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English as a Medium of Instruction and Students' Classroom Participation: A Discourse Analysis

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ABSTRACT

This research focused on how EMI influences students' participation in the classroom and the discourse strategies that suppress or boost participation. An evidence synthesis using a qualitative (discourse orientation) approach was conducted on 25 peer-reviewed empirical studies on EMI in higher education from 2018 to 2025. The setting for the recordings comprised Asia, Europe, and the Middle East; observations, interviews, surveys, and studies of learning outcomes at the various sites supplemented the recordings. Analysis followed a sociocultural theory approach, content- and sequentially analysing the questioning, feedback, turn allocation, wait time, multilingual practice, and scaffolding in the data using deductive coding; and comparing participation trajectories using an inductive approach. No primary transcript or participant data was created, and reported interactional patterns were analysed in relation to. EMI indirectly impacted participation through an unequal distribution of processing time, linguistic risk and epistemic authority. The interplay between the three above-mentioned issues (fast pace, teacher-fronted talk, display questions, and immediate evaluation) along with the norm of English-only resulted in fewer participation figures. It grew with the use of referential follow-up and extended wait time, contingent reformulation, multimodal explanation, and bounded translanguaging by the lecturers. These strategies were in effect as configurations and not as single techniques. The focus of the EMI quality assessment should be on interactional access, not just lecturers' English levels. The discourse-sensitive professional development, language support and multilingual participation policies they wish to apply to their discipline should be integrated within EMI provision at university.



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Introduction

Background of the Study

English-medium instruction (EMI) has emerged as a key means of higher-education internationalisation in those countries where English is not the native language. It is often associated with institutional visibility, international student recruitment, international student mobility, and access to knowledge that circulates the world (Dearden, 2015; Macaro, 2018; Rose et al., 2023). But EMI is not one approach to teaching and learning. It can take the form of standalone English-medium subjects or be part of a full degree programme, and is often offered as formally English-medium or multimodal classes in which several languages are used to mediate learning in a subject (Dafouz & Smit, 2020; Richards & Pun, 2023). An investigation of this diversity as merely a terminological issue, however, shows that this central educational issue is being covered up: how does the medium of instruction reorganise students' opportunities for involvement in disciplinary meaning-making?

Participation is important because learning is achieved not just by being exposed to items, but by asking, explaining, challenging, reformulating and showing that something has been understood. The classroom dialogue creates an open forum for learners to explore interpretations and learn conscripts' forms of reasoning, specific to the discipline (Alexander, 2020; Mercer & Dawes, 2014). However, in EMI, these activities involve students in coordinating conceptual and real-time processing in another language. Research suggests that EMI success is linked to research associates' English language proficiency, academic language skills, prior content knowledge, and self-efficacy, but the relationships are discipline- and institution-dependent (Altay et al., 2022; Rose et al., 2020; Thompson et al., 2022). This shows that the term participation may not be reduced to "a language deficit of the individual." It can be co-constructed via task design, teacher talk, peer relations, language policy and the sequentiality of interaction.

Recent studies have corroborated such an interactional explanation. Issues with speaking and writing, as well as understanding lectures and using EMI-specific vocabulary, are mentioned as

particular challenges for students (Aizawa & Rose, 2020; Kamaşak et al., 2021; Zhou & Rose, 2021). Similarly, based on observation, teachers' questions and students' responses tend to be rather simplistic in terms of cognitive and linguistic dimensions even though content learning as well as the development of English through EMI is the goal of policies in this field (Hu & Duan, 2019). On the other hand, it can be more substantive when lecturers invite students to discuss and revoice ideas that are emerging among students by using disciplinary languages, or by contingently applying multilingual and multimodal resources (Jacknick & Duran, 2021; Morell et al., 2022; Song & Lin, 2020). Hence, the interactional state of the medium will shape the engagement by participating knowledge in the state which can be voiced.

Problem Statement

The issue is not the universal suppression of participation by EMI. Instead, its impact is patchy, and models often referred to may separate language from classroom discourse. Survey-based studies reveal challenges in terms of proficiency levels, but cannot demonstrate how another turn invites, extends, corrects, and/or completes a hesitant contribution (Soruç et al., 2021). Policy studies portray the institutional dreams and aspirations, while pointing to the opposing elements of policy enactment in locally differentiated classrooms (Aizawa & Rose, 2019; Galloway & Ruegg, 2020). On the other hand, classroom discourse studies tend to examine a particular discourse feature, such as the type of questions, use of first language, teacher reformulation, etc., without describing how the features are combined throughout a participation structure (Genç & Yüksel, 2021; Pun & Macaro, 2019).

This results in a substantial research gap. While we have some knowledge of the role of linguistic preparedness and of the adaptability of lecturers' discourse, we have less knowledge about how these factors interact to make or break students' legitimacy to contribute. While a student may have an answer, the time limit may be too fast for the student to speak; another student might start in everyday English, but may be successful when the lecturer re-formulates instead of evaluating the answer. If these conditions are considered macro-

level EMI conditions, it is essential to connect them to micro-level participation (opportunities) because adding more English does not automatically mean adding more learning (Macaro, 2020; Pecorari & Malmström, 2018).

Research Objectives

The study pursued two objectives:

- To examine how English as a medium of instruction influences students' classroom participation.
- To explore the classroom discourse strategies that facilitate or hinder students' participation in EMI classrooms.

Research Questions

1. How does English as a medium of instruction influence students' classroom participation?
2. What classroom discourse strategies facilitate or hinder students' participation in EMI classrooms?

Significance of the Study

In theory, the research frames EMI participation from the theoretical perspective of mediated action rather than a direct result of proficiency. By illustrating the association between sociocultural theory and the sequential properties of classroom discourse, it demonstrates how these can create an opportunity for the learner to act publicly (Vygotsky, 1978) with the help of linguistic tools and interactional supports. On the methodological side, it combines outcome, perception and classroom-interaction research without seeming to make self-report research as if it were observed discourse research. Empirically, it aims to clarify what kind of discourse habit can be taught to increase interactional access for lecturers. At the policy level, it targets quality-assurance mechanisms that treat students' English language proficiency rather than their pedagogical skills as the success indicators of EMI, leaving out of account pedagogical skills (Dang et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2025). The study, therefore, touches teachers, teacher educators, curriculum designers, administrators, and language policymakers.

Scope of the Study

The analysis only addresses higher-education settings where English is used to convey content and is an L2 (English as a foreign language) for a

significant number of participants. It emphasises students' oral involvement in lectures, seminars, and cooperative activities and whether it relates to academic language and achievement studies on constraints on talk. The analytic corpus consists of the empirical publications of the years 2018-2025, and older sources are used only for conceptual and methodological grounding. The study is not attempting to quantify an "average" causal effect of EMI, to have an exhaustive analysis of all national systems, and to reanalyse unpublished recordings. It contributes an analytically generalizable framework that is descriptive of participation mechanisms in documented settings.

This is a conscious 'Open Edge' of your property. These different and related curricular goals and language environments influence the participation within language courses as well as in Primary and Secondary education and in fully Anglophone universities. By examining only, the content in disciplinary higher education, it is possible to focus on how advanced content, additional-language processing, and positioning as a public disciplinary knower by adult students are related.

English as a Medium of Instruction

The traditional way of defining EMI is to look at how English is used to teach other academic disciplines, and how English is not a primary language of the learners' community (Macaro, 2018). While this definition would allow comparison with other contexts, it could suggest a cleaner distinction between English, content, and other languages than is warranted in classrooms. According to Rose et al. (2023), research from a comparative perspective should be precise in terms of definitions; in contrast, Dafouz and Smit (2020) stress the importance of ecological responsibility across roles, disciplines, language management, agents, practices, and internationalisation. The relationship between these positions is complementary; such labels are needed for comparison, but they shouldn't say anything about what is considered legitimate classroom language.

Often, three justifications go hand-in-hand with EMI: access to discipline, (English) development, and internationalisation; however, none of these can be predicted from exposure to EMI alone (Macaro et al., 2018). Language Development opportunities are reliant on and necessitate

extended utterances, comprehensible feedback and attention to disciplinary forms (Pecorari & Malmström, 2018). The key question is, what then, is the semiotic resource that is available for making access to content?

EMI in Higher Education

EMI is often implemented at the university level as a top-down university policy and subsequently implemented by lecturers and students. Studies conducted in Japan (Aizawa & Rose, 2019) and China (Galloway & Ruegg, 2020) reveal a lot of "slippage" between policy goals, in-class practices, and student-support measures in the internationalisation process. Where there is a mismatch in the levels of entry, language support and assessment, then the classroom is the victim of policy costs.

Achievement is also dependent on context. Rose et al. (2020) developed a model to illustrate how English fluency and academic English skills predicted performance in a Japanese business course, while Altay et al. (2022) presented the findings indicating that it is discipline-dependent which of the two (English fluency and academic English success) had more influence on academic achievement in English in Turkey. Bälter et al. (2024) reported lower performance and increased withdrawal in an English-medium version of an online course in a randomised study in Sweden, and Aizawa (2023) did not report any significant medium differences in content gains in a comparison of an English-medium and a Swedish-medium online course when institutional, teacher, and peer supports were provided in Japan. These apparently contradictory findings can be explained if the EMI approach is considered to be a combination of language demand and pedagogical support rather than a binary approach.

Classroom Participation

Classroom participation is more than just one's participation. It includes the distribution of students' turns, the length of students' turns, the cognitive quality of students' turns, and the voluntariness of students' turns (or whether they are taken up or not). In answering a known answer question, the one-word response type, if provided, creates an opportunity for a different kind of learning than responding to an explanation and/or

challenging an interpretation or extending a peer's claim. Dialogic research thus sees a difference between simple recitation and talk in which ideas are offered up to be collectively examined (Alexander, 2020; Mercer & Dawes, 2014).

In EMI, participation entails risk of language and of developing the language, which entails risk of identity. Learners can track grammar, pronunciation and terminology but can be afraid of overlooking something because of mistakes and thereby demonstrate weakness in their concepts.

Doiz (2013), as well as with the texts from which musical artists extract their knowledge. EMI overlaps with imagined competent selves, vulnerability, investment, and self-efficacy (Doiz, 2013), as well as with the texts that musical artists draw on for their knowledge.

& Lasagabaster, 2018; Thompson et al., 2022). So this 'silence' can constitute a way of processing, a tactical retreat, or exclusion, and this 'speech' can be a measure of compliance but not conceptual participation.

Classroom Discourse

Classroom discourse is 'institutionally' organised talk in which rights to ask, answer, evaluate and change topics are askew. The initiation – response – feedback sequence outlined in the innovative research continues to be in use because it effectively checks knowledge and controls large groups of students (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). In terms of education, however, its usefulness can only vary according to the third turn. Immediate judgment can signal the end of the sequence, while uptake, probing or reformulation can turn an initial response into something that is mutually being explored (Walsh, 2011).

The sequential organisation is more important in EMI. If a student doesn't know, they must be guided on whether a question is a recall, interpretation or speculation question. When there are gaps in language responses, lecturers have to choose between repair of form, meaning or disciplinary language. The discourse is thus at the same time managerial, epistemic and linguistic. Proximity and intelligibility in the classroom environment, using English as a lingua franca (ELF), is an example of what Sahan (2020) found in an analysis of EFL talks, which demonstrated

that intelligibility is a collaborative process, not a conformity to a native speaker standard (NSN).

Discourse Analysis in Educational Research

Discourse analysis takes the position that language is not just a way of transcribing thought; rather, it is social action. It can be used in classroom studies to uncover how turns in a discourse grant or deny authority, demonstrate understanding, or produce or eliminate learning opportunities. The conversation-analytic tradition focuses on participants' orientations and the sequential evidence manifested in naturally occurring talk (Seedhouse, 2004) while the overall interactional approach links this local practice with educational purposes and institutional circumstances (Walsh, 2011). Both are helpful for EMI, as policy categories (such as English-only) gain their meaning on a turn-taking basis.

All the references to sequence types, participation consequences and discourse functions are reported in the present study, and no attempt is made to pretend access to participants' original orientations when transcripts are not provided. Published interpretations can be synthesised, but cannot be used for invented verbatim data. In qualitative synthesis, there are thus pattern-level explanations, which take place within source-study boundaries (Braun & Clarke, 2021; Miles et al., 2020).

Classroom Discourse Strategies

Questioning Techniques

The questions that are used in a lesson both drive the level of thinking and the kind of engagement. Questions can serve to bring a common base, but an epistemic orientation based on a series of questions with short responses puts the student's role in a limited perspective. However, Hu and Duan (2019) discovered that in Chinese classrooms, most questions and answers were of low level, with no real substantial difference in learning made from teaching through the medium alone. Genç and Yüksel (2021) also determined that the effectiveness of the questions was not only dependent on the open/closed nature but also on the possibility of provoking when an individual questions the sense of the questions. A seemingly "open question" is a productive question if it is followed by a further question to the student by the lecturer; the referential question has no uptake

and becomes a short test.

Teacher Feedback

Feedback is the hinge of contribution and ongoing discussion. The main distinction in general feedback research is between informing people what to do, telling them how they are performing, and telling them what to do next, versus giving praise and/or criticism, which provides little guidance on next steps (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). As for the kind of L2 error correction (LEC), Lyster & Ranta (1997) identified two types of L2 corrective moves in language classrooms, namely, 'self-repair' and 'replacement of the L2's turn'. Concerning L2 error correction (LEC), Lyster & Ranta (1997) distinguished two types of L2 corrective moves in language classrooms: 'self-repair' and 'replacement of the L2's turn'. Double accountability" for EMI: feedback could be about conceptual accuracy, register or form of the English language. Jacknick and Duran (2021) show, however, that rephrasing student responses in the language of the discipline can be a way to acknowledge the ideas students have presented and facilitate student apprenticeship to the discourse of the discipline. On the other hand, it is important to be aware of the risk of making it a language test by exhibiting publicly unnecessary errors.

Turn-Taking and Wait Time

Allocation of turns; ascription of visibility as knower. Fast nominations enable learners to access and formulate in English rapidly; depending on who is confident, push participation toward them as a minority. Peer rehearsal and distributed nomination can increase access – always make sure not to expose through punitive cold calling. Wait time is especially significant in EMI since the conceptual planning and the encoding/decoding of language simultaneously take place. Based on Rowe's (1974) pioneering work, it was known that the use of pauses influences the length and complexity of response, and in EMI, pauses should remain the teacher's pause for some time before allowing him/her to respond. Silence is pedagogical space if it is clearly indicated by discourse that a student turn is for real!

Code-Switching and Translanguaging

As an example, code-switching is often an

expression of transition between bounded languages. At the same time, translanguaging is more an expression of speakers' convergent semiotic systems or 'integrated semiotic repertoire' (Li 2018, 2019). This isn't necessarily just a difference in appearance. The one best language approach demonstrates that using second languages in learning detracts from the teaching process; the translanguaging approach questions what the multilingual 'move' does. In an international master's context, Song and Lin (2020) identified that (translingual) practices supported the negotiation of intercultural navigation and knowledge negotiation in the discipline. Pun and Macaro (2019) found that higher-order questioning was present in higher levels of first-language (L1) use in Hong Kong science classrooms. However, it is not clear if it applies in similar school settings to universities. The use of strategic multilingualism can reduce processing barriers and facilitate thinking about complex matters, while unplanned translation can also marginalise students who don't speak the local language. The key factor is pedagogical functions of an inclusive nature, not ideological purity.

Scaffolding

Scaffolding is conditional support that allows a learner to achieve what they cannot do on their own and is phased out as the learner becomes more in control (Gibbons, 2015; Vygotsky, 1978). Examples of EMI scaffolding include previewing, reminding students about lecture structure, breaking down lecture questions, modelling explanations of discipline-specific concepts, using visuals, and re-voicing partial contributions. Richards and Pun (2022) claim that cognitive, genre and academic-task dimensions should be taken into account when teaching students EMI. Through multimodal pair-work research, it is shown that engagement is coordinated via speech, gaze, artefact(s) from the task at hand, and peer alignment, as well as gesture (Morell et al., 2022). For this reason, scaffolding is related to the design of pathways of participation and not to a "dumbing down" of content.

Student Engagement in EMI Classrooms

The engagement dimension has four stages, namely behavioural, cognitive, affective, and agentic. Students can come to this class and keep

taking notes while at the same time cognitively overloaded, or students can engage in 'peer-talk', which is not recognised institutionally, but it is crucial to understanding. In transitional research, it is revealed that L2 learners employ a series of strategies to learn L2 listening, which include preview, selective note-taking, monitoring and post-class review (Zhou & Rose, 2021; Zhou & Thompson, 2023). But asking students to pay for a lack of access to the class conversation runs the risk of the inequity being regularly trafficked and oppressed.

Over and over again, learning the target language through speaking and writing is found to be challenging, and difficulties are greater when students' target language proficiency is low and they have limited previous EMI experience (Kamaşak et al., 2021; Alanazi & Curle, 2024). Nevertheless, challenges reported don't automatically take a negative toll on achievement because competence in the first language, disciplinary norms, teacher support and peer networks can offset this (Aizawa, 2023; Yuksel et al., 2023). By this measure, engagement is therefore relational. It comes into existence when the tasks are of value, the contribution is valued as meaningful, and students have viable pathways to the activity in their native language.

Theoretical Framework

The foundation theory is sociocultural theory due to its emphasis on mediated participation as the context of learning. Vygotsky (1978) promotes the development of higher mental functions occurring as a result of social activity with cultural instruments, the most important of which is language. The language of EMI can be a mediational means (English), and it can also be a constraint (English); other languages can be used to mediate the same disciplinary object as well as diagrams, formulae, gesture and peer explanation. Focusing on exposure to English then, is not the unit of analysis, but rather, the learners with means at their disposal.

The framework focuses on three constructs. As a first step, mediation can account for differences in type of participation for the same English question arising from pacing, visual supports, and previous talk. Second, the ZPD helps explain the role of contingent prompts and reformulations to lengthen the "zone" without reducing the

intellectual difficulty of the task at hand. Third, appropriation is the shift from the dislocated and idiomatic way students express themselves in everyday speech to the disciplinary mode of expression, effected through frequent, supported use. These constructs are supplemented by interactional evidence to illustrate when in the sequence the support is given and if support has increased agency for the learner. While an interaction approach such as that of Long (1996) can focus on negotiation and modified interaction, a sociocultural approach is more suitable when considering multilingualism and multimodality, and institutional mediation.

Research Gap

In the literature, four such limitations can be commonly encountered. First, quite a few studies in EMI are based on attitudes and self-reported problems, which provide information about experience rather than the discourse processes that produce that experience (Macaro et al., 2018). Second, classroom studies are often site- and feature-specific, and making claims related to interactions among strategies is problematic. Third, an expanded view of the operationalisation of participation as engagement frequency or generic engagement limits the focus on the quality of epistemic turns and the uptake thereof in sequence. Fourth, research has demonstrated that while there is a positive relationship between the amount of English used and achievement or interactional complexity, this is an independent relationship, meaning that the quantity of English does not alone determine achievement or interactional complexity (Kamaşak & Sahan, 2024; Macaro, 2020). Research into how well writing patterns are supported and how they are used to author certain kinds of claims needs to be cognitively connected to an analysis of the discourse field, with a fine-grained distinction drawn between supported and unsupported patterns, and between context-specific and non-context-specific patterns and claims.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework suggests that EMI does not directly impact participation. It modifies the level of demands for linguistic processing, the level of risk of participation and access to epistemic resources. The classroom discourse strategies are the mediator of these conditions.

Question planning, feedback, turn-giving, wait time, multilingual practice, and scaffolding can be designed to increase or adhere to demand and risk, or to reduce it by providing support. Participation is manifested in the number of speakers, the duration of participation, as well as the cognitive and disciplinary content, with the uptake in them. This can be repeated many times to augment self-efficacy and the discipline's language, providing a recursive rather than a linear relationship. The attitude of institutional support and the culture of discipline sensitise each link of this framework.

Research Methodology

Research Approach

This study used an interpretive qualitative approach to explain how documented conditions of EMI and discourse practices provided possibilities to participate. Its corpus consisted of published empirical reports, enabling the formulation of claims that did not require the invention of fieldwork or raw conversational detail about the recurrent mechanisms.

Research Design

An interactional discourse analysis was used in conjunction with evidence synthesis using a qualitative approach. The former was for making comparisons across contexts whilst the latter was to elicit turns, contributions, uptake and future speaking opportunities. Statements regarding demand and risk were based on interpretations from the survey and achievement data, while statements regarding sequence organisation were only supported by recordings and observations.

A move that enabled students to participate, the resources provided to allow students to respond, and the students' movement were captured simultaneously in what was called the participation opportunity and served as the unit of analysis. This unit allowed for the incorporation of the different units but cautiously. For example, an interview survey could identify that students found spontaneous speaking challenging, and an observation study could identify that students' pacing or uptake of their teacher's talk made this challenging. These are not interchangeable forms of evidence; the design saw them as equivalent.

Research Setting

The corpus comprised Universities from East

Asia, Turkey, Spain (Basque Country), Sweden, Saudi Arabia, as well as transnational programs. Disciplines were diverse, such as business, engineering, chemistry, medicine, education, social sciences and humanities. Variation was achieved through different approaches and ensured portability without losing context.

Sampling Technique

Purposive sampling with criteria was used, including journal platforms, ERIC, repositories, and backward citation searches in July 2026. Participation, discourse, questioning, feedback, translanguaging, engagement, and higher education were all items paired with EMI in the search terms. Peer-reviewed, empirical studies published from 2018–2025 in the context of higher education and pertinent to participation or conditions for participation were considered eligible. In total, a 25-study corpus emerged that comprised seven discourse-focused studies, seven studies in which the challenge is followed by a transition, and eleven studies of outcomes, motivation, support or implementation. This corpus did not comprise studies of or foundational theory about a school.

Sampling further carried out the maximum variation in terms of region, discipline and method. Studies which reported neutral or negative outcomes of EMI were not excluded as it was important to avoid a consistently positive picture of the consequences of EMI. If more than one publication reported on a similar project, it was added only when it provided a different dataset or analytic area. Conceptual articles and reviews were not included as part of the 25 empirical studies but had a role in providing the interpretation and source tracing.

Data Collection Methods

Records of the extraction included context, discipline, participants, methods, definitions, discourse strategies, outcomes and limitations. Interactional evidence was summarised as a pattern (e.g., display question, give short answer, evaluate) rather than being copied as de-contextualised evidence. This type of notation is used for published results rather than skipped and made-up transcription.

Data Analysis Procedure

The themes as identified by the deductive coding were questioning, feedback, allocation of turns, wait time, multilingualism, scaffolding, peer interaction and multimodality. These were then connected by inductive coding to processing load, linguistic risk, epistemic positioning, repair, and rehearsal. Matrices compared mechanisms in different situations, disciplines and approaches (Miles et al., 2020). Themes needed multiple contexts and/or types of evidence to support them and had to take into account counterevidence.

Each report was read in three layers: superficial, for what the report has observed; deeper, for how and what is reported, and deepest, for determining the participation mechanisms and comparing them with each other. Codes were adjusted if practices appeared similar but were not. For example, teacher reformulation was identified as either replacement, where a student's turn was closed off and/or uptake, where a student's idea was carried over, and the talk expanded.

Trustworthiness

For the claims related to experience, turn organisation and achievement, method-sensitive triangulation was performed to verify them with the corresponding data sources. Negative cases involved contexts in which the learning was not necessarily poorer and/or proficiency was not necessarily less when learning through EMI. When interpretations were provided, an audit trail linked to cited studies and contextual descriptions, and explicit analytic limitations were documented to support transferability and confirmability.

Rival explanations, some of which were disciplinary norms, class size, and previous experience with EMI, were recorded in analytic memos. Claims were weakened or qualified when the context had to be taken into account together with a discourse effect, and evidence to differentiate between them was not available.

Findings

Influence of EMI on Students' Classroom Participation

The first theme investigated was the effect of a processing-time difference. Students were required to learn/discover the material of the discipline, recall it, and compose a reaction; in

addition, they had to "watch" the English before the conversational slot ended. Transitional studies showed challenges with note-taking and speaking at the same time, vocabulary, spontaneous speaking, and pacing (Aizawa, 2024; Aizawa & Rose, 2020; Zhou & Rose, 2021). This meant that the needs of the quick ones were being better met through whole-class discussion, particularly when the teacher continued with the discussion when there were no gaps or when the tempo picked up, and there was a switch to another willing learner.

The second risk was from linguistic risk to epistemic risk, meaning that students were concerned that being less likely to speak English could be seen as weak precinct knowledge. Challenges to speaking and writing were salient in

Turkish (Alanazi & Curle, 2024) and Saudi (Kamaşak et al., 2021) contexts and influencing persistence at some stage in the journey was the case of motivation and self-efficacy (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2018; Thompson et al., 2022). Where lecturers turned a blind eye to language-poor answers and did not delve into the concepts, it became safe to participate for the confident minority.

Third, some new distributions of epistemic authority occurred through EMI. During the restrictive episodes, knowledge was transferred from the lecturer to the student, only to be transferred to the lecturer for assessment. The sequence used for the normalised sample was:



questioning about the answer → minimal response from students → evaluation/explanation of the teacher.

Hu and Duan (2019) revealed that most of the teacher's questions and students' answers detected were simple across disciplines, and Lasagabaster and Doiz (2023) showed that interactional patterns varied based on disciplinary practice rather than the medium per se. Eligible children's involvement in EMI did not lead to recitation, but the introduction of the second language made it an appealing, lower-risk management strategy. It gave the lecturers a lot of leeway in keeping up the pace with the students, showing that they complied, and it gave limited scope for their reasoning.

Fourthly, there was some involvement through distributed resources. Students used prior knowledge in L1, peers, notes, visuals, and self-regulation. Sometimes, academic performance in the first language predicted academic performance in the second language, with some differences observed between the effects of language proficiency levels in different disciplines (Altay et al., 2022; Yuksel et al., 2023). Additionally, using EMI did not result in a measurable content penalty, while such supports

for students, such as teacher, institutional and peer support, were noted to be useful (Aizawa, 2023). Therefore, participating or not was heavily tied into courses legitimising these resources.

Lastly, there were recursive pathways that led to participation. Repeat closure led to strategic silence, while successful contributions led to accentuation of self-efficacy and disciplinary language.

Listening for longer gave students a time to build listening strategies, which will likely have been supported by significant private effort (Zhou & Thompson, 2023). EMI, then, did not, per se, 'silence' learners or 'activate' them, but rather accentuated the configuration of time, risk, and authority.

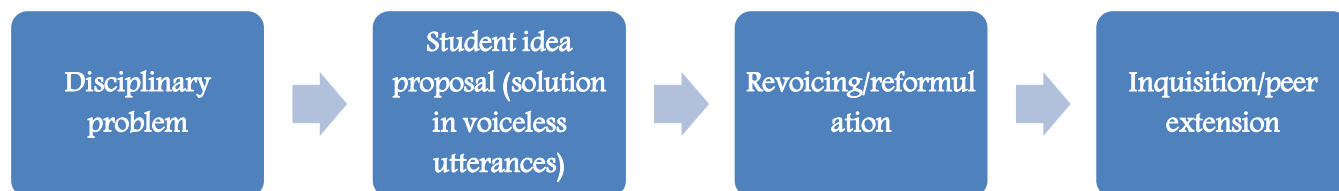
Classroom Discourse Strategies Affecting Participation

There were six strategy clusters which accounted for variance in participation. In other words, the question contingency was a more important factor than the grammatical openness. Pursuing an emergent answer by waiting and accepting, after a

referential question sets up the topic for engagement, was the only way encounters resulted in engagement. There is a question about the scope and contingency of the question, shown by Genç and Yüksel (2021). Questions that were repeated multiple times were not conducive to

participation, as they directed students to come up with an answer instead of explaining.

Secondly, the feedback enabled the expansion of participation. The productive normalising (in a positive sense) sequence:



Jacknick and Duran (2021) demonstrated how lecturers can take students' contributions and revise these in various ways to express them in the discipline context without losing the contribution in so doing; this connected with epistemic value and provided disciplinary language. Feedback had an impact on participation because it superseded the student's participation or clapped out so as not to proceed to the next student.

idea.

Third, protected turn rights (combined with wait time) were enabling. The mere pause couldn't suffice.

When learners anticipated an answer from the lecturer and/or a fluent peer to relay the information, participation increased; however, participation increased further when lecturers indicated thinking time, performed a brief pair rehearsal, and then allowed for many responses. The multimodal pair-work episodes also revealed that gaze, gestural, artefact, and collaborative organisation took place before public speech to constitute engagement (Morell et al., 2022).

Fourth, complex thought allowed for the use of bounded multilingual mediation. Song and Lin's (2020) report of translanguaging practices to negotiate knowledge and intercultural experience is presented. Of all the multilingual resources in the synthesised evidence, the most productive were where the purpose and audience for the resource were well known, such as a short explanation, on-the-spot, by a peer; or English labelling with comparison to technical labels; or for a threshold concept with an explanation of the threshold

concept in the first language. They prevented inclusion by either excluding international classmates through long, tedious discussion and interaction in the local language or by replacing the development of common disciplinary language with frequent translation.

Fifth, multimodal / discourse scaffolding helped to decrease 'avoidable' language load. Signposting, highlighting and displaying key terms, diagrams, and task reformulations, together with model answers, enabled them to devote more attentional resources to reasoning. However, Sahan (2020) demonstrated that L2L1 mixtures could be successful for disciplinary purposes due to the intelligibility of both languages in speaking; and Richards and Pun (2022) found that such adaptation falls under the cognitive, genre, and task aspects of EMI.

Sixthly, strategies were configurationary. While open questions, followed by one second of silence and teacher self-answering remained restrictive, bigger productions could be made possible through such a tool. Providing English-only talk, in which the information is presented slowly, clearly visualised, rehearsed with peers and given responsive feedback, might be accessible. However, multilingual talk, where there was a fast pace and monitoring through closed evaluation, still inhibits participation. The telling difference proved to be whether or not the discourse relinquished the role of reader/meaning-maker to the student.

Discussion

EMI and Students' Classroom Participation

The percentage of voice heard and opportunities to speak in class will be calculated.

The findings challenge deficit explanations for why participation is low, which focus on the lack of English language competence. Challenge and achievement studies clearly show that the level of effort to support comprehension and response depends on the level of proficiency achieved (Rose et al., 2020; Soruç et al., 2021). But, for a given level of skill, there can be varying degrees of participation in varying temporal/interactional contexts. EMI works like an amplifier: it has a great impact on the choices ordinary educational decisions – pace, nomination, correction and task structure – have in fast result scenarios of formulation.

This interpretation, which you can accept in your everyday life, can help you resolve conflicting outcome research. Baltar et. al. (2024) reported negative impacts from a course delivered using an English medium in an online course, while Aizawa (2023) reported similar content achievement in English- and Japanese-medium chemistry classes, and strong support. Rather, the relevant application is between English and another language in relation to each other. Language demand is relatively high, and mediation is inadequate compared to language demand; language demand is spread out between instructional, peer and institutional resources. One way these configurations impact learning is participation – if students are not able to enter the discourse, then they don't get as many opportunities to test and refine understanding.

Classroom Discourse Strategies and Student Engagement

Results of the strategy indicate that engagement is generated from one to the other. These are often introduced as a checklist, but the impact is related to placement and to working together – Questioning, Feedback, Wait time and Translanguaging. If the lecturer provides only a preformulated answer, then this is not higher-order talk; it is a higher-order question. However, if a partial response is revoiced and asked about, it could lead to a cognitively productive response. This is consistent with Walsh's (2011) suggestion of interactional competence, suggesting how talk is aligned with the pedagogical purpose.

Reformulation deserves particular attention. While it can be controlling when the lecturer dominates the students' voice, it can help to connect between the mostly used and the academic language. The difference lies in whether reformulation is offered for uptake and returned for further use. This is supported by the idea of scaffolding, whereby it should grow over time and then be let go and learner control adopted.

(Gibbons, 2015). Translanguaging cannot also be a remedy or a policy violation. The extent to which it can open up access to the common business of learning, and make it more possible for more students to join in, is where its value lies (Li, 2018; Song & Lin, 2020).

Comparison with Previous Studies

These findings corroborate previous reviews in relation to the number of studies conducted on EMI compared to those providing causal evidence and the inequities in language support (e.g., Galloway & Rose, 2021; Macaro et al., 2018). This study expands this literature by adding a pathway of interaction between the preparedness and outcome variables. Reported speaking difficulty by students is an individual phenomenon and is activated or mitigated by turn design. Similarly, there is not perfect alignment between teachers' expertise and effectiveness. Through professional-development reviews, it is determined that lecturers do not need to be certified merely based on their English proficiency but require assistance in integrating language, content, and interaction in the classroom.

The results also show exposure. Macaro and Akincioglu (2018) reported a variety of L2 learners' perceptions of EMI, and Lin and Lei (2021) indicated that interaction among medium, proficiency, and academic ability exists in content learning. However, the present analysis suggests a possible explanation for the gap between the input of increased English exposure and the shallow students' output: namely, that to participate, the student must have been granted rights to formulate, revise, and extend disciplinary meaning. Such a distinction would help to landscape Pecorari and Malmström's (2018) claim that there are common concerns for EMI and TESOL but that content lecturers are not necessarily language teachers.

Theoretical Implications

An input model is insufficient to explain the results, and a sociocultural theory is considered more suitable. English is a tool the affordances of which are reliant on the task in which it is used. Agency distribution can be done through a question, a diagram, a peer explanation, or a first-language gloss for the same conceptual object. ZPD is reflected in the difference between initial minimal response and prompts, reformulations and peer extensions which lead to a more disciplinary response.

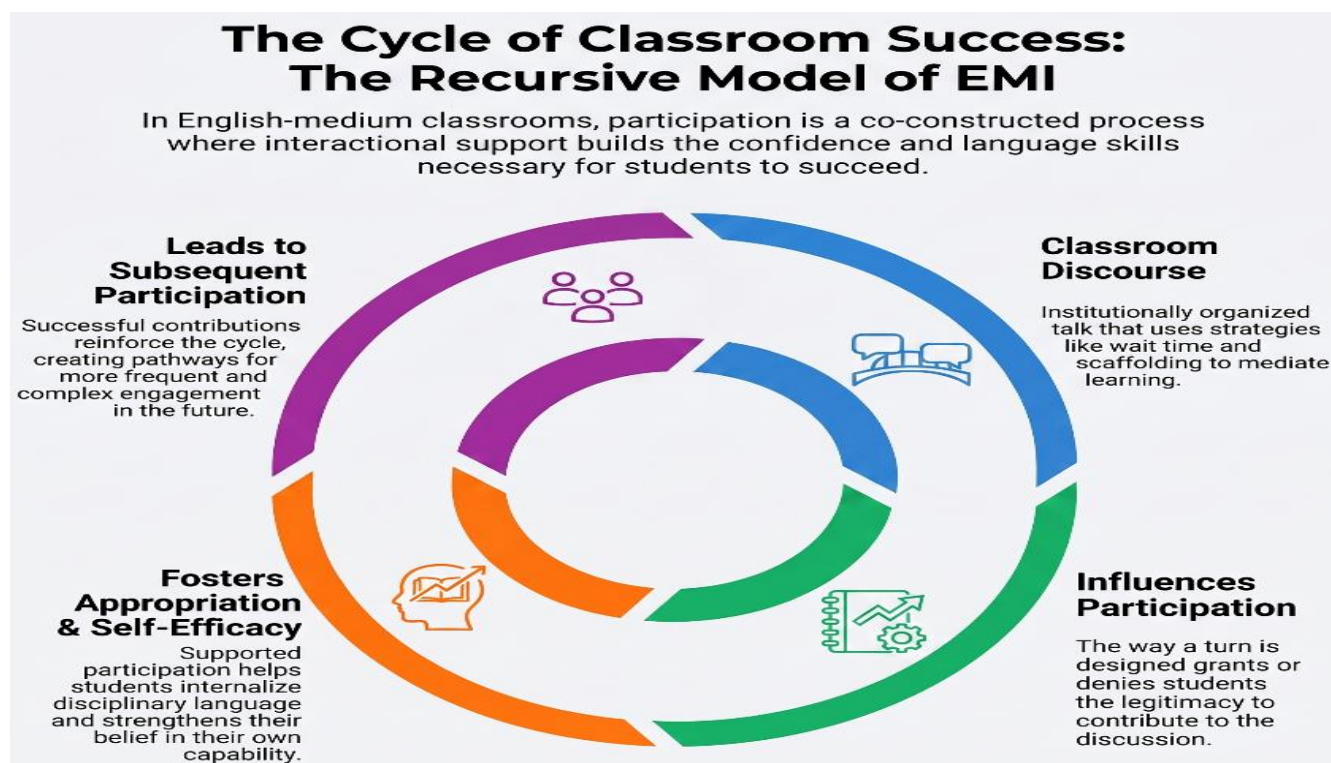
This form of analysis provides an interactional element to mediation. Support is consequential about its timing it comes at a specific time, and it maintains a next action for a learner. For example, say the lecturer provides the answer; mediation then ends the participation, or the lecturer provides a term and asks the student to make an application then mediation can continue participation. The transcription is therefore a recursive model:

theory.

Practical Implications

University teachers need to make a participation plan, just as they do for content planning. For increased wait times for answers, consider using visual cues, wait times of between 3 and 5 seconds, brief pair work prior to whole class turn-in, and follow-up questions to have students justify or make connections. Feedback should be, firstly, conceptual, then disciplinary in terms of words and then return feedback to the student. It is preferable to use marginally corrected work rather than completely automatically corrected work for English performance.

Video reflection and transcript analysis can be utilised as means to create interactional awareness among teacher educators. Question–response–feedback sequences, pacing, uptake, multilingual mediation and multimodal scaffolding of the programs should be looked into, as general English upgrading is not enough (Morell et al.,



discourse affects participation, which fosters appropriation and a sense of self-efficacy, which in turn affects subsequent participation. The model incorporates EMI policy as actions which legitimate or limit the repertoire of mediation available in the classroom. In this account, interactional timing is a matter of content and not mere style; it's a multifaceted part of mediation

2022; Richards & Pun, 2022). Tasks and assessment in EMI should be related to the language requirements of the disciplines used and provide opportunities for staged oral involvement in addition to high-stakes oral presentations.

Admission to pre-sessional and in-sessional EAP, peer mentoring and collaboration between content

and language specialists should be provided by administrators (Galloway & Ruegg, 2020). Questions should be asked about quality assurance, including whether students are provided an equal opportunity to contribute to it, rather than just whether lecturers use English consistently. The policy-makers in charge of language policy should move away from strictly English-only policies towards principled multilingual policy recommendations where multilingual resources are used in ways that promote shared understanding and don't exclude learners from a class.

All of these recommendations make participation as institutional infrastructure, and not individual courage.

Limitations of the Study

As this is a secondary analysis, information regarding sequential detail, prosody, gesture and participant orientations found in published transcripts is not recoverable in this study. Both sampling of the corpus and publication bias may limit the representation of locally produced research, and only English-language publications were sampled. Geographical transferability was more limited, as the contexts in Asia and Europe were more evident than those in Africa and Latin America. Some studies featured a wider definition of participation, while others had larger samples of proficient and successful students; thus, it was not possible to combine statistics from these studies. Results can also reflect publication selectivity in the primary literature. Last but not least, the synthesis reveals possible cross-contextual mechanisms rather than universal causal laws; disciplinary norms, class size and/or assessment, and language ecology can change a given mechanism.

Recommendations for Future Research

In the future, multi-camera recordings in the classroom could be complemented by stimulated recall to allow for the interpretation of silence, hesitations and multilingual practice with the participants instead of inferring his/her practice based on observed behaviour. The discipline and task should be the same in a comparative design, and one of medium, wait time, peer rehearsal or feedback strategy should be different. Longitudinal studies should be conducted to

follow whether it is successful in building language and self-efficacy in a discipline, through supported public participation, across a program.

For researchers, in addition to a total frequency count, participation distribution, turn length, cognitive function, and uptake should be reported. Social-network analysis might indicate whether EMI talk circulates among a minority and remains stable over time. Studies of interventions should consider measures of discourse-focused teacher education and how EFP is embedded in the intervention, in terms of both interactional and learning-outcomes measures. In the African, Latin American, Middle Eastern, and multilingual (transnational) context, more attention is needed. Lastly, studies need to discuss the implications that automated captioning, polling, and generative language tools have on participation shifts, but the invocation of technology should not obscure participation.

Conclusion

In this study, the whole relationship between EMI, classroom discourse and student participation was explored by examining the qualitative synthesis of twenty-five empirical studies in the field of higher education. The main finding is that there is not a direct and uniform effect of English on participation. Rather, EMI redistributes processing time, language risks, and epistemic authority risks. These pressures can restrict classroom talk, especially if they happen simultaneously – rapid delivery, closed questioning, immediate evaluation and English-only expectations are all in operation. Protected wait time, peer rehearsal, contingent questioning, feedback-as-uptake, multimodal explanation and inclusive translanguaging are other mediation 'strategies'.

The results illuminate that focus moves not so much on whether students are motivated to be involved but on whether the classroom conversation opens the door to participation and impacts on their lives. But allowing a limited, or even a hesitant response, simply because it's a brief statement, to be interpreted as a lack of knowledge is a mistake; it might well be the first publicly crafted expression of an idea that can be expanded and explored in relation to others. Likewise, a classroom where the teacher can be expected to ask lots of questions and consistently

student answers are anticipated and immediately cut off, is not necessarily a dialogic classroom.

For EMI research, the study links language policy and individual preparedness with learning sequences that are enacted at the micro-level. In the case of sociocultural theory, it determines the turn-by-turn mediation process to support learning if it maintains the next intellectual turn for the student. In the context of higher education (HE), it calls for interactional access, as one of the

essential elements of the quality of EMI. Internationalisation of universities cannot be realised by merely altering the language of delivery without at the same time altering participation structures if internationalisation aims to achieve equity. EMI becomes educationally defensible to the extent that students are not simply in the presence of English. However, they engage and manipulate the language and semiotic resources available to them to gain access to and become part of the disciplinary conversation.

Conflict of Interest

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