

# Pedagogy in English-Medium Instruction (EMI): Some Recommendations for EMI Teachers

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Article information	Abstract
<b>Article history:</b> Received: 25 Mar 2022 Accepted: 20 Jul 2022 Available online: 27 Jul 2022	<i>In the global educational landscape, policymakers mainly implement English-Medium Instruction (EMI) programs in higher education to maximize internationalization outlook and student mobility. EMI has brought numerous pedagogical dilemmas for EMI teachers since they were administratively requested to transform their monolingual disciplinary classes into EMI without consultation and proper professional development.</i>
<b>Keywords:</b> English medium instruction EMI EMI pedagogy	<i>Many EMI teachers reported having limited English ability to execute EMI pedagogy, holding marginalized views toward their English accents, and lacking pedagogical knowledge for EMI. This paper presents some recommendations for EMI teachers to implement EMI pedagogy based on the outcomes of a teacher professional development project. The suggestions are characterized as 4E: 1) Embracing EMI with the right attitudes ('E' in 'EMI'), 2) EMI lesson planning, 3) Executing EMI lessons, and 4) Engaging in reflective practice.</i>

## INTRODUCTION

English-medium instruction (EMI) is an unprecedented growing global educational provision initially imposed by policymakers with attempts to increase internationalized higher education outlooks and international student mobility (Dafouz & Smit, 2020; Dang et al., 2021; Dearden, 2015; Galloway & Rose, 2021; Sahan et al., 2021). The widely cited definition of EMI is popularized by Dearden (2015), who defined EMI as “the use of English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English” (p. 2). Macaro (2018) added “other than English” to specify the scope of “academic subjects” (p. 19). This definition foregrounds debates in its scope since it excludes EMI in an Anglophone setting, where universities are becoming increasingly multilingual (e.g., Baker & Hüttner, 2019; Dafouz & Smit, 2020). However, Rose et al. (2021) disagreed with the assertion that EMI programs in the Anglophone setting should be included in the definition of EMI since it “threatens to conflate EMI issues with wider internationalization issues and general education issues” (p. 1). This paper does not aim to contribute to such debate since it is beyond the scope of this paper, but we contextualize EMI in the original definition articulated by Dearden (2015) because it corresponds greatly to the context where this paper is situated, which is Thailand.

Like many countries in Asia, such as China, Japan, Korea, or Vietnam, the EMI policy in Thailand is closely linked with the attempts to improve the English proficiency of its citizen (Galloway & Sahan, 2021). In the university context, EMI in Thailand is commonly known as an “international program,” developed based on several initiatives to “improve the global competitiveness of Thai graduates and contribute to the country’s economic development” (Galloway & Sahan, 2021, p. 14). Since its establishment, EMI programs have grown exponentially from 78 programs in 2007 to 769 programs in 2018, serving approximately 20,497 international students. The popularity of EMI programs permeated into the school context when the Ministry of Education joined the policy to increase citizens’ English proficiency. In the school context of Thailand, EMI is labeled as English Program (EP), Mini-English Program (MEP), Integrated English Program (IEP), Bilingual Program, and International Program (Taylor, 2022).

The global expansion of EMI has resulted in diverse forms of implementation (Pecorari & Malmström, 2018; Richards & Pun, 2021; Sahan et al., 2021). The use of English in EMI programs varies depending on program types and how it is used (Sahan et al., 2021). This resulted in what Pecorari and Malmström (2018) term “full EMI” and “partial EMI” (p. 499). In the full EMI context, English is expected to be used in all elements of instruction, whereas in the partial EMI context, English is intentionally or spontaneously used in some parts (Pecorari & Malmström, 2018). In addition, there are other related terms, such as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education (ICLHE), Content-Based Instruction (CBI), Content-Based Language Teaching (CBLT), immersion, and sheltered instruction (Galloway & Rose, 2021; Macaro et al., 2018; Richards & Pun, 2022a). The main difference between EMI and those terms is that those terms have explicit language learning goals, but EMI does not explicitly mention language-learning objectives (Dearden, 2015; Galloway & Rose, 2021). Instead, language learning is assumed to be a perceived benefit by policymakers (Galloway & Rose, 2021; Sahan et al., 2021).

The implementation of EMI has brought numerous challenges to EMI teachers since they are encouraged or required to adopt EMI by policymakers without careful consultation (Cho, 2012; Dearden, 2015; Deignan & Morton, 2022; Hu & Lei, 2014; Pun & Thomas, 2020; Kim et al., 2018; Yuan, 2021a). Lasagabaster (2022) observed that “although many higher education institutions worldwide have rushed to the jump on the EMI bandwagon, a strikingly low percentage of them have deemed it necessary to organize pre-service or in-service courses to help practitioners tackle this new teaching scenario” (p. 48). As a result, EMI causes teachers stress, tension, or uneasiness (Dang et al., 2021; Deignan & Morton, 2022; Yuan, 2021b). Many of them reported that they were not adequately prepared to implement EMI pedagogy (Macaro et al., 2018; Macaro et al., 2020), while others expressed concerns about how to change their instruction from using the first language to using English to teach disciplinary subjects (Briggs et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2018). These questions drive many researchers to find ways to prepare and support EMI teachers in teaching in the EMI programs (Dafouz et al., 2020). Yet, the extant literature on preparing and supporting EMI teachers to conduct EMI pedagogy has received limited attention (Dafouz et al., 2020; Ploettner, 2019; Macaro et al., 2018; Roberts et al., 2019). The scarcity of research on preparing EMI teachers to undertake EMI pedagogy has brought forward a considerable gap in the literature. Since EMI programs have grown drastically, we cannot risk leaving EMI teachers to wrestle with how to implement pedagogy alone nor

can we continue ignoring the need to support them to implement EMI pedagogy. The lack of attention to support EMI teachers may hurt the quality of EMI programs. This paper attempts to put forward an agenda to support EMI teachers to implement theoretically sound pedagogy in EMI programs, by discussing some recommendations for EMI teachers to achieve pedagogy in EMI programs. Our recommendations, proposed in this paper, are based on a study by Kewara and Prabjandee (2018), who developed a teacher professional development program to support secondary school content teachers, who were administratively requested to use English as a medium of instruction in their monolingual disciplinary classrooms (Kewara & Prabjandee, 2018). Before proposing the recommendations, EMI pedagogical dilemma is contextualized.

### Contextualizing EMI pedagogical dilemma

In this paper, EMI teachers are higher education lecturers who are encouraged or required by policymakers - University Presidents or Deans - to transform their monolingual disciplinary classes into EMI (Cho, 2012; Macaro et al., 2020). In the global survey of the EMI phenomenon in 27 countries, Briggs et al. (2018) reported that EMI teachers had 5–30 years of teaching experience. Their age ranged from 18–49 years old. In terms of training, many EMI teachers received education in English-speaking countries, considering that they were trained in EMI programs. However, some were assigned to teach in EMI without preparation (Briggs et al., 2018). In a more recent study, Macaro et al. (2020) surveyed the profiles of EMI teachers from more than eight countries (China, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Spain, Turkey, and others). They pointed out that most EMI teachers were in Social Sciences and Natural Sciences. Unlike Briggs et al.'s study (2018), 61% of EMI teachers in their study had less than five years of EMI teaching (Macaro et al., 2020).

Regardless of diversity, prior research has revealed that EMI teachers reported similar challenges in implementing EMI pedagogy. The literature on teacher's beliefs toward EMI suggests that the pedagogical dilemmas are categorized into two main areas: *perceived lack of English proficiency and inadequate pedagogical knowledge* (Briggs et al., 2018; Dang et al., 2021; Dearden & Macaro, 2016; Deignan & Morton, 2022; Gustafsson, 2020; Lu, 2020; Pun & Thomas, 2020; Rahman et al., 2021; Sahan et al., 2021; Yuan, 2021a). In the systematic review by Dang et al. (2021), EMI teachers reported lacking English proficiency to teach in EMI programs. They also held marginalized views towards their English accents and expressed concern about their confidence in using English to teach disciplinary content (Lu, 2020; Rahman et al., 2021; Sahan et al., 2021). Even though some EMI teachers graduated from English-speaking countries, they were afraid of being judged by their students about their English proficiency or accents (Dang et al., 2021). While it is true that teaching in the EMI programs requires a certain level of English proficiency (Macaro et al., 2018; Richards & Pun, 2022a), the causes of these challenges are complicated. EMI teachers often associate EMI with using English like a native English speaker (NES) (Sahan & Rose, 2021; Sahan et al., 2021). Research on learners' attitudes toward English use in EMI programs and EMI teachers confirmed the teachers' perceived lack of English proficiency (Kuteeva, 2020; Liu, 2022; Sahan et al., 2021). For example, Kuteeva (2020) found that Swedish university students perceived British English as the most prestigious variety in EMI programs. Sahan et al. (2021) revealed that most Thai and Vietnamese university students strongly preferred EMI teachers with native-like English accents.

Apart from the English proficiency concern, EMI teachers, who were administratively assigned to teach in the EMI programs, also struggled to implement EMI pedagogy (Dang et al., 2021; Goodman, 2014; Pun & Thomas, 2020). In the Hong Kong context, for example, it was reported that they often spent countless hours translating academic content from their first language into English (Dang et al., 2021; Yuan, 2021b). In doing so, they assume that successful EMI pedagogy depends largely on EMI teachers' English proficiency (Richards & Pun, 2022b). This common practice indicates that EMI teachers hold misconceptions about implementing EMI pedagogy, and they have limited pedagogical knowledge of executing EMI classes. To elaborate, Richards and Pun (2022b) asserted that "learning through EMI depends on understanding and assimilating concepts, schemata, and knowledge that provide the content foundation of different academic subjects in the school curriculum such as maths, science, or social studies as well as developing the thinking and literacy processes that a discipline requires" (p. 228). Based on this argument, learning in EMI programs is complicated since it involves myriad aspects such as schemata, thinking skills, and disciplinary literacy, which require interactional quality and student participation (Richards & Pun, 2022b). To support learners to survive the demand for EMI learning, a learner-centered approach to instruction is conducive to effective EMI pedagogy (Dang et al., 2021). As a result, transforming monolingual disciplinary classes into EMI is not simply about changing the language of instruction; instead, it requires teachers to re-evaluate their existing pedagogy and change it to a learner-centered approach (Dang et al., 2021). The learner-centered approach allows better opportunities for learners to develop productive competence, and they may not likely rely on teachers' linguistic competence to comprehend EMI lessons. Additionally, because EMI uses English as a medium of instruction to teach disciplinary content, EMI teachers are left wrestling with balancing English and content and balancing their identities (Airey, 2012; Block & Moncada-Comas, 2022). Physics lecturers in Sweden; for example, thought that it was not their job to pay attention to the English aspect of EMI, so they saw themselves as content teachers (Airey, 2012). Similarly, STEM lecturers in Sweden did not position themselves as language teachers (Block & Moncada-Comas, 2022).

### **Some recommendations for EMI teachers**

To counter the pedagogical dilemma addressed earlier, we attempted to provide some recommendations for EMI teachers to implement EMI pedagogy by drawing on data from the teacher professional development project by Kewara and Prabjandee (2018). The professional development was designed to support secondary school content teachers (mathematics, science, and computer), who were administratively requested to use English as a medium of instruction by the school directors. The policy has created great stress, tension, and uneasiness since these teachers did not volunteer or receive proper training before implementing EMI pedagogy. Since they were trained to be content specialists in the Thai language during their undergraduate teacher education, they could not rely on their previous experiences to complete this challenging task. As a result, the professional development program was designed to support these teachers in implementing English as a medium of instruction.

The professional development was developed based on the needs analysis of these teachers. They reported that they lacked sufficient knowledge of English and pedagogy to undertake EMI pedagogy. Even though the school provided several professional development programs

after they were placed on teaching in EMI programs, the offered programs were about intensive English language development only. Since EMI pedagogy is not only about using English to teach content subjects (Dang et al., 2021), we felt that it is essential to equip these teachers with the theoretical foundation and the practical applications of EMI pedagogy. Thus, CLIL theory was used to guide the design of the professional development program. The program consisted of two essential components: 1) classroom language in English and 2) CLIL classroom structure.

The participating teachers were 15 content teachers (six mathematics, eight science, and one computer) at a secondary school in eastern Thailand. Even though the teachers in the study were not EMI teachers in higher education specifically, we believe their characteristics are similar to the EMI teachers since they were forced to transform their disciplinary classes into EMI programs without receiving proper training before they undertake such important task. The recommendations are not aimed at claiming global applications. EMI teachers are encouraged to apply these recommendations based on their immediate needs and contexts. The recommendations are characterized as 4E: 1) Embracing EMI with the “right” attitudes (‘E’ in ‘EMI’), 2) EMI lesson planning, 3) Executing EMI lessons, and 4) Engaging in reflective practice.

### **Embracing EMI with “Right” attitude: ‘E’ in EMI**

As mentioned earlier, EMI teachers commonly held marginalized views towards their English accents and associated English with the NES standard (Dearden, 2015; Jenkins, 2018). They also did not believe in their ability to use English to teach disciplinary content. This might be why many EMI teachers were not comfortable when they implemented EMI pedagogy (Dang et al., 2021). These views toward English are problematic since, in EMI policies, the notion of which or whose English is being referred to has not been discussed extensively (Jenkins, 2018). Instead, it is assumed that the kind of English in EMI programs is equivalent to the NES standard (Kirkpatrick, 2017; Sahan & Rose, 2021). In our project, the participating teachers were also afraid of being judged for their English proficiency, so we decided to offer awareness-raising activities about the kind of English they should expect themselves to perform. The participating teachers watched videos of authentic CLIL science classrooms and discussed what kinds of English were manifested and strategies used by the teacher to make content comprehensible. They were also asked to compare their English ability with the teacher in the video and reflected upon whether English ability was the only factor to make content comprehensible. The raising awareness activities about the notion of English proved helpful for the participating teachers as they reported that they felt more confident about their English ability.

In this paper, we suggested that EMI teachers embrace EMI with “right” attitudes, following the proposal by Kuteeva (2020) and Pecorari and Malmström (2018), who discussed the notion of “English” in the EMI as follows:

1. English is the language used for instructional purposes.
2. English is not itself the subject to be taught.
3. English is emancipated from the NES norm.
4. English is owned by NNES.

To elaborate, EMI teachers should embrace an understanding that English is the language for instructional purposes and is used only as a medium of instruction. Thus, the goal of using English in EMI should not conform to the NES standard. Instead, the goal should be to make content comprehensible. English is neither the content waiting to be taught; rather, it is learned through learner-centered activities. Additionally, English should be free from the NES norm and have global ownership (Kuteeva, 2020; Pocarari & Malmström, 2018).

### EMI lesson planning

In sheltered-instruction classrooms, it is widely understood that successful learning depends on lesson planning (Echevarría et al., 2008). Thus, with careful planning, an EMI lesson should be relevant to learners by using motivating materials that foster the real-life application of concepts studied. To achieve such a lesson, it is essential to explore learners' needs by using a variety of methods. In every class, the teachers should also articulate clear objectives and present them to the learners before class (Echevarría et al., 2008). The lesson objectives prime the learners to focus on what needs to be learned in that lesson. Additionally, EMI teachers should also ensure that content concepts are appropriate and relevant to learners' educational backgrounds. Furthermore, supplementary materials should be used to a high degree to make content comprehensible (Echevarría et al., 2008).

Prior research has cautioned that EMI pedagogy is not simply about translating content concepts into English (Dang et al., 2021; Richards & Pun, 2022b). It takes a transformation of the whole process of lesson planning and delivery (Macaro et al., 2018). EMI teachers should consider how to help their learners understand content concepts through active and learner-centered instruction (Yuan et al., 2022). However, planning a learner-centered lesson is not something that every EMI teacher can do easily since they did not receive EMI pedagogic training (Macaro, Akincioglu, & Han, 2018).

In this section, we presented a classroom structure that was empirically validated as applicable to help content teachers turn their teacher-centered lessons into a more learner-centered lesson (Kewara & Prabjandee, 2018). Anchored in the CLIL literature, Kewara and Prabjandee (2018) developed a CLIL learner-centered classroom structure based on a learner-centered collaborative learning technique to make content comprehensible. The classroom structure consists of six steps: greeting, review, directions, task, assessment, and delivery.

1. *Greeting*. In this step, EMI teachers start the class with a greeting in English to create an English atmosphere. This can be done quickly for some EMI teachers, but it can be challenging for others. In this case, they can learn prefabricated classroom language sentences in English to solve this problem. The prefabricated classroom English sentences were found helpful in the literature (Kewara, 2017).

2. *Review*. In this step, EMI teachers review the previous lesson because prior research in the successful sheltered-instruction approach emphasizes the need to check learners' understanding before learning new concepts (Echevarría et al., 2008). Examples of the review techniques include a 1-minute paper (asking the students to write what they learned last time in one minute), asking questions, or a short quiz.



3. *Directions.* In this step, EMI teachers provide the directions for a task. Providing a clear task explanation was useful to help learners understand lesson concepts (Echevarría et al., 2008). The task should start with a challenging problem. The problem should be hard enough, and it should take adequate time to complete, for example, in a science EMI classroom where the goal is to teach the students about the nature of science. An EMI teacher can divide the students into groups of four to five students. After that, the teacher places a cub in the middle of the group (see Figure 1). The rules of this activity are no touching and no moving the cube. The learners can talk to each other, and they are allowed to write down their ideas. They need to answer the following question: *What is on the bottom of the cube?* (see National Academy of Sciences, 1998 for more details of activity).

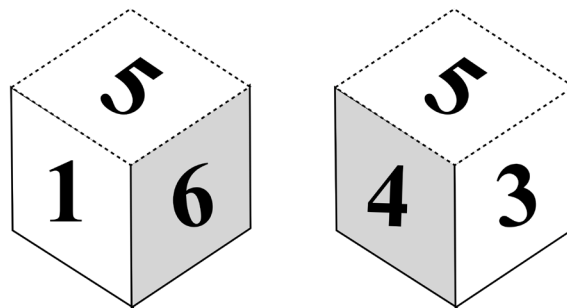
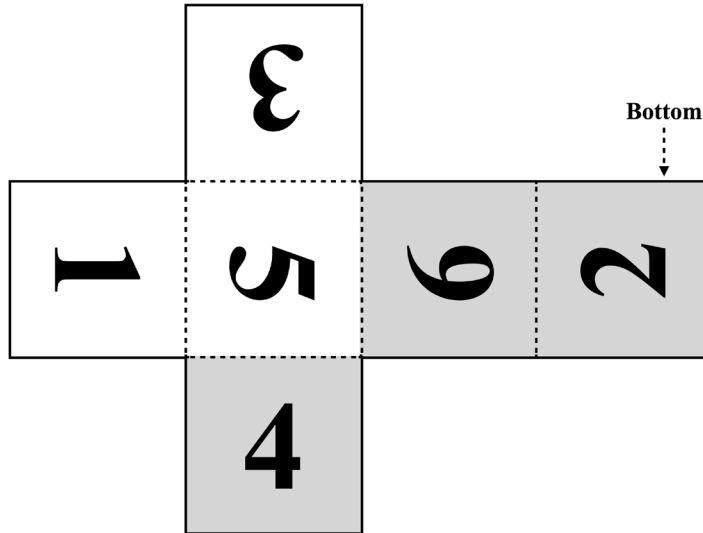


Figure 1 Three-dimensional cube for learner-centered activity

4. *Task.* In this step, the learners work collaboratively to answer the question posed in the directions step. The teacher observes the learners. It is essential to inform the learners that getting the correct answer is not the goal, but the process is more important. As the EMI teacher observes the class, tell the learners that they must answer the question by proposing *an explanation*. They must convince other learners in the style that their conclusion is *based on evidence* (data from observing the cube).

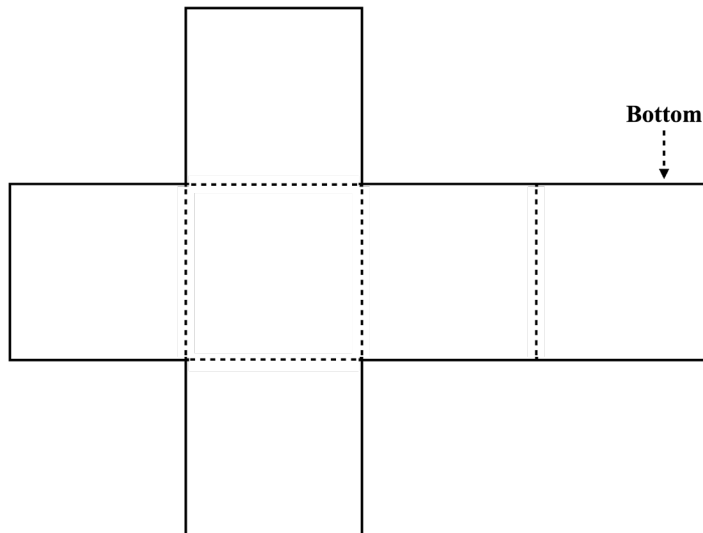
5. *Assessment.* Closely related to the task step, the assessment step aims to assess the learners' task performance. In this step, the teacher observes how the learners complete the task by taking notes on arriving at a group conclusion. It is essential to encourage the learners to find solid and convincing evidence to support their conclusion. If the learners find some evidence, the EMI teacher can question the creditability of the evidence.

6. *Delivery.* In this step, the teacher asks the learners to present their conclusions to the whole class. The learners can give *the data* from observation; for example, the cube has six sides and five exposed sides; the even-numbered sides are shaded; the odd-numbered sides are white. After that, they can present evidence to support their conclusion; for example, the opposite sides add up to seven. If all groups answer, the teacher asks the learners to compare their answers. Finally, the teacher asks the learners to summarize what they learn from this activity. Make sure they understand the core concepts of the nature of science.



**Figure 2** What is on the bottom of the cube?

If time permits, the EMI teacher can add another activity. They can design a similar activity that prompts learners to find conclusions based on observed data.



**Figure 3** A cube to design learner-centered activity

Based on the six-steps classroom structure, the EMI teachers relinquish their roles from the authority of knowledge to the facilitator. The teacher does not hold a dominant conversation in class. The learners are constantly engaged in constructing knowledge through collaborative learning. When planning EMI pedagogy, the teachers can use the six-step classroom structure as a guideline to turn their teacher-centered EMI lesson into more active, collaborative, and learner-centered. Furthermore, the amount of English used in each step can vary depending on the teachers' proficiency, lesson topics, and learning objectives. However, it is recommended that EMI teachers be intentional about when to use English or use the first language.



## Executing EMI lessons

After careful lesson preparation, EMI teachers should possess the ability to execute EMI lessons. Anchored in the sheltered-instruction approach (Echevarría et al., 2008), we suggested that EMI teachers “help learners connect what they know to what they are learning, assist them in problem-solving, and promote retention of newly learned information” (p. 95). To achieve this goal, EMI teachers are recommended to use scaffolding techniques consistently throughout the lesson to support learners’ understanding. Echevarría et al. (2008) proposed two scaffolding techniques: 1) *verbal scaffolding* and 2) *procedural scaffolding*. Verbal scaffolding refers to spoken interaction to engage learners in the lesson to make content comprehensible. Examples of verbal frames include paraphrasing, repeating students’ responses, and asking them questions. For procedural scaffolding, EMI teachers can use an instructional approach that guides the learners to complete the task. For example, they can teach, model the study, practice with others, and apply in other situations (Echevarría et al., 2008).

Apart from scaffolding, multimodal and interactional strategies were also reported as effective in EMI pedagogy (Morell, 2018). In her analysis of EMI lessons, Morell (2018) pointed out that semiotic classroom modes (e.g., space, gaze, gesture) enabled the EMI teachers to elicit learners’ lesson engagement and conceptual understanding. This empirical evidence has implications for how EMI teachers execute their lessons. First, EMI teachers must emphasize supplementary modes when conducting EMI pedagogy. For example, they can think of the arrangement of seats and space, in-class interaction, and verbal and non-verbal communication. Second, successful EMI classroom execution does not rely solely on spoken and written competence in English but on other non-verbal cues (Morell, 2018).

Furthermore, the sheltered-instruction classroom also advocated using interactional strategies (Echevarría et al., 2008). Interaction success depends on the balance of linguistic turn-taking between the teachers and the learners (Echevarría et al., 2008). EMI teachers should ask the learners to elaborate their responses rather than accepting short yes/no answers. To increase classroom interaction, the EMI teachers should provide frequent opportunities for discussion through multiple modes of communication such as oral, journals, or technology. They can also configure different group assignments. Finally, it is crucial to provide sufficient wait time for the learners to respond to directions and questions. In successful EMI pedagogy, the EMI teachers should allow learners to process information with peers and support learners to understand content concepts. They should not take the dominant role in the classroom.

## Engaging in reflective practice

At the end of EMI lessons, EMI teachers should engage in reflective practice. According to Farrell (2020), reflective practice refers to practitioners critically examining their philosophy, principles, theories, and techniques to take responsibility for their actions. Reflective practice is beneficial for EMI teachers because it assists them in overcoming the stress and insecurities of implementing EMI (Farrell, 2020). EMI teachers should be provided a space to adjust their pedagogy to suit learners’ needs and development (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2018).

A practical guideline to engage in reflective practice in an EMI setting was proposed by Farrell (2020). In his most current framework for reflecting on practice, Farrell (2020) articulated five levels of reflection: philosophy, principles, theory, training, and beyond approach. In the first level, the EMI teachers explore the 'teacher-as-person' aspect, in which they are engaged in researching their EMI teacher identity. This reflective practice is crucial because it shapes how they teach EMI (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2018). The teachers examine their teaching and learning EMI beliefs in the second level. Farrell (2020) argued that "when EMI teachers are given a chance to articulate their beliefs about teaching and learning and reflect on the source of these beliefs, they can then begin to (re)evaluate their appropriateness related to their particular context" (p. 279). The third level engages EMI teachers to investigate the different choices about teaching skills in EMI classrooms. The fourth level explores their actual classroom practices to find what works or what does not work. The last level reflects the moral, political, and social issues related to their work beyond their training. These five levels of reflective practice are considered a holistic approach to reflection, which Farrell (2020) argues contributes to their professional growth.

To engage in reflective practice, Farrell (2020) provided practical ideas as follows: dialogue, writing, classroom observations, action research, narratives, and team teaching. EMI teachers can use some of these techniques to explore their classroom practices, revisit why they step into the EMI provision, reconsider for whom their pedagogy is intended, and how they can continue teaching EMI successfully. Constant engagement in these questions may be helpful for EMI teachers to undertake EMI pedagogy successfully.

## CONCLUSION

Since policymakers impose EMI, which has caused stress, tensions, and insecurities for many EMI teachers, many EMI teachers have tried to survive this set policy using a trial-and-error method. Some started to translate content into English, while others attempted to attend professional development. Regardless of diverse ways of trying to survive EMI pedagogy, many EMI teachers are still experiencing difficulties in executing EMI pedagogy, and little attention has been put forward to preparing EMI teachers (Dafouz et al., 2020; Ploettner, 2019; Macaro et al., 2018; Roberts et al., 2019).

We hope this paper provides some recommendations for EMI teachers when enacting EMI pedagogy. In the proposals, the teachers shall embrace EMI with the right attitudes ('E' in 'EMI'), plan EMI lessons carefully, execute EMI lessons using scaffolding and interactional strategies, and engage in reflective practice. It is important to note that these recommendations are not a prescription to quench EMI pedagogical dilemma, nor are they not something to follow strictly. Instead, the recommendations are something to consider when designing EMI pedagogy. We acknowledge that it may take a lifetime for someone to learn how to teach in general and to teach in the EMI programs. Finally, we aim to join the call with prior research (e.g., Ishikawa, 2020; Lu, 2020; Mancho-Barés & Arnó-Macià, 2017; Yu et al., 2020), calling for an urgent need to provide EMI teachers with proper professional development. These teachers should be provided with extensive support from policymakers to enact EMI practices. The

call is put forward as the front stage of the EMI research agenda to conduct research-based professional development designs for EMI teachers and find ways to assist them in enacting EMI pedagogy successfully.

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