

Internationalisation of Undergraduate English-Medium Instruction Programmes on University Websites in Japan & Malaysia

Aliyyah Nuha Faiqah binti AZMAN FIRDAUS

Integrated Arts and Human Sciences Programme, Graduate School of Humanities and Social Sciences, Hiroshima University, 1-7-1, Kagamiyama, Higashi-hiroshima, Hiroshima, Japan 739-8521

Email: d214777@hiroshima-u.ac.jp

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to investigate the current status of, and issues associated with English-Medium Instruction (EMI) programmes at higher education institutions (HEIs) in Japan and Malaysia. More specifically, this study examined how internationalisation is represented in the undergraduate EMI programmes found on university websites in Japan and Malaysia. The study employed the ROAD-MAPPING framework (Dafouz & Smit, 2016; 2020) and conducted a content analysis of 9 undergraduate EMI programmes on the university websites from national and public universities, with Japan (n = 5) and Malaysia (n = 4). The EMI programme components was analysed by their level of English language proficiency requirements for local and international students, Medium of Instruction (MoI), Academic Discipline, Language support and Student admission. Results indicated that the level of English language proficiency requirements for local and international students appear to follow a stringent benchmark in Japan whereas is discipline specific in Malaysia. Language support is provided for Malaysian and Japanese university students with courses in English for Academic Purposes, but are not necessarily linked to EMI programmes. English is the MoI for EMI programmes with the exception of a bilingual approach for courses like Law or a trilingual approach for Islamic studies in Malaysia. Implications of this study show the uniqueness of EMI programmes that are influenced by the social, institutional and socioeconomic reality of its geographical location.

Keywords: English-medium instruction, internationalisation, higher education institutions, Japan, Malaysia

Introduction

The expansion of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) resulting from globalisation has not only led to the adoption of English language learning, but also in the widespread use of English as a language of instruction (Jenkins, 2009, 2015). In an increasingly competitive global marketplace, higher education institutions (HEIs) constantly seek to internationalise. One of the major internationalisation strategies of educational institutions worldwide is to use English as medium of instruction (Dearden, 2014, p. 24; Kirkpatrick, 2011, p. 100). As a result, HEIs have increased the number of English-Medium Instruction (EMI) programmes to attract faculty and students from overseas. A deciding factor that will affect international students' study destination choice is the language spoken and used in instruction (OECD, 2018, p. 223). Countries whose language of instruction is widely spoken and used, such as English, French,

German, and Spanish is more appealing to international students. The popularity of English-speaking countries, such as the United States (US), Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom (UK) as top study destinations in the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) is not surprising. These four countries combined account for more than 35 per cent of all internationally mobile students in the OECD and partner countries (OECD, 2022). Of the 4.39 million internationally mobile students in OECD countries, 957,000 are studying in the US, making it the top destination country. Following the US is UK with 551,000 international students, Australia with 458,000 and Canada accounting for 323,000 mobile students (OECD, 2022, p. 224). The global education market share dominated by the US stands at 15 per cent, i.e. 15 per cent of all international students in the world are enrolled in the US. Among other English speaking countries, Australia and the UK each have 7 per cent and 9 per cent of the global share respectively, while Canada has 5 per cent. Meanwhile, in non-English speaking countries, Germany (6 per cent), France and China (both 4 per cent) have generous shares of the global market (OECD, 2022, p. 224).

Many countries have increasingly introduced English as a mandatory subject in the school curriculum, even at early education levels, and many students aim to improve their English-language skills by engaging themselves in a native English speaking environment. In addition, the number of HEI's in non-English speaking countries offering tertiary-education programmes taught in English continue to rise, as seen in Table 1 (OECD, 2014, p. 346; OECD, 2015, p. 356). This shows the progressive adoption of English as a global language (OECD, 2015, p. 356), "with one in four people using it worldwide" (Sharifian, 2013, p. 29). In Europe, the spread of English as a medium of instruction is prevalent in the Nordic countries (Wächter & Maiworm, 2014, p. 15). Even so, there has been a recent growth in transnational flows within both mainland Europe (e.g. into Denmark, Sweden, and the Netherlands) and the Asia Pacific region (e.g. into China, Hong Kong, and Malaysia) (Jenkins, 2014). Noteworthy exceptions are Japan and Korea: even with a less widespread language of instruction, the enrolment number of international students is large, with 95 per cent from Asia (OECD, 2023).

Rationale and Aim

Apart from attracting international students, the spread of EMI is also connected to HEI's aspiration "to attract teaching staff and researchers, to increase mobility, to augment revenue, to climb up education ranking systems, to improve English proficiency, and, last but not least, to enable graduate students to use English effectively in the workplace of the twenty-first century" (Lasagabaster, 2022, p. 1).

In the context of English as a global language and internationalisation of higher education, this study compares how university websites in East and Southeast Asia communicate internationalisation through their EMI programmes. Kirkpatrick (2018) states that English-medium instruction in Asian universities occurs in varying complex and diverse sociolinguistic situations. Many Asian countries (Malaysia included) were once former colonies of European powers and have only started to promote their national languages soon after the end of the Second World War. For example, Khmer in Cambodia, Bahasa Malaysia in Malaysia, Filipino in the Philippines and Vietnamese in Vietnam. (Bolton, Bacon-Shone & Botha, 2022).

In reference to the use of EMI in HE, Bolton & Botha (2020) explained that there are considerable differences between Outer Circle and Expanding Circle contexts in Asia. A major characteristic of Outer Circle society is that they were once former colonies of Anglophone (mainly British but with the exception of the US for the Philippines), powers. During the post-

colonial period, the status of English was maintained for important official purposes in government domains such as in law and education (Bolton & Botha, 2020). The Outer Circle societies mentioned by Bolton & Botha, 2020 include those in South Asia (India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka); Southeast Asia (Malaysia, Brunei, Myanmar, Singapore, the Philippines) and Hong Kong in East Asia. The use of English varies greatly depending on the “sociolinguistic realities” (p. 2) of these countries, but in the case of Malaysia, the current status and functions of EMI in HE are subject to the advocate and promotion of the use of the national language (Bahasa Malaysia) since independence in 1957. Public universities in recent decades have increased the use of EMI and many private universities use English as a medium of instruction (Bolton & Botha, 2020).

The Expanding Circle contexts are by and large countries where, sociolinguistically speaking, English has had the status as a foreign language rather than a second language (Bolton & Botha, 2020). Examples of countries in the Expanding Circle include Thailand, Indonesia, Japan, China, Cambodia, Laos, Macau, South Korea, to name a few. The current status and functions of EMI in HE show that in Japan, regardless of the government’s initiatives to promote English-medium education, past studies have reported some problems with the implementation of EMI courses. Many EMI programmes aim to cater to attract the international students rather than providing an international educational environment for the Japanese students (Bolton & Botha, 2020).

Despite the widespread rise of studies on EMI, most focus on a specific university, or country in a particular region, however, there is a lack of comparative studies on EMI. As put forward by Macaro et al., 2018 below:

The preponderance of research based on case studies of single institutions further exacerbates the problem of not being able to ascertain the impact of EMI on either English proficiency or on content learning. The almost total absence of any comparative studies amongst institutions and/or amongst countries (except for the issue of EMI growth) means that the rigour offered by comparative education methodology (Bray, Adamson & Mason, 2014) is largely absent (p. 64).

This current study fills in the gap by comparing two countries (Japan and Malaysia) with seemingly different language situations in terms of linguistic and cultural background (as explained above). The study, therefore, aims to provide insights into the diverse context that EMI operates in: Outer Circle country (Malaysia) and Expanding Circle country (Japan) and its influence on the implementation of EMI in Asian higher education. This study defines EMI as “the use of the English language to teach academic subjects (other than English itself) in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the population is not English” (Macaro, 2018, p. 19).

Literature Review

In this section, the relationship between internationalisation of higher education and EMI is discussed, as well as its impact on the communication strategies of EMI programmes on university websites.

Internationalisation of Higher Education and EMI

Against the backdrop of English as the de facto international common language of academia and research, the mushrooming of EMI courses and programmes offered by universities in non-English speaking countries (especially in Europe and Asia) is on the rise (Rose & McKinley, 2018). EMI has been reported as “an unstoppable train” (Macaro, 2015, p. 7), while Chapple (2015, p. 1) describes it as “a ‘galloping’ phenomenon now ‘pandemic’ in proportion. Seeing as internationalisation and the discourse on HEI’s are inextricably linked, EMI posits itself as one of the most important tools in university language policy to achieve the internationalisation-related objectives (Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2013; Kirkpatrick, 2011). Internationalisation is defined as the “policies and practices undertaken by academic systems and higher education institutions to tackle the global academic environment” (Altbach & Knight, 2007, p. 290). In Europe, the Erasmus exchange programme and the Bologna Process were developed to “boost student mobility programmes and multilingualism among university stakeholders” (Lasagabaster, 2022, p. 6). In reality, English has been widely used in Northern Europe with the Netherlands and the Nordic countries being the frontrunners in EMI. Nowadays, its spread has reached countries that had little English as a foreign language learning tradition, like Italy, Greece and Spain (Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2013). A significant study on English-taught programmes (ETP) conducted by Wächter & Maiworm, (2008, 2014) revealed a 239 per cent increase of ETPs between 2007 and 2014. Following the introduction of EMI in HE across Europe, Asian countries also display their commitment to promote EMI as a crucial factor in the internationalisation of HE (Shao & Carson, 2023).

For the last few decades, EMI has flourished in non-Anglophone countries like Japan and Malaysia, where English is a foreign and second language respectively. Countries like Japan and Malaysia have brought faculties and students with different linguacultural backgrounds on campus. As a result, EMI classrooms turn into multilingual, multicultural environments where English is used for communicating, delivering and understanding content knowledge among students and faculty (Kaur, 2020).

In Japan, amidst a steady population decline and stagnant economy, EMI is closely associated with the economic needs of the country (Bradford, 2023). As a result, this led the Japanese Ministry of Education (MEXT) to become heavily invested in promoting English-taught programmes as a way to boost internationalisation in HE and raise the profile of its universities globally. The two main initiatives that highlight the “government’s dual focus on EMI” (Bradford, 2023, p. 171) are: a) the Global 30 Project or G30 project (2009-2014); and b) the Top Global University Project or TGUP (2014-2023). MEXT introduced the Global 30 Project in 2009 (MEXT, 2009) to internationalise HE, with “EMI as one of the four main principles” (Shao & Carson, 2023, p. 57). It aimed to attract the world’s best students to come and study and subsequently work in Japan to help achieve “the improvement of the international competitiveness of science, technology and industry” (MEXT, 2008). In 2014, TGUP targeted 37 universities at the national, public and private levels (MEXT, 2014). This project focused on upskilling domestic students to become global leaders through the EMI programmes and study abroad (Bradford, 2023). It also aimed to increase the profile and visibility of Japanese universities by focusing on university innovation (Council for the Implementation of Education Rebuilding, 2013, as cited in Bradford, 2023, p. 171; MEXT, 2014). More specifically, the TGUP aimed to ensure that more of Japan’s universities make it to the list of top 100 universities in the world (Shao & Carson, 2023).

In summary, through the implementation of EMI, the government of Japan and the MEXT hope that EMI will assist Japanese universities to become more ‘global’ in two ways: first, it will help prepare domestic students for English-speaking workplace, and second, it will allow

more international students to study at Japanese universities. In this sense, EMI movement in Japan can be seen as a part of political discourse that concerns language policy (Morizumi, 2017) and that EMI is closely linked to the discourse of human resources development in HE in Japan (Yonezawa, 2014).

The internationalisation of universities in Malaysia is driven by several factors, namely a) economic: revenue generation through fee-paying international students; b) socio-cultural: encouragement of intercultural exchange; c) academic: supporting academic collaborations through teaching and learning; and (d) political: promoting the status of Malaysia as an international hub for education (Loo, 2022). Malaysia aims to be an educational hub for international students from all over the world. To achieve this, several national policies and educational blueprints were introduced. The introduction of the National Higher Education Strategic Plan 2007-2020 in 2007 by MOHE highlighted seven key strategic principles, with the fifth thrust focusing on internationalisation. This thrust aimed to target a total of 200,000 international students and place Malaysia as a top-six destination for international students by 2020 (Mohd Ismail & Doria, 2013, as cited in Munusamy & Azirah Hashim, 2021, p. 23). In 2015, the Malaysia Higher Education Blueprint 2015-2025 was launched and intended to create a HE sector that supports the target of the 11th Malaysia Plan which aims to promote Malaysia's role as a global education hub by "increasing the number of quality international students, strengthening global networking, and gaining international recognition for specialisations and niches areas of expertise" (EPU, 2015, pp. 5-29).

Communicating Internationalisation on University Websites

In the era of internationalisation, HEIs are required to market themselves and develop a brand identity to attract prospective students (Cavanagh, 2016). In other words, HEI websites should not only serve as advertisements but also serve as an "electronic storefront" of information (Loo, 2022: 81). Information displayed on the website is of utmost important for university programmes that aim to attract international students (Bradford, 2023). A study by Uniquist, (an enrolment services management company) revealed that 82 percent of international enrolments in its UK partner institutions were classified as "stealth applicants": students who had never made any direct contact with the HEI before applying. The bulk of these applicants collect information about the HEI through the respective institutions' websites (ICEF Monitor, 2019, as cited in Bradford, 2023, p. 172). By recognising these various functions, Baldry & Thibault (2006) state that websites are great "at merging disparate entities, at crossing and realigning the boundaries between diverse discourse genres, social activities and domains" (p. 103). In reality, a university's websites are designed by marketing professionals and webmasters, therefore it can be assumed that most of the content reflects the policies and thinking about English language issues that are maintained by its senior faculty and management (Jenkins, 2014).

Internationalisation in universities is partly motivated by the economic benefits resulting from the recruitment of international students rather than the promotion of international culture (Jenkins, 2014). One way of viewing a particular university's idea and incorporation of internationalisation is by examining its university website as shown by Hewings (2012), Jenkins (2014), Morizumi (2017), Loo (2022) and Bradford (2023). Hewings (2012) studied the websites of universities in non-English speaking countries, i.e. the University of Cape Town and the University of Valencia to show that these universities use English websites in order to "attract would-be students, donors or sponsors" (p. 110) apart from providing information about the university.

Jenkins (2014) explored in detail 60 universities' websites (including 6 universities in Japan and 2 in Malaysia) concerning their EMI degree courses to identify the potential links between 'international' and 'English language'. Findings from her study showed that linguistic diversity is not a distinctive feature of universities in Japan, even though the English language websites from Japan evidently show their institutions as multicultural. This is based on her findings that require students to achieve certain test scores on Anglophone international tests (e.g. TOEFL) for admission into EME programmes and the presence of native English on the written and spoken texts on the websites. In contrast, one of the Malaysian universities show more hybridity featuring photos of campus life and upcoming cultural events. However, the presence of the local language is not given prominence and less frequently highlighted in comparison to the English language. In summary, Jenkins (2014, p. 96) mentioned that these programmes link native English with internationalisation and international skills for future careers.

Morizumi (2017) applied the methods used by Jenkins (2014) and focused on a private university in Japan by investigating the university's institute of international studies' English and Japanese webpages. She also explored the idea of how these webpages represented internationalisation and/or globalisation and how the conceptualisation of English language in relation to internationalisation and/or globalisation was depicted. Morizumi's findings showed that these webpages lacked reference to classes taught in English and English language requirement. Instead, the webpages highlighted study abroad opportunities, international exchange and Japanese/English learning programmes. The webpages seem to display an "East-meets-West" (p. 145) discourse.

The Japanese webpages target a Japanese audience rather than an international one as it is "peppered with the terms 'international' and 'global'" (p. 140). There is no description using the term "truly international person", rather the term 'global' is used in the context of 'global human resource' (p. 145). At least, from the Japanese perspective, the idea of an international or global minded person is related to a global economy and the success rate of the university's graduates upon graduation (Morizumi, 2017). In contrast, the English webpages target students from universities that have "exchange agreements" (p. 138) with the university. This suggests that the internationalisation efforts of this institute is not driven by economic benefits, as is the usual practice of other universities who "advertise themselves to a wider audience" (Jenkins, 2014).

In the Malaysian context, there is limited research on university websites focusing on HE internationalisation (Ooi, Ho & Amri, 2010). One such study by Loo (2022) focused on the voices of international students' from public and private universities in Malaysia. This study examined 40 websites through the lens of "academic capitalism framing" (p. 81) using a discourse analysis approach. The analysis involved the use of significant collocations such as "international" and "student(s)" (p. 83). Findings revealed that international students in Malaysia were seen as customers, with serviced promises made to them to help ease their relocation to study in Malaysia. In addition, international students would also partake in social mobility as a result of interactions with other international students (Loo, 2022).

Dumanig & Pe Symaco (2020) investigated how internationalisation of higher education was portrayed in the mission and vision statements of selected universities in Malaysia and the Philippines. The mission and vision statements from 20 public and private universities were selected and analysed using a critical discourse analysis approach incorporating textual and discourse practice. Findings revealed that the mission and vision statements of universities in

Malaysia and the Philippines are in line with the policies in their own respective country. Both countries also share similarities when it comes to interpreting internationalisation in higher education, such as they both place prominence on the “importance of producing global and competent graduates, and obtaining international recognition and world-class education” (Dumanig & Pe Symaco, 2020, p. 1).

Bradford (2023) conducted a qualitative content analysis study using the ROAD-MAPPING framework developed by Dafouz and Smit (2016, 2020) of public English-medium education (EME) programmes found on university websites in Japan. She looked at the promises made by undergraduate English-taught programmes in Japanese universities to the outside world (i.e. prospective students). The study specifically focused on the messages delivered to both international and domestic students in terms of the skills obtained throughout the duration of the study and the potential employment opportunities available to them upon completion. Her study reported that in Japan, EME programmes consist of two broad categories, “emphasising either disciplinary or intercultural learning” (p. 171).

ROAD-MAPPING Framework EMEMUS Online

The mass amount of research on English-medium education in multilingual university settings (EMEMUS) led Smit (2019) as cited in Bradford (2023, p. 174) to coin the term “looking inside perspective,” i.e. looking at something as how it is rather than how it should be going on in EMEMUS, besides from a “looking outside perspective” which sees the formation of EMEMUS to the outside world (171). Smit (2019) recommends scholars to investigate how HEIs publicly display EMEMUS on websites and introduces us to “EMEMUS online” (Bradford, 2023, p. 172). Drawing inspiration from EMEMUS online, this study will examine how internationalisation is structured in the undergraduate EMI programmes found in selected university websites in Japan and Malaysia.

The six dimensions of the ROAD-MAPPING framework are the Roles of English (in relation to other languages) (RO), Academic Disciplines (AD), (Language) Management (M), Agents (A), Practices and Processes (PP), and Internationalisation and Glocalisation (ING) (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 46) (see Figure 1). A core advantage of the framework is that it allows EME researchers and practitioners to view EME as a whole while at the same time allowing room to discuss the specificities of the phenomenon (Bradford, 2023). Though all the dimensions are thought to have equal standing, the dimensions are all interconnected (Smit, 2019; Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 46). For example, when Smit (2019) cited in Bradford (2023, p. 174) applied the ROAD-MAPPING as a conceptual framework to investigate how EMEMUS is represented online at the University of Vienna, she found that the Agents (A) and Practices and Processes (PP) dimensions were connected more to the institution (A = the university) and website (PP = the design and realisation of the website) as opposed to EME. This made Smit (2019) as cited in Bradford (2023, p. 174) focus on the other four dimensions (RO, AD, M and ING) in her analysis.

The ROAD-MAPPING framework also allows researchers to focus on and examine elements of the EME without losing track of the bigger picture of EME (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 46). Taking a cue from Bradford’s study (2023), the current study uses the ROAD-MAPPING framework as a conceptual tool to design the study and organise the results while examining the EME at the “meso, programme, level” (p. 174). This analytical lens is applied to the ROAD-MAPPING dimensions and should shed light on how universities in Japan and Malaysia structure the Roles of English (RO) as a medium of instruction in the undergraduate EMI

programmes by asking what fields of study are offered by the universities in Japan and Malaysia by the undergraduate EMI programmes (AD), whether any form of English language support is offered by universities in Japan and Malaysia in the undergraduate EMI programmes (M), what the English language requirements for student applicants prior to enrolling in the programme are (M), who the target audience of the undergraduate EMI programmes in Japan and Malaysia is (A) and how the universities in Japan and Malaysia position their undergraduate EMI programmes at the international level (ING)?

Previous studies mainly looked at webpages by examining the “explicit and implicit social constructions of meaning” and critical discourse analysis approach (e.g., Saarinen & Nikula, 2013; Jenkins, 2014; Dumanig & Pe Symaco, 2020). This study applied the methodology used by Bradford (2023, p. 174) by taking on a “positivist view and uses content analysis to examine the textual data on English-language EME programme webpages” (Hardy et. al, 2004). A content analysis approach is suitable for studying second language texts (i.e. English) because it will reduce the risk of the researcher’s tendency to “read too much” into the data due to their own cultural understanding and/or tendencies (Bradford, 2023, p. 174).

Another reason for choosing the ROAD-MAPPING framework was that it demonstrates a solid use of how to differentiate the features within and across various university settings, which is particularly useful for a comparative study design (Shao & Carson, 2023).

The Study: EMI in Japan and Malaysia

In the last ten years, the number of English-taught degree programmes has been increasing in Japan. Currently, there are a total of 87 programmes across 39 universities where a student is able to get an undergraduate degree wholly in the English language (Bradford, 2023). In Malaysia, the data for this study was obtained from university websites of public universities in Malaysia. These universities were identified from the Education Malaysia Global Services (EMGS) webpage (<https://educationmalaysia.gov.my/programmes/programme-results#page-2>). For this exploratory study, a doable sample of 9 undergraduate EMI programmes (5 in Japan and 4 in Malaysia) were purposely chosen based on three criteria proposed by Brown & Iyobe (2014): size, status and position of the EMI programme (see Table 2) and also to reflect the diversity of the programmes offered. These three aspects of the programme structure paved the way for selecting programmes thought to represent the scope of EMI programmes in Japan and Malaysia.

The sample consisted of 5 programmes from 4 national universities in Japan and 4 programmes from 4 public universities in Malaysia. There are a variety of small, medium and large HEIs with a balance of liberal arts and science programmes in both countries. Data was collected from publicly available documents (e.g., brochures, syllabi, course descriptions, pamphlets) about each of the EMI programmes from the English-language webpages of the institutions:

- Level of English language proficiency requirements for domestic and international students
- Fields of study offered
- Medium of Instruction (MoI)
- Language support
- Student admission for domestic and international students

The data was coded according to the descriptive codes on the five ROAD-MAPPING dimensions: RO, AD, M A, and ING.

Findings and Discussion

The main findings of this comparative study applied the ROAD-MAPPING framework to help navigate the findings and discussion.

Roles of English

In the context of higher education, the Roles of English (in relation to other languages) is exemplified through its unparalleled standing as the prime language for spreading scientific knowledge and language of education (Jenkins, 2014). Based on the EMI programmes studied, the Japanese universities websites display explicitly that the medium of instruction is in English. The G30 (Global 30) International Programme clearly states on its Admission webpage, “Since October 2011, Nagoya University has been offering the G30 International Programs which are full-degree programs taught in English”. It continues to state that no Japanese proficiency is required prior to enrolment. Interestingly, even though it is a English medium programme, the Japanese language is given importance after students enrol in the programme. Such is the case for the International Programme on Japan in East Asia by the University of Tokyo College of Arts and Sciences, that says “the program also puts importance on the acquisition of a certain level of Japanese proficiency”. For EMI programme graduates who wish to work in Japan, a certain command of Japanese language proficiency is expected. The Integrated Science Programme (ISP) at Hokkaido University places great emphasis on the use of English as the “international language of science” and informs the students that they will be able to master a “majesty of professional level English”. Meanwhile, the Malaysian universities sample show a mixture in the medium of instruction, either in English, Malay, Arabic, Chinese or Tamil. For example, Universiti Malaya’s Academy of Islamic Studies offers five EMI programmes: a) Bachelor of Shariah, b) Bachelor of Muamalat Management, c) Bachelor of Usuluddin, d) Bachelor of Al-Quran and Al-Hadith and e) Bachelor of Shariah and Law. In these programmes, the medium of instruction is trilingual with 50% taught in Malay, 30% in Arabic and only 20% in English. However, the situation is in reverse for EMI programmes in the Engineering and Science disciplines. The Bachelor of Computer Science (Software Engineering) in Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM) states under the “General Information” tab, that the language(s) of instruction for the full-time programme is in English. A similar statement appeared on the website of the School of Aerospace Engineering, Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM), “Please note that the medium of instruction for all science and engineering courses at USM is in English. Exceptions to this policy are for non-English language courses and some university courses”. For EMI programmes in Malaysia, it is observed that the role of English is considerably dependent on the subject discipline.

Academic Disciplines

The fields of study (or Academic Disciplines) offered by the universities in Japan for the undergraduate EMI programmes seem to link to internationalisation: “...to broaden students horizon by building a truly global campus with a diverse community of faculty and students from around the world,” (University of Tokyo). Another example is found in Tohoku University’s website whereby “Prospective students will have excellent opportunities...as well as train their international sense, under the supervision of top-level researchers”. Meanwhile, universities in Malaysia tend to equate the academic disciplines with industry demands and professionalism. This can be seen in the Prospective Students description of USM’s Aerospace Engineering programme: “Our curriculum has been designed with **clear objectives and**

outcomes that meet the needs of the aerospace industries and other stakeholders (emphasis in bold by USM). A similar occurrence was displayed on the webpage description for the Bachelor of Laws (Honours) programme offered by the International Islamic University of Malaysia (IIUM), “The programme aims to produce graduates who possess sufficient knowledge, skills, aptitude in both law and shari’ah to serve the profession, society, nation, ummah and humanity”.

Language Management

For plenty of EMI programmes worldwide, evidence of English proficiency is one of the entry requirements. It is used as a way to curb the intake of non-native students (Shohamy, 2013). The Nagoya University Japan-in-Asia Cultural Studies (JACS) is a programme that explores the interrelationship between Japan and other east Asian countries. Interestingly, this programme promotes learning about Japanese culture and traditions fully in English. As such, the programme sets a benchmark score of Overall Band 6 or higher or TOEFL iBT (80). Other examinations that are frequently mentioned are Duolingo English Test, Pearson English Language Test and Cambridge English Qualifications. Even though Japanese proficiency is not required prior to enrolment, the JACS programme requires students to take Japanese language courses from beginner to advance level after enrolling in it. Programmes in the science and engineering discipline also demand a high level of English proficiency, i.e. an IELTS Band 6.5 is required for the International Mechanical and Aerospace Engineering Course (IMAC) at Tohoku University. The situation is slightly different in Malaysian HEIs. There seems to be a difference in the level of English proficiency required for domestic and international students. For domestic students, the English proficiency under the General University conditions is benchmarked against the Malaysian University English Test (MUET) with a minimum score of Band 2 (Equivalent to CEFR A2). For international students, the English proficiency level is considerably higher compared to domestic students. At Universiti Malaya, international students should achieve an IELTS Band 5, TOEFL score 500 (PBT), 173 (CBT) or 60 (IBT) or Band 3 in MUET. However, there are specific English requirements for each EMI programme. For example, the law programme at IIUM requires a higher level of English proficiency for both domestic and international students (Band 4 in MUET, CEFR B2 equivalent). We can see that the pattern for English language entry requirement for Asian HEIs usually assess non-native students to a “native English benchmark such as that of TOEFL and IELTS” (Jenkins, 2014, p. 104). Where CEFR is mentioned, it is usually C1, which is one level below that of a native speaker. In terms of Language Support, the courses are structured to teach general language proficiency skills such as Academic English Advanced I (Nagoya), English Course (Tokyo), Professional Communication Skills (UTM). However, one programme by Tohoku University offered a English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course entitled, “English in Technology I and II”. This course aims to train students’ ability of English communication as scientist and engineer.

Agents

Based on the sample, the target audience of the undergraduate EMI programmes in Japan and Malaysia is both domestic and international students. The Integrated Science Programme by Hokkaido University, however, only accepts international students.

Internationalisation and Globalisation

In Japan, the government positions EMI programmes for universities to climb up in the rankings and pull international talent along with developing domestic students to overcome the ageing population problem (Bradford & Brown, 2018). These internationalisation attempts are illustrated in the International Program on Environmental Sciences philosophy of the

University of Tokyo College of Arts and Sciences – “that of ‘interdisciplinarity’ and ‘internationalism’- the International Program on Environmental Sciences integrates arts and sciences to conduct multi-faceted research on the complex problem of the environment”. One programme places emphasis on the international and highly skilled faculty members (Hokkaido). Other programmes (Tohoku, Nagoya, Tokyo) mention the interactional exchange that students will gain as a result of joining the programme. Compared to the Japanese HEIs, the EMI programmes in Malaysian HEI’s seem to highlight the professionalism and quality aspect more to meet industry or employability needs. This is present in the programme description of IIUM’s Bachelor of Law programme: “A person who is an LLB graduate is considered a qualified person and is able to start their pupillage immediately. [Legal Profession Act 1976].”. The Bachelor of Computer Science (Software Engineering) programme by UTM lists down all the professional skills certificate programmes that requires all students to pass. Some of these certified programmes include Occupational Safety and Health Awareness (OHSA) and Test of English Communication Skills for Graduating Students (TECS): TECS 1001 (Paper 1 – Oral Interaction) and TECS 1002 (Paper II – Writing).

Conclusion

This study applied the ROAD-MAPPING framework by Dafouz & Smit, (2020) and conducted a comparative analysis on the representation of internationalisation of undergraduate EMI programmes on university websites in Japan and Malaysia. It aimed to provide insights into the diverse context that EMI operates in: Outer Circle country (Malaysia) and Expanding Circle country (Japan) and its influence on the implementation of EMI in Asian higher education. The EMI programme components consisted of: (a) Level of English language proficiency requirements for domestic and international students; (b) Fields of study offered; (c) Medium of Instruction (MoI); (d) Language support and (e) Student admission for domestic and international students. These components were analysed according to the five ROAD-MAPPING dimensions: Roles of English (RO), Academic Discipline (AD), Language Management (M), Agency (A), and Internationalisation and Globalisation (ING). Results showed that the level of English language proficiency for local and domestic students in Japan is generally higher compared to Malaysia. In terms of language support, the courses offered in Japan and Malaysia both exist in the form of English for Academic Purposes, but are noticeably separated from the EMI programmes. The MoI is mostly English in Japan, however, in Malaysia, a bilingual or trilingual approach is used for specific courses like Law and Islamic studies.

From the findings, we can conclude that the driving forces of EMI programmes in Asian universities include at least four factors: (a) the dominance of English as the international language of science and technology; (b) the advantages of learning in English and its link to securing global professional careers; (c) international standardised tests of English language proficiency such as IELTS and TOEFL as entry requirements for non-native speakers; (d) opportunities for international exchange and networking with scholars and researchers from abroad. Implications of this study show the distinctive nature of EMI programmes that are associated with the social, institutional and socioeconomic actuality where it is located.

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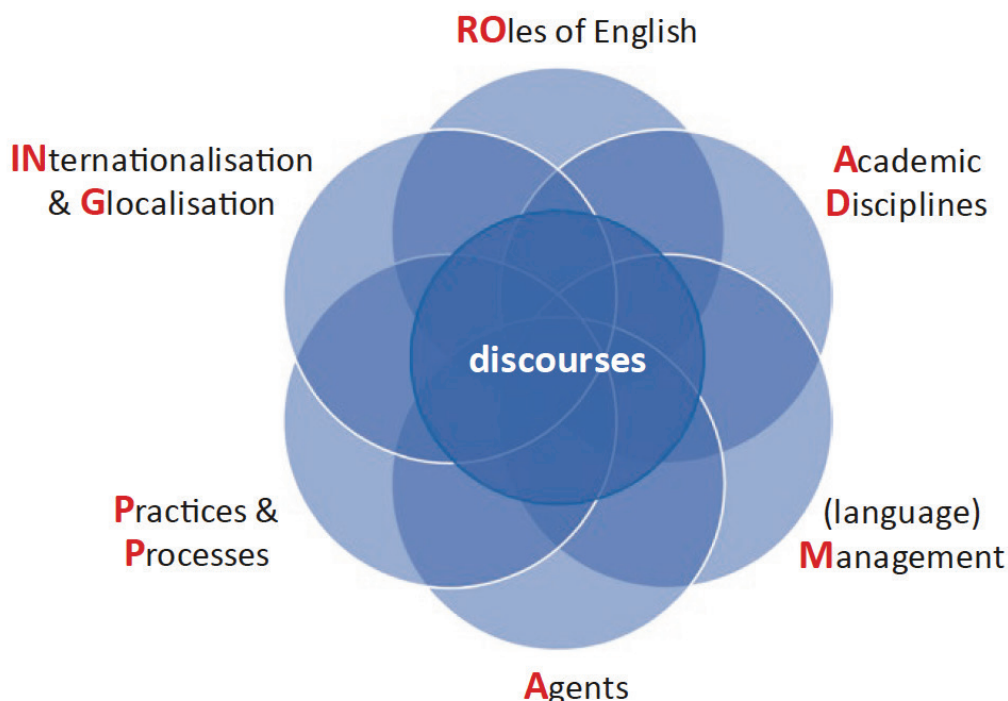
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Figure

Figure 1 : The ROAD-MAPPING framework for EMEMUS (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 404; Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 47)



Tables

Table 1 : OECD and partner countries offering tertiary programmes in English (2012)

USE OF ENGLISH IN INSTRUCTION	OECD AND PARTNER COUNTRIES
All or nearly all programmes offered in English	Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, United Kingdom, United States
Many programmes offered in English	Denmark, Finland, the Netherlands, Sweden
Some programmes offered in English	Belgium (Fl.), Czech Republic, France, Germany, Hungary, Iceland, Japan, Korea, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovak Republic, Switzerland, Turkey
No or nearly no programmes offered in English	Austria, Belgium (Fr.), Chile, Greece, Israel, Italy, Luxembourg, Mexico, Portugal, Russian Federation, Spain

Source: OECD, compiled from brochures for prospective international students by OAD (Austria), CHES and NARI (Czech Republic), Cirus (Denmark), CIMO (Finland), EduFrance (France), DAAD (Germany), Campus Hungary (Hungary), University of Iceland (Iceland), JPSS (Japan), NIIED (Korea), NUFFIC (Netherlands), SIU (Norway), CRASP (Poland), Swedish Institute (Sweden) and Middle-East Technical University (Turkey). (OECD, 2014: 346)

Table 2 : Criteria for Categorising Universities (Adapted from Brown & Iyobe, 2014)

Criteria	Details
Size	Small (<2,500 students) Medium (2,500 – 10,000 students) Large (>10,000 students)
Status	University National / Public
Position of EMI	Established / Newly forming Positioned as language / content programme or multiple EMI programmes

Table 3 : Universities and degree programmes studied in Japan (Adapted from Bradford, 2023)

University	Type	EMI Programme	University size (approx. undergraduate employment)	Major field of study	Year EMI programme established	Approx. number of students admitted each year (of which international students)
Nagoya University	National	Japan-in-Asia Cultural Studies Program (JACS)	10,000	Humanities	2011	(5-10)
Hokkaido University	National	Integrated Science Program (ISP)	12,000	Cross-disciplinary science	2017	(12)
University of Tokyo	National	International Program on Japan in East Asia International Program on Environmental Sciences	14,000	Humanities Environmental Sciences	2015	(5)
Tohoku University	National	International Mechanical and Aerospace Engineering	10,000	Engineering	2010	(N/A)

		Course (IMAC)				
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Table 4: Universities and degree programmes studied in Malaysia

University	Type	EMI Programme	University size (approx. undergraduate employment)	Major field of study	Year EMI programme established
Universiti Malaya	Public	Bachelor of Muamalat Management	17,182	Islamic Studies	1996
Universiti Teknologi Malaysia	Public	Bachelor of Computer Science (Software Engineering)	16,424	Engineering	N/A
Universiti Sains Malaysia	Public	Bachelor of Engineering (Honours) Aerospace Engineering	15,000	Engineering	1999
International Islamic University Malaysia	Public	Bachelor of Laws (Honours)	17,731	Law	1983