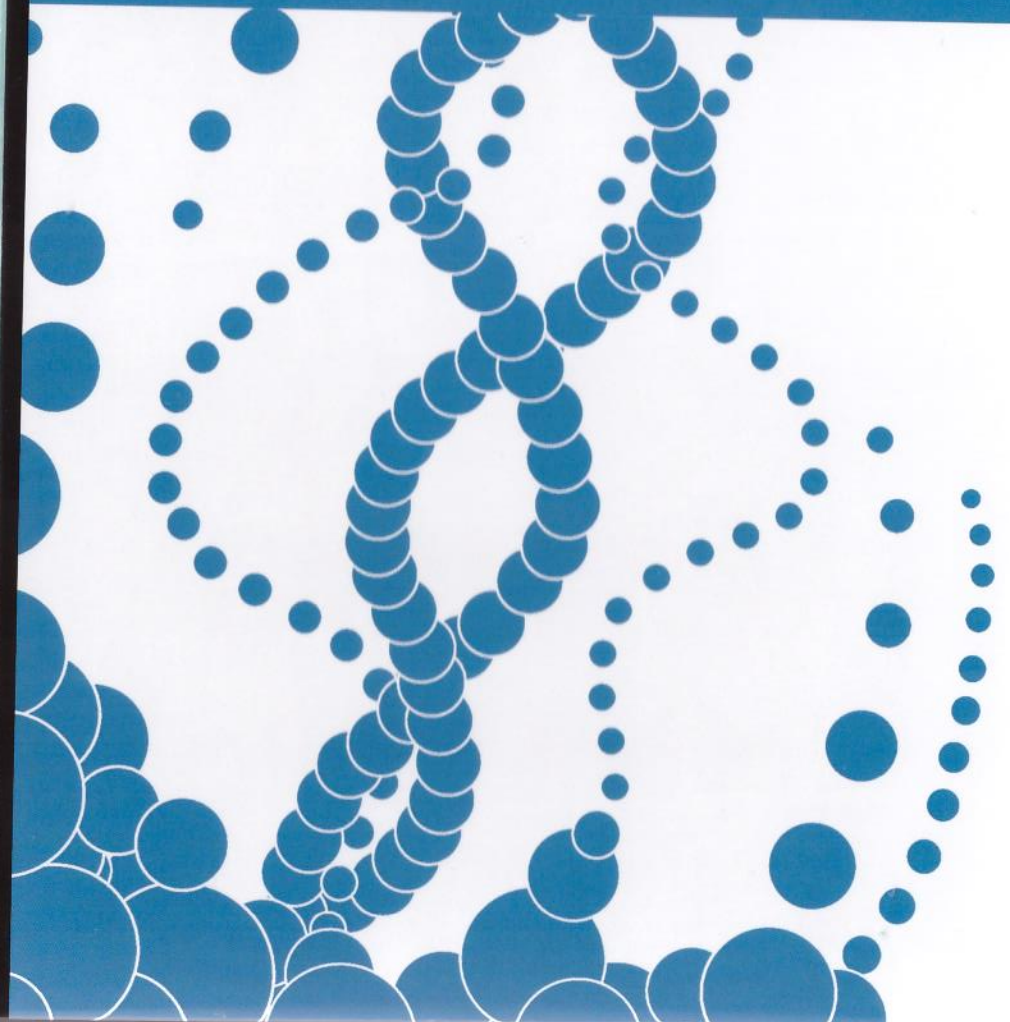# Languages and the Internationalisation of Higher Education

Edited by Dolores González-Álvarez
and Esperanza Rama-Martínez

This volume offers an overview of the context of internationalisation in which plurilingualism becomes a strategic axis for universities and in which university language centres serve as the key instrument to implement this process. It focuses on three key areas in which language centres are working together with governments across Europe, namely: language policy and internationalisation; specific training for the university community; and language testing and accreditation.

The contributors to this book are all policy makers, instructors or evaluators from university language centres involved in the internationalisation of their institutions through languages. They teach and evaluate not only 'regular' students, but students with very specific needs, such as lecturers delivering content courses in English, students in mobility programmes or administrative staff in contact with international students. The book also includes the presentation of the first national higher education language policy in Europe, developed by the Language Policy Commission of the Board of Rectors of Spanish Universities and endorsed by all public and private universities in Spain.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

SHORTCOMINGS IN THE PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF EMI LECTURERS: SKILLS-BASED FRAMEWORKS AS A WAY FORWARD

ANTONIO JIMÉNEZ-MUÑOZ

1. Introduction

The growth of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) globally has been extensively documented as one of the major changes in Higher Education (HE) in recent decades in most of the non-Anglophone world (Barnard and Hasim 2018; Dearden 2015; Fenton-Smith, Humphreys, and Walkinshaw 2017; Hultgren, Jensen, and Dimova 2015, Wächter and Maiworm 2015) with the exception of African and Latin-American tertiary institutions (Macaro et al. 2018, 43). Only in Europe, longitudinal studies have shown an increase of 340 percent in bilingual provision for degree and post-graduate studies in Europe, although the growth rates were even higher "in South West Europe (866%) and in the Baltic States (516%)" (Wächter and Maiworm 2015, 48). Several reasons fuel this move towards English-based education: from the internationalisation of institutions, to attracting foreign enrolment of the improvement of the multicultural and linguistic competences of national graduates and their employability within a globalised context of heightened competition for jobs.

The increasing convergence towards EMI on the part of HE institutions is short of being a paradigm shift in language policy. Researchers agree that the main underlying motivation for English-taught programmes is the assumption that EMI provides the "added value" of learning both content and language, offering "two for the price of one" (Bonnet 2012, 66) or that, at least, content will be acquired and language proficiency would improve (Shohamy 2013). Presumably, more and more generations of students

would progress from similar approaches of teaching through a foreign language, such as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) provisions for Primary or Secondary education in these very same countries; thus, the transition towards EMI would be less problematic than for lecturers, who are less likely to have experienced such bilingual education first-hand.

This "moves away from the present paradigm in which the responsibility for students' English proficiency development lies with English lecturers and courses" (Ali 2013, 75). Hence, the shift for content-area instructors is not so much to teach using a foreign language–which may be a tall challenge, despite English being the default language in many scientific fields–but to become responsible for the development of students' language proficiency. The skills needed for such facilitating, fostering, tracking and assessment of language skills largely exceed content lecturers' previous professional training. As a result, an essential disregard of language aspects in lectures, seminars, tasks and assessment has been noted through classroom observation in many countries (Aguilar and Rodríguez 2012; Cho 2012; Costa and Coleman 2013; Hu and Leig 2014; Kuteeva and Airey 2014; Li and Wu 2018). A plausible explanation we learn from research on EMI lecturers' beliefs is that they do not perceive that teaching the language is their task (Airey 2013; Dearden 2015; Wilkinson 2013) and may even amount to stern refusal to observe language in STEM subjects (Aguilar 2017). As a result, student outcomes are likely to suffer in both content and language achievement, since these are often related: grasping content and practical skills rely heavily on linguistic proficiency (Ament and Pérez-Vidal 2015; Hernández-Nanclares and Jiménez-Muñoz 2017).

Some have argued that EMI lecturers inadvertently focus on language form through language modelling (Costa 2012) but this may only work partially in a purely teacher-centred pedagogical approach aiming at information replication. Teachers may adjust their language for intelligibility, and even model pronunciation and vocabulary, but integrating language learning into content delivery requires different strategies to foster acquisition and expansion on the part of the students. Even in cases where language is observed as an integral part of lectures, it is often restricted to vocabulary "even by those teachers who have a background in linguistics" (Doiz, Lasagabaster, and Sierra 2013, 217). It must be observed that EMI provision is often built upon pre-existing structures and usually runs parallel to native-language degrees. This alters their perception as a free-choice alternative, and seasoned lecturers transitioning towards EMI often assume that English is "a requisite rather than an expressed learning outcome" (Dafouz, Camacho, and Urquía 2014,

225), because if students have decided to enrol themselves into EMI, they must have been linguistically prepared in the first place. However, the very same content teachers tend to overlook vocabulary and grammar aspects when assessing and correcting students' work (Lasagabaster and Doiz 2018). This is a double misapprehension: if language is not an explicit learning outcome, it is not integrated into lessons and practice; if it also goes unassessed, then the chances of modifying student performance are severely impaired. Recent longitudinal meta-analyses have shown that direct instruction yields better results (Stockard et al. 2018), yet in EMI provisions much of language learning is indirect and, thus, left to the student's preparedness and motivation towards self-guided improvement. This reveals a severe gap between macro and micro levels–between the inherent goals of EMI policy as national or institutional plans, on the one hand, and classroom practice, on the other–that can be remedied through professional development that fosters the full integration of content and language in HE (ICLHE).

Parallel to the rise of EMI, there has been a recent growing interest in the training of EMI lecturers worldwide. Some surveys of European universities have revealed that training programmes are essentially geared towards ad-hoc, one-off accreditation rather than systematic teacher development (Lauridsen 2017). Additionally, over three quarters of training in most European institutions is devoted to improving lecturers' language competence, and much less so pedagogical skills (O'Dowd 2018). This envisions a very narrow approach to professional development, as it merely aims at transferring lecturer skills to a foreign language, without them being marred by linguistic shortcomings. It does not attempt to equip lecturers with tools and techniques to scaffold language into content learning, to support students in their language learning, and to include language aspects as a specific assessment and feedback targets. At macro level, this may implicitly bypass existing policies aiming for the integration of language into the teaching of content, such as those in Europe (Beacco et al. 2016). At micro level, the challenge of implementing a heightened focus on language would require further lecturer training, as an additional degree of attention to language and metalinguistic sophistication (Morton 2018) is usually beyond their current skills, even if already familiar with Academic English conventions in their fields.

This chapter reveals the findings from a survey on 144 EMI-lecturer training programmes in 21 countries, evidencing differing target English proficiency levels and dissimilar components in accreditation programmes. Particularly, it shows that most provisions have focused on presentation skills, pronunciation and general English level, but needed methodological

changes for lecturers to foster and integrate language into their practice have been largely overlooked. Secondly, while CLIL and ICLHE share objectives, it calls the attention to pre-existing teacher-training frameworks for content and language integration (EAQUALS 2016; Marsh et al. 2012) which can help identify a number of undertrained key areas in these programmes. Using these as a backdrop, the case study of 162 EMI lecturers at Spanish universities is presented, evidencing the lack of methodological in-class aspects as part of their skills, training, or initial concerns. The study finds, through a more reduced number of qualitative interviews, that it is precisely these methodological aspects that become a growing concern for more experienced instructors, who demand more specific training on vocabulary presentation, language correction, English target level description, and abilities geared towards offering linguistic support for students, both face-to-face and online.

The results evidence important shortcomings in non-personalised training programmes, such as a pervasive teacher-centredness in course topics and pedagogical approach. Consequently, a number of key motions are put forward: moving from pre-service, one-size-fits-all accreditation to a continuing professional development for EMI; avoiding the language vs. pedagogy fallacy; introducing linguistic description and reflection for both instructors and learners; devising a flexible way for ICT to help both; fostering action research and evidence-based practice as quality assessment; promoting intra-departmental collaboration; and, finally, assessing students' pre-register linguistic competence and offering them a solid Employee Assistance Programme (EAP) training as per their areas of specialisation.

2. EMI training programmes worldwide

It has long been established that teaching content through a foreign language exceeds mere translation or codeswitching techniques on the part of the instructor, and that cognitive requirements on the part of the student are distinct from those in their first language (Kong and Hoare 2011). Progressively, studies on EMI teacher-training programmes at tertiary institutions have appeared, but these have been largely constrained to individual European countries (Aguilar and Rodríguez 2012; Airey 2011; Guarda and Helm 2016) and have shown a limited number of informants. Other more ambitious studies have provided a valuable snapshot of EMI training within a country such as Spain, where the lack of training or its light-touch nature and, above all, the heterogeneity of training programmes in linguistic and pedagogical requirements have been uncovered, as well as

the tendency towards language certification as the only real requirement for lecturers (Halbach and Lázaro 2015). It follows that the need for Spanish universities to improve their lecturing staff training, harmonise components and evaluation criteria, and plan for a more homogeneous pedagogic and linguistic policy among staff and learners is an obvious roadmap that would require substantial investment and effort. Having further data about EMI training worldwide would prove invaluable so as to ascertain whether these inconsistencies are particular to Spain or, on the contrary, can also call for further measures in other countries.

Through 144 questionnaires answered by HE administrators in charge of EMI provision in 21 international universities, a clearer picture of EMI pre- and in-service training can be formed. Informants answered questions on whether their institutions had an accreditation system in place, whether in-service or pre-service EMI training was offered, and about the nature of such programmes, where present. Additionally, they were asked about how evidence towards successful training was collected. An outline of informant programmes, grouped by country, shows stark differences among countries, and between institutions within the same nation:

Country	Univer-sities	Accredit-ation (%)	Min. CEFR	Training hours (avg.)	Student-centred content (%)	Lang. tests (%)	Lesson observation (%)
Austria	4	75	C1	12	0	75	25
Brazil	3	25	B2	32	5	100	0
China	14	14.3	B1	62	0	64.3	21.4
Croatia	2	0	B2	0	0	100	0
Estonia	3	100	C1	55	8	100	25
Germany	9	0	N/A	0	0	0	0
Greece	8	100	B2	68	12	87.5	37.5
Hungary	2	100	B2	42	6	100	50
India	8	25	B1	12	0	25	0
Japan	7	100	C1	74	4	100	42.9
Poland	2	50	C1	20	0	50	50
Russia	7	28.6	C1	52	14	100	14.3
South Africa	2	0	N/A	0	0	0	0
South Korea	3	33.3	B1	45	0	100	0

Spain	18	88.9	B2	57	6	55.6	11.1
Taiwan	11	54.5	C1	62	2	90.9	18.2
Turkey	12	66.7	B1	74	7	75	16.7
Ukraine	3	66.7	B2	26	4	100	0
Hong Kong	14	92.9	B2	44	3	78.6	21.4
United States*	12	8.3	C1	0	0	16.7	75
Total (Avg.)	**144**	**51.46**	**B2**	**36.85**	**3.55**	**70.93**	**20.43**

* Universities in Spanish-speaking areas

Table 7-1 Outline of EMI teacher-training programmes by country

This survey report cannot aim at being an exhaustive snapshot of EMI worldwide; such an attempt would necessitate of unprecedented funding, governmental cooperation and institutional collaboration. It serves, however, to identity a number of crucial issues in the quality-assessment of EMI provisions:

- few countries (Estonia, Japan, Greece, Hungary, Hong-Kong) seem to show coherence in the need of rigorous accreditation of teachers across institutions; some countries (Croatia, Germany, South Africa, universities in Spanish-speaking areas in the US) have no accreditation programmes in place, and assume EMI preparedness as a lecturer prerequisite;
- the minimum CEFR level deemed to guarantee EMI readiness varies from B1 in countries such as China and India, to C1 in Austria, Estonia, Japan, Russia or Taiwan. In English-speaking countries such as the US, language is assessed at the job interview itself;
- EMI training programmes are generally light-touch (avg. less than 40 hours) but also vary greatly in length, from 12 hours in countries with distinct language requirements–such as Austria or India–to programmes requiring around 70 hours in Greece, China, Japan, or Turkey;
- the workload within training modules devoted to student-centred micro-teaching skills is scant; on average, just 3.55 of surveyed programme content addresses student learning, as opposed to teacher production and materials organisation;
- the existence of in-house or external language tests is greatly inconsistent, as some universities require lecturers to prove their pre-

service level of English, others accept a pre-existing certificate, and others lack such requirements altogether;

- finally, it is also noticeable that pre-service lesson observation–as part of accreditation, job interview or induction–is rare, with a fifth of universities having actual classroom evaluation of hands-on command of the language and, presumably, related micro-skills.

What this overall picture reveals is problematic in several ways. First, it shows that there are no clear models of EMI implementation, at least regarding professional development, and that inconsistencies among same-country institutions are frequent, from those requiring virtually no training to those with much stricter filters. While this is not detrimental at first, it may complicate quality assurance for EMI provisions among universities and countries, and curtail lecturer and student mobility. Secondly, where training programmes exist, they tend to be short, light-touch and centred upon linguistic requirements; this overlooks research on the complexity of EMI classroom interaction (Fortanet-Gómez and Ruiz-Madrid 2014; Haines 2015; Molino 2015; Pun and Macaro 2018). The underlying assumption is that pedagogical skills have been already acquired or proven by lecturers, that these are fully transferable to a foreign-language context, and that teaching and learning in an additional language does not have any further requirements other than language. In the programmes under scrutiny, most training revolved around presentation skills, pronunciation or elocution and–more than anything else–the fostering of general English proficiency, with a limited workload on academic or specific-purposes targets. This is a severe misapprehension of continuing professional development, of EMI cognitive and learning requirements and, most importantly, it overlooks lecturer shortcomings. Some instructors in content areas lack a background in English-speaking research; most outside Education or some areas of the Humanities never had any pedagogical training; and more so have identity issues when suggested to move towards more student-centred pedagogies (Brownell and Tanner 2017; Nevgi and Löfström 2015).

It can be argued that EMI teacher competencies may be context-specific, and that there is no need to equip lecturers with a given set of specific EMI classroom skills. However, this is hardly tenable in times of heightened mobility (European Union 2015; Kirkpatrick 2014) particularly as universities worldwide are using English-taught degrees as entry requirements for English-taught MAs. If lecturers are an integral part of EMI provisions, and their training falls short of required micro-skills and suitable pedagogical approaches, then confidence in the preparedness of

arriving graduates–as well as incoming teaching staff–is severely compromised.

3. Frameworks as scaffold for evidence: Self-reported micro-skills

Within the plethora of research on EMI teacher beliefs in HE, the trend highlighting language proficiency shortcomings (Airey 2004; Denver et al. 2016; Kling 2016) is extensively documented. There is comparably less empirical research into EMI-related pedagogical micro-skills, with some valuable examples, though restricted to few informants and particular training programme evaluation (Ball and Lindsay 2013; Klaassen 2008). There has been virtually no exploration on the varied experiences, background and formal or informal training of EMI lecturers–which exceeds the training programmes they may have been enrolled in.

To perform such research, the main drawback is the extensive effort needed in the detection, cataloguing and organisation of these micro-skills, which may range from curricular design and language awareness to procedures such as exemplifying, paraphrasing or clarifying, and which respond to many different contexts and realities. However, the existence of common aspects in a number of teaching (Cambridge English Language Assessment 2014 Marsh et al. 2012) and teacher-training frameworks (EAQUALS 2016) allows the creation of a theoretical construct covering five essential areas: Awareness of CLIL/EMI and Second Language Acquisition (SLA) aspects, Language-bound skills, Curricular and materials design, Implementation, and Learning assessment and feedback. Also, as these frameworks are descriptor-based, a number of CEFR-like can-dos may be assigned to these areas.

With these as a backdrop, it is possible to construct a valuable tool to assess teacher confidence in their own EMI skills pre- or in-service, in a way that they reflect and report on their own abilities and classroom performance. Examples of these statements are:

Can you identify the general language competence a student has?
Can you determine and anticipate learners' language learning needs?
Can you plan a logical sequence of activities targeting content and
Can you design learning activities targeting learners' needs?
Can you adapt delivery to student language proficiency?
Can you offer students models of expected written performance?
Can you offer students models of expected oral performance?
Can you raise student awareness on academic language and register?
Can you link class content to real-life applications?
Can you engage students in oral production?
Can you assess written performance and give feedback on language issues?
Can you adapt published and other learning materials, including digital
Can you use Information & Communication Technology (ICT) to aid learning outside the classroom?
Can you offer enough guidance for students to learn independently?

Table 7-2 EMI-related can-do statements as survey items

In the research presented here, a test containing 150 of these can-do statements was answered anonymously by 162 lecturers at Spanish institutions. They were asked to express their confidence–LIKERT five-point scale, 1 being no confidence, 5 fully confident–in their own context-specific teaching micro-skills. These lecturers belong to both state-funded and private HE institutions, and vary in their experience as both lecturers and EMI instructors, among other characteristics. An informant outline is offered below, with relevant highlights:

Item	Total	Details
Participant lecturers	162	26% senior/tenure, 32% full-time, 58% part-time, 56% female, avg. age 38.2
Universities	22	16 state-funded (72%)
Avg. service time	14.3 years	85.9% same institution
Avg. EMI service	1.8 years	100% same institution
Accreditation programme with training	14 (63.6%; avg. 52.1 hours)	6 (27.3%) qualify through B2/C1 external language certificate; 2 (9.1%, all private) do so by interview

Methodology content	3 (13.6%)	14% strong, 20% substantial, 34% weak, 32% absent
Language assessment	96.8%	38% external body
Observation	46.1%	56% recorded
In-service continuing professional development	12.2%	0% private institutions

Table 7-3 Survey participant highlights

At least in those universities surveyed, there are a number of relevant aspects to be mentioned. First, it seems that most EMI staff is not tenured but has been in service for over a decade, almost exclusively at the same university. However, they have been teaching EMI for less than two years, and two thirds went through an accreditation programme whose methodological aims were rather ancillary. The vast majority had to prove their language skills, but mostly through in-house assessment. Finally, only a tenth of lecturers had options for EMI-related continuing professional development offered by their institution. It is particularly interesting that, even though the methodology content was largely absent from their previous training, a third of those surveyed qualify it as either strong or substantial—a mismatch that points to the misidentification of any non-content-related component—such as reading a graph—with actual pedagogy.

It must be noted that these micro-skills can be further associated to several means to achieve the same effect; the focus was on whether teachers thought themselves equipped for such an end, and not the exhaustion of ways to achieve such an outcome. For instance, questions on engaging students in oral production were devised towards evidencing such interaction, not towards whether it was achieved through elicitation, direct questioning, classroom debates, volunteering, problem-solving, and so on. Thus, the research tool was kept relatively balanced so that no external physical and psychological effects, such as tiredness or lack of relevance to context, might impair the results. Each of the scores for these descriptors was assigned to a fine-grained model covering the five overarching areas identified above, further organised into eight areas of influence: Learner needs and learning processes, Curriculum and teaching design, Lesson planning for content and language, Lesson management and interaction, Active methodology and variety, Language assessment and feedback, ICT and out-of-class learning and learner independence, and Intercultural awareness.

The overall results for Spanish HE informants reveal a strong confidence in their curriculum and teaching design skills, which is the only area of influence in which they report to feel very confident (avg. 4.1), followed by a below-par confidence on their lesson management and interaction skills (avg. 2.8) and on their abilities to create lesson plans covering both content and language (avg. 2.6). In the rest of the areas under scrutiny–particularly those being more student-centred or requiring pedagogical, technological or cultural adaptation–lecturers' lack of confidence is evident:
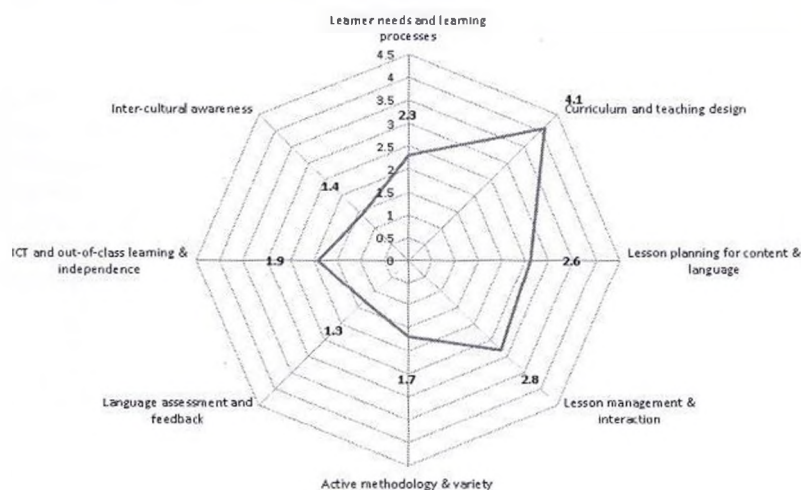
Figure 7-1 Overall results, grouped by areas of influence

There were no statistical differences among those in private or state-funded institutions–Cronbach's alpha 0.83–but it was intriguing to explore whether confidence intervals were due to individual factors, and whether these were statistically significant. In particular, aspects such as years of service, years of EMI service, pre-service or in-service training programme hours, CEFR level, formal language assessment, and classroom observation were analysed through a regression matrix, finding that only EMI experience has a significant bivariate correlation with the results in some areas of influence, followed by years of service and curriculum and teaching design abilities:

Variable pair	R-squared	Adjusted R-squared
EMI years ~ Avg. confidence	0.8157	0.8152
Service years ~ Curriculum design	0.6232	0.6231
EMI years ~ Learner needs	0.4528	0.4526
CEFR level ~ ICT skills	0.3711	0.3708
Service years ~ Lesson management	0.1677	0.1675

Table 7-4 Top five variable-pair correlations (p=0.045)

Since years of overall service and teaching EMI seemed to play a role in the distribution of these abilities, a total of 19 semi-structured interviews were carried out with more experienced staff (avg. 4.3 years of service as EMI instructors). They were asked about their training, experience as a language learner, professional use of English, major concerns as EMI practitioners, and ways in which these could be tackled. It is surprising how almost invariably discussion revolved around methodological aspects, which was counter-intuitive from the exploration of their training programmes. Some report "great anxiety" when they started teaching EMI (informant 12) and a sense of "achievement and confidence" (inf. 8) on their language skills, but also agree that "the real problem is students' English, not ours" (inf. 3). Some think that their EMI training is "sufficient and varied" (inf. 5), while others see it as "an eye opener" (inf. 3) and concede that they had not had "any pedagogical training in the first place" (inf. 12) or that they had been "thrown at the deep end" (inf. 8). Some point out that "the survey was very useful to reflect on teaching" (inf. 9) and that it gave them "ideas for lessons and materials, and interaction" (inf. 8) that had not been covered by their training. Some agree that they "have no model to follow" and "cannot rely on [their] teaching in Spanish" (inf. 1), which takes them back to the start of their careers, as it is "like suddenly not knowing if what you are doing is right" (inf. 8). They stated they have realised "how important good materials are, since you cannot always rely on your explanations" (inf. 11) and demand further training to "incorporate ICT resources or videos into my teaching" (inf. 7) so that "students know the basics before lessons" (inf. 13). On linguistic aspects, they still think that "correcting language is difficult" (inf. 8) as they "often make mistakes" themselves (inf. 9) and are "unsure about what is right or better" (inf. 12), although some others "know when something is Spanglish" (inf. 7). They realise that they "have been worried" about their "English too much" (inf. 2) and now are more focused on "making sure students know vocabulary and needed structures" (inf. 18). Some wish that their training programmes

had been "more centred upon students and their learning" (inf. 6) and gave
them "strategies to teach them language" (inf. 8) both "in class and online"
(inf. 14).

4. Conclusion: Shortening the shortcomings

The analysis of EMI training programmes worldwide has presented a
landscape of differing requirements, language levels, and content in
continuing professional development. Notably, there is remarkable
persistence on the fostering of teacher-centred and monologic strategies,
which seem to be underpinned by the assumption of lecturing as the only
possible activity within the classroom. As evidenced in the exploration of
more sound teaching frameworks for the integration of content and
language, these programmes seem to cover but a fraction of total class
interaction, and avoid central aspects such as learning support, the use of
technology, multimodality, classroom interaction, and content scaffolding.
In such a sense, the opinions of experienced hands-on EMI classroom
practitioners in Spain–a country where EMI expansion in HE has been
exponential–help illuminate how, after an initial period of EMI teaching,
they clearly shift the focus of their concerns from teacher-centred discourse
to student-centred learning.

The specificities of EMI provisions, due to their rapid implementation
in many corners of the world, as mentioned in the introduction, have
complicated the chances for other than light-touch training for EMI
lecturers. The case of the detection of these 150 micro-skills can show how
it is possible to detect needs which have not been covered by these
programmes, and organise them in areas of influence which would call for
training components generally overlooked. Also, the opinions and
comments of more experienced EMI instructors would encourage such
change as evidenced by their classroom practice. However, it has also been
shown in both the global and Spanish analysis of training programmes that
the stress of EMI training has been largely laid on pre-service accreditation,
and not on continuing professional development. In other words, HE
institutions seem to have been more worried about setting these programmes
in motion with a modicum of quality-assurance measures than establishing
further training so as to aim for excellence in both EMI teaching and
learning.

This overall approach is short-sighted, as it does not fully envision the
paradigm shift entailed by progression towards EMI for both lecturers and
students. For EMI provisions to become pivotal for university growth, as
part of internationalisation in a more mobile education, it is necessary that

further long-term goals and investment is put in place, beginning with more comprehensive training programmes. It is paramount to move from pre-service, one-size-fits-all accreditation to a continuing professional development for EMI which includes targets for micro-skills and fosters learning of both content and language. Excessive emphasis on teacher-centred language requirements has obliterated pedagogical aspects that, it must be noted, follows a tradition of pedagogical shortcomings that modern institutions–not only those promoting EMI–can no longer sustain, and which EMI classroom practice clearly exposes. Thus, adding linguistic description and reflection for both instructors and learners; devising a flexible way for ICT to help both; fostering action research and evidence-based practice as quality assessment; promoting intra-departmental collaboration to foster area-specific development and independence, in combination with the more frequent involvement of English specialists (Dearden 2018); and, finally, assessing students' pre-register linguistic competence and offering them–and their lecturers–a solid Academic English training as per their areas of specialisation seem to be requirements for second-wave training programmes. While the results of top-down training professional development projects such as Educational Quality at Universities for inclusive international Programmes (EQUiiP 2018) yield results, it has been shown here that it is possible to identify modular areas of improvement which necessitate intensive training, as stemming from pre-existing frameworks and the empirical scrutiny of professional practice and self-reflection. The improvement of these areas and their potential impact on learning outcomes reveal themselves as a crucial move for the long-term stability of EMI programmes and their future.

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