# Language policy and planning for Englishmedium instruction in higher education

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This article presents English-medium instruction (EMI) in higher education (HE) from a language policy and planning (LPP) perspective. Based on a review of EMI policy research in diverse higher education contexts, we address several key contemporary policy tensions in EMI such as English native-speakerism, English monolingualism, and language education with attention to corpus, status and acquisition planning as well as the role of individual policy actors. In light of this review, we argue for an orientation to policymaking for EMI-HE institutions that acknowledges the value of individuals as policy arbiters and aligns institutional goals with "on the ground" needs and practices. We also point to areas of future research that would benefit all EMI stakeholders, in particular critical engagement with the nature of language competence in EMI settings and the enhanced development of evidence-based EMI learning outcomes. Finally, we propose an ecological framework for EMI-HE policy development that could be employed as a heuristic to guide universities in designing concrete EMI policies for their local contexts. As an extension, we also offer an inventory of reflective questions to guide key university stakeholders in effectively engaging in EMI policy processes.

**Keywords:** English-medium instruction (EMI), language policy, language planning, higher education

# Introduction

The global advancement of English-medium instruction (EMI) has been characterized as both a result and a driving force of the internationalization of higher education (Altbach & Knight, 2007). In recent decades, the acceleration of EMI in higher education (HE) and its overarching impact on teaching, learning, and the 8

languages and cultures of local societies have drawn increasing scholarly attention to language-in-education policies and practices in EMI programs (e.g., Hamid et al., 2013; Tollefson & Tsui, 2004). Research has extensively explored EMI as a sociopolitical process and its impact on linguistic diversity and ethnocultural identity (e.g., Coleman, 2006; Phillipson, 2009) and the tension between English and multilingualism in EMI policies, especially with respect to different stakeholders (i.e., students, teaching staff, and administration personnel) and their language needs (e.g., Airey, 2012; Källkvist & Hult, 2020; Zhang, 2018). Crossregional studies foreground "the situatedness of medium-of-instruction policies" (cf. Tollefson & Tsui, 2004, p. 3), meaning that the interpretation of language policies and related debates must be situated in and made relevant to their sociopolitical and historical contexts. Indeed, EMI, as a term, lacks a clear and consistent definition due to its ubiquity in different educational sectors, disciplines, and social contexts with diverse linguistic, cultural, and political complexities (Al-Bataineh, 2020; Fenton-Smith et al., 2017). As the definition and practice of EMI in HE remain fluid, it is of great importance for policymakers to examine EMI within its embedded sociopolitical and linguistic contexts and to provide targeted support that responds to the educational needs as well as social and linguistic challenges of local stakeholders. This requires not only a theoretically grounded framework to penetrate the complex discursive mechanisms within specific EMI policy (Dafouz & Smit, 2016), but more concrete and practical guidance for policymakers to draw upon in making decisions about educational issues in EMI programs.

This article aims to develop an understanding of EMI in HE from the lens of language policy and planning (LPP). By using the label EMI-HE, we attempt to expand the scope of discussion to all kinds of tertiary-level programs (i.e., undergraduate, postgraduate, and doctoral) that use English as the medium of content knowledge teaching/learning and a means of international communication in non-English-dominant societies. We begin with a review of research on EMI policies in diverse HE contexts, structured around four major aspects of LPP inspired by Cooper's (1989) seminal framework of language planning: corpus, status and acquisition planning and EMI policy actors. We then turn to a critical discussion of key contemporary EMI-HE policy challenges, which highlight the dearth of inclusive and interactive policymaking for the needs of diverse EMI stakeholders. Against this backdrop, we also highlight two future research directions that would benefit EMI policymaking by building more robust knowledge about "on the ground" teaching and learning practices: critical perspectives on language competence in EMI settings and evidence-based development of EMI learning outcomes. Finally, we address the need for universities to develop concrete policies that meet the demands of EMI stakeholders by proposing an ecological framework for EMI policy in higher education. As an extension, we offer an inventory of reflective questions, which focuses on issues of status, corpus, and acquisition planning in order to guide key university stakeholders in effectively engaging with EMI policy process.

#### Where are we now?

EMI policy must be considered in relation to its sociopolitical context. Accordingly, we begin with an overview of language policy issues in tertiary-level EMI across continents. To this end, we draw on Cooper's (1989) accounting scheme for language planning as a heuristic by referring to the underlined aspects in his summarizing question: "who plans what for whom and how?" (p.31). These four dimensions guide us in examining language policy from multiple perspectives, including the social actors involved with language regulation, the language behaviors being regulated, the targets and motivations of a policy action, and the implementation process and influences of that action (cf. Hult, 2015). Inspired by Cooper (1989), we organize key findings below under the headings of corpus planning, status planning, acquisition planning, and policy actors. Moreover, following in the tradition of LPP research that highlights the importance of socially situating policy discourses (e.g., Canagarajah, 2005; Hult, 2017a), throughout our review we address the notion of situatedness (Tollefson & Tsui, 2004) with an eye to how EMI policies in different HE systems are shaped with respect to their sociolinguistic and historical contexts.

#### Language corpus planning

Cooper (1989) defines language corpus planning in terms of linguistic features of a language system: "the creation of new forms, the modification of old ones, or the selection from alternative forms in a spoken or written code" (p. 31). With respect to EMI policies in HE, corpus planning concerns the "E" in EMI (Kirkpatrick, 2014; Kuteeva, 2020) and relates to how English is developed and standardized to be used as a medium of instruction. Our review shows that EMI policies and practices worldwide have seemingly developed two varieties of English, one an academic English mainly based on inner-circle English parameters, and the other a lingua franca English of which the linguistic description typically diverges from inner-circle norms (cf. Seidlhofer, 2005).

The agenda of adopting English as the academic language in EMI contexts is intertwined with prestige planning (Haarmann, 1990) when one considers the fact that the English language has particular sociocultural and historical origins (Phillipson, 2017). Once English was prioritized for academic purposes in EMI in outer-circle and expanding-circle countries, projection of the symbolic power of inner-circle English varieties ensued. In many EMI-HE contexts (e.g., Israel, Finland, Germany), staff with native-English-speaking backgrounds have been found to enjoy a linguistically privileged status in the recruitment process and play a powerful role as linguistic authorities in EMI institutions (Gundermann, 2014; Inbar-Lourie & Donitsa-Schmidt, 2020). How EMI policies promote (the prestige of) native-speakers' English is also evident by the commonly applied entry requirements of many EMI programs that students must achieve certain scores on a small number of "internationally approved" English language tests (e.g., IELTS and TOEFL) which typically use standard British or American academic English as the reference (e.g., Baker & Hüttner, 2019; Dimova, 2020).

An underlying assumption in such EMI policies is a view of communicative competence which considers native-speaker norms as the most desirable input and target for learning (Canagarajah, 2018a; Jenkins, 2011). In contrast, a growing body of empirical investigations has shown that successful communication in EMI classrooms is often performed through a diverse use of English as a lingua franca (Björkman, 2013; Mauranen, 2012). Recent translanguaging/translingual studies also demonstrate that communication in EMI-HE contexts is also carried out using linguistic and non-linguistic resources embedded in the material ecologies of teaching and learning (e.g., Canagarajah, 2018b; He et al., 2016; Ou et al., 2021). Norms of interaction in EMI do not hinge only on one language but involve other communicative strategies and cultural elements that enable speakers to interact (Inbar-Lourie & Donitsa-Schmidt, 2020; Leung et al., 2016; Rincon-Mendoza & Canagarajah, 2020). As these studies indicate, EMI has created spaces of language contact where people experience an evolution of "English" that accommodates more diverse, creative, and fluid linguistic norms for resourceful and effective communication. What form of English EMI stakeholders should develop as part of their communicative competence is thus open for debate by all EMI policy actors (Ou et al., 2021).

# Language status planning

The planning of language status refers to "the allocation of languages and language varieties to given functions" (Cooper, 1989, p. 32). Considering the niche of EMI vis-à-vis other languages of local communities, our review considers two dimensions of the language status of English. The first concerns the conceptualization of the role of English, especially in relation to other languages in a given society, within policy processes. On a societal level, critical scholars argue that English is never a medium of neutral or cultural-free communication as it is oftentimes framed in educational language policies (e.g., Hult, 2017b). Numerous studies point out that the choice of English as a medium of instruction in a local HE system is mediated by social, political, and economic forces (cf. Hamid et al., 2013). The dominant status of English as an international language and its potential as a source of economic development and prosperity in contemporary globalization are frequently highlighted in the literature (Ali, 2013; Doiz et al., 2013; Fenton-Smith et al., 2017). In Asian contexts, the idea of English as a global asset is also intertwined with the neoliberal trend in education by which EMI has become part of prestige planning to elevate universities' international profiles, attract international students, and ultimately make profits in the competitive global knowledge economy (Bolton et al., 2017; De Costa et al., 2020; Phan & Barnawi, 2015).

At the same time, the impact of EMI on global linguistic ecologies has certainly not been overlooked. Research in postcolonial contexts reminds us that EMI can be a projection of "linguistic imperialism" (Phillipson, 1992), indexing the superior status of the (post/neo)colonial language as it perpetuates social inequality among speakers of different languages (Tollefson & Tsui, 2004). In complex multilingual contexts with ethnolinguistic conflicts, for example the Basque-speaking community in Spain (Erdocia, 2019; Lasagabaster, 2015) and the reviving of Hebrew in Israel (Inbar-Lourie & Donitsa-Schmidt, 2020), the expansion of EMI clashes with the revitalization efforts for the local language, and thus introduces a new conflicting element in existing language ecologies (cf. Hult, 2013; Mühlhäusler, 1996). Similarly, in South American contexts, such as Brazil, EMI when introduced in the language ecology has also met resistance from university lecturers and students who perceive it as a challenge to the status of Portuguese as an international language (Guimarães & Kremer, 2020). On the one hand, then, English is conceptualized as a necessity in today's globalized educational, cultural and economic activities, and on the other hand, English can be a threat to one's own language and cultural heritage (van Splunder, 2016).

Another element of status planning is the position of English in the domain of education. Our review suggests that EMI is an umbrella term that covers a wide range of English-related educational practices, including English-medium textbooks and teaching materials in subject courses taught in other languages (e.g., Pecorari et al., 2011), the use of English as a language for instructing and assessing different subjects (e.g., Hu et al., 2014), and a more immersive approach of adopting English as the language of all types of academic communication in international HE contexts (e.g., Dafouz & Smit, 2016; Ou & Gu, 2020). A great deal of research has focused on the implications of such EMI policies, and it has been widely reported that university instructors and students face great challenges in using English for teaching and learning purposes (cf. Macaro et al., 2018). In many EMI classrooms, an additional language is employed to facilitate smooth academic interaction and learning activities (e.g., Gu & Lee, 2018; Söderlundh, 2012).

Notably, LPP research points to an English monolingualism ideology prevailing in EMI policies, often at the expense of other local/national languages, at international universities (Hadley, 2014; Phillipson, 2009). For example, the national higher education policy in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) mandates EMI for all higher education and provides no alternatives to studying via the medium of other languages (e.g., Arabic, the language of most local students) (Al-Bataineh, 2020). In some European countries, where multilingual language policies are officially adopted and EMI is offered as one of several options, the de facto language policy suggests that certain disciplines only offer courses in English (e.g., Doiz et al., 2014). Such English-only policies and practices have raised concerns about equating internationalization of higher education with "Englishization" (Coleman, 2006). Similarly, critical investigations in Aisa have examined the impact of globalization and EMI on other societal languages (e.g., Kirkpatrick, 2014) and individual identities (Tsui & Tollefson, 2017). In Europe, research has also drawn attention to issues such as potential domain loss (Ammon, 2004), ethnolinguistic identity (Lasagabaster, 2015), and the rights of linguistic minority students (Salomone, 2015). In response to this, language policymakers in some contexts have explored alternative approaches. For example, in Nordic countries, the idea of "parallel language use" has been employed to mitigate the overemphasis of English by reinforcing the use of local languages alongside English (e.g., Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012; Hult & Källkvist, 2016).

## Language acquisition planning

Language acquisition planning refers to "organized efforts to promote the learning of a language" (Cooper, 1989, p.157). In this regard, EMI can focus on subject area instruction with no explicit attention to English language development or EMI can take the form of content-based language learning where content knowledge is learned simultaneously alongside the English language. The main assumption behind this approach, or content-based language instruction in general, is that language learning contextualized in meaningful content can increase language learning efficiency and learning motivation (e.g., Johnson et al., 1997). In practice, however, this approach meets difficulty especially in contexts where EMI starts to be used in tertiary-level education while students complete their primary and secondary education mainly in other languages. Compared with Englishdominant countries, many universities in outer-circle and expanding-circle countries have implemented EMI without providing sufficient language support to students (e.g., Inbar-Lourie & Donitsa-Schmidt, 2020) or academic staff (e.g., Macaro et al., 2018; Yuan, 2020). In recent years, increasing English language support to students has been provided in EMI-HE contexts in various forms such as preparatory year language programs, separate English language centers, and English for Academic/Specific Purposes courses (e.g., Baker & Hüttner, 2019; Ebad, 2014). However, as English support for some students in higher education can be "too little too late", some LPP researchers call for a comprehensive national or supranational plan for language development from primary grades onwards "that assures equal access to English language instruction across socioeconomic lines and across the educational experience" (Salomone, 2015, p. 262).

The demand for additional English support varies in different EMI contexts. Baker and Hüttner (2019) differentiate language policies catering to students' needs for language development in high-level English proficiency settings (e.g., Austria) and low-level English proficiency settings (e.g., Thailand). In the former context, little additional linguistic support is perceived as required, and improving English is not a major goal of EMI programs, whereas in the latter, extensive support is provided, and increased English proficiency is a main goal for students. Moreover, research is paying increasing attention to disciplinary differences in students' English language needs: emerging findings seem to suggest that while fields of science, technology and business tend to be English-dominated, less English is used in humanities (Airey, 2012; Kuteeva & Airey, 2014). Therefore, instead of a "one-size-fits-all" language policy that provides generalized guidelines for language use across educational programs, disciplinary-specific literacy goals may be useful for EMI policies (Airey et al., 2017).

#### Policy actors

A thorough understanding of the "who" in language planning requires knowledge about both "organizations with a public mandate for language regulation" (Cooper, 1989, p.31) such as governments, agencies and public organizations, and "the language planning efforts of individuals" (p.31) such as language teachers, linguists, writers, legislators, and administrators. Contemporary LPP studies have established language-in-education policy as a multidimensional phenomenon whereby individuals (e.g., instructors, students, educators) can serve as language policy arbiters and exert agency in shaping a policy process (Hult, 2018a; Johnson, 2013). Focusing on EMI policies in HE, studies have identified multiple scales of policy actors ranging from supranational and national organizations to individual actors within classrooms (Hultgren et al., 2015).

First, EMI in HE in many areas of the world (e.g., Asia, Europe, and the Middle East) has been introduced by national governments as a strategy to respond to globalization (Belhiah & Elhami, 2015; Fenton-Smith et al., 2017). For example, EMI in China is a national initiative, with the Ministry of Education of the Chinese government promulgating an educational policy for improving the quality of undergraduate education, which stipulates that 5-10% of common and specialized courses at the undergraduate level should be taught in English (MOE, 2001). While they remain less visible, some supranational forces have spurred on the promotion of EMI in HE as well. This phenomenon is particularly prominent in European Union (EU) countries, since the Bologna Declaration and the Erasmus exchange program drove many EU universities to adopt EMI in order to manage inbound and outbound international student mobility (Coleman, 2006; Wächter & Maiworm, 2014). HE institutions are also actors in EMI as they not only implement policies from larger scales (e.g., national government and regional organizations) but also address policy themselves. For example, in South American countries, where EMI was not yet a national trend, the impetus for it has come from within the university, showing a bottom-up policy process through which the collective agency of professors and university administrators led to institutional EMI policies (Martinez, 2016).

While earlier LPP studies of EMI in HE focused on (supra)national, regional, and institutional scales and their consequences on local language and pedagogical practices, an increasing body of research from various EMI contexts addresses the agency of individuals (i.e., teachers and students) in language policymaking (e.g., Hu et al., 2014; Mortensen, 2014; Söderlundh, 2012). These studies reveal how individual policy actors interpret, negotiate, and contest EMI policy meanings on institutional scales and make space for their own social practices, communicative needs, and identities (e.g., Hultgren et al., 2015; Ou & Gu, 2020). In fact, language policy in EMI-HE can be seen as an instance of language planning discursively shaped by the interplay of multi-scalar discourses, which means influences from all dimensions - (supra)national legislation, institutional documents, university administrators, and individual instructors and students - can interact with each other and mediate the formation of a policy (Källkvist & Hult, 2016). EMI education is thus a space where negotiation among multiple actors and their language planning agency takes place and thereby brings about policy changes (Hult, 2018b). For instance, a study at a Chinese transnational university (Ou et al., 2021) shows how the collaboration of students and university administrators wedged open ideological and implementational spaces (Hornberger, 2002) for multilingual development at an institution where English and internationalization were strongly indexed.

#### Where should we go next?

Our multidimensional overview of EMI-LPP research in cross-continental contexts foregrounds how universities' deliberate language-in-education planning often lags behind their moves to expand EMI education to enhance their international profiles. Echoing Macaro et al. (2018), our review shows a dearth of faculty members' and students' engagement in the development and implementation EMI policy processes. Many policy challenges emerging from EMI-HE – e.g., English native-speakerism, English monolingualism and language education – are often the result of universities rushing into EMI through top-down decisions without considering the diverse and complex makeup of university students, instructors and staff. Addressing these challenges calls for a more interactive policymaking orientation by EMI-HE institutions that acknowledges the value of individual students and instructors as policy arbiters and aligns institutional goals with "on the ground" needs and practices (cf. Hult, 2013; Ou et al., 2021).

First, while critical LPP research has attended to the different discursive values attached to English monolingualism and multilingualism in EMI (Phillipson, 2009), more needs to be done to address multilingualism in policies. Some studies assert the necessity of reconceptualizing EMI policies to move away from English monolingualism and incorporate the multilingual social reality of higher education (e.g., Barnard & McLellan, 2013; Haberland & Mortensen, 2012; Preisler et al., 2011), but empirical research on *how* to establish multilingual-oriented EMI policies is still rare (however, see Källkvist & Hult, 2020; Ou et al., 2020, 2021). Recent English as a lingua franca (ELF) research together with translanguaging studies have provided significant insights to this agenda by showing how grassroots EMI policy has taken the shape of diverse and flexible use of multilingual and multimodal resources for teaching, learning and international communication (e.g., Jenkins & Mauranen, 2019; Lin, 2019; Mortensen, 2014). As we have argued elsewhere (Ou et al., 2020), rethinking an EMI policy from a translanguaging perspective means recognizing that:

- 1. ELF communication is a translanguaging act where English is deployed as one available matrix language but not necessarily the only resource;
- 2. multilingual speakers' language use is based on a constantly emergent set of linguistic possibilities and non-linguistic possibilities rather than a pre-given norm; and
- 3. negotiation of understanding plays a key role in achieving successful ELF and intercultural communication. (p.4)

EMI policies must take into account how to enhance students' "repertoire in influx" (Jenkins, 2015, p.76) by offering additive multilingual education as part

of language acquisition planning in addition to the provision of English language support (Galloway & Rose, 2021). Accordingly, informed by current research, policies at national or institutional scales should also take into consideration effective instructional practices for multilingual students (e.g., Macaro & Han, 2020; Hult & King, 2011).

On a related note, re-envisaging competence in EMI policies requires an account of the impact of technological advances, which have allowed international higher education to be multi-sited, straddling virtual and physical spaces. Research on international universities has shown increasing attention to the interface of students' digital literacy and English language development (e.g., Son et al., 2017). Nonetheless, so far there is a paucity of research exploring how EMI policies take account of students' and instructors' language practices and needs for communicative competence in different modes of learning. LPP research in this vein would be especially timely in the COVID-19 pandemic and post-pandemic era, when EMI stakeholders have needed to quickly embrace new repertoires for the new normal of blended learning.

Another area for consideration is research on EMI-LPP outcomes. To date, the efficacy of EMI for students' English language development and content knowledge learning, or its consequences for content learning, remains in debate. While students' and instructors' concerns about their English competence for navigating EMI education have been raised across contexts (e.g., Belhiah & Elhami, 2015; Inbar-Lourie & Donitsa-Schmidt, 2020; Kim, 2017; Kirkpatrick, 2014), empirical evidence from classrooms and academic assessment is still insufficient (some exceptions include Knoch et al., 2015; Lei & Hu, 2014; Storch, 2009). As Hultgren, et al (2022) argue, such research is pivotal as it provides concrete feedback from teachers and students that informs policymakers of the educational challenges and opportunities associated with EMI. Moving forward, we also call for more in-depth, ethnographic and discourse-based studies to delve into EMI classroom practices by focusing on the relationship between EMI policy/practice and students' learning outcomes (e.g., Barakos & Unger, 2016; Hult, 2017a).

#### What do we put into practice?

In this concluding section, we seek to take one step forward towards a practical agenda for EMI policymaking by suggesting an ecological framework for EMI-HE policies (cf. Hornberger, 2002; Hult, 2013; Hult & King, 2011) that (1) centers on a situated and holistic consideration of multiple aspects of language planning in international higher education, and (2) includes individuals (i.e., university administrators, instructors, and students) as crucial EMI policy actors while highlighting the interaction among them in the policy process (Figure 1). This pragmatic framework aims to provide a heuristic to guide international universities in designing concrete EMI policies that respond to the needs of university stakeholders.

An EMI-HE policy action should be seen as a point of intersection for three types of language planning: corpus planning, status planning, and acquisition planning. In terms of corpus planning, EMI stakeholders (i.e., policymakers, educational practitioners, and students) should be reflective about how language standards mediate the use of English as a medium of instruction and vice versa. Specifically, stakeholders must consider how EMI has reinforced the prestige of native-speaker norms for English on the one hand and challenged it by cultivating ELF practices and norms on the other.

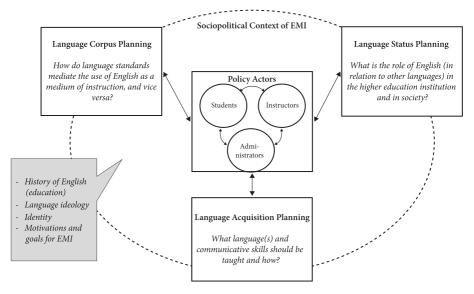


Figure 1. An ecological LPP framework for EMI-HE policy

Concerning status planning, the role of English, especially how English is positioned in relation to other languages, in both the specific institution of higher education and the society in which it is situated, should be carefully planned for. In this respect, stakeholders must attend to the sociohistorical background of global English (cf. Phillipson, 2009), including how it has manifested in the local context, so they are invited to critically reflect on the necessity of EMI as well as how EMI can sustainably co-exist with the vitality and accessibility of other language varieties for communication and education. Finally, an EMI-HE policy needs to address acquisition planning by dealing with what language(s) and communicative skills students and instructors should acquire and how to implement such language education. Such planning must involve, but not be limited to, a localized consideration of the history of the spread of and education in English, the prevailing language ideologies in society, language and identity issues, and the motivations and goals that drive LPP actors to introduce a particular EMI policy.

At the nexus of this multidimensional framework are EMI policy actors who have a public mandate for language and education regulation and meanwhile are influenced by policies. In response to the absence-of-individuals challenge in EMI policy processes (*vide supra*), the framework emphasizes involving educational stakeholders across scales in policy decisions, especially individual policy actors such as administrators, instructors, and students. First, this means individual university stakeholders' local practices, language ideologies, and identities should be recognized and reflected in policy. Second, empowering individual agency in EMI policymaking includes viewing the policy process as a space of interaction and encouraging negotiation and collaboration among social actors across scales in policymaking.

In practice, this inclusive policymaking model requires a needs analysis in terms of what language resources and support students and faculty staff need in order to put EMI into effective practice and what students need to gain from EMI education in order to be prepared for multilingual and globalized work after graduation. Needs analyses should also take into account the personnel and material resources required at the institution to support an EMI education system, and in turn, what support administrators are prepared to fund (cf. Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997). Such attention is essential for avoiding unfunded mandates where institutions declare an EMI policy without providing the resources to feasibly implement it.

Finally, inspired by Corson's (1999) work on language planning in primary through secondary education and the sets of questions he formulated to guide instructors and administrators through processes of educational language planning, we have created an inventory to guide stakeholders in higher education language planning for EMI (see Appendix). The inventory shows a set of reflective questions focusing on issues of status, corpus, and acquisition planning from the perspective of key EMI stakeholders: university administrators, instructors, and students. We hope these questions will stimulate awareness and deeper thinking about language issues in EMI so that individuals can respond effectively to their own needs for language learning, personal advancement, and identity development through EMI-HE policymaking processes.

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# Appendix. EMI language planning inventory: Reflective questions for stakeholders

	Administrators	Instructors	Students
Status Planning	<ul> <li>What goals do we hope to achieve by implementing EMI? How can EMI be positioned at the institution in a way that also values and encourages multilingualism?</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>What language(s) are used for content knowledge instruction?</li> <li>What language(s) are used for textbooks and other teaching materials?</li> <li>What language(s) are used for student assessment?</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>What opportunities are there at the institution to use/practice the various linguistic</li> </ul>

	Administrators	Instructors	Students
	<ul> <li>What language(s) are used at the institution among instructors, students, and staff outside classroom contexts?</li> <li>What additional language(s) do students and staff need for communication in institutional EMI settings?</li> <li>How are students likely to use English and other languages in their professional and personal lives after graduation?</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>How is the use of English and other language(s), if any, balanced in teaching, learning, assessment, and classroom interaction?</li> <li>What do I know about the university language regulations for EMI teaching and assessment, and how do they influence my teaching practice?</li> </ul>	resources in my repertoire? – In what kinds of communication in English and other languages will I likely engage during my professional and personal life after graduation?
Corpus Planning	<ul> <li>What expectations do we have about the varieties of English that will be used at the institution?</li> <li>To what extent do we implicitly or explicitly orient to Anglo-American norms?</li> <li>To what extent do we allow for creative expression among international users of English?</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>What variation in English use is considered acceptable in my discipline?</li> <li>How can I help students navigate the tension between dominant norms of standard English (e.g., Anglo-American forms) in academia and inclusive access to professional opportunities?</li> <li>What disciplinary-specific linguistic forms (e.g., vocabulary, grammatical constructions, genre conventions) do students need to learn?</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>What variation in English use is considered acceptable in my discipline?</li> <li>How will my language competence be evaluated and assessed by the program?</li> </ul>
Acquisition Planning	<ul> <li>How is English used and learned by the majority population of the country before reaching the university?</li> <li>How is English used and learned by people who are linguistic minorities or dialect speakers in our</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>What differences are there between the English proficiency students achieve in pre-tertiary education and the English proficiency expected in the discipline?</li> <li>How can language development be facilitated</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>In what ways do I need to continue my language development beyond my pre- tertiary education in order to have</li> </ul>

Administrators	Instructors	Students
<ul> <li>country before reaching the university?</li> <li>Is EMI introduced in pre- tertiary level education and how is it implemented?</li> <li>What efforts are being made to encourage the collaboration of diverse social actors (e.g., governmental authorities, university administrators, policymakers, linguists, teachers, students) in co- constructing EMI policies?</li> <li>How is language competency for EMI defined and standardized (e.g., language requirements for enrollment and graduation)?</li> <li>What opportunities for students' language competency development for EMI are codified in policy documents and curricula?</li> <li>How do university policies for hiring and promotion incentivize staff (administrative and academic) with respect to language competency and development?</li> <li>How are students and staff who need additional language support in English identified?</li> <li>How can we reach out to students and staff to learn more about their needs related to language development?</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>alongside content knowledge development?</li> <li>What efforts are being made to develop discipline-specific language curricula?</li> <li>What resources are available for students who need language development assistance beyond what can be provided in a content area course?</li> <li>What resources (inside and outside the university) are available for me to acquire and improve the communicative skills required for effective EMI teaching?</li> <li>How can I engage with university leaders to make them aware of my needs and my students' needs with respect to EMI and language development?</li> <li>How can non-linguistic and multimodal resources be used in my EMI delivery?</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>the language skills expected in my discipline?</li> <li>What do I know about the university language curriculum and how could it facilitate my English language development?</li> <li>What opportunities are there at the institution to develop new linguistic resources to add to my repertoire?</li> <li>How can I engage with university leaders to shape institutional language policies to align with my needs?</li> <li>How can non- linguistic and multimodal resources be used in learning through EMI?</li> </ul>

A	lministrators	Instructors	Students
-	What institutional support		
	is provided to facilitate		
	language development		
	(e.g., language education		
	institute, writing center,		
	individual tutoring)?		
-	What institutional support		
	is provided to instructional		
	staff for the development of		
	EMI pedagogy?		
-	How is language		
	development progress		
	among students and staff		
	assessed?		
-	What efforts are being		
	made to develop		
	communicative strategies		
	(e.g., the ability to regulate		
	multimodalities) that		
	students and staff need for		
	EMI teaching and learning		
	in virtual spaces?		

# 简介 (Chinese abstract)

本文以语言政策与规划 (LPP) 为视角,回顾了英文作为教学媒介语 (EMI) 在高等教育 (HE) 环境中的现状。本文着重探索不同高等教育背景下的EMI 政策研究,在探讨 EMI 政策制定与执行的挑战时采用了以下四个角度:语料规划、语言地位规划、语言学习规 划和个体政策执行者所扮演的角色。文章指出英文母语主义、英文单语主义和语言教 育困境等均为目前面临的问题。基于此,我们认为个体作为政策仲裁者的价值在EMI高 等教育机构的政策制定和实施过程中应获得更多关注,并且宏观政策目标应与"实地"语 言需求和实践保持一致。我们还指出 EMI 领域 的未来研究方向,强调 EMI 政策研究 需要重新定义该教育环境中语言能力的本质以及发展关于 EMI 对课程和语言学习成果 影响的实证研究。最后,文章为高等教育中的 EMI 政策制定提出了一个生态系统框架; 该框架可供高等教育语言政策制定者针对当地情况设计具体的 EMI 政策。我们同时还 提供了一系列反思性问题,旨在于帮助各级政策制定和执行者更行之有效地参与 EMI 政 策过程。

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