

## THE CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES OF MULTILINGUAL ACADEMIA: SPANISH SCHOLARS' LANGUAGE CHOICE FOR RESEARCH AND TEACHING PRACTICES

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### **Abstract**

*This paper examines the extent of linguistic diversity in modern academia, in opposition to the claims of the Englishisation of academia. A questionnaire was distributed to explore language choice in the research- and teaching-oriented practices of Spanish scholars. Results showed the existence of biliteracy practices for research activities, whereas in the case of teaching, Spanish was reported as the dominant language, followed tentatively by English. Findings are discussed in the light of the nature of the academic practices (production, circulation, and formation), the target audience, and individual traits. The results of the study reflect on the impact of internationalisation and how a feasible language policy can be implemented for the benefit of the university community.*

**Keywords:** language choice, scientific communication, internationalisation, English for academic purposes, English-medium instruction, language policy.

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### **1. Introduction**

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The economic, political, social changes and neo-liberal values brought by globalisation have impacted enormously on the modernisation of Higher Education. As a response to these challenges, internationalisation has been referred to as the preferred strategy employed by institutions worldwide (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Maringe & Foskett, 2010; Sursock, 2015). Higher Education internationalisation is defined as “the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education” (Knight, 2004: 11). Furthermore, internationalisation has emerged as a powerful national and supranational framework that benefits from the new patterns of science production, where knowledge is created through collaborative and dynamic approaches. First-hand evidence of the global exchange of knowledge is the circulation of information and the opportunities for international collaboration between institutions and academics. As a result, internationalisation has become a key instrument for universities, whose actions are no longer restricted to the local context but aim to become influential in the international landscape, as Jenkins and Mauranen (2019: 264) conclude.

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One element found at the core of many universities' internationalisation strategies refers to the use of English as a mediating tool for teaching and research (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Ferguson, 2007; Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019; Surssock 2015). This is observed in initiatives such as English-taught programmes, collaboration with international institutions, or the use of English as the lingua franca of scientific communication, among others (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Björkman, 2016; Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019; Maringe & Foskett, 2010; Surssock 2015). The use of English has made it possible to access and disseminate knowledge worldwide, however, a cautious stance should be taken regarding the advantages of a sole lingua franca because it may lead towards the homogenisation of (teaching and research) practices (Hakala, 2009; Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019). In other words, internationalisation tends to be related to market-driven objectives, and therefore changes in the funding systems and recruitment protocols may hamper the existing diversity of research and teaching practices in favour of a more homogeneous way of evaluating the “efficiency” and “success” of scholars (Englander & Uzuner-Smith, 2013; Hakala, 2009).

Given the above-mentioned considerations, it is somewhat surprising that institutional policies tend to ignore the nature of science creation and knowledge circulation practices that are inherently diverse and context-sensitive (Hakala 2009; Hamel et al., 2016; Pérez-Llantada, 2018). Hakala (2009: 6) warns that this situation leads to the homogenisation of research- and teaching-oriented practices, blending disciplinary differences for the sake of internationalisation and institutional objectives. Data from several studies (e.g. Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012; Hakala, 2009; Hamel, 2007; Ljosland, 2007; O'Neil, 2018; Schluer, 2014; Soler-Carbonell, 2014) suggest that language choice is partially associated with the disciplinary community. In this way, more attention has been paid to the hard sciences and humanities, which show the biggest contrast in language use regarding English or the local language. However, there are not enough data on the social sciences, which is a disciplinary field positioned in-between the hard sciences and the humanities. Hence, the present study aims to explore the academic practices and language choice of a group of social science scholars. In this way, I analyse to what extent English, in opposition to other academic languages, plays a prevailing role in the practices of production, circulation and formation of scientific knowledge. The main research questions guiding the investigation are:

- What is the actual scope of English language use in research- and teaching-oriented practices?
- To what extent is language choice negotiated by individuals instead of macro-level policies?

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## ***2. Language use in academia***

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### *2.1 The Englishisation of Higher Education*

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The linguistic hegemony of English as the language for scientific communication has been extensively documented since the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Ammon, 2016; Ferguson, 2007, 2012; Hamel, 2007; Linn, 2016, among others). The rise of English and attrition of other academic languages such as French and German responds to a series of historic, political, and economic decisions taken after the World Wars when scientific developments turned towards the Anglophone countries. These changes led to the current situation where English is regarded as a prestigious language in many domains, including the academic context. The advantages of having English as lingua franca cannot be denied since it facilitates access to scientific developments worldwide and boosts international communication and collaboration. Yet, the use of a sole language relegates the local languages and other academic languages to a secondary position, decreasing the levels of linguistic diversity (Ferguson, 2007; Pérez-Llantada, 2018).

Evidence of this phenomenon is often examined in the research field through bibliometrics that measure the international repercussion of journals and work as indicators of the scholars' contributions to the disciplinary field (Ammon, 2016; Englander & Uzuner-Smith, 2013; Ferguson, 2007; O'Neil, 2018). The increasing presence of English despite the scholars' mother tongues or nationalities can also be found in the growing number of doctoral theses written completely or in part in English (Hakala, 2009; Soler-Carbonell, 2014) or in the number of national journals publishing in English (Bocanegra-Valle, 2014; Lillis & Curry, 2010). Using English as the language of science means that scholars can contribute internationally to their field of research, gain access to new developments, data and sources (O'Neil, 2018). Exploring in more detail some of the reasons behind language choice for publication practices, Bocanegra-Valle (2014: 69) reported that aspects such as reaching a global audience, the topic of research, genre, or the promotional objectives were other factors shaping the use of English. Thus, the instrumental value of English facilitates communication and participation in the production and circulation of science by centre and periphery scholars.

In the domain of education, there has been a rapid increase in the implementation of English medium instruction (EMI) among non-English speaking countries (Coleman, 2006; Dearden, 2014; Wächter & Mainworm, 2014). Trends to internationalise education through EMI programmes are reported to be more consolidated in Northern and Central Europe (Airey et al., 2017; Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012; Dimova et al., 2015; Lanvers, 2018) than in the Southern countries (Dearden, 2014; Halbach et al., 2013; Lasagabaster, 2015). The two main rationales for the rapid expansion of EMI programmes are the attraction of international students and the experience of "substantially lower study costs

compared to Anglophone countries” by the local students (Lanvers, 2018: 45). This means that scholars should meet the institutional objectives of becoming internationally competitive and attractive not only in research but also in the teaching field (Airey et al., 2017; Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019; Pérez-Llantada, 2018). Furthermore, teaching in a foreign language, English in this case, poses several challenges in relation to language instruction and content. For example, studies like those of Coleman (2006) or Halbach et al. (2013) report challenges such as linguistic difficulties for both staff and students, organisational problems and/or institutional infrastructures, unwillingness to teach/learn in English, the lack of international students, or financial constraints, to mention just a few.

In sum, the growing presence of English in the scholarly community can be taken to be as either an opportunity for international dissemination and collaboration or as a threat for multilingualism and non-native English scholars' performance in their research and teaching practices (Hamel, 2007). This might translate into resignation towards English, the development of strategies to cope with academic literacy, the influence of disciplinary differences, or individual preferences that shape language choice (Ferguson, 2007; Ferguson et al., 2011; Flowerdew, 2007).

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## *2.2 Factors influencing language choice in the academic context*

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Major aspects shaping language choice are external and internal factors such as the disciplinary community, the context, the communicative purpose, the target audience, and individual agency.

Different levels of Englishisation have been reported based on disciplinary traditions (Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012; Hakala, 2009; Hamel, 2007; Kuteeva & Airey, 2014; Ljosland, 2007; O'Neil, 2018; Schluer, 2014; Soler-Carbonell, 2014). In general terms, the dominant presence of English in the (hard and natural) sciences responds particularly to the need for a single lingua franca that facilitates the quick access to new developments, and the extreme concentration of publications written in English, which are the base for the development of new knowledge. Besides, the continuous and rapid production of knowledge sometimes hinders the translation of technical terminology into the local language (Gnutzmann & Rabe, 2014; Kuteeva, 2015). The social sciences have also experienced an increase in the use of English over time for publication, research and education. However, language choice tends to be connected to the local/international dimension of the research topics, the readership, or language skills. On the other hand, the humanities show the lowest rate of Englishisation in comparison to the previous disciplinary groups, where the use of the local language is more predominant. English is seen rather as an additional language used in parallel to the local language (de Barros, 2014; Kuteeva & Airey, 2014; Soler-Carbonell, 2014).

Pérez-Llantada (2018: 6) contends that language choice is context-dependent, which is based on the physical location (on campus or out campus activities), the audience, individual language skills, institutional organisation and infrastructures, or the language status. Similarly, Schluer (2014: 2) and Lillis and Curry (2010: 5-6) also underline the importance of the sociocultural context of scholars, which may include evaluation systems (pressure to publish in English and be internationally competitive), institutional policies (available resources, recruitment and promotion policies), or the physical location (everyday communication, economic and political factors).

The communicative reach of the academic practice also shapes language choice. For instance, in the Latin American university context, Hamel et al. (2016: 5-6) explore the extent to which English, as the language of science, reduces or shapes the use of other academic languages. Their framework for academic language distribution was organised into three dimensions: the production, circulation, and formation of knowledge. Production refers to planning and implementation of research (research, genres, and practices), circulation means the dissemination of scientific findings (final product, publication, conferences) and formation focuses on teaching and training practices. It is thought that the “activities surrounding the production and reception of texts” might involve more linguistic diversity, especially in countries where English is not the local language (Gnutzmann & Rabe, 2014: 33). In these cases, the presence of the local language and other languages tends to be found in marginal genres and less prestigious domains as a result of the linguistic ecology of universities (Muresan & Pérez-Llantada, 2014).

‘Audience’ is analysed by Lillis and Curry (2010), who argue that language choice varies according to the different communities that scholars address. According to these authors, there is 1) a professional and practitioner audience in the local language, 2) a national academic community in the local language, 3) a national community in English or other languages, 4) an international (academic) community in the local language (e.g. Latin America and Spain), and 5) an international community in English or other languages. This notion of readership is included in Airey’s (2011) concept of disciplinary literacy that is used to explain language choice. It takes into account the target audience and divides it into academic (pure), practitioners or professionals (applied), and society (applied/outreach), which can have either a local or international dimension.

Lastly, the individual agency of scholars is another relevant aspect that determines positive or negative attitudes towards specific languages and their use (Ljosland, 2007). In this way, there might exist the need to meet external demands such as “research assessment and promotion systems prioritizing English-medium publications” or “the university’s policies incentivizing research publishing in high-impact factor journals” (Muresan & Pérez-Llantada, 2014: 62; see also Englander & Uzuner-Smith, 2013), an individual desire for prestige and recognition, or the scholar’s language competence (McGrath, 2014; Schluer, 2014).

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### **3. Methodology**

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For exploratory studies, questionnaires have proved useful instruments to collect insights into academic writing (Bennett, 2010, 2014), academic situated practices (Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012; McGrath, 2014; Schluer, 2014), and attitudes towards academic languages and English (Bocanegra-Valle, 2014; de Barros, 2014; Ferguson et al., 2011; Muresan & Pérez-Llantada, 2014). The questionnaire was designed with the online tool *e-encuesta* to map the academic practices and language choices of scholars from the hard and soft disciplines based at a primarily monolingual university in Northwest Spain. The questionnaire worked as the first dataset of an overarching research project, which employed other complementary methodological approaches such as interviews, website content analysis, and observations (for further information see Vázquez et al., 2019). In this way, the questionnaire allowed collecting a large amount of information in a short period of time while also giving the option to familiarise with potential participants of the follow-up interviews. A limitation of the questionnaire approach, however, consisted of the unbalanced number of responses gathered across disciplines. Bearing in mind issues of representativeness, the present study only analysed the answers provided by the social sciences scholars (n=50) and discarded the answers from the hard science scholars (n=19) and the humanities scholars (n=23). This decision was taken because discipline was considered one factor shaping language choice in academia, therefore the unequal representation of the different disciplinary groups may have raised some issues about the reliability and validity of results.

Data collection occurred during the months of January and February 2016. The questionnaire was administered to L1 Spanish scholars following a non-probability snow-ball sampling approach (Dörnyei, 2007: 98), where several respondents were selected to complete the questionnaire, and these subsequently contacted other scholars to participate in the survey. A total of 50 social sciences scholars answered the questionnaire distributed via the institutional email. Demographic characteristics of the sample showed a balanced gender distribution (females 54% and males 46%). The age intervals with higher percentages were those between 36-45 (32%) and 46-55 (30%), followed by the age intervals of 26-35 (29%) and 56-65 (9%). Regarding disciplines, there were representatives from accounting and finances, economics, business management and marketing. The majority of the participants were tenured lecturers (55%), associate lecturers (22%) and professors (20%). The data was analysed using descriptive statistics (following Bolton &

Kuteeva, 2012; Bocanegra-Valle, 2014; de Barros, 2014; McGrath, 2014; or Schluer, 2014).

The questionnaire (see Appendix A) was written in Spanish to facilitate the exchange of information. It consisted of 21 questions organised into two main parts. The initial section (questions 1-5) focused on personal information whereas the second section (questions 6-21) inquired into the academics' linguistic repertoires, research- and teaching-oriented activities to understand how their academic practices determined language choice. The second part was organised as follows.

The first set of questions asked the academics to assess their estimated level of language competence in the four macro-skills in the following foreign languages: English, French, German, Italian and Portuguese. The proposed foreign languages corresponded with the most common foreign languages learnt in Europe and Spain (European Commission, 2012). Following the CEFR framework, the different competence levels ranging from A1 to C2 were simplified into three groups: beginner, intermediate and advanced. These questions delved into the academics' self-assessed language proficiency to analyse whether a correlation between language proficiency in foreign languages and language use in the different academic practices was found.

The second set of questions explored language choice across academic practices. In a multiple-choice format, respondents informed in which research and publication practices they participate; and in which language these activities were carried out. According to Ferguson (2007) and Lillis and Curry (2010), investigating only languages for research publication does not provide a full picture of researchers' language practices, thus, in addition to publications, other genres and surrounding practices to publication were included in the questions. Following Hamel et al.'s framework (2016) of scientific practices, the proposed research practices were organised into production and circulation activities.

The third and last set of questions focused on teaching-oriented practices in languages other than Spanish. Since the study was located in a primarily monolingual setting, challenges may appear in the introduction of foreign language instruction (Wächter & Mainworm, 2014). The questions, with a yes-no format, inquired into the language of instruction used for teaching, future intention to teach in a foreign language and potential needs for linguistic support. Those respondents who said they had taught in a language other than Spanish also answered a few open-ended questions about the reasons why they did it, in which language, and at what education level (undergraduate or graduate). An additional open-ended question was formulated to investigate the reasons to participate in foreign language instruction at the home university. The answers were grouped into thematic categories according to Coleman's (2006) reported challenges and drivers

for EMI: linguistic difficulties, institutional policy, student demand, linguistic support, time and effort, and incentives.

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#### **4. Results**

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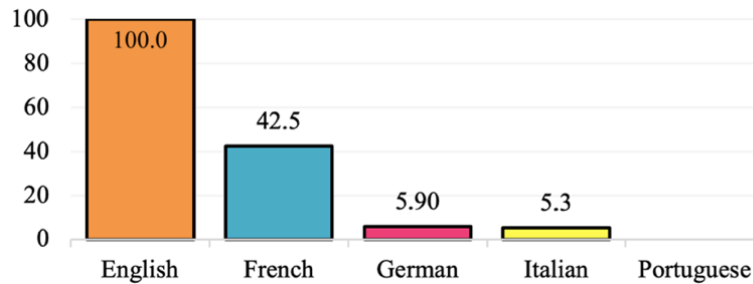
This section is organised into three main subsections: 1) the scholars' plurilingual competence, 2) language choice in research practices, and 3) language choice in teaching practices.

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##### **4.1 Self-assessed language competence**

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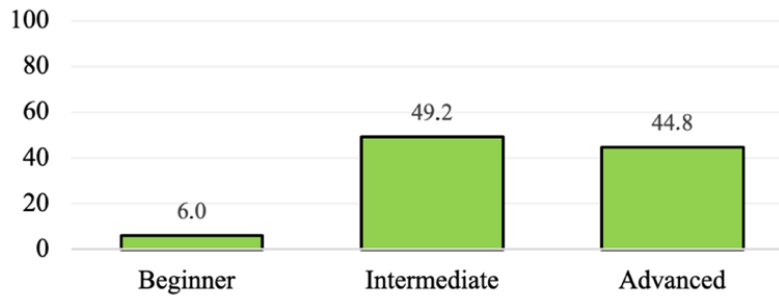
Figure 1 shows there is a general trend regarding the languages known by the scholars, which indicates English as the most prevalent language, followed by French. Other languages such as German and Italian were also part of the academics' linguistic repertoires. Despite the low competence levels reported, mentions to these languages might imply that researchers present positive attitudes towards linguistic diversity, particularly towards romance languages such as French or Italian.



**Figure 1. Languages scholars are familiar with (%)**

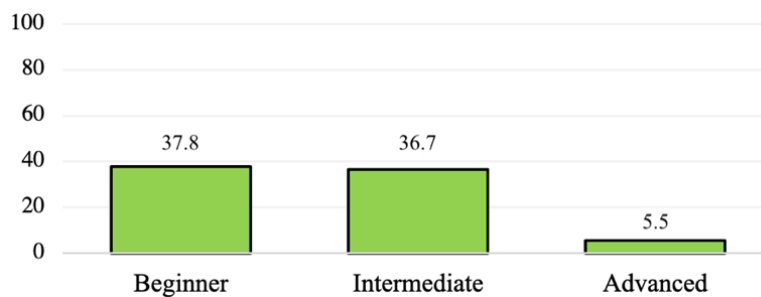
As far as English is concerned, it was the main foreign language (100%) in which scholars perceived themselves as competent language users. The self-assessed language competence in English distributes as follows. According to Figure 2, the majority of the participants have an intermediate or advanced proficiency level in that language.





**Figure 2. English competence (%)**

The participants provided answers that situated them as intermediate-advanced users (49.2% and 44.8%) of English, which may be a consequence of the dominance of English in their disciplinary field, as it has become the default language for publication and access to scientific knowledge (Kuteeva & Airey, 2014). Yet, even if English prevails, scholars were familiar with other languages too. French was the second most frequent option chosen by scholars (42.5%). Figure 3 shows the proficiency levels reported by the scholars.



**Figure 3. French competence (%)**

The average competence level of French is rather intermediate or beginner (36.7% and 37.8% respectively). A reason for French being in the linguistic repertoires of scholars might be related to the language learning tradition of Spain. In other words, before the introduction of English in the curriculum, French used to be the main foreign language learnt at school and nowadays is the second foreign language option offered at primary and secondary education. Another reason may be a consequence of French being a strong academic language in the past for their disciplinary community (e.g. topic of research or collaboration traditions).

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#### *4.2 Language choice in research-oriented activities*

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Following Hamel et al. (2016), the research activities mentioned in the questionnaire were grouped into production (planning and implementation of research) and circulation (reception, dissemination). In this way, production refers to scientific literature, experiments and procedures, funding proposal writing, and partners and funding search; while circulation activities consist of communication

with reviewers and editors, conference posters and presentations, publication proposals and submission, and work as reviewer or evaluator. There is a third group named socialisation practices, which includes activities that can fit both the production and circulation categories, such as communication with other teachers and researchers, contact with experts and collaborators, work trips, and meetings.

In the case of production activities, the use of Spanish and English alternates, as can be observed in Table 1, although English closes the gap in regard to the national language use, similarly to what the literature has reported (Ferguson, 2007; Kuteeva & Airey, 2014; O'Neil, 2018).

**Table 1. Language use in production activities (%)**

<b>PRODUCTION</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Spanish</b>	<b>French</b>	<b>Portuguese</b>
Funding proposal writing	22.0	64.0	0.0	0.0
Partners and funding search	32.0	32.0	0.0	0.0
Experiments and procedures	48.0	56.0	0.0	0.0
Scientific literature (search, analysis, reading)	100.0	62.0	6.0	2.0

When preparing in funding, the local context and target audience influences language choice since most of the funding sources come from the national government and local entities, thus, favouring Spanish (64%). Similarly, for those activities taking place on campus or local facilities, such as experiments and procedures, Spanish is more frequently used than English (56%). This, however, may change if, as a result of internationalisation policies and the promotion collaborative practices, experiments are done in collaboration with international researchers, which explains the similar rate of English use (48%). A higher level of linguistic variation is found in the practices around the consumption of scientific literature, where access to literature is done in English (100%), followed by Spanish (62%), but can also be done in other languages such as French or Portuguese. In this way, the presence of the plurilingual competence is useful because it grants access to a wider amount of knowledge and information.

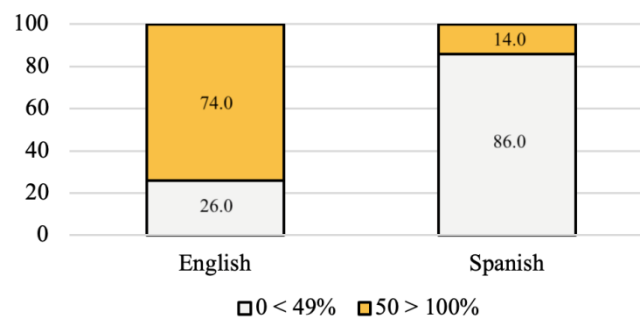
Table 2 shows that English prevails as the main linguistic choice used for circulation or dissemination practices, although the presence of Spanish and French was also noticeable, hence, fostering multilingual practices.

**Table 2. Language use in circulation practices (%)**

<b>CIRCULATION</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Spanish</b>	<b>French</b>
Communication with reviewers, editors	90.0	42.0	48.0
Conference posters, presentations	80.0	58.0	0.0
Work as reviewer or evaluator	86.0	60.0	0.0
Publication proposals and submission	56.0	86.0	0.0

Communication with reviewers is where more linguistic diversity was found since language choice can be conditioned by the interlocutors' linguistic repertoires or journals' language policy, as can be seen in the use of English, Spanish and French. Spoken genres such as conference presentations and posters presentations were done mostly in English (80%), which is a consequence of the penetration of English in national-based activities, as reported by Pérez-Llantada (2018). Another common task of scholars is peer-reviewing. In this case, the majority of the time English (86%) was more frequently used than Spanish (60%), which might be a consequence of the internationalisation policies to engage in international research. Lastly, writing for publication purposes (e.g. writing research articles, conference proceedings, books) was reported to be done rather in Spanish (86%) than in English (56%). This contradicts to a certain extent some of the previous answers where communication with reviewers and peer-reviewing was often done in English.

Exploring in more detail the distribution of academic languages in research article publication, English was the preferred language for article publication, while Spanish was used for less than half of the published articles, as observed in Figure 4.



**Figure 4. Language use in the articles published in the last 5 years (%)**

This finding supports previous claims on the importance of publishing in international journals and establishes English as the main international lingua franca. Possible reasons for this, as noted in the literature, are having a wider readership and international visibility (Bocanegra-Valle, 2014; Ferguson 2007; O'Neil, 2018). Despite this, according to the data from Table 2, it can be implied that language preference for Spanish or other languages might be determined by factors such as the local dimension of the topic of research, the publication genre of the researchers, or the target audience (e.g. a local audience or practitioner audience).

Lastly, Spanish, followed by English, was the preferred choice by the respondents to carry out socialisation activities, as illustrated in Table 3.

**Table 3. Language use in socialisation practices (%)**

<b>SOCIALISATION</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Spanish</b>	<b>French</b>	<b>Italian</b>
Contact with experts and collaborators	68.0	78.0	4.0	0.0
Communication with teachers and researchers	74.0	96.0	4.0	2.0
Trips (fieldwork, meetings...)	72.0	80.0	4.0	0.0

Language choice in this case is rather determined by the geographical location and the audience. It seems it was more frequent to collaborate with other Spanish-speaking colleagues, either national or international, which influenced language choice. This implies the importance of location (an activity taking place on campus or off campus, a Spanish-speaking location or overseas location), the target audience (university colleagues or international researchers), and the nature of the communicative exchange (specialised or general topics). Few references to other languages such as French or Italian were included, although they might support the idea of how individuals have the option to choose the language they communicate with, in addition to the national language and the scientific lingua franca.

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#### *4.3 Foreign language instruction*

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Spanish was the dominant language for teaching since it is an activity widely influenced by the local sociocultural context (e.g. on-campus activities and local student population). According to Table 4, only 40% of the scholars reported having taught in a foreign language for classes, seminars, and office hours. On a side note, the questions were formulated with a neutral stance, but all the respondents explicitly referred to English instruction as a synonym of 'foreign language instruction', which might support the claims of Englishisation of Higher Education and its relationship with internationalisation policies (Coleman, 2006; Lanvers, 2018).

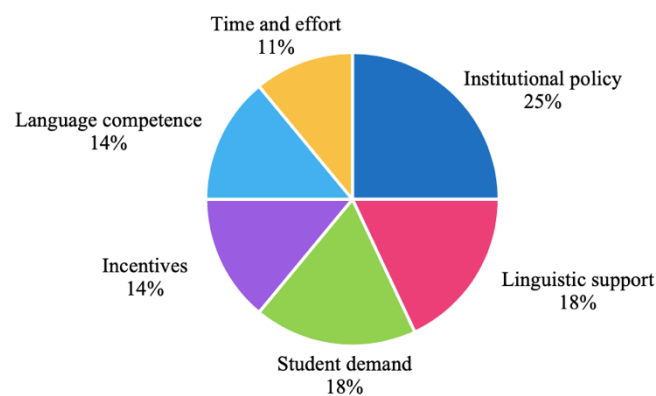
**Table 4. Teaching-oriented practices and attitudes towards EMI (%)**

<b>TEACHING</b>	<b>%</b>
Scholars teaching in a different language than Spanish in the last 2 years	40.0
○ English instruction	38.0
○ Other languages (French)	2.0
Scholars willing to participate in foreign language instruction in the future	72.0
Scholars who would need linguistic support to teach in a foreign language	83.7

Teaching in English was done by 38% of the respondents as a consequence of the implementation of a bilingual degree and the presence of ESP modules in different undergraduate degrees. Teaching at the postgraduate level was also mentioned in

relation to the presence of international students. The data further showed that there were positive attitudes (72%) towards the initiative of teaching in a foreign language at the home university. This shows how internationalisation policies influence stakeholders' attitudes, the introduction of new measures such as bilingual undergraduate degrees, or in-coming mobility programmes. When the participants were asked whether linguistic support was necessary, the majority agreed with the statement (83.7%). A possible explanation for this might be in the fact that at their university, the participants were currently doing EMI instruction; hence, they were already aware of the challenges of teaching in a foreign language.

From Figure 5 it can be seen that the main reasons to engage in EMI are the presence of institutional policy, linguistic support, and student demand. The majority of these answers coincided with Coleman (2006)'s reported potential challenges of EMI.



**Figure 5. Drivers for foreign language instruction (%)**

The main reason to engage in foreign language instruction corresponded with the presence of institutional policy (25%). The university management should make explicit their desire to introduce EMI instruction as a strategy to internationalise the university and, therefore, offer the chance to participate in EMI courses as part of the official degree programmes. Additionally, institutional linguistic support (18%) was another determining factor to engage in foreign language instruction. In this way, scholars were aware of the challenges involved in EMI, such as learning suitable teaching methodologies and materials design. Student demand (18%) was mentioned as a third driver. It was related to contextual aspects such as having international students or local students asking for the option of learning in a foreign language. Considering the students' needs and demands is crucial since, in a primarily Spanish monolingual and monocultural setting, successful communication in English could only occur if both teachers and students see the added value of English instruction. The other drivers scored low percentages and referred to the presence of incentives (14%), the sufficient language competence of

both scholars and students (14%), and the amount of time and additional effort involved in foreign language instruction (11%).

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## **5. Discussion**

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In response to the first research question, it was found that English is not the only linguistic choice encountered in academic settings, but it is indeed one of the most favoured languages, particularly in the research field. By way of illustration, formal academic genres with a clear purpose for written dissemination and international visibility were often carried out in English, whereas other outreach activities that relied on spoken interaction offered the possibility to accommodate to the interlocutor. These findings suggest that English keeps on playing a predominant role both intra-nationally and internationally in regard to the dissemination of research outputs. English better meets the needs to reach wider audiences, obtain international visibility and improve career prospects as also found out by Bocanegra-Valle (2014). Consequently, the extensive use of English in research activities revealed that biliteracy practices are internalised by the majority of scholars as a result of research assessment systems and career prospect requirements (Englander & Uzuner-Smith, 2013; Lillis & Curry, 2010; Surssock, 2015).

As far as teaching practices are concerned, almost half of the respondents had taught EMI at some point in the last years as a result of the introduction of a bilingual degree. This is an initiative that illustrates how the internationalisation strategy of the university attempts to attract more international students. Moreover, it aims at offering the local students an updated curriculum that includes language skills as part of the essential skillset for the global marketplace, which coincide with the main findings of Halbach et al. (2013), Jenkins and Mauranen (2019) and Lanverns (2018). Particularly relevant for this study are the recommendations of Halbach et al. (2013) that could help to face the many challenges of introducing bilingual education in a traditionally monolingual context. In this way, and reduplicating the scholars' concerns, the compromise of top-down stakeholders in the design of an institutional language policy is paramount. Policymakers play an essential role in encouraging participation and creating the sufficient resources for the staff and students, such as the modification of the study programmes, and the creation of support services and incentives that recognise the scholars' effort of teaching in a foreign language.

In response to the second question, linguistic diversity is influenced by a myriad of factors working in synchrony at the local level as well as the macro level. Although this study is based on a small sample of participants, the findings show that the nature of the activity as well as the geographical location of the scholars, the target audience, and communicative reach of the practice shape language choice. Yet it cannot be denied that language choice is embedded in a broader context of internationalisation that influences language use to a certain extent. For instance,

when European internationalisation policies promote mobility and international collaboration that mainly fosters the instrumental use of English, but also the use of Spanish or French, as found in this study. Thus, it should be noted that despite the macro-level policies' influence, by paying attention to bottom-up factors such as individuals or audience, it gives the scholars the chance to adopt a flexible approach to language interaction when communicating with each other (e.g. talk in the target language of the interlocutor, or a mixture of the local languages).

This study reveals that the social sciences is a discipline where bilingual literacy practices are clearly observed, especially in opposition to other disciplinary communities such as the hard and natural sciences, where English-only policy is the norm, or the humanities, where the local language still remains as the preferred academic language. Hence, it seems that the presence of bilingual literacy practices creates a diglossia situation between English and Spanish, where the former is used for functional communication and the latter for communication at the local level (Airey et al., 2017; Ljosland, 2007). This is particularly found in dissemination practices and the prestigious domain of writing for publication, where English prevails over Spanish as the preferred academic language. Nevertheless, the usage rate of Spanish was over 50% in the majority of the practices examined in this study, which shows that even if English is the main scientific lingua franca, Spanish is still used for similar purposes. This combination of languages recalls the approach to language interaction proposed by Soler-Carbonell (2014: 432), who claims that “we need to find effective ways of combining ‘both- and’, both the national and an international language in academia”, instead of focusing on an exclusive approach based on power relations. In other words, rather than encouraging the use of a sole academic language, according to the participants' experiences, it is possible to observe how they adapted language choice to their individual needs and objectives, which certainly offers more meaningful communication with specific audiences like the local community or practitioners. The use of the local language and other foreign languages may be relegated to less prestigious domains, but plays an essential role accessing information, disseminating to a different level, and applying results outside the academic world, which is crucial for knowledge transfer to society.

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## ***6. Conclusions***

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This modest study has analysed the level of linguistic diversity in a traditionally monolingual campus. By doing so, it has been possible to provide a diagnosis of the scholars' language practices and needs, which is considered to be an initial step in the design of effective language policy. Bearing in mind the concern about macro-level policies leading to the homogenisation of academia (Hakala, 2009; Airey et al., 2017), language policy should adopt a flexible approach tailored to the specific scenario of each university. Simultaneously, a necessary skill for academics nowadays is the development of academic literacy in research- and teaching-oriented practices, which also brings to the fore implications for language

training and linguistic support (Bennet, 2014; Ferguson et al., 2011; Kuteeva & Airey, 2014). Hence, institutional policies that address internationalisation through language strategies should promote flexible language policy that considers, on the one hand, the stakeholders' call for linguistic support and development of academic biliteracy skills and, on the other, awareness of which elements shape language choice.

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### ***Appendix A. Questionnaire “Linguistic diversity on an international university campus”***

The aim of this project is to investigate the role of languages in teaching, and in the communication, dissemination and publication of research in an international university. This questionnaire is estimated to take 5 minutes to complete.

Thank you beforehand for your collaboration.

*El objetivo de este proyecto es el de investigar el papel de las lenguas para la impartición de enseñanzas y para la comunicación, intercambio y publicación de la investigación en un campus internacional. El tiempo estimado para cumplimentar esta encuesta es de 5 minutos.*

*Gracias de antemano por tu colaboración.*

1 – Choose your research area.

*Seleccione su área de especialización.*

- Social sciences/ *Ciencias sociales*
- Humanities/ *Humanidades*
- Biomedical sciences/ *Ciencias biomédicas*
- Engineering/ *Ingeniería*
- Sciences/ *Ciencias*
- Other/ *Otra*

2 – If you select ‘other’, please indicate your research area.

*Si su área de especialización es otra, por favor especifique.*

3 – Gender.

*Sexo.*

- Male/ *Hombre*
- Female/ *Mujer*
- I don't want to say it/ *Prefiero no decirlo*



4 – Age.

*Grupo de edad.*

- Less than 26/ *Menos de 26*
- 26-35
- 36-45
- 46-55
- 56-65
- More than 65/ *Más de 65*
- I don't want to say it/ *Prefiero no decirlo*

5 – Write your current academic rank at the university.

*Escriba cuál es su posición académica actual en la universidad.*

6 – Select your level of linguistic competence.

*Indique su nivel de competencia lingüística.*

SKILL	LANGUAGE/ Idioma	Beginner	Intermediate	Advanced	N/S /No se aplica
<i>Reading/ Lectura</i>					
	Spanish/ <i>Español</i>				
	English/ <i>Inglés</i>				
	French/ <i>Francés</i>				
	German/ <i>Alemán</i>				
	Italian/ <i>Italiano</i>				
	Portuguese/ <i>Portugués</i>				
<i>Listening/ Audición</i>					
	Spanish/ <i>Español</i>				
	English/ <i>Inglés</i>				
	French/ <i>Francés</i>				
	German/ <i>Alemán</i>				
	Italian/ <i>Italiano</i>				
	Portuguese/ <i>Portugués</i>				
<i>Writing/ Escritura</i>					
	Spanish/ <i>Español</i>				
	English/ <i>Inglés</i>				
	French/ <i>Francés</i>				
	German/ <i>Alemán</i>				
	Italian/ <i>Italiano</i>				
	Portuguese/ <i>Portugués</i>				
<i>Speaking/ Conversación</i>					
	Spanish/ <i>Español</i>				
	English/ <i>Inglés</i>				
	French/ <i>Francés</i>				

SKILL	LANGUAGE/ Idioma	Beginner	Intermediate	Advanced	N/S /No se aplica
	German/ Alemán				
	Italian/ Italiano				
	Portuguese/ Portugués				

7 – If you know other languages, please write them below.

*Si conoce otro idioma, por favor especifique el idioma y su nivel.*

8 – Have you participated in any of the following academic activities in the last 2 years?

*¿Ha participado en las siguientes actividades académicas en los últimos 2 años?*

ACADEMIC ACTIVITY/ ACTIVIDAD ACADÉMICA	Yes/ Sí	No/ No
Managerial tasks (financial, purchases, staff, etc.) <i>Actividades de gestión administrativa (asuntos económicos, compras, personal, etc.)</i>		
Search, analysis and reading of scientific literature on Internet <i>Búsqueda, análisis y lectura de literatura científica en internet</i>		
Carry out, analysis and evaluation of experiments and procedures <i>Realización, análisis y evaluación de experimentos y procedimientos</i>		
Reach out for experts and collaborators in your area <i>Localización de expertos y colaboradores de su propia área</i>		
Communication with other teachers and researchers <i>Comunicación con otros docentes e investigadores</i>		
Writing of funding proposals <i>Redacción de propuestas de financiación</i>		
Work trips (fieldwork, conferences, meetings, etc.) <i>Viajes de trabajo (trabajo de campo, conferencias, reuniones con colegas, etc.)</i>		
Responses to reviewers and editors <i>Respuestas a revisores y editores</i>		
Preparation of presentations or posters for conferences <i>Redacción de comunicaciones o pósteres presentados en conferencias</i>		
Preparation and teaching of lectures, seminars or office hours <i>Preparación e impartición de clases, charlas o tutorías</i>		
Writing and submitting materials and manuscripts for publication <i>Redacción y envío de materiales y propuestas para su publicación</i>		
Review and evaluation of manuscripts <i>Revisión y evaluación de manuscritos</i>		
Search of partners or funding institutions <i>Búsqueda de socios o de entidades financiadoras</i>		

9 – Select the language(s) in which you have carried out the previous academic activities in the last 2 years. If an activity has not been done, please select ‘N/S’.

*Seleccione el idioma o idiomas en los que ha realizado las anteriores actividades académicas en las que ha participado en los 2 últimos años. Si no ha realizado esta actividad, marque, por favor "No se aplica".*

<b>ACADEMIC ACTIVITY/ ACTIVIDAD ACADÉMICA</b>	<b>Spanish/ español</b>	<b>English/ inglés</b>	<b>French/ francés</b>	<b>German/ alemán</b>	<b>Italian/ italiano</b>	<b>Portuguese/ portugués</b>	<b>N/S/ No se aplicada</b>
Managerial tasks (financial, purchases, staff, etc.) <i>Actividades de gestión administrativa (asuntos económicos, compras, personal, etc.)</i>							
Search, analysis and reading of scientific literature on Internet <i>Búsqueda, análisis y lectura de literatura científica en internet</i>							
Carry out, analysis and evaluation of experiments and procedures <i>Realización, análisis y evaluación de experimentos y procedimientos</i>							
Reach out for experts and collaborators in your area <i>Localización de expertos y colaboradores de su propia área</i>							
Communication with other teachers and researchers <i>Comunicación con otros docentes e investigadores</i>							

<b>ACADEMIC ACTIVITY/ ACTIVIDAD ACADÉMICA</b>	<b>Spanish/ <i>español</i></b>	<b>English/ <i>inglés</i></b>	<b>French/ <i>francés</i></b>	<b>German/ <i>alemán</i></b>	<b>Italian/ <i>italiano</i></b>	<b>Portuguese/ <i>portugués</i></b>	<b>N/S/ <i>No se aplicada</i></b>
Writing of funding proposals <i>Redacción de propuestas de financiación</i>							
Work trips (fieldwork, conferences, meetings, etc.) <i>Viajes de trabajo (trabajo de campo, conferencias, reuniones con colegas, etc.)</i>							
Responses to reviewers and editors <i>Respuestas a revisores y editores</i>							
Preparation of presentations or posters for conferences <i>Redacción de comunicaciones o pósteres presentados en conferencias</i>							
Preparation and teaching of lectures, seminars or office hours <i>Preparación e impartición de clases, charlas o tutorías</i>							
Writing and submitting materials and manuscripts for publication <i>Redacción y envío de materiales y propuestas para su publicación</i>							
Review and evaluation of manuscripts							

<b>ACADEMIC ACTIVITY/ ACTIVIDAD ACADÉMICA</b>	<b>Spanish/ español</b>	<b>English/ inglés</b>	<b>French/ francés</b>	<b>German/ alemán</b>	<b>Italian/ italiano</b>	<b>Portuguese/ portugués</b>	<b>N/S/ No se aplicada</b>
<i>Revisión y evaluación de manuscritos</i>							
<i>Search of partners or funding institutions Búsqueda de socios o de entidades financiadoras</i>							

10 – If you have carried out any of the previous activities in a different language(s), please indicate the activity and language.

*Si ha realizado las actividades anteriores en otros idiomas por favor especifique actividad e idioma.*

11 – Select how many articles you have published in the last 5 years.

*Indique cuántos artículos ha publicado en los últimos 5 años.*

- 0-1
- 2-5
- 6-25
- 26-50
- 51-75
- 76-100
- 101-200
- More than 200/ *Más de 200*

12 – What percentage of articles have you published in the last 5 years written in ...?

*¿Qué porcentaje de los artículos que ha publicado en los últimos 5 años estaban escritos en ...?*

<b>PERCENTAGE</b>	<b>Spanish/ español</b>	<b>English/ inglés</b>	<b>French/ francés</b>	<b>German/ alemán</b>	<b>Italian/ italiano</b>	<b>Portuguese/ portugués</b>
0-10%						
10-20%						
20-30%						
30-40%						
40-50%						
50-60%						
60-70%						
70-80%						
80-90%						
90-100%						

13 – If you have published articles in other languages, write the language(s) and percentage.

*Si ha publicado artículos en otros idiomas, especifique idioma(s) y porcentaje.*

14 – In the last 2 years, have you taught in a language other than Spanish?

*En los últimos 2 años, ¿ha impartido docencia en un idioma distinto del castellano?*

- Yes/ *Sí*
- No/ *No*

15 – If your previous answer is ‘yes’, in which language?

*Si ha impartido docencia, ¿en qué idioma?*

16 – If you have taught in a language other than Spanish, please indicate why and the level of education (undergraduate, master’s, doctorate, etc.).

*Si ha impartido docencia en otro idioma, por favor especifique por qué y en qué nivel de enseñanza (grado, máster, doctorado, etc.).*

17 – Do you have the intention of teaching in a foreign language in the future?

*¿Tiene intención de impartir docencia en un idioma distinto del castellano en el futuro/a largo plazo?*

- Yes/ *Sí*
- No/ *No*

18 – Which would be the main drivers to engage in foreign language instruction in the future?

*¿De qué factores dependería la impartición de su docencia en otro idioma en el futuro?*

19 – Do/Would you need any type of linguistic support to teach in another language?

*¿Necesita/necesitaría algún tipo de programa de apoyo lingüístico para la impartición de clases en otro idioma?*

- Yes/ *Sí*
- No/ *No*

20 – Please, write below any comment you would like to share with us.

*Por favor incluya debajo cualquier otro comentario que quisiera hacernos llegar.*

21 – Could we contact you to ask you in more detail about your answers? If you say ‘yes’, please write your email address.

*¿Podríamos contactar con usted próximamente para preguntarle más detalles sobre sus respuestas? Si su respuesta es afirmativa, por favor indique su correo electrónico.*

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