Global mapping of English as a medium of instruction in higher education: 2020 and beyond

Kari Sahan, Agata Mikolajewska, Heath Rose, Ernesto Macaro, Mark Searle, Ikuya Aizawa, Siyang Zhou and Ann Veitch
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CRediT statement

CRediT (Contributor Roles Taxonomy) statements allow for transparent reporting of authorship and recognise individual author contributions to published work. The core contributions of the research team for this report are as follows:

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Note: ✓ denotes substantial contribution

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British Council English-medium education in higher education project

This report forms part of a larger British Council global project exploring current research, policy, practice, and potential future trends in English-medium education in higher education. The outputs of this project include a literature review, English in Higher Education – English Medium, Part 1, Literature Review (Curle et al., 2020), this global mapping study, case studies of four Higher education institutes in two countries eligible for Official Development Assistance (Linn et al., 2021), and a British Council perspective on English-medium education in higher education (Veitch, 2021).

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## List of abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CLIL</td>
<td>Content and Language Integrated Learning</td>
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<tr>
<td>EMI</td>
<td>English as a medium of instruction</td>
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<td>HE</td>
<td>Higher education</td>
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<td>HEI</td>
<td>Higher education institution</td>
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<td>L1</td>
<td>First language</td>
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<td>L1MOI</td>
<td>First language as a medium of instruction</td>
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<td>L2</td>
<td>Second language</td>
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<td>MOI</td>
<td>Medium of instruction</td>
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<td>ODA</td>
<td>Official Development Assistance (recipient countries)</td>
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<td>TPD</td>
<td>Teacher professional development</td>
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<td>EAP</td>
<td>English for Academic Purposes</td>
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<td>ESP</td>
<td>English for Specific Purposes</td>
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<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
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<td>DAC</td>
<td>The Development Assistance Committee</td>
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<td>CEFR</td>
<td>Common European Framework of Reference for Languages</td>
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<td>FCDO</td>
<td>Foreign, Commonwealth and Development Office</td>
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<td>SDG</td>
<td>Sustainable Development Goals</td>
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Executive summary

What were the main aims of the study?
This study aimed to investigate the current situation with regards to the introduction and expansion of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in higher education (HE) in 52 countries designated as recipient countries on the Official Development Assistance (ODA) list, which is a list developed by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) to measure foreign aid. In doing so, the study aimed to shed light on EMI provision in many countries which are relatively less resourced and have been under-researched over the past decade with regards to EMI in HE.

The stages of investigation were: a country-level analysis with data from informed respondents to investigate the introduction and expansion of EMI in the 52 ODA recipient countries; an HEI website analysis to examine what information with regards to EMI programmes is available; and a survey of key institutional players to explore additional information about EMI programmes offered at HEIs worldwide.

How was data collected for the study?
This study involved three stages of data collection. First, data was collected through open-ended questionnaires administered to British Council staff, who acted as ‘informed respondents’ for their countries of residence. Next, data was collected through an examination of websites of two purposively sampled universities in each of the 52 ODA recipient countries. The website analysis explored publicly available information in order to assess the availability of EMI programmes and the information provided for students and staff on these programmes. Finally, key players at 227 universities in 42 countries completed an online questionnaire concerning EMI implementation and support offered at their institutions. This final stage provided more in-depth information concerning the EMI programmes on offer at these institutions. The data was analysed to explore global and regional trends, and detailed examples are ‘spotlighted’ in the report to contextualise the findings within national contexts.

What did the study find?
The results of this study offer insights into the expansion and provision of EMI programmes worldwide. The main findings of the study are:

- Admission requirements to EMI programmes tend to be university-specific, and there appears to be a lack of standardisation with respect to the minimal threshold of English language proficiency required for entry to EMI programmes. English proficiency requirements were found to vary from international language exams to secondary school-leaving exams.
- Professional development opportunities appear to be limited for teaching staff on EMI programmes. When support is offered to lecturers, it tends to focus on improving teachers’ general English proficiency, not improving the skills required to teach in English in a multi-/bilingual classroom context.
- The majority of international students on EMI programmes tend come only from regional or neighbouring countries, including other ODA recipient countries, and international students tend to comprise a relatively small proportion of students enrolled to EMI programmes.
- The desire to attract international students appears to be a less important driving force behind EMI provision for HEIs in ODA recipient countries. Instead, preparing students for the global job market and enhancing the university’s reputation were found to be the key driving forces behind EMI expansion.
- Female students appear to be slightly under-represented on EMI programmes in ODA recipient countries compared to the overall proportion of female student enrolment. Lower levels of female student enrolment in EMI programmes were more frequently found at public HEIs compared to private HEIs.
What does the study recommend?

Due to the exploratory nature of the study and the diversity of the countries in the sample, we purposely refrain from making any explicit recommendations for policy or pedagogy, as there is no 'one-size-fits-all' approach to EMI implementation. More research is needed to understand the complexities of EMI in ODA recipient contexts, and we offer the following recommendations for researchers and practitioners:

- More research is needed to better monitor whether, as EMI develops in ODA recipient contexts, it combats a potential Matthew Effect, such as by raising university reputation, or whether it contributes to new, local inequalities.
- There is a need for critical research examining the effects of EMI with respect to local socio-cultural factors and local student needs, including whether EMI is being implemented in the most appropriate way in terms of maintaining educational standards and ensuring quality of education.
- Specifically, more critical research is needed with respect to female enrolment, access to EMI programmes and challenges to EMI delivery at the local level.
- To increase the visibility of HEIs in ODA recipient countries, we advocate for increased clarity of EMI provision, including greater transparency of public information provided by HEIs on their websites, as well as by future research attention to issues raised in this report.
Introduction and background to the project

Main issues emerging from the literature:

- EMI is intertwined with internationalism educational goals of nations and HEIs
- Much of what we understand about EMI is at the national level, with little research exploring EMI across global regions
- EMI research has largely overlooked developing nations, especially those of the Global South

English-medium instruction (EMI) is a term widely used to describe the practice in higher education (HE) of offering academic subjects such as Chemistry, Engineering, Geography and Business Studies through the medium of English in countries where the majority of the population’s first language is not English (Macaro, 2018). To put it differently: it is a policy decision taken at some level (institutional or national) to offer academic subjects through English, instead of ‘home languages’ that are typically used as the medium of education. For example, while most education in Vietnam is delivered in the ‘home language’ of Vietnamese, EMI refers to educational practices that are underpinned by decisions to make the medium of instruction English, which is a second or foreign language for a majority of the population.

This phenomenon of policy makers deciding the language of instruction is perhaps EMI’s most defining feature. Other aspects of EMI vary greatly from country to country and jurisdiction to jurisdiction: the educational level at which it is introduced (Richards and Pun, 2021); the mechanism for its introduction and development (Ali, 2013); the model of EMI implemented (Macaro, 2018); the level of consent among stakeholders (Hu and Lei, 2014); the amount of English being used in HE classrooms (Sahan, 2020); the mechanism for student enrolment onto an EMI programme (Kamasak et al., 2021); and the level of English language support offered to students (Galloway and Rose, 2021).

The driving forces behind those policy decisions have now been well documented in the EMI research literature (see Sandstrom and Neghina, 2017 in Europe; Galloway et al., 2017, in East Asia). They are primarily fed by a desire for internationalisation of the HE sector or parts of the sector.

Internationalisation of HE is a complex form of soft power but at the practical level it is exemplified primarily by attracting lucrative international students and by displaying the quality aspirations of an institution through attracting ‘foreign’ faculty. Both of these policies, more often than not, mean that teaching and learning has to take place through English as the international lingua franca. Although there is not yet any conclusive evidence that switching from L1 teaching (L1 medium of instruction, L1MOI) to EMI leads to an institution rising in the rankings (see Hultgren, 2014), recent trends indicate a correlation (but not causality) between the two. In a recent publication of HE institution world rankings, universities in China and Japan have quite evidently risen (Kulkarni, 2021) and this is contextualised against a backdrop of substantial internationalisation at top universities in these two nations in recent years (see Galloway et al., 2017). It is therefore apposite to briefly describe the kinds of internationalisation policies that in those two countries have led to a notable increase in EMI provision and a possible correlation with higher rankings.

In China, the growth of EMI reaches back as far as the mid- to late-1990s where the Ministry of Education of the People’s Republic of China stated clearly its aim to develop a high percentage of world-leading universities (see Rose et al., 2020). In 2001, the ministry gave further impetus to this process by prescribing greater proficiency in English with a strong recommendation to gradually increase the amount of English to be used to teach academic subjects. Nearly all subsequent ministerial recommendations have emphasised the crucial need to expand the number of EMI programmes. In Japan the EMI phenomenon gained traction in 2007, with a partially successful project called Global 30, which aimed to increase the number of international students in Japan to 300,000 via the creation of government-funded English-taught degree programmes (Rose and McKinley, 2018). The growth of EMI accelerated in 2014 when the Ministry of Education made a substantial investment into the Top Global University Project, which overtly aimed, over a period of ten years, to internationalise large parts of its HE sector, by focusing its attention on providing local students an ‘international’, vis-à-vis English-medium, university education (MEXT, 2014).
At the supranational level in Europe, EMI has seen a dramatic increase, and this has been well documented (Wächter and Maiworm, 2014; Sandstrom and Negrina, 2017) and researched. Although the European Union’s espoused plurilingualism continues to be a driving force attempting to maintain the use of minority (in terms of population) languages, this policy is evidently being countered by the desire for internationalisation in HE and, moreover, the push-through from CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) in the secondary school sector (see Macaro et al. 2019; Doiz, Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2013). Similarly, authors writing on the topic of EMI in Asia (e.g. Barnard and Hasim, 2019) or more specifically ASEAN (e.g. Kirkpatrick, 2017) have pointed to the same inter-national pressures to provide EMI in HE in order to allow free flow of students among neighbouring or member nations.

EMI as a phenomenon comes with a number of challenges for both EMI teachers and students, and the practice itself is not without its critics. Some researchers have shown findings suggesting that the key stakeholders in the teaching and learning process have had little say in the decisions taken at the ministerial level or institutional level (Hu and Lei, 2014; Soren, 2013). Another critique has been the way in which EMI creates or exacerbates problems of social justice. Access to EMI courses at universities may be restricted to students with high levels of English proficiency, which in turn might be ‘bought’ through private education, thereby creating social elites (Hamid et al., 2013; Sultana, 2014). Most importantly for quality of education, there is considerable research evidence that many EMI teachers do not feel linguistically confident to teach their subjects through English. We should stress the word ‘teach’ here. Most teachers, it would appear, feel confident to read or write about their subject in English or even to present at conferences (Macaro et al., 2021), but the key difference in teaching in an EMI context is that they have to dig deep to find the linguistic resources to adequately convey information to students who themselves may have low levels of English proficiency.

Furthermore, the decision to teach through English rather than the local language may have implications for the confidence and motivation of female students (Leug and Leug, 2015). Female students on EMI programmes have been found to report lower levels of confidence and more difficulties coping with the challenges of using English compared to their male peers (Bukve, 2020), and English language speaking anxiety may have a strong influence in deterring female students from enrolling to EMI programmes compared to their male students (Hengsadeekul et al., 2014).

Of course, there are some positives to emerge from EMI. Some countries perforce have to adopt English as the language of education for their own ‘home’ students simply because of the very large number of local languages spoken within that particular country – thus becoming as a ‘neutral’ lingua franca. Singapore is often referred to as an example of such ideological practices (Rubdy, 2005). Also, there is some initial evidence (Macaro and Akincioglu, 2018) that females may be more likely to pursue academic subjects which traditionally are male dominated (e.g. engineering) if that subject is taught through the medium of English. Nonetheless, the purported benefits of EMI are viewed differently from nation to nation, and university to university, as too are the associated challenges.
Previous research on EMI provision

Research interest in EMI has been rapidly growing, and studies have been published on EMI provision in various geographical regions of the world. Our project builds on a long tradition of EMI research at national and regional levels, which has been funded by the British Council. As these reports provide a foundation of knowledge across multiple world regions, we briefly review what these reports have found.

In an early effort to map EMI provision on a global scale, Dearden (2015) collected data from British Council staff in 55 countries through an open-ended questionnaire. The study focused on EMI provision at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels, and it found that “the general trend is towards a rapid expansion of EMI provision” (p. 2) worldwide, particularly in the private sector. The study highlighted a number of challenges associated with implementing EMI programmes, including a lack of qualified teachers – both linguistically and in terms of pedagogical training for EMI – and a lack of English language proficiency expectations, as well as a tendency for policies to be implemented ‘top-down’ without input from key stakeholders.

In the context of China, one British Council China project (Rose et al., 2020) conducted a policy analysis on 93 EMI policy-related documents found at 63 universities. Fieldwork was also conducted at eight universities, which consisted of interviews with 26 key players in EMI policy such as university deans and heads of programme. Questionnaires were also collected from 152 EMI teachers and 561 EMI students at universities across China. The report found that bilingual models of EMI were being abandoned in favour of English-only or English-dominant programmes. It also found that EMI growth has occurred at all levels of HE, and many HEIs were under pressure to create more EMI courses for both the international and domestic students. The main reasons cited for EMI growth were to cultivate students’ abilities, to respond to globalisation and promote internationalisation, and to improve the quality of education. While the report found numerous types of structural support to help teachers improve their ability to teach in English, it also revealed little structured language support for students.

Bolitho and West (2017) investigated HE institutions in the Ukraine. They found relatively few EMI Master’s programmes in that country and that the Ukraine ranked quite low in European rankings. The universities explored by the researchers were found to have “little in the way of developed institutional policies or planning” in order to address these issues and particularly for the expansion of EMI and that the lack of responsibility for planning led to “confusion and indecision” (p. 79). The authors of the report make a number of recommendations which are relevant to the current study. Among these is that there is certainly the need for greater academic support and professional development for EMI teachers (the majority of whom were judged to be at the B1/B2 level). This was a key finding along with a requirement for quality assurance procedures once EMI is implemented. The authors of the report also recommend a sliding scale for proficiency levels for English in order for students to be admitted onto an EMI course: C1 (CEFR) for Law, Economics and Humanities because these are (according to the authors) more linguistically demanding disciplines; and B2 (CEFR) for Pure and Applied Sciences and for Engineering. However, the current authors would argue that this distinction in level of difficulty is yet to be proven.

Similar EMI implementation issues were found in a British Council report in the Kurdish Region of Iraq (Borg, 2016), which found that only about 60 per cent of teachers were satisfied with their current level of English and 33 per cent of respondents said that they felt they had little or no part in the decision making related to EMI. As a result, it was estimated by respondents that they only actually spoke English about half the time with a lot of emphasis not on interacting with the students but on presenting language in the written form possibly because the students’ level of proficiency was also limited.
On a different but related theme, Macaro et al. (2019) undertook a study of EMI in Italy but also considered the issue of transition from upper-secondary school CLIL to EMI at university. The researchers found that the university students were likely to experience less difficulty in understanding the teacher than their secondary (CLIL) counterparts, possibly because the latter were able to self-select enrolment onto an HE EMI programme while the former were not (CLIL in one subject is mandatory in Italy). Nonetheless, even among the university students it was found that they had little opportunity to speak and interact with their EMI teachers in class.

In one multinational study of Japan and China, Galloway et al. (2017) explored the driving forces for EMI and language use at seven HEIs in Japan and eight HEIs in China. The report revealed a substantial push for the creation of more EMI programmes in both nations, underpinned by the notion that EMI would lead to greater internationalisation of the university and English language competence for the students. The data revealed widespread use of the L1 in both contexts, but more so in the HEIs in China. The report also revealed several challenges impeding the quality of education, including a lack of resources, low levels of language proficiency of staff and students, and a lack of appropriate language support at the institutional level.
EMI in countries Officially Designated as receiving Assistance (ODA)

Official Development Assistance (ODA) is defined as government aid designed to promote the economic development and welfare of developing countries. The OECD maintains a list of developing countries and territories, but only aid to these countries counts as ODA. The Development Assistance Committee (DAC) defines ODA as “those flows to countries and territories on the DAC List of ODA Recipients and to multilateral institutions which are:

1. provided by official agencies, including state and local governments, or by their executive agencies; and

2. each transaction of which:
   - is administered with the promotion of the economic development and welfare of developing countries as its main objective; and
   - is concessional in character and conveys a grant element of at least 25 per cent (calculated at a rate of discount of ten per cent).”

It is important to note that there is wide variation in the economic positions of countries on the ODA recipient list. Somalia’s GNI (Gross Nominal Income) is 130 USDs compared to China’s 11,450 USDs (source: World Bank). While nations like China still meet ODA recipient criteria based on objective measures like GNI, their position on the list has been challenged due to the size of its economy and its global economic power (Giehler, 2020).

In our review of previous research so far, with a few exceptions, we have contextualised the phenomenon of EMI in what we might call the more economically developed countries. This is because the research on EMI in lesser developed countries and particularly the Global South has not yet been carried out to the same extent as the Global North. In a systematic review of EMI in HE (Macaro et al., 2018), the authors found that of the 102 studies included in the sample, 40 were situated in Asia, 52 were situated in Europe, nine in the Middle East and one in South America. None were situated in sub-Saharan Africa. Moreover, from the perspective of international development, the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) make no mention of language of instruction in their learning outcome targets despite the effect it has on educational equity (Milligan et al., 2020).

While writing about ELT, Coleman (2011) nonetheless makes a powerful argument that a focus on researching education in developing countries helps to: monitor and evaluate planning and implementation; create powerful counter-hegemonic dialogues; leads to a cycle of improvement, which feeds back into professionalism; and shifts ownership of education to local stakeholders rather than with foreign ‘experts’. Thus, a greater spotlight on ODA recipient contexts can increase the visibility and legitimacy of the educational endeavours in a thus-far overlooked context. Similarly, there is a need to investigate the educational provision with regards to EMI in countries that have been under-represented in the research literature. The reasons for this are as follows:

1) The danger of the Matthew Effect where the rich get richer and the poor get poorer. If, as perceived by global estimates and indeed by actual research-based measurements, EMI does lead to greater internationalisation of universities, then successful universities may grow in economic strength at the expense of others – attracting students from the latter. Given that institutions in more economically developed countries are in a position to enhance their EMI provision, this effect is likely to burgeon in the future.

2) The students seeking to study abroad in economically developed contexts are likely to be the brightest and the best but also perhaps the most affluent because of entry requirements and the fees demanded. Will this accelerate a ‘brain-drain’ from ODA recipient countries because these students, post-education, decide to stay and work in the countries in which they have obtained their education?

3) There are a number of models of EMI that reflect the contextual educational and language needs of the university (see Macaro, 2018). ODA recipient countries, if they are planning to introduce or increase their EMI offer in HE, may wish to carefully select the model which best suits their context and not blindly follow that of more economically developed countries.

4) By investigating the level of EMI offer in ODA recipient countries and making possible recommendations, the report will in effect give greater visibility to HE institutions in ODA recipient countries, thus encouraging international students to study there rather than in more traditional ‘foreign’ destinations.
Gender

The International Development (Gender Equality) Act 2014 makes gender equality and girls’ education a priority and, in line with the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), this research project intends to explore issues of gender equality, where relevant to the data. Specifically, we aim to explore the relationship between gender and participation in EMI programmes at the tertiary level in order to understand what effects, if any, the expansion of EMI provision might have on female students’ access to and achievement in higher education.

Compared to higher education, more research has explored the relationship between gender, EMI and participation at the school level. Milligan (2020) notes that, while research has found a positive relationship between L1 education and girl’s achievement in basic education, “there is currently limited evidence for any negative impact that EMI has specifically on girls” (p. 3). With respect to an achievement gap, Upadhaya and Sah (2019) have argued that “access to English is a strong indicator of socio-economic success for girls” (p. 111) in many developing countries. However, the authors argued that, at the schooling level in Nepal, clear disparities can be seen in male and female students’ access to English-medium education, due to both societal factors and educational policies. The authors note that differences in access to English education, along with a gender achievement gap in core subjects, have negative effects on female students’ opportunities for higher education. While Upadhaya and Sah (2019) focus on the Nepalese context, similar conclusions may be drawn in other contexts in which English language skills are essential for accessing higher education but in which there persists a gender gap in terms of access to English education.

While such studies have demonstrated the effects of gender disparities to English education at the school level, little is known about the effects, if any, that EMI has on female student participation in higher education. The importance of higher education in terms of improving employment opportunities has been documented across countries, particularly in terms of women’s participation in the job market (e.g. Chang, 2019; Barone and Assirelli, 2020). In a recent study examining the relationship between women’s higher education attainment and labour force participation in Turkey, Cin, Gümüş and Weiss (2020) conclude that increased rates of female participation in higher education have contributed significantly to more equal labour market outcomes. Similar findings have been produced in other contexts (e.g. Chang, 2019, in Taiwan). However, to our knowledge, studies on gender and participation in higher education have not yet examined the role of EMI, and little is known about how EMI relates to female enrolment.
Methods

Main methods:
• This study investigated the scope of EMI programmes in 52 ODA countries
• An open-ended questionnaire was completed by British Council representatives in 45 countries to gather an overview of EMI policy and provision in each country
• 104 university websites in 52 countries were analysed to explore the range of EMI programmes on offer and the support structures afforded to students and teachers. This provided an institution-external perspective
• An online survey was distributed to key players at 227 universities in 42 countries to explore EMI provision in more detail from an institution-internal perspective

Stage 1: Country responses
• Open-ended questionnaires distributed to ‘informed respondents’ of 52 ODA countries

Stage 2: Website analysis
• Content analysis conducted on HEI websites, with a sample of two HEIs per country

Stage 3: Survey of key players analysis
• Online survey distributed to key institutional players at HEIs in the 52 ODA countries

This study investigated the expansion and provision of EMI programmes in 52 ODA recipient countries through a three-stage methodology (Figure 1). Specifically, the study addressed the following research questions:

RQ1: What is the current situation with regards to the introduction and expansion of EMI in HE course/programmes in countries on the Official Development Assistance (ODA) recipient list, according to an informed respondent in each country?

RQ2: In the target countries, what information is provided on university websites with regards to EMI courses/programmes, and what information of particular relevance to potential student applicants is available, whether these be ‘home’ students or international students?

RQ3: In the target countries, what additional and in-depth information about the EMI offer of an HE institution can be gleaned through contacting key players such as directors of international offices, programme leaders/coordinators?
Carrying out a scoping project on this scale posed considerable challenges, and we had to adapt the research design to account for this. To our knowledge no attempt has been made previously to survey EMI on such a global scale and across such diverse contexts. In sampling only ODA recipient contexts, we also had to contend with numerous under-resourced university websites, which created further challenges in finding the requisite information to carry out website analysis (Stage 2) and the contact information of key players (Stage 3). The COVID-19 pandemic also affected Stage 1 and Stage 3 of the project, as many respondents (who held senior managerial posts) had pressing issues on their agendas to deal with. To counter these challenges, the data collection instruments were designed to be flexible enough to accommodate differences across countries, and we approached data analysis with an understanding that there was great diversity in the data, and that we were venturing into relatively unresearched territory. We, thus, interpret our results as purely exploratory. Our methods aim to scope current EMI implementation around the world, without claiming to be representative of all EMI contexts in the nations we cover.

By investigating the provision of EMI in ODA recipient countries, this study was able to explore contexts which have been less researched over the past decade with regards to EMI in HE. The sample of countries included in this study was selected in collaboration with the British Council to include contexts in which British Council staff could assist with processes of data collection. The sample was also selected to reflect British Council and Foreign, Commonwealth and Development Office (FCDO) priority countries, to represent the diversity of developed countries on the ODA recipient list, and to include a range linguistic landscapes and socio-cultural contexts. The 52 countries which participated in this study are shown in Figure 2 and listed in Table 1.

![Figure 2: Countries included in the sample](Map is licensed under CC-BY-SA 4.0)
The data collection and analysis procedures used in each of the three stages is described below.

**Stage 1: Country responses**

An open-ended questionnaire was developed and distributed to British Council staff in the participant countries. The questionnaire was designed to elicit open-ended, qualitative responses, and we collected one reply per country. British Council staff were encouraged to work together as a team in composing their responses. As in the study conducted by Dearden (2014), the British Council staff served as ‘informed respondents’, with the aim to collect broad data in each country. As such, the data collected at this stage represents the perspectives of informed respondents, rather than confirmed realities. Information on each country was then used to help inform the sampling strategy of HEIs in subsequent stages of the project. The questionnaire included four sections investigating:

1. General EMI provision in higher education
2. EMI provision by academic discipline
3. EMI university students
4. EMI university teachers and staff

The questionnaire was distributed in December 2020, and respondents were asked to submit their returns via email. They were also asked to include supplemental documents, such as official policy statements, and a list of key EMI universities in the country. The list of key EMI universities informed the sampling methods for Stages 2 and 3.

The questionnaire responses were analysed using content analysis for each item. Where possible, responses were coded as ‘yes/no’ responses to facilitate analysis, and descriptive statistics are reported to provide an overview of the global situation.
Stage 2: Website analysis

Following the Stage 1 country responses, we investigated what information was available on university websites with regards to EMI programmes in each of the 52 countries. Our main aim was to explore what public-facing information was provided about EMI at each university. In other words, we approached this stage from the perspective of prospective outsiders (e.g. student candidates, parents) seeking to learn more about EMI programmes at the university. In doing so, we relied on publicly available information provided in English on HEI websites, except for a few institutions for which English websites were not available (discussed below).

The sample of HEI websites for Stage 2 of the study consisted of two key HEIs from each of the 52 participating countries, for a total of 104 HEIs. In selecting two universities per country, we used the following sampling criteria:

- Size of the university
- Rank of the university
- Location of the university
- History of EMI programmes
- Type of institution
- Recommendation of informed respondents

First, we examined universities from the list of key EMI institutions provided in the Stage 1 questionnaire. To guide our selection, we considered the size, rank and location of the university, aiming to include large universities of local importance in major cities from each country, in order to maintain some consistent sampling criteria across countries. We selected universities with a notable history of EMI, either because they had offered EMI programmes for many years or because they were considered ‘flagship’ EMI universities within the country. Finally, where possible, we included one public and one private institution from each country, or used another similar criteria if it was highlighted as being important in that country. Research has suggested that the private sector attempts to attract fee-paying students by offering EMI, and therefore the public sector may, in some instances, introduce EMI programmes to compete with the private sector. We aimed to include both public and private universities in order to explore these dynamics, but found in some contexts this was not always possible due to the lack of a developed private sector.

In these cases, we used criteria from Stage 1 to identify universities that represented an important differentiation between HEIs in that country.

Data collection and analysis was conducted by four researchers using a structured coding scheme. The coding scheme consisted of close-ended (Yes/No) responses and open-ended categories for more detailed information. Each website was visited by a researcher who, using the structured coding scheme, recorded what information was provided with respect to EMI programmes at the institution. The structured scheme investigated ten components of the available information on EMI provision at each university:

1. Availability of an English-language website
2. Institutional language policy
3. Admission criteria
4. International students
5. Language support for students
6. Professional development for staff
7. Teaching staff requirements and language support
8. Administrative staff requirements and language support
9. The prevalence of EMI
10. Internationalisation and strategic development

The data from the coding scheme was then analysed using quantitative and qualitative content analysis. Descriptive statistics are reported for close-ended responses, and the open-ended responses were analysed according to themes.

Data was collected from the English-language versions of the HEI websites. For countries in Latin America, we had difficulty finding HEI websites with sufficient information in English – perhaps due to the role of Spanish as a common language in the Latin American context. An initial analysis revealed difficulty identifying two HEIs per country in this region with English-language websites containing sufficient information: Four to six HEI websites in Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Mexico and Venezuela were reviewed, but we continued to encounter limited or no English-language websites for these countries. As such, we decided to access the Spanish- and Portuguese-language websites for HEIs in Latin American countries, using automated translation tools when necessary to obtain the required data for analysis.
This decision was made to avoid leaving Latin America as a hole in our data for this stage of the study – the benefit of this region’s inclusion was deemed to outweigh the methodological problems associated with the adaptions to our data collection protocols. We also used automated translation for both HEIs in Senegal and Mozambique and for one of the HEIs in Tunisia, because we had difficulty finding English-language websites for two HEIs in each these countries as well. For all other countries and HEIs, the English-language version of the university websites were accessed for data collection.

Stage 3: Survey of key institutional players

The third stage of the study sought to provide a more in-depth exploration of EMI programmes on a global scale by contacting key institutional players, such as directors of international offices and programme leaders. The findings from this stage complement those of Stage 2 by approaching the question of EMI provision from a different perspective: while Stage 2 examined the information available on HEI websites, Stage 3 examined survey responses from individuals working within EMI institutions.

The Stage 3 survey was developed based on instruments used in previous studies conducted in Europe (Wächter and Maiworm, 2014), with additions of some items from questionnaires used in surveys of EMI in Turkey (Kamasak, et al., 2021) and China (Rose et al., 2020). The questionnaire consisted of 28 items, including mostly close-ended questions with open-ended items allowing respondents to expand upon their responses. The questionnaire addressed themes related to the expansion and provision of EMI at the HEI, including:

- Level of study (undergraduate/postgraduate)
- English proficiency
- International students
- Gender
- Language support
- Motivations, objectives and challenges of EMI programmes

Prior to data collection, the questionnaire was shared with professional colleagues through the EMI Oxford network mailing list, and revisions were made to the questionnaire following their feedback. The questionnaire targeted key players who could provide information related to EMI programmes at an institutional level (e.g. across faculties instead of in a single faculty).

The questionnaire was designed to elicit one response per institution, and institutional contacts were asked to identify the most appropriate person at their HEI to respond to the questionnaire.

The online questionnaire was developed using Qualtrics and distributed in two ways: first, the email addresses of key players were collected from the HEI websites included in Stage 2 of the study. From each of the 104 HEIs included in Stage 2, two or three key individuals were identified and contacted by email with the questionnaire link. Second, the British Council staff who completed the Stage 1 questionnaire were asked to distribute the link along with an information sheet to contacts at EMI institutions in their country contexts. Specifically, the British Council staff were asked to contact the institutions that they identified as key EMI institutions in their questionnaire responses. In part, we sought the assistance of British Council staff due to low response rates from the questionnaire link sent via email: only 37 responses were collected from the 200+ individuals contacted via email. Comparatively, 410 responses were collected through the link distributed by British Council staff.

In total, 227 valid responses were analysed from HEIs in 42 countries (Appendix). The data was exported to SPSS and analysed using descriptive statistics for close-ended items. Open-ended responses were analysed using qualitative content analysis, which was carried out by two researchers.

Ethical considerations

This study received ethical approval from the University of Oxford’s Central University Research Ethics Committee. Participation in this study was voluntary, and the data was anonymised. Participants who completed the Stage 3 survey had the option not to report the name of their institution to ensure further anonymity.
Findings

Stage 1 findings: country responses

Main findings:

- Current trends indicate that EMI is increasing in higher education worldwide, especially in the private sector.
- In many contexts, admission requirements to EMI programmes tend to be university-specific, rather than follow a national-level standard for requirements such as English language proficiency.
- Teacher training and professional development opportunities for teaching staff on EMI programmes appear to be limited.
- Only about half of respondents reported substantial numbers of international students tended to come from neighbouring countries.

General EMI provision in higher education

We first sought to explore the extent to which EMI was used for academic subjects at state and private HEIs in each country context. English was reported as an official language of instruction in six of the 45 countries; for example, Kenya and Zimbabwe. It was listed as an official language of instruction alongside other languages in a further 15 countries, including Lebanon and Bangladesh. In 19 countries (e.g. Malaysia, Uganda), it was reported that EMI was permitted at all levels of education, but in 18 countries it was reported to be largely restricted to the tertiary level (e.g. Algeria, China). Notably, no informants indicated that EMI was not allowed in their country contexts, although the informant in Venezuela reported resistance to allowing EMI at the tertiary level.

Current trends seem to indicate that EMI in HE is growing in the ODA recipient countries included in this study, and that this growth is occurring more rapidly in the private sector than in the public sector, perhaps due to motivations to attract fee-paying students to private HEIs.

The majority of respondents reported that EMI provision was increasing in their country, and no respondents indicated that it was decreasing (Figure 3). In the Philippines, Rwanda and Zimbabwe, the informants reported no change in the level of EMI on offer because almost all HEIs already teach through English. In five countries, informants indicated that the increase in EMI provision is seen mostly at the tertiary level (as opposed to the secondary level), and the majority of respondents indicated that differences existed between the public and private sectors. These informants generally stated that EMI was more common in the private sector. Only in China was the growth of EMI reported to be more common at public HEIs, perhaps due to the support of government initiatives (see Rose et al., 2020).

Figure 3: What are the current trends for EMI in higher education?

Despite these trends toward growth of EMI in HE, official policies regulating EMI appeared to be uncommon. Only one-third of respondents indicated that there was a national language policy in place with respect to EMI in higher education, and the same number of respondents indicated that there were official statements as to why EMI is being or has been introduced (Figure 4). In some countries, policies concerning language and higher education aimed to promote multilingualism. For example, Kazakhstan has a trilingual education policy that promotes Russian and Kazakh alongside English, and policies in Malaysia reportedly aim to develop students’ proficiency in Malay and English. Internationalisation was a commonly reported reason for introducing EMI programmes. In four countries (Bangladesh, Uganda, Zimbabwe and Botswana), informants stated that English was an important language and a compulsory subject due to the British colonial legacy.
In some countries, policies have not yet been established but there are plans to develop them (e.g. Armenia, Sudan, Uzbekistan). However, most respondents (n=25) indicated that there had not been any large-scale policy changes in the past ten years (Figure 4). This suggests that the growth in EMI provision may be outpacing policy development and that it may be primarily driven by local actors in HEIs.

Figure 4: EMI policies in higher education (N=45)

Spotlight on: Policy trends in South Africa

English is one of 11 official languages in South Africa, and it is used as a language of instruction from primary to tertiary education. Since 2002, the Language Policy for Higher Education in South Africa has promoted multilingualism in institutional policies and practices and has aimed to bolster the role of African languages in higher education. In 2017, the policy was revised to include greater emphasis on the use of African languages for teaching, learning, and research at HEIs, because—as the policy introduction noted—little progress had been made in terms of developing the role of these languages in higher education.

The findings from Stage 3 of our study suggest that English is a dominant language of instruction in South Africa. Four of the 6 respondents to the Stage 3 questionnaire indicated that English was used to teach all programmes at their HEIs, and the other two respondents reported that at least 75% of programmes at their HEIs were taught through EMI. In addition to English, respondents stated that Sepedi and Xitsonga (University of Limpopo) and Afrikaans and Sepedi (University of Pretoria) were also used to teach academic subjects. The respondent from Rhodes University also noted that other languages were used to teach courses related to those languages, for example courses on isiXhosa.
EMI provision by academic discipline

Of the 45 respondents, 18 indicated that English was used (or could be used) to teach all academic subjects in HE. Specifically, English appeared most commonly used to teach STEM subjects (especially engineering), business-related subjects (e.g. business, management, economics), medicine and international relations. EMI seemed to be less common for the social sciences and humanities. Furthermore, respondents in 18 countries indicated that bilingual programmes, through which some lessons were taught in English and some in the majority language, was an EMI model offered by at least some universities in the country. A bilingual approach was reportedly used to teach courses in education (e.g. Azerbaijan, the Philippines), law (e.g. Malaysia, Myanmar) and business (e.g. Mozambique).

EMI university students

Of the 45 responses, informants in 29 countries indicated that there was an English language proficiency requirement of some kind for EMI programmes (Figure 5). Only nine informants stated that there was no proficiency requirement for EMI programmes in HE. Among the countries for which no language requirement was reported, five were countries in Sub-Saharan Africa and had an anglophone connection: Botswana, Sudan, Tanzania, Uganda and Zimbabwe (the other four respondents were from Afghanistan, Ethiopia, Iraq and Venezuela). In some countries with an anglophone connection – particularly those located in South Asia or Sub-Saharan Africa – informants described a ‘smooth transition’ from secondary to tertiary EMI programmes, because EMI was common in secondary schools. In contrast, in other countries, the transition to tertiary education was regulated by a national entrance exam (e.g. Afghanistan), determined by individual HEIs (e.g Egypt, Peru) or facilitated by a preparatory programme or pre-sessional courses (e.g. Azerbaijan, Turkey, Thailand).

In terms of admission to EMI programmes, informants most commonly reported that admission requirements were university-specific. For example, in the Ukraine and Mexico it was reported that there are no national requirements or standardised entry tests; instead, each HEI sets its own English proficiency standards. In many countries, informants stated that scores from national or international English language exams, such as IELTS and TOEFL, are commonly required to enter EMI programmes (e.g. Armenia, Uzbekistan). In some countries, students are admitted to EMI programmes on the basis of a national entrance exam which may or may not include an assessment of English language proficiency. In other countries, admission to EMI programmes was based on students’ secondary school grades or leaving exams. This type of requirement appeared most common in countries with an anglophone connection (e.g. Kenya, South Africa, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Sri Lanka). In Lebanon, private universities reportedly accepted international English exam scores (e.g. IELTS or TOEFL) but state universities relied on students’ secondary school grades to determine English proficiency.
Among the 45 respondents, about half (n=19) stated that there were differences between the state and private sectors in terms of student language requirements (Figure 5). Informants in 13 countries indicated that private universities tend to offer more English language support and set higher requirements for students (e.g. Afghanistan, Uzbekistan). Some respondents suggested that the student profile in private HEIs tended to include students with higher levels of English proficiency (e.g. Jordan, Tunisia). In contrast, informants in China, Myanmar and Rwanda indicated that English language proficiency requirements tended to be higher in public HEIs.

In terms of recruiting international students, only about half of the respondents (n=22) stated that there were substantial numbers of university students from abroad (Figure 5). Generally, international students tended to come from neighbouring countries or countries in regional proximity. This finding suggests that EMI programmes in about half of the ODA recipient countries in this study may not necessarily aim to attract international students but may instead cater to domestic students; or, if these EMI programmes do aim to attract international students, they may not successfully manage to do so, perhaps because they are competing against other countries.

**EMI university teachers and staff**

Finally, we sought to investigate, through our informants, the profile of EMI university teachers and staff in ODA recipient countries. In general, all or most university teachers are local staff who speak the dominant language of the students. In 19 countries (42.2 per cent), informants estimated that 90 per cent or more of university teaching staff were local/bilingual teachers, and in another 16 countries (35.6 per cent) informants indicated that local/bilingual staff comprised the majority of university teachers. In terms of differences between the public and private sector, eight respondents indicated that there were more international staff working at private universities, and five respondents stated that the proportion of international staff at public and private HEIs was about the same. The rest of the respondents did not indicate a difference or reported that data on this was not available in the country.

**Spotlight on: English language proficiency requirements in Malaysia**

According to the data collected from each stage of this study, the English proficiency of students entering HEIs in Malaysia is often assessed through the Malaysian University English Test (MUET) or an international exam such as TOEFL or IELTS. For example, at the University of Malaya, local students are required to achieve a minimum band from the MUET to enrol on EMI programmes, while international students are required to submit TOEFL or IELTS scores. The website for the University of Nottingham Malaysia states that IELTS or TOEFL scores are required for students applying to research degrees, although the minimum requirement varied by subject. For science and engineering postgraduate degrees, the minimum required score is IELTS 6.0+ or TOEFL 79+, whereas the minimum score for postgraduate degrees in the arts and social sciences is IELTS 6.5+ or TOEFL 87+.

On the Stage 3 questionnaire, eight of nine respondents from Malaysia reported that there was an English language proficiency requirement for entry to undergraduate programmes. These requirements were scores from the MUET or an international language test, and the reported minimum scores ranged from CEFR B1 to C1. For example, the respondent from Newcastle University Medicine Malaysia reported that an IELTS 7.0+ was required for entry to undergraduate programmes, while respondents from University Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia and Taylor’s University reported than an IELTS 5.0+ was required. The reported English proficiency requirements for admission to postgraduate programmes were similar: all eight of the respondents from Malaysia who indicated on the Stage 3 questionnaire that their HEIs offered EMI postgraduate programmes reported that students were required to submit scores from the MUET or an international language test, and these HEIs generally required a B1 or B2 level of proficiency corresponding to an IELTS 5.0–6.0.
English language proficiency requirements for teachers on EMI programmes did not appear to be common: only 11 respondents indicated that there were teacher proficiency requirements in their country (Figure 6). Most commonly, teachers’ English language proficiency was reportedly assessed through an examination of some kind, either an international (e.g. IELTS or TOEFL), national or in-house exam. Some of these respondents indicated that a minimum B2 level of proficiency was required to teach on EMI programmes, and other respondents stated that each HEI set its own English proficiency criteria. According to the informant in Kenya, English language proficiency is assumed for local staff but international staff may be required to submit IELTS or TOEFL scores.

HEIs in some countries (e.g. Azerbaijan, China) may recruit staff based on their experience working or studying abroad. In other words, a degree from an English-medium university abroad may serve as evidence of English language proficiency and the confidence to teach in English. In some countries (e.g. Sri Lanka, Uzbekistan), professional incentives such as financial compensation or promotions appeared to be provided to teachers who could demonstrate a certain level of English proficiency.

Furthermore, aside from language proficiency, there did not appear to be any specific educational or professional standards that EMI teachers had to reach in order to teach on EMI programmes (Figure 6). Across countries, the primary requirement for EMI teachers appeared to be academic content knowledge, generally demonstrated by having obtained a postgraduate degree in the subject area. In some countries (e.g. Botswana, Turkey), private universities were reported to set extra requirements compared to public universities. Only one informant indicated that there were specific standards for EMI teachers: according to the informant in China, EMI teachers are often required to have a certain amount of overseas study or work experience to meet job specifications.

Teacher professional development (TPD) also did not appear to be common: only 12 respondents knew of TPD provisions that were available to EMI teachers in their country context (Figure 6). Informants reported that TPD provisions included in-house training sessions, English language support courses and opportunities to go abroad.

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Figure 6: Teachers and staff on EMI programmes (N=45)
Spotlight on: EMI teachers in Uzbekistan

According to the Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialised Education of Uzbekistan (https://www.edu.uz/uz/pages/sss) the majority of university teachers are local teachers who teach in either Uzbek and/or Russian. The number of foreign university teachers and researchers is growing; these teachers tend to come from North America, Asia and Europe, and they tend to teach in English. To encourage EMI teaching, university teachers with a certified level of B2 English proficiency or higher receive a financial bonus in addition to their basic salary.

According to the Stage 3 questionnaire results, the most common forms of language support offered to teaching staff on EMI programmes at HEIs in Uzbekistan were opportunities to enrol on external courses (n=14) and access to online training materials (n=13). The respondent from Samarkand Branch of Tashkent State University of Economics indicated that EMI teachers are offered additional monthly salary, and the respondents from Inha University in Tashkent reported that the HEI offers English language courses for teaching staff.
Stage 2 findings: university websites

Main findings:

- EMI programme entry requirements varied by university from international language exams to secondary school-leaving exams.
- Minimum English language proficiency requirements (when explicitly stated) ranged from IELTS 4.5–7.0 and TOEFL iBT 56–60 across HEIs.
- Language support for students was mentioned more frequently on the HEI websites than professional development support for teachers.
- When support for teachers was provided, it was generally in the form of improving teachers’ general English proficiency, not improving the skills required to teach in English.
- Language requirements for teachers and administrative staff were not commonly reported on the HEI websites.
- Mentions of EMI implementation were intertwined with, and overshadowed by, promotion of internationalisation in the university websites.
- There were few explicit statistics available on numbers of EMI programmes available or numbers of students enrolled in them.
- The only subjects which are not experiencing an incursion of EMI are the those connected to language, literature, history and national law of a country.
- The region of Latin America seems to be more resistant to EMI, in favour of regional lingua franca.
- There were mixed trends of EMI increasing at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels.

Stage 2 of this study examined HEI websites in the 52 ODA recipient countries to investigate what information regarding EMI programmes was available and, to some extent, to corroborate the findings of Stage 1. The majority of HEIs had an English version of the website (n=77; 74.0 per cent; Table 2). Twenty-two of the HEIs (21.2 per cent) had limited English-language websites, meaning that these websites appeared to provide substantially less information in English compared to the local language; typically, their main pages were available in English, but subsections within the websites were only available in the local languages. As mentioned in the methodology, we had the most difficulty finding information in English on the HEI websites for five countries in Latin America (Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Mexico and Venezuela). The HEIs investigated in Mozambique and Senegal also did not have English websites, nor did one of the HEIs in Tunisia.

Table 2: Did the HEI have an English language version of its website?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>74.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limited</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Is EMI connected to the HEI’s internationalisation or strategic development plan?

About half of the HEI websites (n=53, 51.0 per cent) reported an internationalisation policy. Among these, 11 HEI websites (10.6 per cent of all HEIs) mentioned English or EMI development as a component of the HEI’s internationalisation plan. These 11 HEIs were located in nine countries, five of which are in Wider Europe (Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan and Serbia). Similarly, slightly less than half (n=45, 43.3 per cent) of the HEIs included a strategic development plan for future growth on their websites. Of these, only eight (7.1 per cent of all HEIs) included references to English or EMI in their strategic plans. Half of these eight HEIs were located in Wider Europe (Georgia, Kazakhstan and Serbia).
These are perhaps surprisingly low numbers considering how often it is assumed that English and internationalisation go hand-in-hand. Rather, the data suggests that aspects of internationalisation such as collaboration, research, university rankings and the number of international staff were prioritised in internationalisation or strategic development plans, according to the information available on the HEI websites. When English was mentioned within the context of internationalisation, it was often to develop the language skills of students or staff or increase EMI provision. For instance, the University of Yangon in Myanmar aims to enhance its EMI programmes and improve its academic staff’s English language skills to develop research and teaching. In its strategic plan, the International Black Sea University in Georgia suggests that EMI is an ‘integral part’ of internationalisation, and it aims to add new degree programmes in English. An aspect of the internationalisation plan at the University of Novi Sad in Serbia is to offer more programmes in foreign languages (our emphasis), although English is not specifically stated.

What is the language of instruction at the university?

About half (n=53, 51.0 per cent) of the HEIs stated the language of instruction on their websites (Table 3), while the other half (n=51, 49 per cent) did not explicitly state in which language courses were taught.

Table 3: What is the language of instruction at the university?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language of instruction for universities where explicitly stated</th>
<th>Number of HEIs (N=53)</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Only EMI programmes are offered</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>36.6 per cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most courses are taught in English but some courses are taught in the local language</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11.3 per cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple languages are used for teaching</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.7 per cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both English and a local language are used for teaching</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>32.1 per cent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most courses are taught in the local language but some EMI programmes are offered</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>11.3 per cent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Of the 53 HEIs with language policy statements on their websites, 21 HEI websites (39.6 per cent) indicated that English was the only language of instruction at the university. At six HEIs, English was the main language of instruction but some courses (typically related to language, history or culture) were taught in the local language. For example, at the **American University of Armenia in Armenia**, Armenian Language and Literature and Armenian History are taught in Armenian while other courses are taught in English. At the **American University of Afghanistan** in Afghanistan and **İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent University** in Turkey, all courses are taught in English except for some language and law courses which are taught in the local language.

According to the HEI websites, at 17 universities both English and a local language were reported as the official languages of instruction, and three HEIs listed more than two official languages of instruction. For example, education is provided in Armenia, Russian and English at **Yerevan State Medical University** in Armenia. Six HEI websites stated that the local language was the primary or official language of instruction but some courses were offered in English at either the undergraduate or postgraduate level. For example, the website for the **University of São Paulo** in Brazil notes that most classes are taught in Portuguese and, therefore, international students should have a good command of Portuguese to enrol at the university. Another approach was to offer EMI programmes which paralleled programmes taught in the L1. At both universities in Jordan (**University of Jordan** and **Jordan University of Science and Technology**), the HEI offered parallel programmes which were taught through English and open to international students.

Similar policies were found in Thailand (**Ramkhamhaeng University** and **Chulalongkorn University**), where HEIs offered regular programmes and ‘international’ programmes, with the former taught in the local language and the latter taught in English.

After reviewing the language policy statements on the HEI websites, we attempted to tabulate how many EMI programmes/courses were offered at the HEI. On the majority of HEI websites (n=88, 84.6 per cent), we could not find the number of EMI programmes/courses offered by the university, and only 16 of the HEI websites (15.4 per cent) explicitly stated how many EMI programmes/courses were offered. For 34 (32.7 per cent) of the HEI websites reviewed, all programmes appeared to be taught through English, although this was not necessarily stated on all HEI websites. Thus, the transparency with which HEIs reported the number of EMI programmes on offer varied. In general, HEIs in East Asia and Wider Europe were found to be more likely to list the number of EMI programmes on offer at the HEI on their website compared to other regions. One issue with this investigation into the number of EMI programmes or courses on offer concerned the definition of an ‘EMI programme’, as some HEIs offered degree courses taught entirely in English while others offered modules taught through English as part of a degree taught in the local language. For instance, **National University Kyiv-Mohyla Academy** in the Ukraine offers only one full EMI undergraduate degree course, but also runs a number of EMI courses/modules as part of a degree taught in the local language. For instance, **National University Kyiv-Mohyla Academy** in the Ukraine offers only one full EMI undergraduate degree course, but also runs a number of EMI courses/modules as part of a degree taught in the local language. For instance, **University of Delhi** and **Indian Institute of Science** use English, Hindi, and Kannada to some extent as mediums of instruction. The University of Delhi also appears to offer courses in Hindi, and students can earn a certificate in Hindi (or another language) along with their degree program.

However, on the Stage 3 questionnaire, all respondents from India (n=7) indicated that English was the only language of instruction at their HEIs for all programmes at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels. The respondent from Indian Institute of Technology (BHU) Varanasi reported that EMI was used because adequate course materials were not available in Hindi and teachers were more confident teaching in English. Although not used as languages of instruction, the respondent from Kalinga Institute of Industrial Technology noted that the HEI offered language courses in 15 local, Indian languages and 7 foreign languages.

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**Spotlight on: EMI trends in India**

In 2020, the National Education Policy in India took a clear stand in favour of promoting multilingualism in higher education through the use of local, Indian languages as mediums of instruction. According to the Stage 2 analysis of HEI websites, both the University of Delhi and the Indian Institute of Science use English, Hindi, and Kannada to some extent as mediums of instruction. The University of Delhi also appears to offer courses in Hindi, and students can earn a certificate in Hindi (or another language) along with their degree program.

However, on the Stage 3 questionnaire, all respondents from India (n=7) indicated that English was the only language of instruction at their HEIs for all programmes at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels. The respondent from Indian Institute of Technology (BHU) Varanasi reported that EMI was used because adequate course materials were not available in Hindi and teachers were more confident teaching in English. Although not used as languages of instruction, the respondent from Kalinga Institute of Industrial Technology noted that the HEI offered language courses in 15 local, Indian languages and 7 foreign languages.
Global mapping of English as a medium of instruction in higher education

Some HEIs offered more EMI programmes at the postgraduate level, like Chulalongkorn University in Thailand, which appeared to offer 17 Bachelor’s programmes in English compared to 48 Master’s and 34 PhD programmes. Other HEIs, however, appeared to have more of an emphasis on EMI at the undergraduate level. For example, in 2016, Al-Farabi Kazakh National University in Kazakhstan offered 55 Bachelor’s programmes in English compared to 34 Master’s and 36 PhD programmes.

What are the admission criteria to EMI programmes?

The vast majority of HEIs (n=96; 92.3 per cent) reported admission criteria on their websites, and slightly more than half of the HEI websites (n=57; 54.8 per cent) listed an English language proficiency requirement for entry to EMI programmes. An additional eight HEIs (7.7 per cent) listed an English proficiency requirement for some EMI programmes. Overall, HEIs in Wider Europe were more likely, and HEIs in Latin America less likely, to report a language requirement for admission on their website compared to HEIs in other regions, and private HEIs were more likely than public HEIs to list English proficiency requirements for entry on their websites.

The majority of HEIs that had an English language proficiency requirement for entry to EMI programmes (n=38, 66.7 per cent of HEIs with a requirement) required students to pass an exam or achieve a minimum score on an internationally recognised English language test.

Most commonly, these HEIs listed minimum IELTS or TOEFL scores on their websites, although minimum requirements varied greatly: we found that minimum English language proficiency requirements ranged from IELTS 4.5–7.0 and TOEFL iBT 56–100 across HEIs.

For example, Bandung Institute of Technology in Indonesia appeared to require exam scores of TOEFL iBT 56+ and IELTS 5+ from postgraduate applicants, while the Lebanese American University in Lebanon required applicants to submit scores of TOEFL iBT 80+ and IELTS 6.5+. In addition to these internationally recognised exams, some of the HEIs (n=11) also accepted national or in-house exam scores. For example, Azerbaijan University in Azerbaijan and Lebanese American University in Lebanon both administered in-house university English proficiency exams in addition to accepting international test scores. Three universities (in Ukraine, Thailand and Tunisia) required students to pass an English component on an entrance examination.

Some HEIs (n=17) required students to submit secondary school-leaving exam scores or certificates in English for admission to EMI programmes. These 17 HEIs are all located in countries in Sub-Saharan Africa and are all former British colonies (Botswana, Ghana, Kenya, Mauritius, Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe). These HEIs accepted secondary school exams similar to GCSE O level scores, drawing similarities to entrance requirements in UK universities. One HEI in the Ukraine (National University Kyiv-Mohyla Academy) reportedly assessed proficiency via an interview, and eight HEIs listed vague requirements on their websites; for example, that students must have ‘good command of English’ or provide ‘proof of proficiency.’

Spotlight on: EMI trends in the Philippines

According to the information provided on their websites, the University of the Philippines appeared to offer more than 100 EMI programmes, and Ateneo De Manila University appeared to offer all programmes taught in English except for one programme taught in Filipino.

On the Stage 3 questionnaire, 16 of the 19 respondents from the Philippines indicated that both English and Filipino were used as languages of instruction at their HEIs. Fourteen of the respondents reported that their HEI had been teaching in English for more than 40 years, and only one respondent indicated that their HEI had been teaching in English for less than ten years. EMI programmes also appear to be commonly offered at all levels of HE: 16 respondents reported that their HEI offered programmes taught in English at the diploma or certificate level; 19 at the undergraduate level; 17 at the Master’s level; and 15 at the doctoral level. Nine of the 19 respondents indicated that all undergraduate programmes at their university were taught in English, and another nine respondents reported that at least 75 per cent of undergraduate programmes were taught in English. At the postgraduate level (N=17), 12 respondents reported that all programmes were taught in English, and five respondents reported that at least 75 per cent of postgraduate programmes were offered in English.
Nearly half (n=48, 46.2 per cent) of the HEI websites reported different language proficiency requirements for admission to postgraduate EMI programmes, compared to undergraduate EMI programmes, and another four HEIs (3.8 per cent) reported different language requirements for admission to some postgraduate EMI programmes. Of the HEIs that listed proficiency exam scores on their websites, the requirements for postgraduate EMI programmes generally exceeded those of undergraduate EMI programmes (n=17). For example, at International Black Sea University in Georgia, the English language proficiency required for Bachelor degrees is B1, for Master’s programmes is B2 and for PhD programmes is C1.

At Al-Farabi Kazakh National University in Kazakhstan and Gadjah Mada University in Indonesia, postgraduates were required to submit language scores for admission, although language scores were not listed as an admissions requirement for undergraduate programmes, perhaps due to other means of assessing language proficiency such as through a preparatory programme or an in-house exam required for entry. Ramkhamhaeng University in Thailand requires a minimum TOEFL score of 65 for undergraduate programmes and 75 for postgraduate programmes. At four HEIs, the language requirements for postgraduate EMI programmes appeared to vary by academic subject or department, rather than by level of study. For example, at Sun Yat-sen University in China, different English exam scores were required for admission to postgraduate programmes at the School of Foreign Language (TOEFL 100+, IELTS 7.0+) and School of Geography (TOEFL 90+, IELTS 6.0+).

**Spotlight on: English language proficiency requirements in Thailand**

According to its website, Chulalongkorn University generally requires undergraduate students applying to EMI programmes to submit a minimum of TOEFL 76, although some programmes at the HEI require higher scores for entry.

On the Stage 3 questionnaire, ten of the 12 respondents from Thailand indicated that there was an English language proficiency requirement for undergraduate students to enter EMI programmes at their HEIs. These requirements typically included scores from international tests such as TOEFL or IELTS at approximately a B1 (n=7) or B2 (n=1) level. For example, the respondent from Burapha University reported that the HEI required a minimum of TOEFL PBT 400 or IELTS 4.0, and the respondent from the University of the Thai Chamber of Commerce reported that a minimum TOEFL PBT 500 or IELTS 6.0 was required. The respondent from one university (Chiang Mai University) reported that their HEI accepted high school English scores as a measure of students’ proficiency.

In terms of postgraduate admission requirements, eight respondents indicated on the Stage 3 questionnaire that there was an English language requirement for entry, and these requirements were generally similar to the requirements reported for undergraduate programmes (B1, n=3; B2, n=4). However, a greater range of required scores was found for postgraduate programmes: for example, Mahidol University reported required a minimum TOEFL iBT 32 or IELTS 3.0 for postgraduate admissions, compared to a minimum TOEFL iBT 64 or IELTS 5.0 at the undergraduate level; while Thammasat University required a minimum TOEFL 79 or IELTS 6.5 for postgraduate programmes, compared to a minimum TOEFL 69 or IELTS 4.0 for undergraduate programmes. Half of the respondents to the Stage 3 questionnaire reported that the English proficiency of the majority of students who study on EMI programmes at their HEI was upper intermediate (CEFR B2, n=6), and three reported that it was lower intermediate (CEFR B1, n=3).
Does the university have a resource page on their website for international students?

Two-thirds of the HEI websites (n=68, 65.4 per cent) had an international students’ page with information for international students who might be interested in attending the HEI. At many HEIs (n=33), the admission criteria for international students were the same or similar to the admission criteria for local students. Of the 68 HEI websites that provided information for international students, 36 of them reported that English language exam scores were an admission criterion for international students. For example, the American University of Iraq – Baghdad (AUIB) requires both local and international students to submit scores of TOEFL iBT 70+ or IELTS 6.0+, and Boğaziçi University in Turkey requires both local and international students to pass an in-house English Proficiency Exam or submit a score of TOEFL iBT 79+.

However, at some HEIs the criteria for international students differed from that of local students. International students applying to Al Akhawayn University in Morocco are required to submit scores of TOEFL 550+ or IELTS 6.0+, although local students can take a proficiency test after submitting their application. Both universities in South Africa (University of Cape Town and University of the Witwatersrand) appeared to accept secondary school-leaving exams from local students but required international students to submit exam scores of IELTS 6.5+ and IELTS 7.0+, respectively. The two HEIs in Brazil and an HEI in Colombia stated on their websites that international students should have proficiency in Portuguese and Spanish, respectively.

What language support is provided for students?

On about two-thirds of the HEI websites (n=68, 65.4 per cent), we found examples of English language support offered to students. The types of language support found on the HEI websites is illustrated in Figure 7.

![Figure 7: Types of language support offered (N=68)](image)
Preparatory programmes or intensive English language courses were offered at 16 HEIs. **Boğaziçi University** in Turkey offered a one- or two-semester intensive English language programme to all incoming students whose English exam scores did not meet the requirement for first-year courses. A one-year intensive English course was also offered at **Africa University** in Zimbabwe.

Academic language courses were offered at 15 HEIs. In Botswana, the **University of Botswana** offered EAP and ESP courses to first-year students, and **Botho University** offered academic writing courses. **Jordan University of Science and Technology** in Jordan also offered academic writing courses.

The most common form of language support found on the HEI websites were General English or skills-based courses, which were offered at 22 HEIs, although at many of these universities it was unclear as to whether the courses were intended for local or international students. In Ethiopia, where EMI is pervasive throughout the education system, **Jimma University** nonetheless offered English classes to students in all departments across the University, and **Addis Ababa University** offered language courses focusing on English communicative skills. Similarly, **COMSATS University Islamabad** in Pakistan and **University of Nottingham Malaysia** in Malaysia offered in-sessional English courses which appeared to follow a general English curriculum.

Three HEIs offered optional paid courses that students could enrol in, and **Ho Chi Minh City University of Technology (HCMUT)** in Vietnam offered exam-based language courses for students preparing to take the TOEFL and TOEIC exams. Additionally, at 11 HEIs language support services appeared only to be available through a language centre. Often, these services related to academic writing support. For example, **Ain Shams University** in Egypt offered a proofreading service for academic activities, and the **American University of Iraq – Baghdad** in Iraq offered support through an academic writing centre.

In addition to these 11 HEIs, information about a language support centre was found on about half of the HEI websites (n=56, 53.8 per cent). For the HEIs whose websites indicated that there was a language centre, the scope and function of the language centre varied. For example, at the universities in Turkey (**Boğaziçi University** and **İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent University**), the language centres were connected to the department offering the English preparatory programme. At **Al-Farabi Kazakh National University** in Kazakhstan, the language centre website indicated that it provided language support for English, Russian and Kazakh. Rather than a language centre, some HEIs offered language support services through an academic resources centre, such as at **NYU Shanghai** in China and the **University of Botswana** in Botswana. In general, HEIs in the Middle East and North African region were more likely than HEIs in other regions to report providing English language support for students and to report having a language support centre on their websites. Private HEIs were also more likely than public HEIs to describe language support for students on their websites.
What local language support is provided for international students?

In addition to English language support, we looked at whether the HEIs reported offering local language support specifically for international students. Slightly less than half of the HEI websites (n=43, 41.3 per cent) indicated that some form of local language support was provided for international students. Examples of local language support targeted at international students included courses offered by the HEI (n=20), language centres (n=16) and intensive programmes (n=3). At three HEIs, international students could enrol in optional paid courses to study the local languages. At Ateneo De Manila University in the Philippines, the local language appeared actively supported through university policy requiring all international students to take three courses in Filipino. Cheikh Anta Diop University in Senegal had a centre for the promotion of local African languages and a centre for international students to study French.

What language requirements and support are there for teaching staff?

Our website analysis revealed limited information in terms of the English language requirements for EMI teachers. Information regarding hiring or recruitment criteria for staff was found on slightly less than half of the HEI websites (n=48; 46.2 per cent). However, only 16 HEI websites (15.4 per cent) provided information related to the English language proficiency requirements for teaching staff on EMI programmes. Descriptions of these proficiency requirements were often vague and included descriptions such as ‘excellent command of English’.

In other cases, HEIs appeared to prefer teaching staff members who have completed their degrees from English-medium HEIs abroad. For example, the American University of Iraq – Baghdad (AUIB) in Iraq recruits teaching staff members with degrees from ‘English-language and accredited institution[s]’ and prefers candidates with experience teaching in international settings. The International Institute for Higher Education in Morocco states on its website: ‘One of the most important assets of IIHEM is its faculty, which is composed of Moroccan professors with PhD or Master’s degrees from prestigious American, Canadian, British and other English-language universities.’ On two HEI websites, we found evidence that the university prefers to hire bilingual teaching staff with knowledge of both English and the local language (Al Akhawayn University in Morocco and Universidad del Pacifico in Peru). The only example of a university requesting specific exam scores for teaching staff on its website was Hanoi University of Science and Technology in Vietnam, which requires teaching staff in the field of technical education to submit an IELTS 5.5+ and in the field of Economics and Management an IELTS 6.0+.

Spotlight on: English language support in Malaysia

According to its website, in-sessional English courses are offered at the University of Nottingham Malaysia, and the university’s Centre for English Language and Foundation Education offers language support to students.

On the Stage 3 questionnaire, respondents from Malaysia reported that preparatory English language courses (n=9), in-session language classes (n=9) and self-access study resources (n=9) were provided for students on EMI programmes at their HEIs. Two respondents reported that their HEIs had a language centre (Universiti Teknikal Malaysia Melaka and Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia), and the respondent from Wawasan Open University noted that optional English courses were offered for students aiming to improve their proficiency. The respondent from Cyberlynx International College reported that a free online English course as well as a mentor–mentee programme was available to students.
Information on English language support for teaching staff was found on only 16 HEI websites (15.4 per cent). The language support provided for teaching staff generally appeared to be optional English language courses (for example, at Nazarbayev University in Kazakhstan and Botho University in Botswana) or in-service English training for academic staff, as it was in the case of University of Yangon in Myanmar. This type of language support appeared to be aimed at improving teachers’ general English proficiency – not necessarily improving the skills required to teach in English. However, at the University of Khartoum in Sudan, some of the English courses offered to staff focused on teaching in English.

Additionally, about one-third (n=37, 35.6 per cent) of the HEI websites provided information related to teacher professional development (TPD), although only one HEI website indicated that it offered TPD specific to EMI lecturers: the University of Colombo in Sri Lanka offered EMI courses for faculty.

In general, the professional development opportunities available to lecturers and teaching staff were often not specific to EMI. The support was either focused on English language support courses – for instance, at Al Akhawayn University in Morocco – or courses dedicated to teaching with a pedagogical focus – as in the case of the Universidad Austral in Argentina. In other examples, Boğaziçi University in Turkey offered TPD opportunities through its Erasmus+ Staff Training Mobility schemes, and İhsan Doğramacı Bilkent University in Turkey offered face-to-face seminars and workshops for faculty through the Bilkent Teaching and Learning Support Center (BTLSC).

Some HEI websites indicated that a TPD unit existed within the HEI but did not provide detailed information on the types of training offered (e.g. American University of Armenia in Armenia; Nazarbayev University in Kazakhstan; Ferhat Abbas Sétif University 1 in Algeria), or specific information regarding professional development was only available on internal websites accessible with institutional login (e.g. Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University in Georgia).

What are the language requirements for administrative staff working on EMI programmes?

Administrative staff have an important role in communicating with students in university departments and are key stakeholders in the implementation of EMI programmes. However, we found limited information with respect to English language requirements for administrative staff: only 15 HEI websites (14.4 per cent) reported information related to administrative language staff requirements. These included universities in Afghanistan, Azerbaijan, China, Colombia, Egypt, Egypt, Georgia, Indonesia, Iraq, Lebanon, Lebanon, Malaysia, Rwanda, Senegal and Vietnam. As with the English language requirements for teaching staff, the English language requirements for administrative staff were generally described in vague terms, such as ‘excellent’, ‘strong’, or ‘proficient’. For example, the Lebanese American University in Lebanon required administrative staff to have ‘strong communication skills in English and Arabic.’ In some cases, administrative staff were expected to be ‘fluent’ or ‘proficient’ in both English and the local language(s). For instance, Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University in Georgia listed ‘fluent speaking, reading and writing knowledge of Georgian, English, Russian’ as a desirable criteria in a job advertisement.
Stage 3 findings: survey of key institutional players

Main findings:

- The survey was completed by respondents at 227 HEIs from 42 countries
- The majority of international students on EMI programmes come only from regional or neighbouring countries, and international students tend to comprise only a small proportion of the students enrolled to EMI programmes
- The most common disciplines for EMI are business, computer sciences and the social sciences
- English was most commonly used to teach at the undergraduate, followed by master’s degree, level
- Full degree programmes taught entirely through English were more common than partial degree programmes, through which some courses were taught in English and some in the local language, or optional elective courses offered in English
- English proficiency requirements for undergraduate EMI programmes tended to be at the B1 or B2 level, while a B2 level of proficiency tended to be the minimum requirement for postgraduate programmes
- A variety of language support options were offered to students on EMI programmes, the most common of which were in-session language classes and self-access study resources
- Opportunities to enrol on external courses and access to online training materials were the most common forms of support offered to EMI teachers
- Female students are slightly under-represented on EMI programmes, compared to the overall proportion of female student enrolment
- The main motivations for students to enrol in EMI programmes were job opportunities and study-abroad opportunities
- The main objectives for HEIs to offer EMI programmes were to improve students’ career prospects and enhance the university’s reputation
**Investigating the sample**

The Stage 3 questionnaire required one respondent per university to complete the survey, and we requested that this person be someone who could comment on EMI programmes offered across faculties or departments within the university. The survey was completed by respondents at 227 HEIs from 42 countries. In eight countries, responses were received from ten or more HEIs, and responses were received from two to nine HEIs in another 19 countries. From the remaining 15 countries, a completed questionnaire was received from one HEI. A detailed country list of respondents is reported in the Appendix.

In terms of geographic region (Table 4), the questionnaire sample included about 50 HEIs each in East Asia, Wider Europe and Latin America. There were 29 HEIs in South Asia and 29 in Sub-Saharan Africa, and an additional nine HEIs in the Middle East and North African region.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>East Asia</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>25.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wider Europe</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>24.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Asia</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East and North Africa</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding the history of English in that country (Table 5), the majority of the HEIs were located in countries in the Expanding Circle, which refers to contexts that do not have a strong historical or colonial connection to Anglophone countries. The minority of HEIs (32.6 per cent) were from Outer Circle countries, which refer to mostly former British colonies, or places such as The Philippines which had a strong American presence.

**Table 5: Stage 3 responses according to historical role of English (N=227)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expanding circle</td>
<td>153</td>
<td>67.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outer circle</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>32.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of university status, 130 HEIs were state-owned (57.3 per cent) and 94 HEIs were private (41.4 per cent). The other three HEIs were partially public/private owned.

Many of the HEIs (n=93, 40.97 per cent) were bilingual, meaning that both English and a local language were used for teaching, while 68 HEIs (29.96 per cent) had a trilingual policy through which English and two local languages (or another language) were used for instruction. 58 HEIs (25.55 per cent) only taught in English, and three HEIs (1.32 per cent) stated they only taught in the local language, while also reporting the teaching of only partial courses or certain modules in English.

Responses to the questionnaire were most commonly received from directors of a department (n=68) and lecturers or teaching staff (n=65) (Table 6). A considerable number of international office staff (n=39) also completed the survey, along with a small proportion of policy-makers (n=19), administrators (n=17) and Vice-Chancellors (n=10).
Table 6: Respondents to the Stage 3 questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positions</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Director or Manager of faculty/department</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturer or teaching staff</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>28.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Office staff</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy-maker</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>8.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrator</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vice Chancellor/ Vice-Recto Office</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (e.g. Admission or Development Office Staff)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overview of English-medium instruction at respondent universities
To gather information on the historical presence of EMI at the universities, respondents were asked how long their universities had been offering English-taught courses (Table 7). Most HEIs (n=82) only started to offer EMI programmes within the last ten years, while 62 HEIs had been offering EMI courses for ten to 20 years. Thirty-two HEIs had 21–30 years of history of offering EMI courses and three EMIs had 31–40 years of history. Lastly, 42 HEIs had been offering EMI programmes for over 40 years. In terms of regional differences, HEIs in East Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa were more likely to have been offering EMI programmes for more than 40 years, and HEIs in Latin America were more likely to have been offering them for less than ten years.

Table 7: How long has EMI been offered at respondent universities?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of time</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Valid Per cent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than ten years</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td>37.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10–20 years</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>65.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21–30 years</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>79.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31–40 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>81.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 40 years</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of academic subjects taught in English (Table 8), the largest number of HEIs taught business courses (n=170), followed by computer sciences (n=155), social sciences (n=152), humanities (n=142), engineering (n=141) and natural sciences (n=125). Fewer EMI programmes were offered in medical sciences (n=96) and creative or fine arts (n=68); however, these disciplines are more specialised, so it is possible that they were not offered in many HEIs, even in the local language.
Table 8: Academic subjects taught through English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject/ Disciplines</th>
<th>Frequency (n)</th>
<th>Per cent of HEI’s (N=227)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>74.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Sciences</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>68.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences (e.g. politics, psychology, international relations)</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>67.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities (e.g. history, classics, philosophy)</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>62.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>62.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Sciences (e.g. biology, physics, chemistry)</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>55.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>51.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical Sciences (e.g. medicine, nursing, pharmacy)</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>42.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creative or fine arts (e.g. music, performing arts, photography)</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (e.g. interdisciplinary courses, research methods)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9: Type of EMI programmes offered at respondent HEIs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full degree</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial degree</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elective</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (e.g. summer programmes)</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We also asked respondents to indicate the levels of education for which English was used as a language of instruction (Table 10). Respondents from 208 HEIs (91.63 per cent) reported that English was used to teach at the undergraduate level, 182 HEIs used EMI for Master’s degrees (80.18 per cent), while 93 HEIs (40.97 per cent) and 129 HEIs (56.83 per cent) adopted EMI for diplomas and doctoral degrees, respectively.

Table 10: Level of education for which English is used as a language of instruction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Per cent of HEI’s (N=227)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Diplomas and certificates</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>40.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate degrees (e.g. BA, BS, BEng)</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>91.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s degrees (e.g. MA, MS, MBA)</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>80.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctoral degrees (e.g. PhD or equivalent)</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>56.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (e.g. summer programmes, short courses)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of the types of programmes offered in English (Table 9), 138 HEIs offered full degrees in EMI, while over 80 of the HEIs offered partial degrees or elective courses taught in English. These results suggest that full EMI degrees were more prevalent in these HEIs than partial (or bilingual) degrees and optional courses in English.
Table 11 shows the proportion of undergraduate programmes taught through English. Many of the HEIs (n=70) offered all undergraduate programmes in EMI, while a similar number of HEIs (n=62) had less than 25 per cent of programmes taught through English. The smallest number of HEIs (n=9) had about half of their bachelor programmes taught through English. This polarised trend showcased the different developmental stages of EMI in different countries.

Table 11: Proportion of undergraduate programmes taught through English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>None</th>
<th>Less than 25 per cent</th>
<th>25–50 per cent</th>
<th>50–75 per cent</th>
<th>More than 75 per cent</th>
<th>All programmes</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid Percent</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cumulative Percent</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td>47.8</td>
<td>52.2</td>
<td>66.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As for the postgraduate level, more HEIs appeared to offer a higher proportion of postgraduate degrees in English compared to undergraduate degrees: 73 HEIs (40.1 per cent) conducted all postgraduate programmes in English, which was slightly more than the number of HEIs which conducted all undergraduate programmes in English, and 47 HEIs conducted less than 25 per cent of their postgraduate programmes in English, a slightly lower number compared to the number of HEIs that offered this proportion of undergraduate programmes in English (Table 12). A small number of HEIs (n=7) did not have any EMI programmes at the postgraduate level.

Table 12: Proportion of postgraduate programmes taught through English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>None</th>
<th>Less than 25 per cent</th>
<th>25–50 per cent</th>
<th>50–75 per cent</th>
<th>More than 75 per cent</th>
<th>All programmes</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid Percent</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>25.8</td>
<td>13.7</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>40.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cumulative Percent</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>43.4</td>
<td>59.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of regional differences in the availability of EMI programmes, HEIs in Sub-Saharan Africa were more likely to offer all programmes taught through English; HEIs in South Asia to offer more than 50 per cent of programmes through English; and HEIs in Latin America to offer less than 25 per cent of programmes through English compared to HEIs in other regions. These results were found at both the undergraduate and postgraduate levels. Such regional differences reflect the widespread use of EMI in primary and secondary schools in many countries throughout Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia, and they suggest that EMI programmes may be relatively less common in Latin America compared to other parts of the world.

In terms of differences according to university type, private HEIs appeared more likely to offer a greater proportion (at least 50 per cent) of postgraduate programmes taught through English compared to state universities, although the same differences were not found at the undergraduate level.
**Student demographics**

Of the 227 universities, 169 (75 per cent) indicated that they had international students enrolled on EMI programmes, while 57 (25 per cent) indicated that they had no international students studying through English. 24 respondents provided additional qualitative information on why the number of international students had changed in their institutions. These reasons include:

- The introduction of new EMI programmes (often at the postgraduate level) (e.g. Brazil)
- A change in population in neighbouring countries (e.g. Philippines)
- Political factors, such as instability of economy of neighbouring countries (e.g. Lebanon)

On average, respondents reported that 16.2 per cent of students enrolled to EMI programmes at their HEIs were international students. Of the 169 HEIs that reported having international students on EMI courses, respondents from 42 HEIs (24.9 per cent) indicated that international students compromised one per cent or less of the overall number of students on those courses, and about half of the respondents (n=85, 50.3 per cent) reported that international students accounted for two per cent or less of the total students enrolled to EMI programmes at their HEIs. In comparison, respondents from 14 HEIs (8.3 per cent) reported that international students made up 50 per cent or more of the student population enrolled to EMI programmes.

These findings suggest that international students tend to comprise only a small proportion of the students enrolled to EMI programmes at HEIs in ODA recipient countries.

Most of the respondents indicated that the majority of international students on programmes taught through English at their HEIs came only from regional or neighbouring countries (n=83), while some respondents reported that international students came from non-regional countries (n=29), or from both regional and non-regional countries (n=29). Similarly, the majority of respondents reported that most international students on EMI programmes at their HEIs came from ODA recipient countries (n=80), followed by students coming from both ODA recipient and non-ODA recipient countries (n=40) and primarily from non-ODA recipient countries (n=21).

Respondents from East Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa were more likely than respondents from other regions to report that their HEIs had international students enrolled on EMI programmes, while respondents from South Asia were relatively less likely to report that international students were enrolled on EMI programmes.

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**Spotlight on: international students in Thailand**

All 12 respondents from Thailand indicated on the Stage 3 questionnaire that their HEI had international students enrolled on EMI programmes. On average, the respondents reported that 13.91 per cent of students on EMI programmes were international students (SD = 17.69), although responses ranged from about one per cent to 60 per cent of students. These international students appeared to come primarily from neighbouring countries in the region (e.g. other ASEAN countries) and China. Seven of the Stage 3 respondents from Thailand reported that the number of international students at their HEI was increasing, with these respondents reporting that the number of international students was increasing “constantly” (Mahidol University) and “drastically” (Srinakharinwirot University).
To explore the effects, if any, that EMI has on female enrolment in HE, we asked respondents to report the proportion of female students studying at their university and the proportion of female students enrolled on EMI programmes. Our aim was to examine female student enrolment in programmes taught through English compared to programmes taught in the local language. In conducting this analysis, we excluded HEIs at which all programmes were taught in English. The findings suggested that women may be slightly under-represented on EMI programmes. At the 97 HEIs that offered both undergraduate and postgraduate courses in English and the local language, respondents reported on average that 52.0 per cent of students enrolled at the HEI were female. The proportion of female students enrolled to EMI programmes was slightly less, with an average of 48.4 per cent.

The proportion of female enrolment in EMI programmes also appeared to be lower at public HEIs compared to private HEIs. Respondents from private HEIs reported similar proportions of female enrolment overall (53.9 per cent) and in EMI programmes (52.0 per cent). However, at public HEIs respondents reported on average that 51.2 per cent of the overall student population was female compared to 46.9 per cent female enrolment on EMI programmes.

When we explored female student enrolment at these 97 HEIs by region, we found that the proportion of female students on EMI programmes was lower than overall proportion of female students at the HEI in every region except the Middle East and North Africa – although the sample size of HEIs for this region was very small (n=4). The largest discrepancy in female enrolment was found in South Asia, where respondents reported that females accounted for 52.5 per cent of the overall student population but that only 39.2 per cent of students on EMI programmes were female. However, the sample size of HEIs for this region was also small (n=6). In contrast, when HEIs at which all programmes were taught in English were included in the analysis, the proportion of female enrolment in EMI programmes in South Asia increased and even exceeded the proportion of overall female enrolment, with an average of 51.8 per cent on EMI programmes compared to an overall proportion of 41.4 per cent female enrolment at HEIs in South Asia (n=28). Overall, these finding suggests that the type of HEI may affect female enrolment in EMI programmes, although further research is needed to evaluate these potential trends.

English language requirements and support reported by universities

Of the 207 universities offering undergraduate degree programmes, nearly half (n=107, 51.7 per cent) had an English language requirement for undergraduate students. At an additional 25 universities (12.1 per cent), the requirement only applied to a specific group of students (e.g. international students), while 72 universities (34.8 per cent) reported having no English language requirement at all. The most commonly required international English language tests were: IELTS (n=54), TOEFL (n=33), TOEIC (n=5), and various Cambridge tests (n=10), such as Certificate of Advanced English (CAE) and First Certificate in English (FCE). Other ways of meeting the English language proficiency requirement were by providing high school English scores (n=29), showing a certain CEFR level (n=25) or taking an internal university test (n=19). Some universities provided specific test scores for admissions. Averages of these test scores for undergraduate programmes are reported in Table 13.
Table 13: Test scores required for entry to undergraduate EMI programmes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Mean score reported</th>
<th>Minimum score reported</th>
<th>Maximum score reported</th>
<th>CEFR equivalent of mean score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TOEIC</td>
<td>625</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>B1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOEFL iBT</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>B1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOEFL PBT</td>
<td>454</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>A2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IELTS</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>B2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to compare different types of test scores needed for EMI admission, we mapped the various international standard scores to the CEFR using the conversion scales found on the official tests’ websites (IELTS, TOEFL ITP, TOEFL iBT, TOEIC, Cambridge Exams). When a CEFR level included a wide range of test scores (e.g. IELTS 5.0–7.0), the lowest score was used as a reference point, and if a university accepted multiple English language tests with different CEFR level conversions (e.g. B1 on TOEFL but B2 on IELTS), we used the lowest CEFR level as the requirement for that university. We found that the most common minimum levels of English language proficiency were B1 (n=28) and B2 (n=28), although some universities required A1 (n=1), A2 (n=1) or C1 (n=1) levels of proficiency.

Among the universities that offered EMI programmes at the postgraduate level (including Master’s degrees, n=182; doctoral degrees, n=129), 104 HEIs reported an English language requirement to enter EMI programmes, with an additional 14 HEIs for which the requirement applied to a specific group(s) of students. 53 HEIs reported that there was no English language requirement for postgraduate students. Interestingly, if a university had a doctoral degree offered in English, it always had Master’s degrees taught in English as well.

Similar to the results for undergraduate programmes, the most commonly accepted standardised English language tests were IELTS (n=62), TOEFL (n=45), TOEIC (n=14) and Cambridge tests (n=13). Another common way to meet the English language requirement was to pass an internal university test (n=13) or provide proof of a certain CEFR level (n=25). The average test scores required for admission to postgraduate programmes are reported in Table 14.
Table 14: Test scores required for entry to postgraduate EMI programmes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Mean score reported</th>
<th>Minimum score reported</th>
<th>Maximum score reported</th>
<th>CEFR equivalent of mean score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TOEIC</td>
<td>448</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>750</td>
<td>A2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOEFL iBT</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>B1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOEFL PBT</td>
<td>515</td>
<td>450</td>
<td>600</td>
<td>B1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IELTS</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>B2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The general minimum English score (as mapped against the CEFR scale) required for entry to postgraduate degrees tended to be higher than for undergraduate degrees. The majority of courses required a minimum level of B2 (n=45), followed by B1 (n=15), A2 (n=5) and C1 (n=2). However, in terms of average language test scores, the differences between requirements for undergraduate and postgraduate programmes appeared relatively minor, with the same average TOEFL iBT score reported at both levels and a higher average TOEIC score reported for undergraduate programmes, although data with respect to TOEIC scores came from a relatively small sub-sample of participants.

As admission requirements only tell us about the minimum threshold for entry to a university programme, we also asked the respondents to report the English language proficiency of the majority of EMI students at their HEIs. Respondents most commonly reported that their students represent a B2 upper intermediate level of English language proficiency (n=75), with B1 lower intermediate (n=41) and C1 advanced (n=40) coming second and third, followed by A1/A2 basic level (n=26) and C2 advanced (n=9). Respondents from Sub-Saharan Africa were more likely to report that their students’ English proficiency was very advanced (CEFR C2) compared to respondents from other regions.

HEIs in the Wider Europe region were more likely to have an English language proficiency requirement for students to enter EMI undergraduate programmes, compared to HEIs in other regions. Proficiency requirements was less common for undergraduate programmes at HEIs in Latin America and for postgraduate programmes in South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa when compared to other regions.
The most common forms of language support reported for students on programmes taught through English were:

- In-session language classes (n=163, 71.8 per cent)
- Self-access study resources (e.g. language lab or supplementary language learning resources) (n=150, 66.1 per cent)
- Preparatory English courses before starting university studies (n=109, 48.0 per cent)
- A writing centre (n=58, 25.6 per cent)

Some respondents noted that the language support courses offered at their HEIs were academic English (e.g. EAP) courses (e.g. India, Thailand, China), and other respondents reported that language centres – rather than writing centres – were available (e.g. Turkey, Brazil, South Africa). Other forms of language support reported by respondents included:

- External language tutoring (e.g. China)
- Access to university libraries (e.g. for language learning materials and resources) (e.g. Uzbekistan, Argentina, South Africa)
- Teaching assistants (e.g. Zimbabwe, Bangladesh)
- Speaking club (e.g. Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan, Brazil, Venezuela)

These results demonstrate the variety of support that HEIs provide to students at HEIs across the ODA recipient countries. In terms of the availability of language support across regions, preparatory programmes and concurrent language support classes appeared to be relatively more common at HEIs in the Wider Europe region, while self-access support appeared to be more relatively common at HEIs in East Asia. These forms of language support were found to be relatively less common at HEIs in Latin America compared to other regions.
In terms of TPD, the most common forms of support for teaching staff lecturing through English were:

- Opportunities to enrol on external courses (n=143, 63.0 per cent)
- Online training materials (n=117, 51.5 per cent)
- In-house training (n=112, 49.3 per cent)
- Mentoring on English-taught programmes (n=104, 45.8 per cent)
- Teacher certification in recognition of the skills needed to teach through English (n=84, 37.0 per cent)

Some participants noted that the support provided to teachers consisted of General English courses, or similar courses designed to improve language proficiency, rather than training specific to EMI teaching (e.g. Uzbekistan, Peru, Thailand, Malaysia). In line with this focus on English language skills, other respondents reported that the in-house training courses offered at their HEIs were often provided by their own English language centres (e.g. Kazakhstan, Brazil, Philippines). These findings suggest that TPD opportunities for teaching staff on EMI programmes in ODA recipient countries may be primarily focused on improving English language skills rather than developing competencies to teach academic subjects in English. Additional funding for faculty members to improve EMI teaching skills was provided by some HEIs (e.g. Uzbekistan, Thailand, Nigeria). In some Outer Circle countries such as the Philippines, Ghana and India, respondents stated that there was no need to offer support for EMI teachers because their English language proficiency was generally high.

**Spotlight on: language support in the Philippines**

The Stage 3 questionnaire results indicated that the most common forms of language support offered to students at HEIs in the Philippines are language classes throughout the programme (n=15) and self-access study support (n=15). The respondent from Adamson University reported that general English courses are required for all students across subject majors and that the HEI offers a Centre for Language Learning, which provides extra support for students with low English proficiency. The respondent from University of Santo Tomas noted that the HEI has a language centre which offers certificate courses in English. However, the respondent reported that students who enrol in the centre tend to be international students who come to the Philippines for short-term English courses but that full-time undergraduate programmes rarely enrol in the English courses offered at the language centre.

According to the information on its websites, Ateneo De Manila University offers a variety of English support courses for students, including an intensive English language programme. Additionally, all international students are reportedly required to take three courses in Filipino, the National Language.

**Spotlight on: EMI teacher qualifications in Peru**

Six of the seven Stage 3 questionnaire respondents from Peru indicated that their HEI offered opportunities for EMI teaching staff to enrol on external courses. Other forms of support for EMI teachers include in-house training (n=3), online training materials (n=3) and mentoring opportunities (n=2). Universidad del Pacifico and Universidad San Ignacio de Loyola reportedly offer teacher certification in recognition of the skills needed to teach through English. In addition, at Universidad del Pacifico, a 40-hour in-house training course for EMI teaching staff was developed in 2019. The university has also organised training courses in partnership with other universities abroad for its teaching staff.
EMI drivers and difficulties

To understand the driving forces behind EMI, respondents were asked to indicate the main reasons that students choose to study in programmes taught through English at their HEIs on a four-point scale from ‘strongly disagree’ (1) to ‘strongly agree’ (4) (Table 15). According to the responses, the most important reason for students to enrol in EMI programmes at these HEIs were instrumental reasons, such as job opportunities ($M=3.34$) and study-abroad opportunities ($M=3.25$). Academic reasons, such as improving their English ($M=3.01$) and experience studying in English ($M=2.89$), were ranked as less important.

In terms of regional differences, job opportunities were ranked as the top motivation for students on EMI programmes in every region except Latin America, where study abroad opportunities were ranked higher. Compared to other regions, respondents from HEIs in Sub-Saharan Africa were more likely to disagree that students were motivated by study abroad opportunities.

In addition to these factors, some respondents stated that the belief that using English leads to higher-quality teaching and learning is a motivating factor for students (e.g. Venezuela, Thailand, Brazil, Azerbaijan). In some countries, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa (e.g. Uganda, Ethiopia), respondents noted that universities only offered courses taught through English, meaning that students did not necessarily have a choice in selecting English-medium programmes.

Table 15: Reason for students to enrol in EMI programmes at the respondent HEIs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job opportunities</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>0.852</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study abroad opportunities</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>0.829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interest in the academic subject or content</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status of the university</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>0.871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To learn or improve their English</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>0.878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To learn or improve their English</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>0.835</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Spotlight on: Drivers for EMI in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region

Responses to the Stage 3 questionnaire were collected from 5 countries in the MENA region: Iraq, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, and Tunisia. These responses suggest that job opportunities in the global market are a main driving force behind EMI in the region. Job opportunities ($M = 3.57$) were reported as the main reason why students choose to study in programmes taught through English. Comparatively, a desire to learn or improve their English was reported as a lesser motivation ($M = 3$). In terms of institutional motivations, preparing local students for the global job market ($M = 3.57$) was a top response, second only to improving the profile of the ($M = 3.63$).

EMI in the MENA region also seems to be connected to transnational or international models of education, specifically from Anglophone contexts. The respondent from the American University of Iraq-Baghdad noted that students were interested in the American-style curriculum offered at the university, and the respondent from the Arab Open University in Lebanon reported that students were attracted to opportunities for dual degree programmes with institutions in the UK. The respondent from Al AKhawayn University in Ifrane, Morocco, noted that the university has adopted a “North American Liberal Arts model of higher education” since its founding, and English is an important part of achieving the vision of that model.
Respondents were also asked to indicate the main objectives for their HEIs to offer programmes taught through English on a four-point scale from ‘not important at all’ (1) to ‘very important’ (4) (Table 16). The top reasons for HEIs to offer EMI programmes could be summarised as two strands. The first one is helping students to improve their career prospects, such as by preparing local students for the global job market (M=3.62), providing quality education for students (M=3.46) and improving the intercultural competences of local students (M=3.44). The second strand is enhancing the university’s reputation, such as building partnerships with universities abroad (M=3.59) and improving the profile of the university (M=3.49). Comparatively, the respondents ranked objectives such as attracting foreign students and increasing university revenue as less important for their HEIs. These findings, in part, may be due to the low proportion of international students enrolled on EMI programmes at many of the HEIs in this study, or they may reflect a perception in ODA recipient countries that it is difficult to attract international or fee-paying students to the university.

In terms of regional differences, respondents from South Asia (M=2.59), the Middle East and North Africa (M=2.25), and Sub-Saharan Africa (M=2.86) were less likely to agree that attracting foreign students was a main institutional objective of EMI programmes, compared to respondents from Wider Europe (M=3.20), East Asia (M=3.30) and Latin America (M=3.27). Respondents from Latin American were also more likely than respondents from other regions to report that improving the intercultural competences of local students was an institutional aim of EMI programmes.
Table 16: Importance of objectives for respondent HEIs to offer programmes taught through English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To prepare local students for the global job market</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>0.556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To build partnerships with universities abroad, e.g. through joint degree or exchange programmes</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>0.614</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To improve the profile of the university in your country context</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>0.654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To provide quality education for students from developing countries</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>0.681</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To improve the intercultural competences of local students</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>0.672</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To attract top students to the university</td>
<td>225</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>0.726</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To create a multicultural environment with international students</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To attract international teaching staff</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>0.748</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To attract foreign students who do not know the local/national language</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>0.889</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To attract foreign students for the future work force of your country</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>0.865</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To increase university revenue from international student fees</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>0.968</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To enrol foreign students in subject areas for which there is a lack of domestic student enrolment</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>0.928</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Finally, respondents were asked to describe difficulties that their HEIs faced in offering programmes taught through English. Responses to this question were reported along a four-point scale ranging from 'it is not a problem at all' (1) to 'it is a big problem' (4) (Table 17). The highest ranked difficulties referred to the mixed academic ability (M=2.57) and language proficiency (M=2.36) of students as well as the low English proficiency of administrative staff (M=2.5) and teaching staff (M=2.4). These results suggest that challenges to implementing EMI programmes stemmed from different stakeholders in the HEIs (e.g. students and staff), rather than from factors such as a lack of resources or low student numbers. Comparatively, support from the university, student enrolment and the English proficiency of foreign students were not deemed as problematic.

In terms of regional comparisons, differences in academic ability of students on the same course was ranked as the top difficulty in all regions except Latin America, where the low English proficiency of teaching and administrative staff were ranked higher. Compared to other regions, respondents from Latin America were more likely to report challenges related to teaching and administrative proficiency, while respondents from Sub-Saharan Africa were less likely than respondents from other regions to report challenges related to the English proficiency of teaching and administrative staff.

Respondents from Wider Europe were more likely to report that a lack of enrolment of international students was a challenge for EMI programmes at their HEIs compared to respondents from other regions, while respondents from Latin America were more likely to reported that a lack of domestic student enrolment on EMI programmes was a challenge.

**Spotlight on: drivers behind EMI in Peru**

Internationalisation appears to be a main motivator for EMI in Peru. According to the Stage 3 questionnaire responses, the main reason why students choose to study on programmes taught through English in Peru is study abroad opportunities (M=3.57, SD=0.535). The respondent from the Universidad del Pacifico reported that the university offered dual degree programmes taught in English. These programmes are conducted in coordination with a university abroad, and the respondent reported that students choose these EMI programmes because of the dual degree option. Similarly, the respondent from National University of San Marcos stated that students who choose EMI courses are often motivated by exchange opportunities.

The respondents from Peru also reported that the most important objectives for their HEIs to offer EMI programmes were to prepare local students for the global job market (M=3.86, SD=0.378), improve the intercultural competences of local students (M=3.71, SD=0.488) and build partnerships with universities abroad (M=3.57, SD=0.535). The respondent from the National University of San Marcos noted that offering courses in English was a component of the university’s internationalisation strategy, and the respondent from Universidad del Pacifico stated that offering EMI courses aided the university in complying with international accreditation standards.
Table 17: Difficulties in offering programmes taught through English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Difficulty</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Differences in academic ability of students on the same course</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>0.822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low English proficiency of administrative staff</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low English proficiency of teaching staff</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>0.992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed language proficiency of students on the same course</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>0.888</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low proficiency in the local/national language of international students</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>0.854</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of enrolment of international students</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>2.22</td>
<td>0.929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of support from the university for teaching staff</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>0.957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low English proficiency of foreign students</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>0.822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of enrolment of domestic students</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>0.914</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Case studies

To illuminate the themes of this report, we provide detailed case studies of EMI provision in three countries: Ghana, Brazil and Afghanistan. We have selected these three countries because they represent the diversity of historical and socio-cultural contexts, as well as development of EMI provision, found in the sample of ODA recipient countries included in this report. An Outer Circle country in which English is an official language, Ghana has a long history of EMI at all levels of education. In contrast, Brazil is an Expanding Circle country with a relatively nascent history of EMI in its large HE sector. Afghanistan has a complex history and is a country undergoing political change, including reforms to its higher education sector. The diversity of EMI provision in these three countries illustrates the complexity and heterogeneity with which EMI is introduced, implemented and expanded across ODA recipient countries globally.

Case study 1: Ghana

Ghana is an Outer Circle country and a former British colony, and English is used as a language of instruction from upper primary through tertiary education. The widespread use of EMI in Ghana was evident in the Stage 2 and Stage 3 findings of this study: Three of the five respondents from Ghana indicated on the Stage 3 questionnaire that their HEI has been teaching in English for more than 40 years, and all five respondents reported that all programmes offered at their HEIs were taught at least partially through English. Information available on their HEI websites indicated that English was used as the language of instruction at the University of Ghana and the University of Cape Coast. In terms of languages other than English as a medium of instruction, the University of Cape Coast’s website noted that Ghanaian language was used to teach programmes in the Ghanaiian Languages and Linguistic Department. This finding was confirmed in the Stage 3 questionnaire by the respondent from the University of Cape Coast, who also indicated that French is used as a language of teaching for some programmes at the university.

English language proficiency requirements

According to the information available on their websites, students applying to undergraduate programmes taught in English at the University of Ghana and the University of Cape Coast are required to provide evidence of English language based on their high school finishing exams: both HEIs require students to receive a credit pass in English from the West African Senior School Certificate Examination (WASSCE) or the Senior Secondary School Certificate Examination (SSSCE), both of which are national tests administered in Ghana. These results regarding high school-leaving exams as requirements for entry were confirmed by the Stage 3 questionnaire: all five respondents from HEIs in Ghana indicated that high school English scores were used a requirement for entry to undergraduate programmes. Four of the respondents also indicated that these high school exams were used to demonstrate English language ability for postgraduate programmes as well. The respondent from Kumasi Technical University noted that additional requirements were in place for international students “coming from non-English-speaking countries” at both the undergraduate and postgraduate levels. The respondents from the University of Mines and Technology and Ho Technical University reported that the average English proficiency level of their students was very advanced (CEFR C2).

Language support for students

In terms of language support for students at HEIs in Ghana, two respondents to the Stage 3 questionnaire reported that English language classes were offered throughout the students’ programme of study; one reported that the HEI offered self-access study support, and one reported that the HEI had a writing centre. The respondent from the University of Cape Coast reported that all students are offered a communicative skills course in English as part of their introductory courses, and the respondent from University of Mines and Technology reported that students take courses in English communicative skills and literature.
Gender
Respondents from Ghana reported on the Stage 3 questionnaire that female students comprised approximately 36.8 per cent of students enrolled at their universities, on average. Because all programmes from the respondents’ HEIs were taught at least partially in English, the same proportion of female students were enrolled to EMI programmes.

EMI teacher qualifications
In terms of language support for teachers at HEIs in Ghana, the respondent to the Stage 3 questionnaire from the University of Mines and Technology reported that in-house training was offered for teachers, and the respondent from Ho Technical University reported that online training materials were available to teachers. Both respondents also indicated that teachers were offered opportunities to enrol on external courses and that their HEIs offered teacher certification in recognition of the skills needed to teach through English. The other three respondents from Ghana reported on the Stage 3 questionnaire that language support was not available for teachers at their HEIs. The respondent from the University of Cape Coast explained that, because English is the official language of instruction in Ghana from upper primary school through university, university teachers are well equipped in the English language before they are hired by the university.

Internationalisation
Four of the five respondents from Ghana indicated on the Stage 3 questionnaire that international students were enrolled in EMI programmes at their HEIs. These international students reported came from nearby countries in Africa such as Togo, Benin, Burkina Faso and Nigeria.

Internationalisation appeared to be fairly important for HEIs in Ghana: according to the results of the Stage 3 questionnaire, the top two objectives for HEIs in Ghana to offer programmes taught through English are to prepare local students for the global job market (M=3.8, SD=0.447) and to build partnerships with universities abroad (M=3.4, SD=0.548). However, respondents from the University of Cape Coast and Cape Coast Technical University noted that their HEIs taught in English because English is the national language of Ghana. These findings suggest that, while HEIs in Ghana may have objectives related to internationalising the university, internationalisation is not necessarily a driver behind EMI programmes. Similarly, students in Ghana were not necessarily motivated by internationalisation when selecting university programmes.

Instead, the Stage 3 questionnaire responses indicated that interest in the academic subject (M=2.8, SD=1.095), status of the university (M=2.8, SD=1.095) and job opportunities (M 2.8, SD=1.304) were the main reasons that students choose to study in programmes at the respondents’ HEIs.

Case study 2: Brazil
In Brazil, the official language of instruction is Brazilian Portuguese. EMI is allowed at all levels of education (primary, secondary and tertiary) at both public and private institutions. Nineteen of the 26 responses to the Stage 3 questionnaire came from state-owned HEIs. EMI also appears to be a relatively new phenomenon at HEIs in Brazil: 23 of the 26 respondents to the Stage 3 questionnaire reported that their HEI had been offering courses taught through English for less than ten years. In addition to Portuguese and English, seven respondents from Brazil indicated that Spanish was also used as a language of instruction at their HEI.

EMI in Brazil appears to be more commonly offered for elective or optional courses than for full degree programmes. The responses from the Stage 3 questionnaire indicated that 21 out of 26 HEIs offered elective or optional content courses in English. Comparatively, full degree programmes were offered at three HEIs and partial degree programmes at eight HEIs. EMI also appeared to be more commonly used for Master’s degree programmes (n=25) compared to undergraduate (n=19) or doctoral (n=19) degrees.

These findings were supported by the Stage 2 website analysis, from which it appeared that neither HEI offered full degree courses taught through English but both seemed to offer postgraduate classes/modules in English. According to its website, all undergraduate courses at the University of Campinas are taught through Portuguese only. Similarly, the University of São Paulo states on its website that most classes are taught in Portuguese, and therefore international students “must have a good command of Portuguese (at least B1 level according to the CEFR) in order to attend classes.” Both HEIs (University of São Paulo and University of Campinas) offer Portuguese courses for international students. The University of São Paulo website also indicates that prospective students interested in studying through English should contact “the Local International Offices operating at the faculty level,” suggesting that EMI provision is determined by individual faculties or departments rather than by the central university.
According to information available on its website, over 100 postgraduate classes/modules are taught through English across a variety of disciplines including physics, medicine, mathematics and economics.

Responses from the Stage 3 questionnaire also suggested that EMI is used for a variety of academic subjects in Brazil, including the Social Sciences (n=17), Humanities (n=16), Engineering (n=15), Business (n=14), Computer Sciences (n=13), Medical Sciences (n=13) and Natural Sciences (n=12).

**English language proficiency requirements**

According to the information available on their websites, language proficiency is not a requirement for entry at the University of São Paulo or the University of Campinas. At both HEIs, undergraduate students are admitted on the basis of a university entrance exam, which is conducted in Portuguese. However, English proficiency requirements appear to be in place for admission to some postgraduate programmes at both HEIs. According to its website, the language centre at the University of Campinas offers a variety of English courses as well as an in-house English proficiency tests for students.

Similar findings were found from the Stage 3 questionnaire. Among the 19 respondents from Brazil who indicated that their HEIs offered EMI at the undergraduate level, 14 reported that there was no English language proficiency requirement for entry. The other respondents indicated that in-house language tests were used to measure students’ proficiency. The respondent from Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Paraná stated that, while there is no English proficiency requirement for entry, the university’s Language Center can evaluate students’ English proficiency. In contrast, among the 25 respondents who reported that EMI was offered at the postgraduate level at their HEIs, 17 stated that there was an English language proficiency requirement for entry at the postgraduate level. The reported minimum proficiency thresholds ranged from A2 to B2. For example, the respondent from São Paulo State University reported that the minimum required scores were TOEFL iBT 30 or IELTS 3.0, while the respondent from Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais reported that a TOEFL iBT 60 or IELTS 6.0 were required. The respondent from the Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais reported that there are foreign language requirements with respect to reading for all postgraduate programmes: Master’s students must demonstrate reading proficiency in English, and doctoral students must demonstrate reading proficiency in two foreign languages, one of which is commonly English. Overall, respondents tended to report that the English proficiency of students at their HEI was upper intermediate (CEFR B2, n=5), lower intermediate (CEFR B1, n=7) or basic (CEFR A1/A2, n=5).

**Language support for students**

According to responses from the Stage 3 questionnaire, the most common form of language support offered to students on EMI programmes at HEIs in Brazil was language classes throughout the programme, which were reportedly available at 15 HEIs. Self-access study support (n=9), a preparatory programme (n=7) and a writing centre (n=5) appeared to be less common at HEIs in Brazil. The Universidade Estadual de Ponta Grossa runs a programme in partnership with the state government agency to offer a variety of English courses including General English, EAP and ESP courses to students, staff and other members of the academic community. At the Universidade Federal de Ciências da Saúde de Porto Alegre, free English language courses are offered to students, faculty and staff, and many EMI courses are taught collaboratively by content and language experts to facilitate communication.

**Gender**

Respondents to the Stage 3 questionnaire from Brazil reported that 54.2 per cent of students studying at their university were female. The proportion of female students studying through English was slightly lower, with an average of 45.5 per cent across the 26 respondents.

**EMI teacher qualifications**

The 26 respondents to the Stage 3 questionnaire from Brazil reported that the two biggest difficulties in offering EMI courses at their HEIs were low English proficiency of teaching staff (M=2.85, SD=0.675) and low English proficiency of administrative staff (M=2.92, SD=0.628).

The Stage 3 questionnaire results also suggested that the most common forms of support for teaching staff on EMI programmes were opportunities to enrol on external courses (n=15) and attend in-house training sessions (n=12). Six respondents reported that their HEI offered some form of EMI teacher training course for academic staff. For example, at Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Paraná and Universidade Estadual de Ponta Grossa, in-house EMI training workshops to teaching faculty were available, while teachers from the Universidade Federal do Paraná were offered the opportunity to attend an EMI training course from a university abroad.
Internationalisation

19 of the 26 respondents from Brazil reported on the Stage 3 questionnaire that international students were enrolled on the courses taught through English at their HEIs. However, on average, the proportion of international students enrolled to EMI courses was low (5.35 per cent), and only one respondent reported that international students comprised more than ten per cent of students enrolled to EMI courses at their HEI (Pontifical Catholic University of Minas Gerais). International students appear to be a diverse group in Brazil: eight respondents reported that international students typically come from other countries in Latin America, and eight respondents reported that international students typically come from European countries.

Based on the Stage 3 questionnaire responses from Brazil, internationalisation appears to be a main motivator for HEIs offering courses taught through English. Respondents indicated that the top three most important objectives for their HEIs in terms of offering EMI courses were to create a multicultural environment with international students (M=3.73, SD=0.533), to improve the intercultural competences of local students (M=3.73, SD=0.452) and to build partnerships with universities abroad (M=3.73, SD=0.452). One respondent also noted that their HEI aimed to internationalise its curricula (Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Paraná); another reported that their HEI wanted to promote “internationalisation at home” through its EMI courses (ESPM); and another respondent stated that HEI aimed to expand EMI teaching as part of its internationalisation strategy (Paraná State University).

In terms of student motivations, opportunity to study abroad (M=3.25, SD=0.794) was reported as the third main motivation for students to enrol on EMI programmes at HEIs in Brazil, behind interest in the academic subject or content (M=3.5, SD=0.722) and the opportunity to experience studying in English (M=3.29, SD=0.751). The respondent from Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Paraná noted that their HEI considers EMI courses part of an “internationalisation at home” effort, and many students enjoy “meeting exchange students without leaving Brazil. It’s a more democratic approach for those who cannot afford to live abroad for a six, or 12-month period.” Two respondents also noted that students enrolled on EMI courses in order to challenge themselves by studying in another language (Universidade Federal do Paraná and Universidade Federal do ABC).

Case study 3: Afghanistan

In Afghanistan, Pashto and Dari are the two main national languages. EMI appears to be a relatively new phenomenon in Afghanistan: 11 of the 14 HEIs that responded to the Stage 3 survey indicated that their HEIs had been offering programmes taught in English for less than ten years, while respondents from the three private HEIs (American University of Afghanistan, Rana University and Maryam University) reported that their HEIs had been offering EMI programmes for more than ten years. EMI may also be more common in the private sector, since 12 of the 14 responses to the Stage 3 questionnaire came from private HEIs.

EMI also appeared to be more common at the undergraduate level: undergraduate EMI programmes were offered at ten of the HEIs, compared to only two HEIs that offered Master’s degree programmes; none of the HEIs reported offering PhD programmes in English. In terms of the types of EMI programmes offered, four of the respondents reported that their HEI offered full degree programmes in English, five offered partial degree programmes in English and four offered elective or option content courses in English. Computer sciences (n=8) and business (n=7) were the most commonly reported subjects taught in English in Afghanistan.

Only one respondent reported that their HEI (the American University of Afghanistan) offered all of its programmes in English. This was confirmed by an analysis of the HEI website, which states that courses are generally taught in English, expect for language arts courses and certain practice-oriented courses for law majors. This university offers four undergraduate programmes and one postgraduate programme taught in English. The admission process is described in three languages on its website: English, Dari and Pashto.
**English language proficiency requirements**

To enter university in Afghanistan, students must pass a national entrance exam known as Kankor. The exam assesses students’ knowledge of the natural and social sciences, but it does not include a section assessing students’ English language skills. There is no national English language proficiency requirement to enter EMI programmes in Afghanistan. Instead, universities typically set their own standards, and language proficiency is generally assessed through in-house exams or international language tests such as TOEFL and IELTS.

Some HEIs in Afghanistan appear not to have an English language requirement for entry to EMI programmes: responses to the Stage 3 questionnaire indicated that four HEIs had a language proficiency requirement while six did not. At two of the four HEIs with a requirement (the American University of Afghanistan (see below) and Rana University), undergraduate students must submit scores of IELTS 6.0+ to enter EMI programmes. A respondent from Kateb University reported that undergraduate students must pass an in-house English exam administered by the university, and a respondent from Afghanistan National Agricultural Sciences and Technology University stated that applicants to Master’s degrees programmes must pass a written English exam administered by the university.

The American University of Afghanistan accepts TOEFL PBT 510+, TOEFL iBT 61+, and IELTS 6.0+ exam scores for entrance to EMI programmes. This information was found on the HEI’s website and confirmed by the Stage 3 questionnaire. The university also accepts Duolingo online test scores of 90+. Undergraduate students can submit their exam scores after their application, and students can take the TOEFL PBT on campus, although on-campus testing was temporarily suspended due to COVID-19 restrictions. Student who completed secondary school at an international school where the language of instruction was English do not need to submit exam scores. Students applying for an MBA must submit slightly higher TOEFL test scores (PBT 530+, iBT 71+) than students applying to undergraduate programmes, although the MBA programme also accepts an IELTS 6.0+.

Despite these requirements, the findings from the Stage 3 questionnaire suggest that the overall English proficiency of EMI students in Afghanistan is relatively low: five respondents indicated that their students’ proficiency was Lower Intermediate (CEFR B1) and three respondents said it was Basic (CEFR A1/A2). However, respondents from two HEIs (American University of Afghanistan and Rana University) reported that their students’ level of English proficiency was Advanced (CEFR C1).

**Language support for students**

According to the Stage 3 questionnaire responses, the most common forms of language support offered to students at HEIs in Afghanistan were language classes throughout the programme (n=10) and self-access study options (n=7). At the American University of Afghanistan, students are required to complete three compulsory academic writing courses. The respondent to the Stage 3 survey noted that these courses were designed “in response to recent institutional research, which found that students’ writing proficiency did not increase by much over the four years they spent at AUAF.” In addition to these compulsory writing courses, at the American University of Afghanistan, English language courses are available through the English Language Center at the Professional Development Institute (PDI). The English Language Center offers 14 different types of English language courses. The university also has a Writing Center, which helps to develop students’ academic writing skills through one-on-one tutoring sessions.

**Gender**

On average, respondents from Afghanistan indicated that about 30.1 per cent of students enrolled at their HEIs were female. In terms of student enrolment on EMI programmes, the numbers reported by respondents were slightly less than the overall proportion of female students: according to the respondents, on average, about 22.6 per cent of students enrolled on EMI programmes were female, with a range of 1–63 per cent.

**EMI teacher qualifications**

According to the Stage 3 questionnaire, the greatest difficulty that HEIs encounter on EMI programmes is low English proficiency of teaching staff (M=2.45, SD=0.82). Job advertisements on the American University of Afghanistan’s website indicated that both academic and administrative staff should have excellent oral and written English skills (e.g., ‘English language proficiency in writing, reading, and speaking’; ‘excellent English language communication skills’; ‘Fluency in written and spoken English is essential’; ‘ability to translate between English and local languages’). The job advertisements also stated that applications would only be considered in English.
According to the Stage 3 questionnaire responses, the most common forms of EMI teacher training or support offered at HEIs in Afghanistan were mentoring opportunities (n=6) and opportunities to enrol on external courses (n=5). Language courses appeared to be offered at some universities: short English courses were offered for teaching staff at two HEIs (Sphinghar Institute of Higher Education and Saba Institute of Higher Education) while at Kateb University, teaching staff can enrol in a six-month English language course. The English course appears to be open to all teachers, regardless of whether they teach through English. The respondent from the American University of Afghanistan indicated that the HEI has recently begun offering EMI-specific training for lecturers. The respondent notes: “The main goal of this training is to raise lecturers’ awareness that some of our undergraduate students would benefit from some additional language development support.”

Internationalisation

The findings from the Stage 3 questionnaire suggest that few international students are enrolled in EMI programmes in Afghanistan. Only one of 14 respondents from Afghanistan stated that they had international students enrolled on EMI programmes at their HEI. This respondent indicated that internationals students at this HEI were primarily from Pakistan. An international students’ page was not found on either of the HEI websites investigated for this study. On the Stage 3 questionnaire, the lowest ranked institutional motivations for introducing EMI programmes in Afghanistan were to increase university revenue from international student fees (M=2.45, SD=1.128) and attract foreign students who do not know the local/national language (M=2.45, SD=0.934). This appears to suggest that EMI programmes in Afghanistan are not introduced to attract international students.

Rather, EMI in higher education may be growing due to a demand for English language skills in the job market: according to the Stage 3 questionnaire, the highest ranked institutional motivation for introducing EMI programmes is to prepare local students for the global job market (M=3.64, SD=0.505). Respondents also ranked improving the profile of the university in their country context (M=3.64, SD=0.505) as an institutional motivation for introducing EMI.

In terms of student motivations for enrolling on EMI programmes, the results from the Stage 3 questionnaire suggest that students in Afghanistan enrol on EMI programmes to learn or improve their English (M=3.27, SD=0.647) and benefit from study abroad opportunities (M=3.27, SD=0.467).
Summary of findings

Overall, this study found evidence that EMI is increasing in higher education throughout ODA recipient countries worldwide. The global job market appears to be a driving factor behind this trend, since improving students’ career prospects is a main motivation for both students enrolling to EMI programmes and HEIs offering courses taught in English.

EMI appears to be growing in all subject areas except those connected to the language, literature, history and national law of a country. The academic subjects most commonly taught through English appear to be business, computer sciences and the social sciences. We also found that full degree programmes taught entirely through English are more common than partial degree programmes, within which some courses are taught in English and some in the local language. However, in some countries (e.g. Brazil), optional elective courses offered in English are more common than full degree programmes. Thus, national differences arise in terms of the ways in which EMI is being integrated into HEI curricula.

We also found mixed trends regarding EMI provision at the undergraduate and postgraduate levels. Our analysis of HEI websites in Stage 2 suggests that some HEIs offer more EMI programmes at the undergraduate than postgraduate level, while other HEIs offer EMI programmes primarily at the postgraduate level. The findings of the Stage 3 questionnaire suggest that EMI is most commonly used for undergraduate programmes, followed closely by Master’s degree programmes. Together, these findings suggest that trends in terms of EMI teaching for undergraduate and postgraduate degrees may be university or context specific.

Overall, our findings have revealed the diversity of EMI across the various HEIs in our sample. This diversity means that it is problematic to draw general conclusions on the myriad of topics covered in the report from such a heterogeneous global context. In this conclusion, we draw out four major themes which emerge from the findings of this study under the explicit understanding that these conclusions do not apply to all HEIs or to all ODA recipient contexts.

Admission requirements to EMI programmes

In general, admission requirements to EMI programmes tend to be university specific, rather than follow a national-level standard in terms of English language proficiency requirements (see Spotlight on Uzbekistan for an example of a possible exception to this trend). Across countries, there appears to be a lack of standardisation with respect to the minimal threshold of English language proficiency required for entry to EMI programmes. Both Stage 2 and Stage 3 of this study found that about half of HEIs had no language proficiency requirement for entry to at least some EMI programmes. When an English proficiency requirement was in place, international language exam scores were the most common means of assessment, although requirements for entry varied from internal university exams to secondary school-leaving exams. In Sub-Saharan Africa, secondary school-leaving exams appeared to be the most common means of assessing English proficiency for entry to EMI programmes for local students, presumably due to the prevalence of EMI at the secondary school level.

In Stage 2 of this study, we found that when minimum English language proficiency requirements were explicitly stated on HEI websites, they ranged from IELTS 4.5–7.0 and TOEFL iBT 56–100 across HEIs. We found a similarly broad range of requirements in Stage 3. Responses to the questionnaire indicated that the minimum requirements for entry to undergraduate programmes tended to be at the B1 or B2 level but ranged from IELTS 3.0–7.0 and TOEFL iBT 30–100. For postgraduate degrees, we found that a B2 level of proficiency tended to be the minimum requirement, with reported requirements ranging from IELTS 3.0–7.0 and TOEFL iBT 30–90. Together, these findings underscore the lack of a standardised requirement with respect to language proficiency but suggest that admission requirements tend to cluster around a B1/B2 level of proficiency. Given that previous EMI research has noted that students of this proficiency level can experience considerable challenges learning through English (see Aizawa et al., 2020), it seems pertinent that language support systems are put in place for some EMI students after admissions. Our results indicate that, while some universities offered a range of support for students, many others did not.
Teacher professional development (TPD)

Teacher training and professional development opportunities with respect to the competencies needed to teach through L2 English were found to be limited. In our Stage 2 analysis, we found that language support for students is mentioned more frequently on HEI websites than professional development or other types of support for teachers. Only about 15 per cent of HEI websites provide information on English language support for teaching staff, and about one-third provide information related to TPD. When information concerning support for teachers is provided on HEI websites, it generally takes the form of improving teachers’ general English proficiency. Only one HEI website indicated that it offered TPD specific to EMI lecturers. Similar findings emerged from the Stage 3 questionnaire: the most common forms of support offered to EMI teachers are opportunities to enrol on external courses and access online training materials, and open-ended responses from participants suggest that training sessions tend to support teachers’ general English language proficiency rather than the skills needed to teach their academic subjects through English.

While an adequate command of English is certainly necessary for teaching on EMI courses, the professional needs of EMI teachers encompass more than general language proficiency (de Diezmas and Barrera, 2021; Macaro, 2019), and EMI teachers would benefit from training in appropriate materials selection, bilingual teaching pedagogies, strategies for teaching in multilingual or multicultural classrooms, as well as an awareness of their students’ disciplinary language needs.

Furthermore, language requirements for teaching and administrative staff are not commonly reported on HEI websites. Information concerning the hiring criteria for EMI teachers primarily relates to academic or professional qualifications (e.g. a postgraduate degree in the subject area), requirements which would be similar for lecturers teaching in the local language. These findings suggest that most HEIs do not consider qualifications specific to teaching in L2 English when appointing lecturers to EMI programmes – a finding which is confirmed by the relatively low percentage (37.0 per cent) of Stage 3 questionnaire respondents who report that their universities offer certification in recognition of the skills needed to teach through English.

Internationalisation

Data from all three stages of this study suggests that international students on EMI programmes in ODA recipient countries tend to come from neighbouring or nearby countries, including other ODA recipient countries. International students also appear to comprise a relatively small proportion of students enrolled to EMI programmes, with 50.3 per cent of respondents to the Stage 3 questionnaire reporting that international students account for two per cent or less of all students on EMI programmes at their HEIs. While the desire to attract international students has been reported as a driving force behind EMI provision in Europe (Sandstrom and Neghina, 2017), it appears to be a less-important driving force for HEIs in ODA recipient countries. Instead, preparing students for the global job market and enhancing the university’s reputation were found to be the key driving forces behind EMI expansion.

These findings complicate the assumption that EMI is intertwined with discourses related to the internationalisation and commercialisation of higher education for purposes of increasing inward student mobility. The Stage 2 website analysis suggests English and EMI development are not commonly mentioned in the internationalisation policies or strategic development plans reported on HEI websites (10.6 per cent and 7.1 per cent respectively), which instead prioritise aspects of internationalisation such as collaboration, research and rankings.
Gender

In Stage 3 of this study, we investigated the relationship, if any, that EMI may have on female student enrolment at HEIs in ODA recipient countries. Responses to the Stage 3 questionnaire suggest that female students are slightly under-represented on EMI programmes, compared to the overall proportion of female student enrolment. This discrepancy in female enrolment appears to be more pronounced at public HEIs compared to private HEIs, which is consistent across regions. In some contexts, whether the HEI exclusively offers all programmes in English or whether programmes are also taught in the local language, might affect female enrolment. That is – in contexts where EMI is an optional choice – it is less likely to be associated with increased female enrolment, which was a clear finding in the South Asia region in particular. According to data reported by UNESCO, female enrolment in higher education is low, although it has increased substantially in the last two decades: the gross enrolment rate for female students in South Asia was 25.5 per cent in 2019 compared to 5.7 per cent in 1999 (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, as cited by World Bank, 2020). In the same UNESCO report, other world regions have reported increasing levels of female enrolment in HEIs over the same period, such as Sub-Saharan Africa [3.4 per cent to 8.1 per cent] and MENA [18.2 per cent to 42.6 per cent], so it is important to investigate whether the growth of EMI facilitates or disrupts these trends. With the expansion of EMI in higher education, the findings of this study highlight the need for more context-specific research to examine the effects of EMI on female student enrolment. This is especially concerning if EMI is associated with higher tuitions in the private HEI sector, and if this context is shown to be particularly exclusionary to female enrolment in education in ODA recipient contexts.
Conclusions and recommendations

This study mapped the current situation of EMI programmes in HE in 52 ODA recipient countries to shed light on EMI provision in many countries which are relatively less resourced and under-researched with respect to HE. To our knowledge, no previous attempt has been made to survey EMI on such a global scale and across such diverse contexts. Due to the exploratory nature of the project, we purposely refrain from making any explicit recommendations for policy or pedagogy for the national contexts or HEIs in our sample, as there is no ‘one-size-fits-all’ approach to EMI implementation. In order to better understand the complexities of EMI in ODA recipient contexts, more research is clearly needed, and the findings of this study offer areas for future investigation with respect to the expansion of EMI in socially, politically and historically diverse contexts.

The findings of our study have challenged the notion that a key link between EMI and internationalisation of HE lies in attracting fee-paying international students and staff, since these were not found to be main motivators nor realities of HEIs in many ODA recipient countries. One of the potentially damaging effects of an unevenly distributed internationalised HEI sector is a Matthew Effect, where rich, Western universities continue to generate substantial tuition via their EMI programmes from international students from the ODA recipient context, but ODA recipient countries are not receiving international students into their EMI programmes. Not only is there financial inequity in this situation, but there is also a danger that ODA recipient countries may be losing their best and brightest students to universities in non-ODA recipient contexts while not attracting international students beyond their immediate regional contexts to replace them. More research is needed to better monitor whether, as EMI develops in ODA recipient contexts, it combats this Matthew Effect by raising university reputation, as is believed, or contributes to new, local inequalities.

We also stated at the outset of this report that ODA recipient countries may wish to carefully select the model of EMI which best suits their context. We have found through our investigation of EMI in 52 ODA recipient countries a range of EMI practices and provisions, suggesting that EMI programmes are being adapted to local socio-cultural contexts. Nonetheless, there is a need for critical research examining the effects of EMI with respect to local socio-cultural factors and local student needs. With an unfettered growth of EMI, we need grounded research to explore whether it is being implemented in the most appropriate way in terms of maintaining educational standards for staff and students, and ensuring quality of education. There also needs to be more critical research as to whether EMI is a suitable alternative to instruction in local languages.

Examples of areas for which more critical research is needed are with respect to gender and access to EMI programmes. The findings of this study offer preliminary evidence that, in some contexts, female students may be under-represented on EMI programmes, and that differences in female student enrolment may be found between EMI programmes in the public and private sector. This finding stands in contrast to previous research which has suggested that female students may be more likely to enrol in traditionally male-dominated subjects if the subject is taught in English (Macaro and Akincioglu, 2018), although it suggests that there is variation in female student enrolment according to university, programme type and geographic region. Further research is needed to investigate the relationship between EMI and female student enrolment. In some ODA recipient contexts, previous research has indicated that limited family financial resources for use in education may result in less spending on girls’ education (Upadhaya and Sah, 2019). As our report has found a potential difference in female enrolment in the private HEI sector, this situation requires further research attention to ensure female students are not being excluded as a result of EMI growth.
In approaching a scoping project of this scale, we collected data from informed respondents, HEI websites and key institutional players. A limitation of this study is that it does not include the perspective of teachers and students on EMI programmes. At present, our research team is collecting data from EMI students and teachers at HEIs in ODA recipient countries to explore the challenges that they face when learning and teaching academic subjects in English, and to further explore questions of female participation in EMI programmes from the perspective of these key stakeholders. Currently, many ODA recipient contexts are severely under-researched in terms of regionally and nationally specific challenges associated with EMI delivery at the programme, course and classroom level, thus more research at these levels is needed in the future.

Given the range of English language proficiency scores accepted for admission to EMI programmes at the HEIs in this study, more research is needed to assess what the minimum level of English proficiency necessary to undertake university level courses in English is, and by what means this level of proficiency can or should be assessed. International test scores were found to be a common requirement for entry across HEIs. However, the cost of international exams might pose a barrier to access for students from lower socio-economic backgrounds, and the cost of meeting admission requirements to EMI programmes should be critically examined. We also need to better understand how students are linguistically and academically supported throughout their EMI educational experience to ensure that EMI growth is being accompanied with the right mechanisms to ensure quality of education.

A key finding from Stage 2 of this study was that relatively few HEI websites explicitly stated the language(s) of instruction at the HEI (51.0 per cent) or the number of EMI programmes on offer (15.4 per cent). The obstacles that we experienced researching EMI provision on HEI websites are likely to be more pronounced for prospective students and their families seeking information on programmes taught through English, and a lack of clear information may cause great issues for HEIs in attracting staff, particularly international staff. We would advocate for greater clarity and consistency on university websites with respect to:

- The number of courses being offered through English and whether degree programmes are taught fully or partially in English
- Entry requirements to EMI programmes at the undergraduate and postgraduate level
- The amount and type of language support given to students
- The extent to which professional development is available to EMI teaching staff

Overall, to increase the visibility of HEIs in ODA recipient countries, we need increased clarity and transparency in terms of what EMI looks like in the diverse contexts in which it is being implemented. Some of this clarity can be achieved with greater transparency of public information provided by HEIs, as well as via future research attention to the topics and issues raised in this report.
References


References (cont)


## Appendix

### Table A: Countries where the HEIs were located

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<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Per cent</th>
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