Over one-third of Japanese universities offer undergraduate content classes taught in English. These classes are often designed for domestic students and serve less than 10% of the student body in most cases. Generally, these classes do not form full-degree programs taught in English; rather, most English-medium Instruction (EMI) programs are a part of students mainly Japanese-medium degree. For language teaching and teachers, EMI seems to have implications in four areas. First, language teachers may have new roles as language programs implement EMI classes. Also, due to EMI, domestic learners' engage with English differently, implying changing needs for language students. In addition, growing EMI also implies both more need and potential for communication between language and content faculty. Finally, the rising popularity of EMI in higher education may lead to positive washback on language teaching in secondary schools.
1. English-medium instruction of content classes (EMI) is a growing trend in Japan. As of 2005, 176 universities reported offering some EMI courses and by 2013, the number had jumped to 262 (MEXT, 2015). This represents a 50% increase in less than a decade, and currently, over one-third of Japanese universities offer EMI. This rapid development has paralleled the “fast-moving world-wide shift from English being taught as a foreign language (EFL) to English being the medium of instruction (EMI) for academic subjects” (Dearden, 2014 p.2). This shift is reflected in the definition of EMI in Japan, where EMI refers to courses conducted entirely in English, excluding those whose primary aim is language education (MEXT, 2015). The growth of EMI in Japan appears to have been largely uncoordinated and there has not yet been a clear picture of how and why EMI is developing nationwide. There is no standard image of normal in Japanese EMI. This study is an attempt to paint just such a picture, based on a 2014 survey of 258 universities known to offer undergraduate EMI courses.

2. The growth of EMI in Japan appears to have been largely uncoordinated and there has not yet been a clear picture of how and why EMI is developing nationwide. There is no standard image of normal in Japanese EMI. This study is an attempt to paint just such a picture, based on a 2014 survey of 258 universities known to offer undergraduate EMI courses.

3. To gather information about EMI in Japan, data was collected for this study through a written survey (Appendix A) developed based on trends arising in a pilot study of eight Japanese EMI programs (Brown & Iyobe, 2014) and Wachter and Maiworm’s (2008) overview of English-taught programs in Europe. This survey sample included 258 universities which self-reported to MEXT that they offered undergraduate EMI courses. Of those 258 universities, 29 were known to offer one or more full-degree English-taught programs (ETPs), in which students can earn all credits necessary for graduation in English. At most universities, EMI courses were offered as a part of, or a complement to, a mainly Japanese-medium program.

The survey was sent to the general affairs desk at the universities with a bilingual cover letter asking the staff to forward the request for information to the most appropriate faculty member or administrator. The survey was first sent in the spring of 2014 with a follow up in the fall of that year for universities which had not responded to the first round. From the full sample of 258 universities, 115 responses were collected for a response rate of 44.6%. A total of 31% of responses came from national universities, 11% from public universities and 58% from private universities. Considering the overall breakdown of EMI programs in Japan, national universities are somewhat overrepresented in the responses and private universities are somewhat underrepresented. Responses were received from roughly equal numbers of administrators and faculty members.

4. Key findings from the survey results are reported and discussed below. While the results are intended to be descriptive, rather than analytical, some interesting differences in approaches to EMI emerged. The size of university student body seemed to influence some, but not all, results. The type of university, publicly or privately funded, also seemed to impact some responses. It should be noted that during data analysis, no significant differences were seen between national and local public universities. In addition local public universities represented a very limited number of responses. As such, in the discussion below, national and public universities are grouped together as publicly-funded universities to contrast them with private universities.

Scope and Scale of EMI Programs. Results indicate that EMI programs in Japan tend to be small and peripheral. Only 6% of respondents reported that all or most students at their university take EMI classes. However, at nearly 2/3 of universities, EMI classes serve 10% or less of the student body. This small program size is consistent with earlier studies (Brown & Iyobe, 2014) which showed that many programs served as few as 2%-3% of students. This is also consistent with Nakatsugawa’s (2014) finding that the government is not encouraging widespread EMI but rather is aiming to serve approximately 10% of the nation-wide university cohort. It seems that large universities (more than 10,000 students) and medium-sized universities (2500 to 10,000 students) have relatively small EMI programs more often than small universities (fewer than 2500 students) do. In fact, 57% of large universities and 61% of medium-sized universities reported that EMI serves fewer than 5% of students, while only 35% of small universities reported this program size. In general, there seems to be more variety in program size among smaller universities. These differences are considered significant based on a chi square test result showing p=0.0304.

In addition to being small, EMI programs tend not to be integrated into the students’ mainstream program. While some universities
offer coordinated programs, either within a given department or serving the needs of several departments, nearly half of responding universities reported that EMI was ad hoc. Chappele (2014) notes this ad hoc delivery saying that EMI is being implemented without concern for the quality of the classes or integrity of the curriculum. In addition, Takagi (2015) found that EMI courses in Japan are often based on what the existing faculty of a given university can teach in English, rather than on how such courses fit together to form a coherent curriculum.

Despite the small program size and ad hoc delivery, there is a trend towards larger, more organized programs. A quarter of universities have recently increased EMI courses and 16% have formalized previously ad hoc programs. More than 75% of responding universities are currently expanding or planning to expand EMI offerings.

Interestingly, this expansion is largely seen in publicly-funded universities. Comparisons using a chi square test shows a significant difference (p=0.00428) between university types. Nearly all (96%) publicly-funded universities are currently expanding or planning to expand EMI programs while more than 1/3 of private universities have no expansion plans. It appears that while more private universities are now adopting EMI for the first time, more publicly-funded universities are expanding previously-implemented programs.

The student body and faculty of EMI programs. Rationales for EMI are tied to domestic students. Looking at the mean scores given for possible rationales on a five-point Likert scale, EMI appears to be linked directly to domestic students’ language proficiency and post-graduation workplace needs.

Also, while full-degree ETPs tend to attract international students, non-degree EMI programs mainly serve domestic students. EMI students are predominately domestic at nearly half of responding universities and entirely domestic at a further 12%. In this sense, although Japan’s relatively few ETPs attract and serve international students, the more common non-degree EMI programs seem to be part of Japan’s internationalization at home efforts.

Among universities reporting all or predominately international students in EMI programs, approximately 60% report mainly full-time international students in EMI while 40% report mainly short-term, visiting students. Those short-term students are studying in Japan for as little as one semester and may be attending only EMI courses while on campus. The full-time students, in contrast, are generally enrolled in a mainstream Japanese-medium programs and take EMI courses as a part of their degree, similar to domestic students.

The faculty in EMI programs are also predominately domestic. In ETPs 2/3 of responding universities have predominately, or all, Japanese faculty. For non-degree EMI programs, the figures are more balanced but Japanese faculty appear to be in the majority. These results reflect two ways in which EMI has developed in Japan. Earlier findings (Brown & Iyobe, 2014) show that some EMI programs in Japan are positioned within language-learning departments. Content-based language classes develop over time and shift their focus away from language learning to become content classes taught by language-teaching faculty, mainly international (e.g. Sekiya, 2005; Carty & Susser, 2015). Other programs, (e.g. Homma, 2003; Aloiau, 2008), are developed and taught by content specialists, largely Japanese. At some universities, both kinds of programs are developing in parallel in different departments.

Two interesting findings emerged from a comparison of universities’ faculty breakdown. First, small universities appear more likely to have a balance of Japanese and international faculty in EMI. In fact, 64% of small universities reported a balanced EMI faculty, compared with only 18% of medium-sized and 12% of large universities (chi square test result, p=0.0178 ). Also, private universities seem to have more international faculty in EMI: 43% of private universities reported predominantly international EMI faculty, compared to only 19% of publicly-funded universities (chi square test result, p=0.0174 ) .

There are concerns about EMI faculty in the literature. Chappele (2014) argues that there is little acknowledgement of the special demands of EMI. Classes are taught by those willing to do it, rather than those who have the necessary expertise and sensitivity. Ishikawa (2009) is concerned with the long term buy-in from faculty. Amid falling budgets and increasing workloads, EMI represents an unrealistic burden. And Yonezawa, Akiba and Hirouchi (2009) report concerns that faculty understanding of EMI and internationalization is far behind the ambitious goals set by the government.

In addition, it seems that few Japanese faculty members have sufficient language skills for success in EMI (IHEP, 2009). Fewer than 3% of positions are held by foreign faculty, many of whom are language teachers, and only approximately 10% of Japanese faculty have international graduate-level credentials.
programs for EMI faculty in Japan, one designed to support non-native faculty in their language proficiency and the other aiming to improve teaching skills. However, these programs are not yet widely implemented. Other isolated FD initiatives are also taking place; however, it appears they are, for now, limited to universities that are, in a sense, already doing EMI well.

Students. In addition to the needs of the faculty, there is also a mismatch between universities' reported priorities and actual implementation connected to the students in EMI. Results indicate a widespread concern about the language proficiency of domestic students. Language support for students was identified as a key to success and low language proficiency among domestic students was a concern at more than half of universities. This is consistent with Tsuneyoshi (2005) and Ishikura (2015) who both report issues with domestic students, especially those in non-degree EMI programs, keeping up with classes. Given that domestic students are the bulk of participants in EMI programs, this would seem to be a priority. However, in many programs, little is being done to address this situation.

External language proficiency tests (TOEFL, IELTS, etc.) are part of entry requirements for many ETPs in Japan. However, language-proficiency benchmarks are much less common in non-degree programs. The lack of entry benchmarks may indicate that students' language proficiency is meant to be supported during the EMI program. However, there is little or no coordination between EMI and language-teaching faculty in nearly half of responding universities, implying that such support is not part of the program.

In addition, targeted English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classes are seen at only 8% of responding universities. More than 40% of EMI programs rely on general English classes not associated with the program, and nearly half have no required language training at all. Taken together, these faculty and student issues with implementation seem to confirm Chapelle's (2014) worry that EMI is being implemented superficially in Japan. This echoes Le Ha's (2013) argument that the government sees EMI rather simplistically, assuming that implementing EMI will automatically internationalize the campus, attract international students, and give domestic students an international experience. The fact that the program is in English is the point: the actual quality of the program itself or the expertise, preparedness, and experience of the faculty are not considered. Hamid, Nguyen and Baldauf (2013) explain that many governments...
see EMI as "a relatively simple and cheap solution to both the problems of internationalization and upgraded local language proficiency" (p. 10).

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