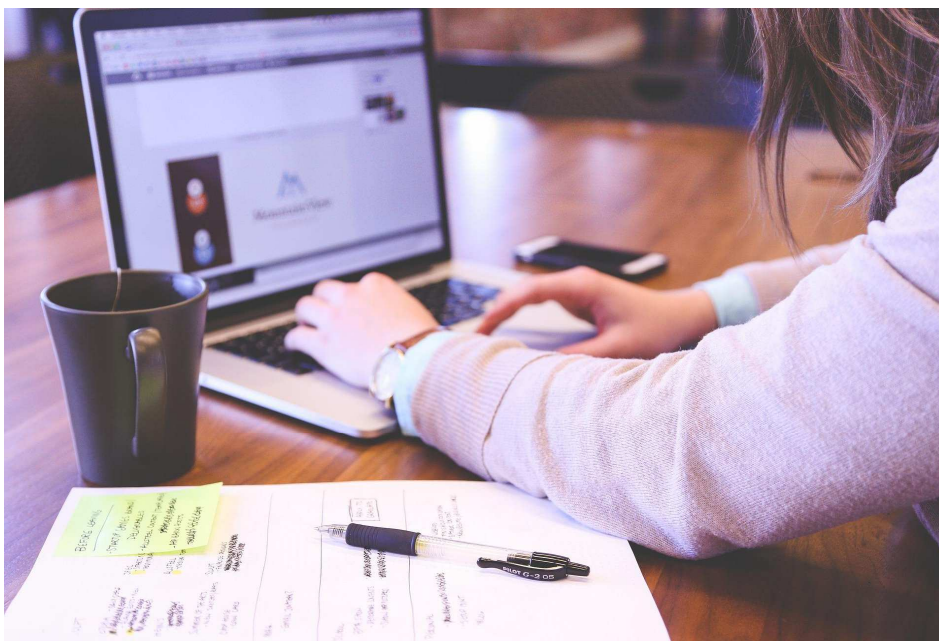
The tips below provide you with a checklist of the most important issues and tasks to do before, during and after an online presentation.

| No. | Tips  |
|-----|---|
| 1.  | Test your equipment before the meeting, i.e. computer audio, microphone and your camera.  |
| 2.  | Make sure your presentation is on if you are planning to share it with your audience.   |
| 3.  | Find the best possible setting for your online presentation, such as proper lighting and background. To make sure your audience sees you without any problems, take advantage of natural light placed in front of you. The background needs to be clean and organized not to deconcentrate your audience. |
| 4.  | Check your internet connection and switch off all notifications on your smartphone and computer.  |
| 5.  | During delivery, make sure you look directly into your camera or in the middle of the display.  |
| 6.  | Choose a quiet and comfortable room. Any background noise may be extremely disturbing to you and your audience.   |
| 7.  | Staying active and focus online is a challenge for both, the speaker and the audience, hence try to take advantage of different forms of interactive activities like breakout rooms for discussions, chat for asking questions etc.   |



|     |  |
|-----|--|
| 8.  | No one is able to stay online for hours. Remember to take some breaks. Even a five-minute break every hour will not make much difference, but your audience will be grateful for refreshing their minds. |
| 9.  | Dress to impress irrespectively of the mode of your presentation. Even if people do not see the entire silhouette, a proper dress code will help you stay confident and look prepared.                   |
| 10. | Speak clearly.   |
| 11. | Body language is also important online. Sit straight, avoid slouching, keep the feet on the floor. Use hand gestures if necessary, smile and nod especially if your microphone is muted.                 |

Table 7. Tips for online presentations





## **4. Intercultural Communication in International Groups**

Once the decision has been made to switch to English due to course requirements, the majority of teachers fear that their language skills may turn out to be worse than those of the students. Therefore, teachers are inclined to either fully concentrate on refreshing their English, i.e. fluency, speaking, etc. or to revise some methodological aspects. However, the cultural aspect is usually forgotten despite it being so crucial in communication in a foreign language. Since English has become the language of instruction, simultaneously, it has also become the tool for intercultural communication, and a failure to understand cultural differences in an international group may result in serious consequences. A lack of cultural competence may cause offense, usually unintentional, may lead to conflicts between particular group members or between the teacher and the group, may give rise to misunderstanding, or even result in a complete breakdown in communication, which could have been avoided easily. The Guide for Academic Teachers introduces three important names in intercultural communication that academic teachers should know when teaching international groups.

### **4.1. Geert Hofstede**

Following G. Hofstede, culture is “the collective programming of the mind distinguishing the members of one group or category of people from others”. Certainly, a representative of one group does not necessarily reflect the characteristics of the entire group, and we do find distinctive features among particular individuals in a given culture. However, it is still the cultural setting and cultural background that is common to a given group of people, and it does influence our mindset at least at the early stages of our lives.

G. Hofstede went even further and based his model of culture on six dimensions. These dimensions are defined as “independent preferences for one state of affairs over another that distinguish countries (rather than individuals) from each other”.



#### **4.1.1. Geert Hofstede Dimensions**

##### **A. POWER DISTANCE**

This dimension concerns, in a broad sense, the distribution of power in a given society and the social acceptance of the status quo. Societies may usually display a high or low degree of acceptance of the hierarchy in a society, although the medium degree is also an option. Here let's concentrate on the two extremes.

###### *High power distance societies*

Power in such societies is a crucial component of social life. Subordinates in the workplace consider themselves different from their supervisors and usually exhibit fear towards them. The level of trust is often low and it is the authority which dictates what is right and wrong. Those in power may enjoy privileges whereas any faults or failures are assigned to those lower in the hierarchy. In terms of education, the process of teaching concentrates more on teachers rather than students since it is the teacher who has power in the classroom and the students who need to listen and observe, but usually have no possibility to ask questions.

###### *Low power distance societies*

Such societies enjoy a more equal approach to power. In the workplace, supervisors are considered senior colleagues and people treat each other as partners. There is a strong tendency to diminish any social inequalities or hierarchy. The law is equal to all citizens. People exhibit more trust, solidarity and harmony. Education concentrates on students, who are encouraged to express their opinions and ask questions.

##### **B. INDIVIDUALISM VS COLLECTIVISM**

This index shows the extent to which people integrate in a given society.

The low extreme is referred to as *Collectivism*. Such societies exhibit eagerness to be closely related and form big families. People tend to take care of each other more. Identity is defined by the social system and the group one belongs to, whether it be a family, work group or group of friends. Hence the "we" aspect and perspective is



emphasized. People tend to join different organizations to have a sense of belonging and collectivism. They may enjoy rather stable social relations and individual opinions are usually determined by the will of others. People are most often relation-oriented.

The high side of the index, *Individualism*, emphasizes looser ties between society members. There is the tendency that everyone takes care of themselves and close family. The “I” perspective is crucial since one’s identity is based on self-awareness. Everyone may enjoy the right to privacy, and autonomy, to make one’s own decisions determined by only one’s own mindset. Such societies are also most often task-oriented.

### **C. MASCULINITY VS FEMININITY**

The *masculine* element of this dimension emphasizes the dominance of men in a given culture. Women nurture rather than rule and the gender roles seem to be clearly divided. Life goals are usually subordinated to work, money, and ambition, which is the driving force. People tend to be independent individuals in terms of mindset and finances. The notion of success plays a crucial role and a successful person is admired for his/her achievements. The popular phenomenon of the rat race can also be observed. Interestingly, the suicide rate seems to be on the increase in such masculine societies.

*Feminine* cultures exhibit more empathy, cooperation and agreement within a society. Commonly known gender roles seem to be equally distributed and do not depend so much on gender. People work to live rather than live to work, and the emphasis is on relations, compromise and negotiation.

### **D. UNCERTAINTY AVOIDANCE**

This dimension shows how societies feel when they face uncertainty and ambiguity. Since the future is unknown, it may evoke either fear or present a challenge.

#### *Low tolerance towards uncertainty*

In other words, high uncertainty avoidance characterizes societies which consider the future and any sort of uncertainty more as a danger rather than a challenge. Hence, there is the necessity to form some rules and laws that will give clear instructions to follow. Any





deviation from the commonly perceived norm is not tolerated. Such societies avoid anything that may change the status quo, they constantly worry about the future, and are less eager to take risk. The proverb 'better safe than sorry' applies in this case. In the workplace, people are mostly loyal and do not change their jobs so often, avoiding competition and conflict.

*High tolerance towards uncertainty*

In other words, low uncertainty avoidance characterizes societies that feel pretty comfortable with any ambiguity or uncertainty. Working hard is not a value in itself and changing one's job is a natural course of life. However, any sort of competition or conflict should be conducted according to the rules of fair play. People of different opinions are usually welcomed and well-tolerated. Interestingly, any form of nationalism is strongly disapproved of.

**E. INDULGENCE VS RESTRAINT**

*Indulgence* is typical of societies which are eager to enjoy life and entertainment, whereas *restraint* characterizes societies that have rather strict social norms which may not necessarily allow them to enjoy the joy of life.

**F. LONG-TERM VS SHORT-TERM ORIENTATION**

This dimension concentrates on the link between the past and present or future actions and challenges.

*Short-term orientation*

A low degree achieved in this aspect indicates that a given society has huge respect for tradition. Social norms and duties are most important and people pay attention to being right. They usually have no money to invest and expect fast results.

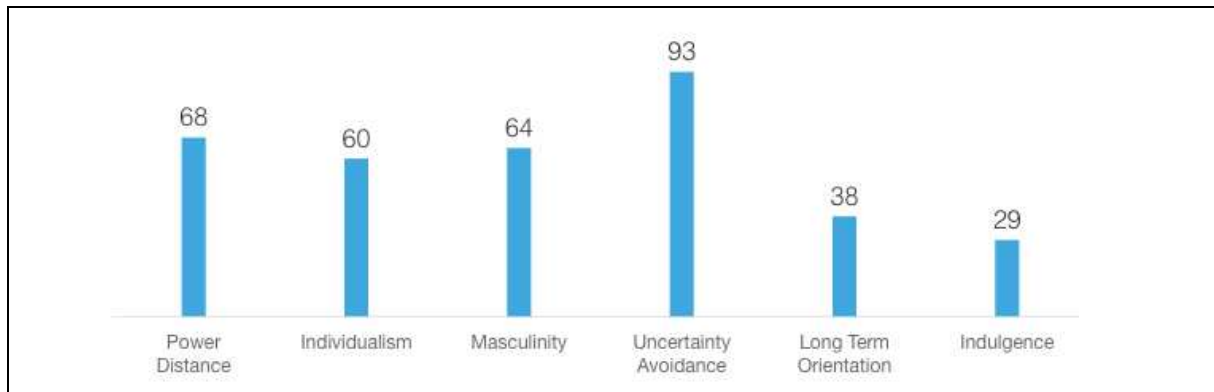
*Long-term orientation*

Tradition is adjusted to modern times. People exhibit patience for slow effects and build up substantial savings. Social duties are fulfilled rationally.

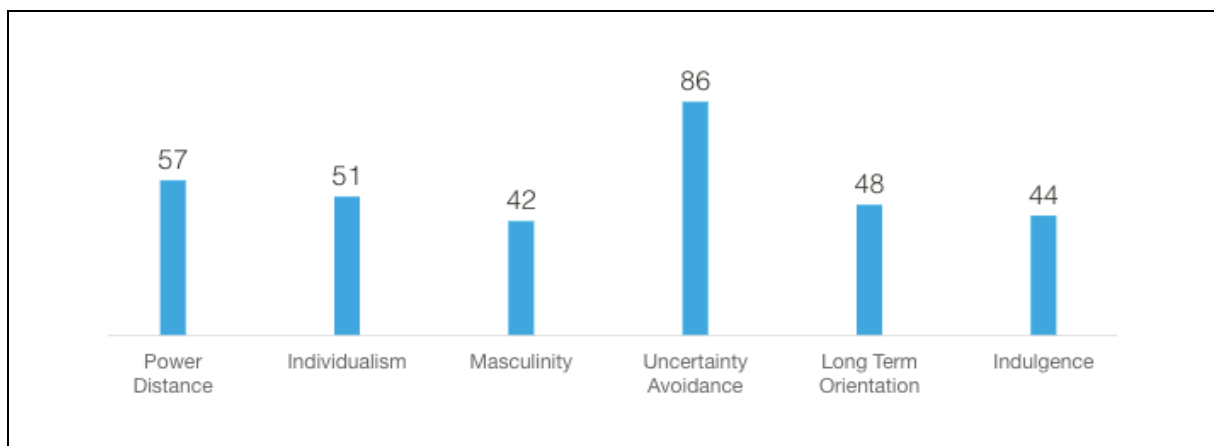
Let us now look at an analysis of selected cultures with reference to G. Hofstede's cultural dimensions: the maximum score is 100 points in each category; the higher the score, the stronger the tendency a



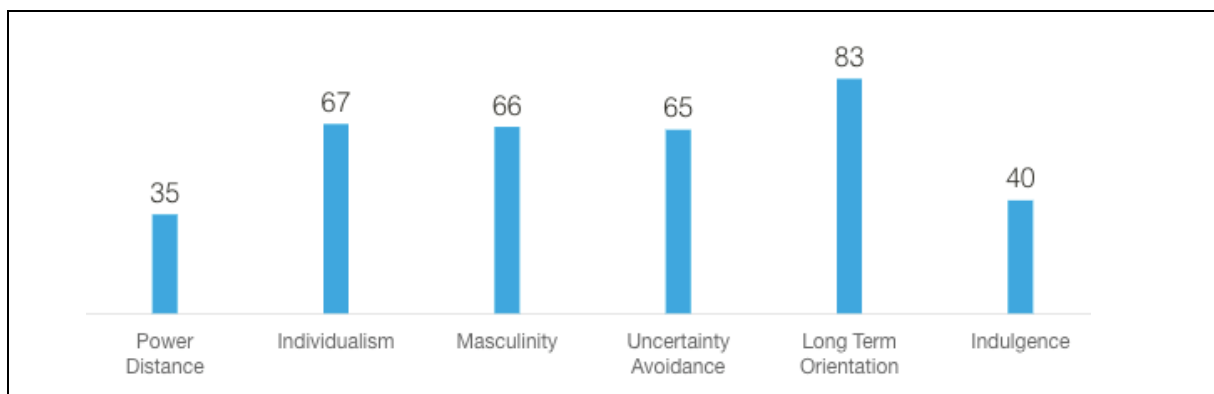
given culture displays. Remember, this is only an estimation and you will surely find representatives of a given culture who exhibit individual characteristics far from the average.



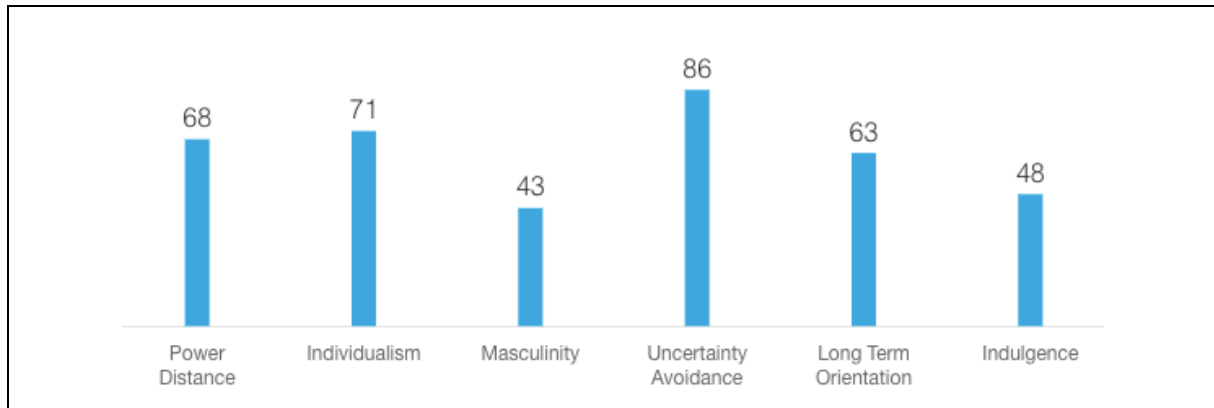
**Poland**



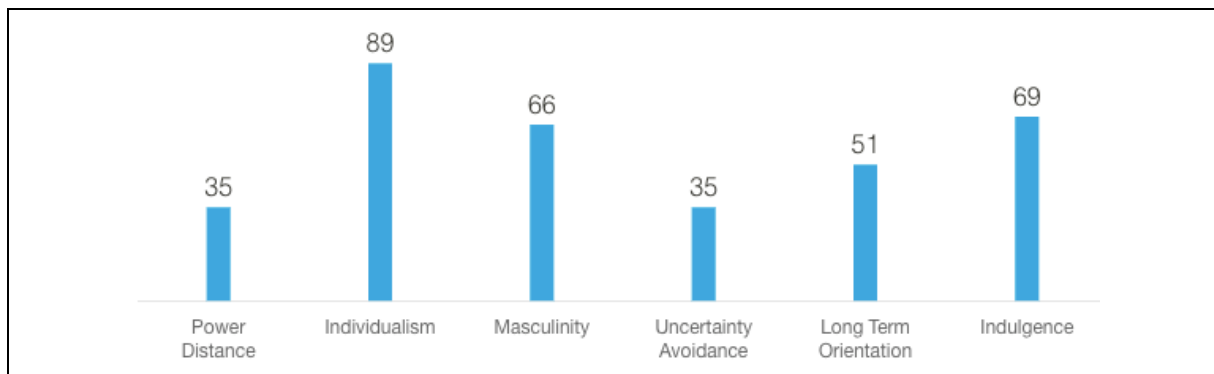
**Spain**



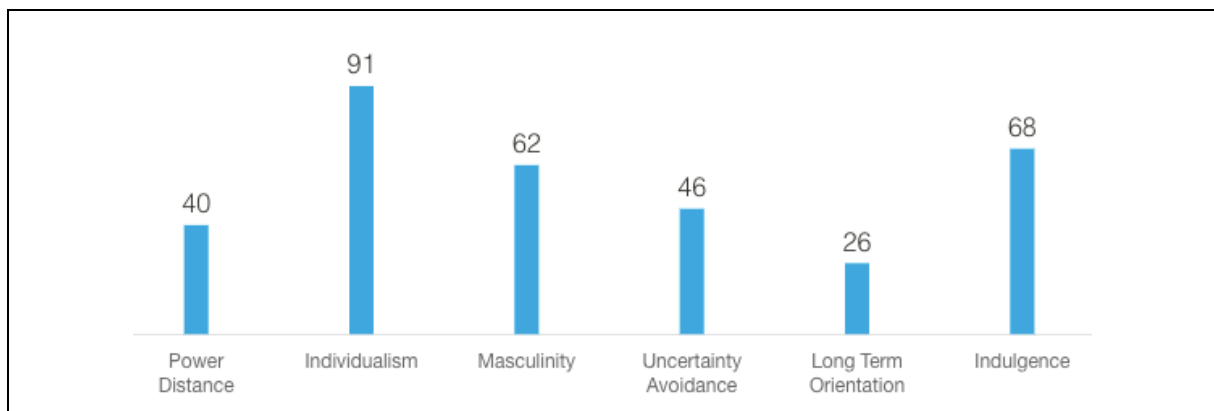
**Germany**



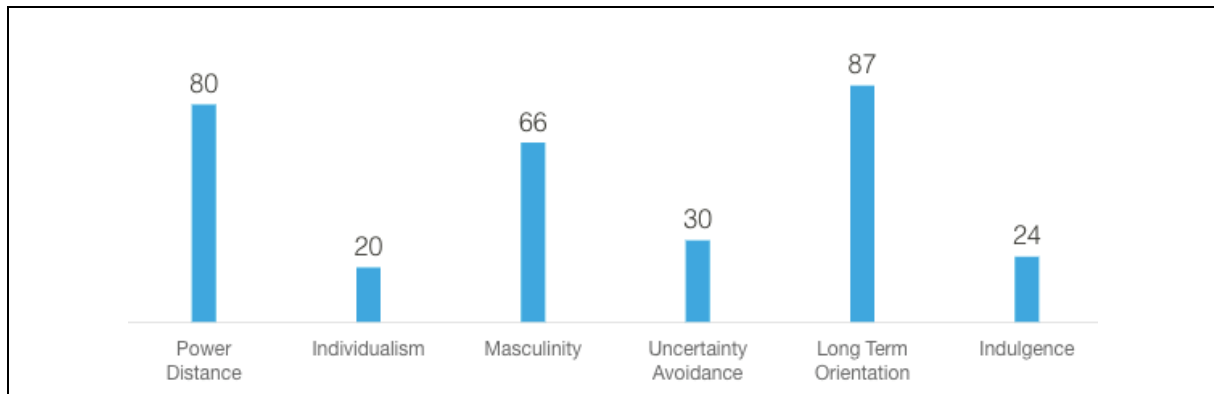
**France**



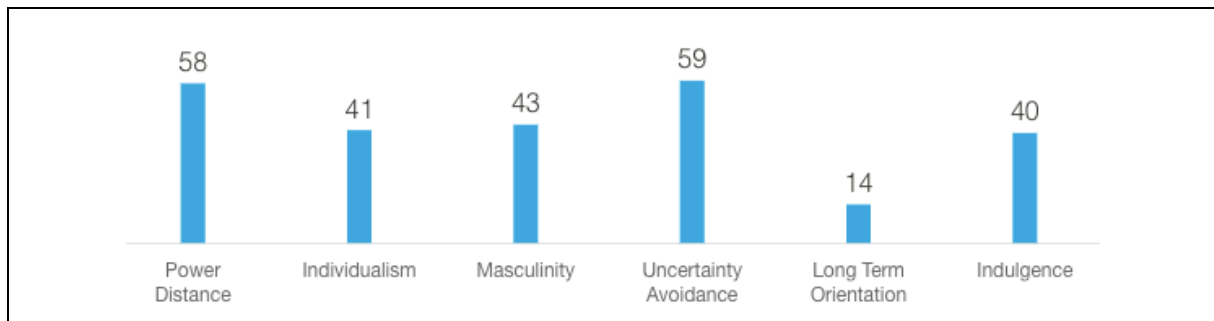
**UK**



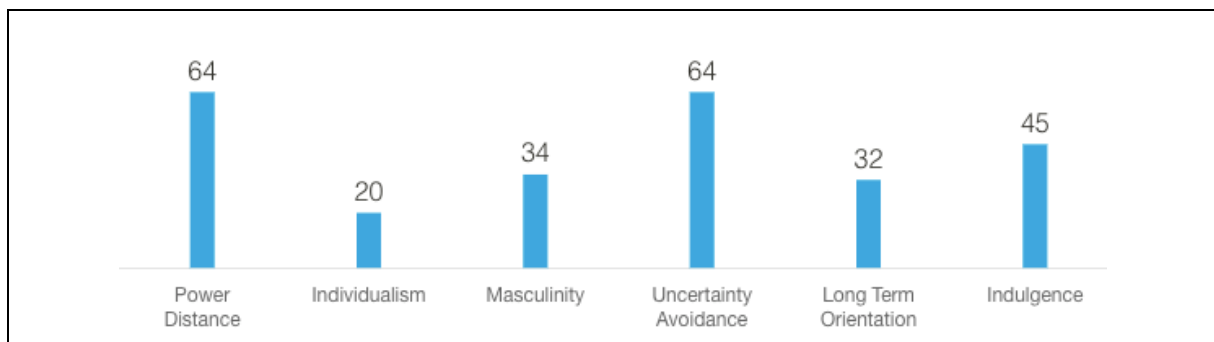
**USA**



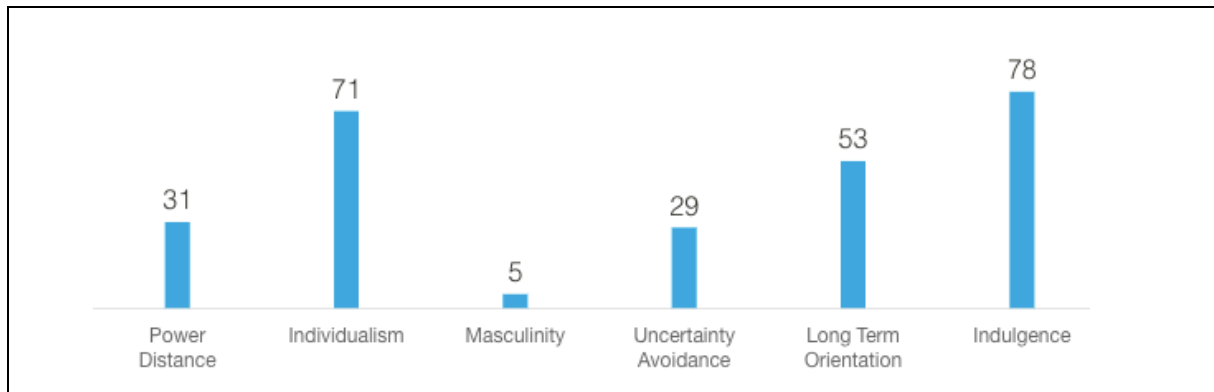
**China**



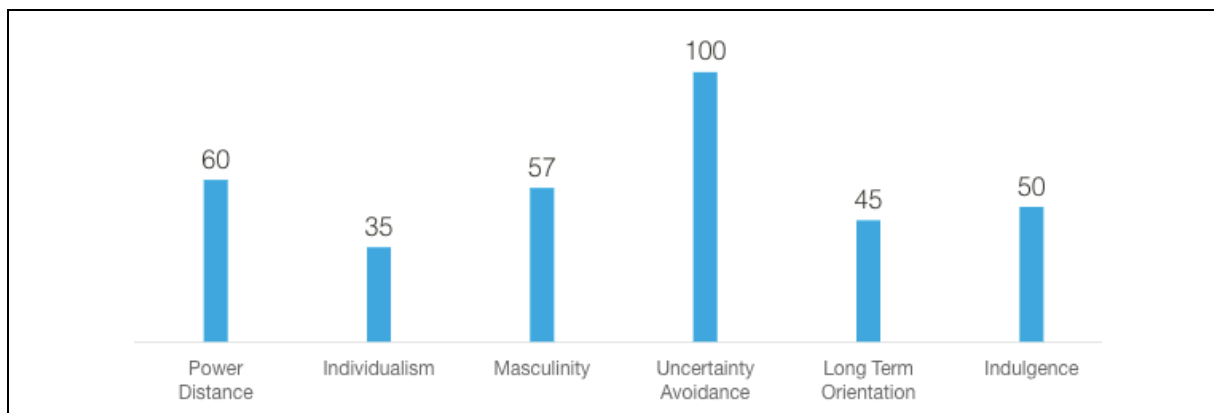
**Iran**



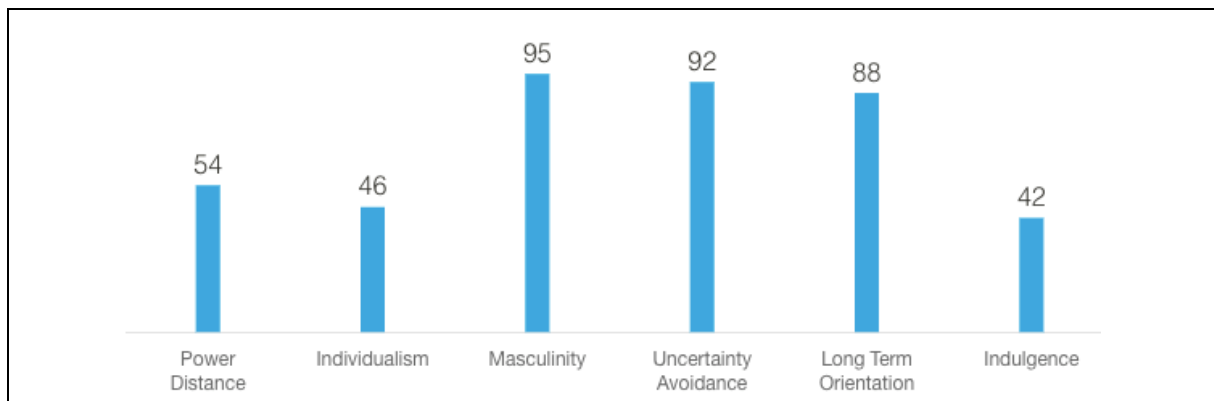
**Thailand**



**Sweden**



**Greece**



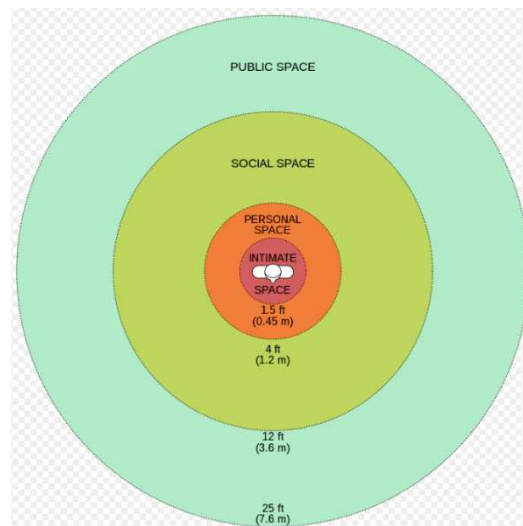
**Japan**

For a more detailed analysis, go to <https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/>. All quotations in this section come from <https://hi.hofstede-insights.com/national-culture>.



## 4.2. Edward Hall

G. Hofstede, however, is not the only individual who has analysed cultures. Apart from G. Hofstede's six dimensions of culture, the notion of personal space should also be mentioned, which was developed by anthropologist Edward Hall, the father of proxemics. E. Hall came up with the idea of personal reaction bubbles, which show the distance in meters that people maintain between themselves and others in different social situations. Interestingly, the distance between interlocutors differs not only in terms of the social situations people are in, but is also culture-specific. Following E. Hall, as many as four such bubbles can be distinguished, each specifying the type of space. They are presented below:



source:

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Proxemics#/media/File:Personal\\_Space.svg](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Proxemics#/media/File:Personal_Space.svg)

### 4.2.1. Edward Hall Dimensions

The *intimate space* is the closest type of a distance people may leave between each other. It is reserved for extremely private and close relations. This is the sphere in which hugging, kissing or whispering may take place. It usually amounts to 45 cm.

The *personal space* comprises between 45 cm - 1.2 m, which is still most often reserved for close friends or family members. Moreover, it is more or less the distance people take to shake hands.

The *social space*, between 1.2-3.6 m, is usually maintained by people who



do not necessarily know each other, e.g. in a shop, among colleagues or during business meetings.

The *public space*, which is more than 3.6 m, is the distance that requires very loud speaking. If teachers deliver a lecture to students, they are bound to do it while preserving the social distance.

As can be seen, proxemics, i.e. the use of space, was used by Hall as a communication factor (Mikułowski, 2003), which is culture specific.

There are cultures where members coexist with each other by maintaining a pretty close distance even in everyday situations. In Middle Eastern countries, social distance is relatively small. Therefore, when someone from another culture, such as an American or German, interacts with an individual from a Middle Eastern country, a kind of dance may ensue between the interlocutors, during which one person comes up closer while the other one draws back one step to enlarge the distance. The point is to realize that close distance is sometimes not a sign of aggression or harassment, but results simply from one's cultural background.

Not only is space important for E. Hall in terms of intercultural communication, but so too are time and context.

Apart from the fact that time may be, for instance, biological or physical, Hall also distinguished polychronic and monochronic time which are culture specific. Monochronic time is defined by only one action whereas polychronic time is characterized by simultaneous attention paid to different actions.

E. Hall divides cultures into those of high and low context, too. It means that they differ in terms of the extent to which communication is precise. Hence, cultures of low context are characterized by clear gestures and definite answers, people tend to act on their own, and represent a rather individualistic approach. Communication in high context cultures is more intuitive and strong collective tendencies may be observed.



### **4.3. Richard Gesteland**

Intercultural communication may also provide another perspective, immersed more in the corporate environment. Here, Richard Gesteland emerges with his cross-cultural business behavior patterns. After conducting research of different cultures, he came up with the idea of four dimensions of culture, which once understood and recognized, may help one to avoid clashes and misunderstandings.

#### **4.3.1. Richard Gesteland Dimensions**

##### *A. Deal-focused vs relationship-focused cultures*

Those cultures that are business or deal-focused are usually task-oriented. What counts for them is the result of the deal or negotiations. They tend to solve the problems quickly, by phone or via email, and whenever a conflict arises, they usually solve it in writing rather than in person. Scandinavian or Germanic countries or the USA represent this pattern.

For relationship-oriented cultures, the talks and negotiations count more than their result. They concentrate first on establishing proper relations and then business may be done. Therefore, patience is necessary when dealing with relationship-oriented cultures since it may take a long time before everybody sits around the negotiating table, let alone reach any reasonable conclusion.

##### *B. Formal cultures vs informal cultures*

This concerns the way people communicate with each other. Formal cultures focus on respect, hierarchy and status. In the academic world, they tend to use ranks and titles to address one another. Informal cultures act quite to the contrary, although this does not mean that they do not respect their interlocutor. It is just a matter of treating everybody equally.

##### *C. Rigid vs fluid cultures*

Rigid cultures tend to act strictly according to the plan established earlier. They arrive on time, do not miss deadlines and always stick to the schedule of a meeting. For such cultures, time is money. In the





case of fluid cultures, people perceive time slightly differently. They consider relations in business to be more crucial than schedules, deadlines and time in general.

**D. Expressive vs reserved cultures**

Expressive cultures usually talk loudly and use a lot of gestures. Its representatives tend to minimize the space between interlocutors and touch each other during a conversation. Reserved cultures do quite the opposite. The distance is slightly greater, gestures are not the preferred method of enriching the conversation, and eye contact is also avoided.

Please familiarize with the following tips while teaching in the intercultural context.

| No. | Tips   |
|-----|--|
| 1.  | If you do not know or you are not sure of which type of culture you are dealing with, just be polite and clear. This should have the desired effect. Those cultures which are more relation-oriented will certainly appreciate small talk and interest in off-topic conversation, whereas those which are more task-oriented will be happy to be given the information they are looking for. |
| 2.  | Be aware of political tensions or historically-based conflicts between particular countries/cultures. This may help explain why some students in your group do not want to cooperate with one another.   |
| 3.  | Try to broaden your understanding of particular cultures beyond the existing stereotypes. They may distort and interfere with proper intercultural communication.  |
| 4.  | The position of women in a given society may be a sensitive issue, so if you sense that a student is “ignoring” you (assuming you are a female professor), consider that it may be due to a different cultural background. If so, try to resort to diplomacy, your position or a male colleague.   |
| 5.  | Collective cultures always come in groups. If there is a group, there must always be a leader. In case of a problem, talk to the leader instead of an individual group member. The leader will discipline the rest.  |



|     |   |
|-----|---|
| 6.  | There are cultures in which women are not supposed to remain alone in the company of a stranger. Remember about this especially when you ask a female student to come to your office hours (if you are a male professor). Do not be surprised if she appears accompanied by a friend. One suggestion is to keep the door open during consultations. |
| 7.  | We are constantly learning, therefore if you make a mistake, simply apologize, learn from it, and move on.  |
| 8.  | Be aware of the distance between you and your interlocutor. We all share public space, but cultures differ in terms of contact. In non-contact cultures, e.g. in Asia and Northern Europe, people tend to stand farther from each other than in contact-cultures such as those in Southern Europe or the Middle East.                               |
| 9.  | Take care using humour. Whatever is funny in your culture, may not necessarily be funny in another.   |
| 10. | Learn about cultures other than your own, learn languages, at least some basic phrases, and most importantly, stay open-minded.   |
| 11. | Remember that different cultures perceive the distance between interlocutors differently, and the violation of one's personal space may bring with it some negative consequences.   |
| 12. | Try not to invade anyone's personal space. Be respectful.   |
| 13. | Remember that while touching and kissing in public may be typical in one culture (e.g. in southern Europe and Mediterranean countries), it may not necessarily be acceptable in another (e.g. in northern Europe).  |
| 14. | Make sure you learn the rules of a given culture before a meeting. You will avoid misunderstandings, mistakes and conflict.   |

**Table 8. Tips on intercultural communication**





## 5. EMI Scenarios

Academic content teachers often have enormous knowledge in the field of their specialization and are well-recognized professionals. Unfortunately, the pure act of passing on such know-how and expert skills can sometimes be a huge challenge even in the native language, let alone in English. In the latter case, the language used is no longer the language to be taught but becomes a tool by means of which specialized knowledge is both conveyed and acquired. Hence, it is crucial to have the ability to plan the content of a lecture or class so that it reflects a proper methodological approach, context, objectives and final evaluation.

Ideally, such planning should also consider the different learning styles of students, different seating and classroom arrangements, interaction time with the teacher and other course participants, as well as various types of activities which would deepen students' knowledge. What is more, all the ideas need to be inserted in a time frame of a typical university class that usually lasts 90 minutes. To illustrate the process of lesson planning and make this procedure easier, the examples below present lesson scenarios for technical university students.



### **5.1. Lesson Scenario 1**

for Architecture students prepared by a PUT teacher Maria Szaefer, M.A.

#### CLASS SCENARIO 1

Level: C1

Time: 90 minutes

Group: PUT students (15-20 people) / students of Architecture and Urban Planning

Topic: HOW RADICAL GARDENERS CAN CHANGE CITIES

#### **LESSON OVERVIEW**

Students discuss urban life, building local communities and the positive influence of trees and green areas on cities and their inhabitants. They watch and discuss a short video about the 'Radical Gardeners' of New York, and learn some specialized vocabulary. They work in groups to create their own plans for transforming a run-down neighborhood in Poznan.



#### SECTION 1: WARM-UP ACTIVITY (speaking and vocabulary)

##### Task 1.1

Work in pairs. You have three minutes. Make a list of the names of plants that can be found in cities. Don't use dictionaries. Make the list as long as possible.

#### SECTION 2: SPEAKING

##### Task 2.1

Work in pairs. Discuss the questions:

1. What's your favourite city? Does it have a lot of green areas?



2. Trees are an essential part of any city. What roles do they play?
3. Can green areas benefit local communities? How?
4. What makes some areas of a city more popular than others?
5. What causes some neighborhoods to fall into disrepair?
6. What is your stance on the gentrification of neighborhoods?

### SECTION 3: VOCABULARY

#### Task 3.1

Work in groups of three. Check the list below. Google the words/expressions you are not familiar with. Get ready to explain all of them in your own words.

1. to live in close quarters
2. vacant lots
3. white flight
4. abandoned buildings left in disrepair
5. urban decay
6. redlining
7. tree-lined blocks
8. brownstone
9. historical landmark
10. community garden
11. 1 dollar lease
12. to bulldoze

#### Task 3.2

Complete the sentences with some words/expressions from 3.1.

1. The trees are being \_\_\_\_\_ to make way for a new superstore.
2. The built environment is often 19th- and early 20th-century row houses or \_\_\_\_\_, mixed with older single-family homes that may be converted to multi-family homes.
3. Undergraduate students tend to \_\_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_\_ with roommates – on or off campus – which can increase their likelihood of contracting COVID-19.
4. The children played in the \_\_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_\_ between the two buildings.
5. The \_\_\_\_\_ \_\_\_\_\_ does not provide gloves; gardeners should bring



their own gloves.

6. Common indications of \_\_\_\_\_ are abandoned buildings and empty plots, high unemployment levels, high crime rates, and an urban landscape that is generally decrepit and desolate.
7. In 1974 the garden was named a national \_\_\_\_\_.
8. Housing discrimination helps reinforce residential segregation through mortgage discrimination, \_\_\_\_\_, and predatory lending practices.

#### SECTION 4: LISTENING (video)

*How Radical Gardeners Took Back New York*

<https://youtu.be/g2CaF12xxw>

##### Task 4.1

Watch the video and find out about:

1. Seed bombs
2. New York City in the 1960s and 1970s
3. Hattie Carthan and her Tree Corps
4. A century-old Magnolia grandiflora in Bed-Stuy
5. Liz Christy and the Green Guerrillas
6. Community gardens in New York
7. Yonette Flemming

#### SECTION 5: FOLLOW-UP

##### Task 5.1

Work in small groups.

Are there any areas of Poznan which are examples of urban decay? Choose a place that is particularly run-down.

Imagine you've been offered a 1 PLN lease to turn the lot into a place that benefits the local community. Decide what to do with the place, how to transform it.

Prepare a short presentation of your plans (online) so that you could share your ideas with the class.



Vote for the best project



As can be seen, the lesson scenario above, apart from its technical content, has clearly specified goals and a target group. It allows time for the teacher and students to warm up. The warming-up section may be devoted either to small talk, constitute the revision of previously discussed material essential for the topic vocabulary, as well as video material that may be the starting point and the basis for further in-class discussion. A lesson may also start with a question, some food for thought or even an object, a prototype brought to provoke some discussion. Later on, there comes the moment to introduce new material, here in the form of a video, and subsequent tasks to complete both in groups or individually. The final part is an opportunity for the group to revise the material, participate in group discussion or complete a small project which requires the application of design-thinking methods.

Lessons planned this way may be far more interesting for students, helping them acquire new skills and knowledge. Interestingly, highly specialized material may also be successfully conveyed at lower levels of English.



## 5.2. Lesson scenario 2

for Civil Engineering students at B2 level prepared by a PUT teacher  
Małgorzata Bączyńska, M.A.:

### CLASS SCENARIO 2

Level: B2

Time: 90 minutes

Group: PUT students (15-20 people); Civil Engineering students

Topic: Bridge construction

### LESSON OVERVIEW

Bridges, apart from their original feature of facilitating human travel and the transportation of goods, are sometimes real wonders of architecture in terms of both design and the construction process, which is highly complicated. In this lesson scenario, you will discuss the process of bridge construction, including design, materials, engineering problems and technical solutions.

### SECTION 1: WARM-UP ACTIVITY (speaking and vocabulary)

Task 1.1 Think of some famous bridges all over the world. What can you say about their:

1. location – Are they placed over a river, valley, canyon, etc.?
2. design – What do they look like? Who was the designer/engineer?
3. materials - What materials were used to build these bridges?
4. Can you identify the bridges in the pictures below? Which bridge is most appealing to you?



All pictures taken from [www.pixabay.com](http://www.pixabay.com)





Task 1.2. Match the name of the bridge with the right image above. Feel free to do some internet research and google extra information on these civil constructions.

1. The Golden Gate Bridge: San Francisco, USA
2. Tower Bridge: London, UK
3. Brooklyn Bridge: New York, USA

## SECTION 2: SPEAKING

Task 2.1 Google the Millau Viaduct. Divide the group into 4 subgroups and ask them to discuss the following issues:

1. What problems did the engineers need to consider when designing the bridge? Consider geographical location, height, length, geological conditions, materials, durability, weather conditions, etc.
2. What do you think was/were the biggest problem(s) and how do you think it/they was/were solved?
3. How do you think it was constructed? What were the stages of construction?

## SECTION 3: VOCABULARY

Task 3.1 Match the bridge words to their proper definitions.

| <b>Phrase</b>  | <b>Definition</b>                                      |
|----------------|--|
| 1. pier        | a) to secure an element firmly so that it cannot move  |
| 2. tower       | b) the base of a construction                          |
| 3. foundations | c) to place, for example, wet concrete                 |
| 4. formwork    | d) a huge machine used to lift heavy objects           |
| 5. to cast     | e) an intermediate support in a form of a pillar       |
| 6. to assemble | f) a bridge floor                                      |
| 7. crane       | g) to join metal pieces together by heating them first |



- |              |  |
|--------------|--|
| 8. to weld   | h) the element of a suspension bridge through which cables go    |
| 9. to anchor | i) to put all the pieces together                                |
| 10. deck     | j) a kind of a framework used to hold wet concrete until it sets |

#### SECTION 4: LISTENING (video)

Task 4.1 Watch the video and answer the questions:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=iK0solvjv8>

1. How many lines of formwork were installed and where?
2. How long is each section of the road?
3. How was the road installed?
4. What are the finishing touches to the bridge floor?
5. How long did construction take?

Task 4.2 Now watch again and complete the sentences with the missing information.

1. The bridge rests on seven \_\_\_\_\_ .
2. The tallest pier towers \_\_\_\_\_ meters above the ground.
3. The elements of the bridge are assembled \_\_\_\_\_.
4. The shifting is controlled by the \_\_\_\_\_.
5. The towers are \_\_\_\_\_ on the top of each pier.

#### SECTION 6: COMMUNICATION AND DISCUSSION

Work in pairs and discuss what you would choose in the situations below and give reasons.

1. What sort of paving would you choose for a bridge?
2. What sort of bridge would you choose to span a short distance of 50



meters?

3. Think of the possibility of building a bridge that would resist an earthquake
4. What might be the reasons for a bridge to collapse?



### **5.3. Lesson scenario 3**

*for students of Electronics and Communication at B1 level, prepared by a PUT teacher, Maria Szaefer, M.A.*

#### CLASS SCENARIO 3

Level: B1

Time: 45 minutes

Group: PUT students (15-20 people) / students of Electronics and Telecommunications

Topic: Means of transmission in telecoms

#### LESSON OVERVIEW

Students briefly discuss communication and telecommunication. They revise the information from previous lessons on telecommunication systems and means of transmission. They watch a short video about undersea internet cables and complete ACERT-type exercises.

#### SECTION 1: WARM-UP ACTIVITY (speaking)

##### Task 1.1

Discuss the questions in pairs.

1. How do you communicate with your friends and family? Has COVID-19 changed the way you communicate with people?
2. Which tools do you find most useful in your communication?
3. What kind of internet connection do you use?
4. How did people communicate before electricity was invented?
5. What is telecommunication? When and how did telecommunication start? What were the first devices used?

##### Task 1.2

Revise what you already know about the means of transmission in telecommunications systems.



1. What is air and ground transmission?
2. What are satellites?
3. What kind of cables can you name? Where are they used?
4. What is special about optical fiber?
5. How do antennas work?

SECTION 2: LISTENING (video)



Watch the video and answer the questions.

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=H9R4tznCNB0>

1. What's inside an undersea internet cable?
2. What are power repeaters?
3. How do they place the cable at the bottom of the sea? Describe the whole process.
4. When did people start using cables to connect continents? Why? Were they very different?

Watch the video again and complete the exercises.

Mark the sentences true or false.

1. 78% of the surface of the Earth is covered by water. T/F
2. The women work in New York. T/F
3. They use gel to keep the fiber in place. T/F
4. The last layer coating the cable is plastic. T/F
5. It takes about 30 days to load the ship. T/F
6. The first transatlantic telegraph cable was laid in the 20<sup>th</sup> century. T/F

Complete the sentences with the missing information .

1. There are \_\_\_\_\_ active undersea internet cables.
2. The cables are coded in colors and organized in pairs because they are \_\_\_\_\_ .
3. The copper in the cables helps power repeaters which are placed every 50 miles and which \_\_\_\_\_ the light across the thousands and thousands of miles.



4. Where the cable needs to be stronger, they add a couple of \_\_\_\_\_ of galvanized steel.
5. The greatest obstacle for the Monet cable is an underwater \_\_\_\_\_ range.
6. The cable might be damaged by an \_\_\_\_\_.

## SECTION 2: FOLLOW-UP

Work in small groups and discuss the questions below.

How is telecommunications infrastructure changing where you live? How do you think it will change in the next five years?



#### 5.4. Teaching Tips

In order to prepare a good lesson plan, proper steps need to be taken.

- First and foremost, the teacher should identify the objectives of the lecture or classes. Is the objective to provide detailed or up-to-date knowledge, or to promote some sort of deeper understanding of the technical context, or to encourage students to read more and broaden their knowledge afterwards? These are just a few questions each lecturer may consider beforehand.
- The next point to analyse are the needs of the students. Do they acquire some specific skills, expertise, or preparation for their final exam?
- Once all the above have been considered, all the materials, supplementary reading and resources should be prepared. While collecting and preparing materials, it is advisable to make them not only engaging but also encouraging enough for students to either actively participate in the lecture, or to study the topic individually once the lecture is over.

| No. | Teaching Tips  |
|-----|--|
| 1.  | Remember to provide your students with an outline/plan for your classes. State the goals and points of discussion.                           |
| 2.  | Before setting group work, set guidelines for the task that the students should complete, as well as the time allocated to perform the task. |
| 3.  | Divide the students into groups and give them time to complete the task.   |
| 4.  | Be ready to help whenever assistance is needed.  |
| 5.  | Give the students time to prepare a presentation of the final outcomes.  |
| 6.  | Remember to provide an assessment of the completed task either in the form of group comments or your own individual feedback.                |

**Table 9. Teaching Tips**







## 6. Glossary Terms

The following glossary represents a list of the various terms and definitions that academic teachers may encounter at university.

| <b>Term</b>                        | <b>Definition</b>   |
|------------------------------------|---|
| <i>Assessment criteria</i>         | what students must demonstrate in order to achieve learning outcomes; a set of expected conditions used as a standard by which progress can be judged   |
| <i>Curriculum</i>                  | all the courses offered by the university or by one of its faculties or departments   |
| <i>Discipline</i>                  | an area of study representing a branch of knowledge   |
| <i>Office (consultation) hours</i> | time outside of class scheduled by academic teachers to discuss the material being presented in class or other related interests they have; course-related discussions include asking for extra help, seeking clarification of material presented in class and following up on aspects of the class that students find unclear or interesting |
| <i>General requirements</i>        | general requirements are official rules as to what is needed or necessary and may address a broad range of matters such as degree requirements, requirements for graduation, residency requirements and academic standing, etc.   |
| <i>Inter-disciplinary courses</i>  | courses which deal with two or more academic subjects   |
| <i>Knowledge</i>                   | facts, information and skills acquired through experience or education; the theoretical or practical understanding of a subject   |
| <i>Laboratory classes</i>          | these allow for practical exposure to subject matter; a lab course is a smaller, individual course component that supplements larger lectures   |

## Glossary Terms



|                           |   |
|---------------------------|---|
| <i>Learning outcomes</i>  | measurable statements that articulate at the beginning what students should know, be able to do, or value as a result of taking a course or completing a program  |
| <i>Lecturer</i>           | a member of teaching staff at a university who usually holds a PhD  |
| <i>Lecture</i>            | a formal talk or presentation given before an audience especially on a scientific topic; an educational talk to an audience given by an expert  |
| <i>Method of delivery</i> | this represents the instructional method that is used to communicate course content to students; individual course sections may be taught using different methods of delivery   |
| <i>Objectives</i>         | a brief statement that describes what students will be expected to learn by the end of academic year, course, unit, tutorial, project, period or semester; the academic goals that teachers establish for students    |
| <i>Pedagogy</i>           | the method and practice of teaching, especially as an academic subject or theoretical concept; the method behind teaching   |
| <i>Peer review</i>        | evaluation of scientific, academic, or professional work by others working in the same field  |
| <i>Prerequisite</i>       | a requirement which must be met before a particular course can be taken   |
| <i>Project</i>            | a temporary endeavor (which has a start and end date) undertaken to achieve a purpose within defined and specified constraints; a project concludes when its tangible and/or intangible objectives have been attained |
| <i>Requirement</i>        | condition that must be fulfilled as part of a particular program  |



|                          |   |
|--------------------------|---|
| <i>Schedule</i>          | a listing of all the courses offered by a university during a semester or academic year, showing academic staff the time and place of meetings  |
| <i>Seminar</i>           | a public event when an academic teacher or expert and a group of students meet to study and discuss a particular topic  |
| <i>Skill</i>             | an ability to do an activity, especially because you have practiced it  |
| <i>Social competence</i> | social competence consists of social, emotional, cognitive and behavioral skills needed for successful social adaptation; social competence also reflects the ability to take another's perspective concerning a situation, learn from past experiences, and apply that learning to changes in social interactions                              |
| <i>Syllabus</i>          | a plan showing the subjects or books to be studied in a particular course   |
| <i>Tutorial</i>          | a meeting between an academic teacher (tutor) and one or a small group of students; a method of transferring knowledge, part of the learning process which is more interactive and specific than what is found in a book or a lecture; a tutorial seeks to teach by example and supply information allowing students to complete a certain task |
| <i>Workshop</i>          | an activity that focuses on a participant's professional tasks; a meeting in which participants engage in deep discussion, apply their knowledge and skills, discuss ideas, and take part in practical activities to address a narrowly defined range of problems or issues related to practice   |

Table 10. Glossary terms



## EMI Bibliography

Aguilar, M. & Muñoz, C. (2014). The effect of proficiency on CLIL benefits in Engineering students in Spain. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics* 24.1, 1–18.

Aguilar, M. & Rodríguez, R. (2012). Lecturer and student perceptions on CLIL at a Spanish university. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism* 15.2, 183–197.

Airey, J. (2011). Talking about teaching in English: Swedish university lecturers' experiences of changing teaching language. *Ibérica* 22, 35–54.

Bolton, K. & Kuteeva, M. (2012). English as an academic language at a Swedish university: Parallel language use and the 'threat' of English. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development* 33.5 429–447.

Chapple, J. (2015). Teaching in English is not necessarily the teaching of English. *International Education, Studies* 8.3, 1.

Dafouz, E. & Smit, U. (2014). Towards a dynamic conceptual framework for English-medium education in multilingual university settings. *Applied Linguistics* 37.3, 397–415.

Evans, S. & Morrison, B. (2011). Meeting the challenges of English-medium higher education: The first-year experience in Hong Kong. *English for Specific Purposes* 30.3, 198–208.

Jenkins, J. (2014). *Global Englishes: A resource book for students* (3rd edn.). London: Routledge.

Joe, Y. & Lee, H. K. (2013). Does English-medium instruction benefit students in EFL contexts? A case study of medical students in Korea. *Asia-Pacific Education Research* 22.2, 201–207.

Kim, E. G. & Shin, A. (2014). Seeking an effective program to improve communication skills of non-English-speaking graduate Engineering students: The case of a Korean Engineering school. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication* 57.1, 41–55.



Macaro, E., Akincioglu, M. & Dearden, J. (2016). English-medium instruction in universities: A collaborative experiment in Turkey. *Studies in English Language Teaching* 4.1, 51.

Macaro, E., Handley, Z. & Walter, C. (2012). A systematic review of CALL in English as a second language: Focus on primary and secondary education. *Language Teaching* 45.1, 1–43.

Mulder, P. (2017). Patterns of Cross Cultural Business Behavior. Retrieved April 15, 2022 from toolshero:  
<https://www.toolshero.com/marketing/patterns-cross-cultural-business-behavior/>

Nunan, D. (2003). The impact of English as a global language on educational policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific region. *TESOL Quarterly* 37.4, 589–613.

Pennycook, A. (2014). *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. London: Routledge.

Smit, U. (2010). *English as a lingua franca in higher education. A longitudinal study of classroom discourse*. Berlin, Boston: De Gruyter Mouton.

Smit, U. & Dafouz, E. (2012). Integrating content and language in higher education: Gaining insights into English-medium instruction at European universities (AILA volume 25). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Szczuka-Dorna, L. & Vendome, E. (2017). *Introduction to Interpersonal Communication*. Poznan. Publishing House of Poznan University of Technology.

Szczuka-Dorna, L. & Matuszak, K. (2021). *English Medium Instruction at European Universities*. Poznan. Publishing House of Poznan University of Technology.

Swales, J. M. (1997). English as Tyrannosaurus rex. *World Englishes* 16.3, 373–382.

<http://doi.org/10.1111/1467-971X.00071>.  
<https://hi.hofstede-insights.com/national-culture>.  
<https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/>



## Appendixes

### ***Appendix A: Best practice teaching suggestions***

The following practices might be followed while teaching.

| No. | Suggestions  |
|-----|--|
| 1.  | constant asking of questions   |
| 2.  | re-caps and summaries between each topic   |
| 3.  | using jokes to check understanding in minimally responsive classes                   |
| 4.  | use of explicit discourse markers and/or signposting                                 |
| 5.  | use of videos to increase percentage score of English without relying on the teacher |
| 6.  | use of videos and PPT ref as support for differing levels of English                 |
| 7.  | teacher correcting students terminology; use of synonyms                             |
| 8.  | concept checking was good where it occurred  |
| 9.  | thorough setting up via explanation and checking                                     |
| 10. | PPT used as aid not main content   |
| 11. | consistent interaction (eg. 3 times every 10 mins)                                   |
| 12. | smiling, relaxed, informal atmosphere  |
| 13. | pacing to 'enliven' lecture  |
| 14. | combined presentation sources, eg. PPT, whiteboard, blackboard, flip chart           |
| 15. | challenging students with questions or problems                                      |
| 16. | giving examples  |

**Table 11. Best practice teaching suggestions**



## **Appendix B: Giving feedback**

### Purpose and expectations

Students should always receive proper and meaningful feedback on work they have done. Research indicates that student satisfaction improves significantly if this is the case.

Feedback should be both generic to the class and individual. It should go beyond scoring or grading and offer clear points that will improve learning. As part of building independent learning and also to ensure students take ownership of some of their learning, students can be encouraged individually or in groups to think of how they can improve even when they do well in tasks.

Feedback should always be connected to the stated objectives of any task set and the basis on which students are being graded or assessed **MUST** be clear to students before they start.

This highly communicative and transparent approach engenders better student engagement and also prevents complaints about marks, assessment or teaching.



| No. | Feedback  |
|-----|---|
| 1.  | <p><i>Individual feedback from teacher</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• oral vs written</li> <li>• quantitative vs qualitative</li> </ul>   |
| 2.  | <p><i>Generic feedback to class from teacher</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• only focus on main issues</li> <li>• be prepared to repeat work if necessary, but ask the class to engage in HOW that work should be repeated</li> </ul>                        |
| 3.  | <p><i>Peer feedback</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• using checklists and/or criteria to give to students to assess each others' work</li> <li>• make sure peer partners swap regularly</li> <li>• use peer assessment to reinforce learning goals</li> </ul> |
| 4.  | <p><i>Self-assessment</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• give a checklist and/or criteria for support</li> <li>• ensure students detail how they understand they can improve their work</li> </ul>  |

Table 12. Giving feedback





### **Appendix C : Intra-departmental collaboration**

True quality is achieved through collaboration and the sharing of ideas and standards among academic teachers in faculties and language centres. This can be achieved by:

| <b>No.</b> | <b>Collaboration</b>  |
|------------|---|
| 1.         | Visiting other lectures, observing, discussing teaching issues  |
| 2.         | Sharing ideas that work well, e.g. online or in meetings  |
| 3.         | Setting up forums for discussion and exchange   |
| 4.         | Using mentoring to help newer teachers or teachers new to EMI   |
| 5.         | Publishing and sharing approaches to EMI  |
| 6.         | Agreeing standardization processes, e.g. by single marking each other's students, by agreeing procedures for insisting on English |
| 7.         | Agreeing approaches to independent learning so that students get a consistent message and support                                 |

**Table 13. Collaboration**



### Appendix D: Assessment

Why are you testing?

| No. | Reason  | Type of test                 |
|-----|---|------------------------------|
| 1.  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>to find out strengths and weaknesses</li> <li>to find out what they know about a subject</li> </ul>  | diagnostic                   |
| 2.  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>as a learning/improvement tool</li> <li>in order to give them feedback</li> <li>to monitor their progress</li> <li>to motivate and encourage them</li> </ul> | student-focused<br>formative |
| 3.  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>to check understanding of input</li> <li>to monitor their progress</li> </ul>  | teacher-focused<br>formative |
| 4.  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>as a hurdle or stage in progression</li> <li>to give them a pass or fail</li> <li>for university records</li> </ul>  | summative                    |

Table 14. Reasons for testing

### Testing Principles

| No. | Principle                  | Questions   |
|-----|----------------------------|---|
| 1.  | Validity                   | <p>Is the test fair? What are you testing?</p> <p>How do you know you are testing what you think you are testing?</p> <p>Does the task reflect classroom/course practice?</p> |
| 2.  | Reliability                | Is the task/test the same for every student whenever the test is taken?   |
| 3.  | Practicality / Feasibility | Are the timing and conditions of the test fair?   |
| 4.  | Impact                     | What effect will the test have on classroom/course preparation?   |

Table 15. Testing principles