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**The Implementation of English as a Medium of
Instruction in Algerian Political Science**
Departments:
***Challenges, Opportunities, and Pedagogical
Implications***

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Declaration of Originality

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Mr. Ahmed CHIKHAOUI .

Didications

I dedicate this work :

To my family, my colleagues, and my teachers, with gratitude.

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Abstract

This dissertation investigates the implementation of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in Algerian Political Science departments, a topic that has remained almost invisible in both the national and the international research literature. Adopting a transformative sequential mixed-methods design, the study draws on an electronically distributed questionnaire completed by 92 undergraduate students and on face-to-face, audio-recorded interviews with the four Political Science teachers currently delivering EMI across three Algerian universities: Dr Tahar Moulay University of Saida, Djillali Liabès University of Sidi Bel Abbès, and Abou Bekr Belkaïd University of Tlemcen. The quantitative findings reveal that students face real linguistic and conceptual challenges, particularly with lecture pace, the reading of academic texts, and complex disciplinary terminology, while at the same time strongly endorsing EMI for its career, mobility, and global-academic benefits. The qualitative findings show that teachers unanimously identify EMI assessment, conceptual terminology, and insufficient institutional support as central concerns, and that they rank training in EMI pedagogy and assessment as their most pressing professional needs. When the two data sets are triangulated, they converge on a single coherent policy agenda in which the in-class scaffolds students request and the professional development teachers need are mutually reinforcing rather than competing. The study contributes empirically by providing the first systematic account of EMI in Algerian Political Science, theoretically by engaging translanguaging, disciplinary-literacy, and decolonial perspectives, and practically by offering targeted recommendations for institutions, faculty, students, and policymakers. The findings suggest that the principal obstacle to effective EMI is not stakeholder resistance but the absence of a coordinated institutional and policy response.

Keywords: English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI); Algerian higher education; Political Science; translanguaging; language policy.

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List of Acronyms

BICS	Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
ELT	English Language Teaching
EMI	English as a Medium of Instruction
ESAP	English for Specific Academic Purposes
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
ETP	English-Taught Programme
L1	First Language (mother tongue)
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
MSA	Modern Standard Arabic
STEM	Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

General Introduction

General Introduction

English has become the main language of higher education and academic research around the world. More and more universities, even in countries where English is not the first language, are starting to teach their courses in English. This is what researchers call English as a Medium of Instruction, or simply EMI. The reasons are mostly practical: most academic books are written in English, most international journals publish in English, and most global conferences are held in English. So if a country wants its universities to be visible at the international level, English becomes very important.

Algeria is now part of this global movement. For many years, Algerian higher education was mainly delivered in two languages: Arabic and French. Arabic was promoted after independence as part of the Arabisation policy, while French stayed as the dominant language in many scientific and university fields because of the long French colonial period. In recent years, however, the Algerian government has decided to give more space to English, especially in higher education. Some universities have started using English as the medium of instruction in different fields, and Political Science departments are no exception.

The shift to English in Political Science is not a small change. Political Science is a discipline that deals with sensitive ideas: power, the state, sovereignty, democracy, hegemony, and international relations. Most of these concepts are deeply connected to specific languages and traditions of thought. Teaching Political Science in English in Algeria therefore raises many questions. Are students ready for it? Are teachers prepared to teach in English? Does the university provide enough support? And what does it mean, more broadly, to teach a political discipline in a foreign language in a country with a complex linguistic history?

It is also important to recognise that the move toward EMI in Algeria is not happening in isolation. It is part of a wider regional shift. Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt, and the Gulf states have all introduced EMI in different forms over the past decade, with varying degrees of success. The Algerian case is therefore both unique, because of its specific colonial history, its Arabisation legacy, and its particular pattern of multilingualism, and representative of a broader regional dynamic. Studying Algeria carefully can therefore contribute not only to the improvement of Algerian higher education but also to the understanding of EMI in the Maghreb and the wider MENA region.

Although EMI is becoming more present in Algerian universities, very few studies have looked at how it is actually working in the field, especially in the Social Sciences and Humanities. Most existing research focuses on STEM fields like medicine or engineering. Political Science, in particular, is almost absent from the international literature on EMI in Algeria. Yet this is exactly the discipline where the question of language matters most, because the content itself is political.

Teachers and students who are now part of this shift to EMI face real challenges every day. Students often struggle to follow lectures in English, to read English-language textbooks, and to express complex political ideas in a foreign language. Teachers, on their side, often have to deliver complex content without being trained in EMI pedagogy and without enough institutional support. These difficulties are not just personal problems; they reflect a wider gap between the policy of teaching in English and the actual conditions on the ground.

The problem becomes even more visible when we consider the sheer scarcity of empirical evidence about EMI in Algerian Political Science. Most discussions of EMI in Algeria, including in policy circles, rely either on the international EMI literature (which mostly addresses very different contexts) or on anecdotal accounts of personal classroom experience. A systematic, empirically grounded analysis of how EMI actually works in Algerian Political Science classrooms, what students think, what teachers think, what they need, what they prioritise, has been, until now, largely missing. Without such evidence, policy decisions risk being made on the basis of assumptions that may or may not match the real situation in the classrooms they are supposed to govern.

This study tries to bring evidence to this situation. By collecting data from both students and teachers in three Algerian universities, the present research aims to better understand the challenges, opportunities, and pedagogical implications of EMI in Political Science departments. The goal is not only to describe the situation but also to suggest ways to improve it.

The present study tries to answer three main research questions:

- What are the main challenges that students and teachers face in EMI Political Science classrooms in Algeria?
- What opportunities do students and teachers see in the implementation of EMI in their departments?

- What pedagogical and institutional supports are needed to make EMI more effective in Algerian Political Science departments?

Based on the literature reviewed and on the specific context of Algerian higher education, the present study is built on three hypotheses, each of which corresponds directly to one of the three research questions formulated above.

- Students and teachers in Algerian Political Science departments face significant linguistic, conceptual, and pedagogical challenges in EMI delivery. For students, these challenges are expected to concern lecture comprehension, the reading of academic texts in English, and the understanding of complex Political Science terminology. For teachers, they are expected to concern the assessment of students' learning, the lack of EMI-specific training, and limited institutional support.
- Despite these challenges, both students and teachers will identify clear opportunities in EMI implementation. For students, these are expected to concern career prospects, access to global academic resources, and international mobility. For teachers, they are expected to concern the international visibility of the discipline and a sense that, in principle, EMI is a useful step for the future of Algerian Political Science.
- Both students and teachers will identify a convergent set of needs that, taken together, articulate a coherent pedagogical and institutional agenda. The success of EMI in Algerian Political Science departments is expected to depend less on individual effort than on coordinated institutional and policy action.

This study is important for several reasons. First, it gives a voice to students and teachers who are directly affected by EMI but rarely heard in policy discussions. Second, it focuses on Political Science, a discipline that is largely missing from the EMI literature, especially in the Algerian context. Third, it covers three different universities, which makes the findings more representative of the Algerian situation than a single-site study could be. Finally, the study offers practical recommendations that can help institutions and policymakers make better decisions about EMI in the future.

A further reason why this study is significant is its methodological design. Most existing studies on EMI in Algeria use either a quantitative approach (typically a questionnaire) or a qualitative approach (typically interviews), but rarely both. By combining a structured questionnaire with semi-structured interviews and by deliberately bringing the two data sets into

dialogue, the present study can produce a richer and more triangulated picture of EMI implementation than either method could on its own. The mixed-methods design is therefore not just a technical choice; it is a deliberate response to the complexity of the EMI phenomenon, which has both broad patterns visible across many respondents and deep structural features that only careful qualitative analysis can reveal.

Finally, by giving systematic attention to the work of Algerian researchers, particularly Ouarniki (2023) and Ouarniki and Boumediene (2025), the study seeks to contribute to a developing local research community on EMI. Far too often, work on Algerian higher education is read primarily through the lens of international scholarship, with local voices treated as secondary. By placing Algerian scholars at the centre of its theoretical engagement, the present study tries to support a different model: one in which Algerian research on Algerian higher education is recognised as a primary source of insight, in dialogue with the broader international literature.

The study uses a mixed-methods approach. The first phase is quantitative: a structured questionnaire was distributed to 92 undergraduate students enrolled in EMI modules in the Departments of Law and Political Science of the three participating universities. The second phase is qualitative: a semi-structured interview was conducted with the four Political Science teachers currently delivering EMI in these departments. The two sets of data are then put in dialogue to give a complete picture of EMI implementation as seen from both sides of the classroom.

The mixed-methods design is deliberately chosen for this study because EMI implementation is a phenomenon that has both broad patterns visible across many respondents and deep structural features that only careful qualitative analysis can reveal. A purely quantitative study would have given us numbers without explanation; a purely qualitative study would have given us depth without breadth. By combining the two approaches, the present study aims to capture both dimensions and to bring them into productive dialogue. The full methodological details, including the rationale for the transformative paradigm that guides the study, the procedures used to collect and analyse the data, and the ethical principles that have been respected throughout, are presented in Chapter Two.

The dissertation is organised in three chapters, plus this general introduction and a general conclusion. Chapter One presents the literature review and the theoretical framework on EMI in higher education, with a particular focus on the Algerian and MENA contexts. Chapter Two presents the methodology and the empirical findings of both phases of the study, supported by tables and figures. Chapter Three discusses these findings, draws their theoretical and practical implications, and offers recommendations for institutions, faculty, students, and policymakers. The general conclusion summarises the main contributions of the study and points to directions for future research.

Chapter One

Literature Review and Theoretical Framework

1.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the theoretical and empirical background of the study. It reviews the most important research on English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI), with a special focus on its implementation in higher education and on the specific issues raised when EMI is introduced in postcolonial multilingual contexts like Algeria. The aim of the chapter is to position the present study within the existing literature, to identify the gaps that the study tries to fill, and to introduce the theoretical concepts that will guide the analysis in Chapters Two and Three.

1.2 Defining English as a Medium of Instruction

Before discussing the global landscape of EMI, it is important to define the concept clearly. EMI looks like a simple idea, teaching a subject in English, but the academic literature has shown that the term hides several important nuances, and that different scholars have defined it in slightly different ways. Reviewing these definitions is therefore the first step in any serious study of EMI.

The most widely used definition of EMI in current academic work is the one proposed by Dearden (2014). According to Dearden, EMI is "the use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English." This definition has three important elements that should be noted carefully.

First, the focus of EMI is on academic subjects, not on the English language itself. The students who attend an EMI lecture in Political Science are there to learn Political Science, not to learn English. English is the medium, not the goal. Second, the definition is geographical and demographic: EMI specifically refers to contexts where English is not the first language of most people. So a Political Science course taught in English in London is not EMI; the same course taught in English in Algiers, Tunis, or Madrid is. Third, the definition does not say anything about how well the English is taught or how well students understand it. EMI exists as soon as English is used as the language of delivery, regardless of quality.

This working definition has been adopted and refined by a number of major scholars in the field. Coleman (2006), in an early and widely cited article, framed EMI as one of the most

important markers of the “Englishisation” of European higher education and warned that the policy implications were not always well understood by the universities adopting it. Doiz, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2013), in their influential edited volume *English-Medium Instruction at Universities*, defined EMI as the use of English in higher-education contexts in which it is neither the official nor the dominant societal language, and they emphasised that EMI is best understood as a feature of internationalisation rather than as a language teaching method. Wächter and Maiworm (2014), in their large-scale European survey, documented the rapid growth of English-Taught Programmes (ETPs) across European universities and offered one of the first systematic empirical maps of how EMI was being implemented in practice. Together, these foundational works show that the concept of EMI has been developed through a dialogue between policy analysis (Coleman, 2006), conceptual clarification (Doiz et al., 2013) and large-scale empirical mapping (Wächter & Maiworm, 2014).

While Dearden's definition is the most cited, it is not the only one. Macaro (2018), in his important book *English Medium Instruction: Content and Language in Policy and Practice*, offers a slightly broader definition that explicitly recognises that EMI involves "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." This formulation makes one helpful clarification: English language classes themselves do not count as EMI, even if they are taught in English. The term EMI is reserved for non-language disciplines.

Lasagabaster (2022) adds another important nuance. He insists that EMI should be analysed within a wider continuum of educational programmes that involve English. According to him, EMI is one approach among others, including immersion programmes, bilingual education, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Each of these has different goals, different methods, and different implications for students and teachers. Confusing them, Lasagabaster argues, is one of the main reasons why EMI policy is often poorly designed.

Pecorari and Malmström (2018) offer a more analytical definition, defining EMI by four characteristics. According to them, an educational programme is EMI when (a) English is used as the language of instruction; (b) English is not itself the subject being taught; (c) language development is not a primary intended outcome; and (d) for most participants, English is a

second or additional language. These four criteria together provide a useful checklist for identifying EMI in practice.

In addition to these widely cited authors, several other scholars have made important contributions to the definitional debate. Wilkinson (2013), drawing on his long experience with the Maastricht University EMI programme, defined EMI as a continuum rather than a single uniform practice; at one end stand programmes in which English is the exclusive language of teaching and assessment, and at the other end stand programmes in which English is used selectively alongside one or more other languages. This continuum perspective is particularly useful in postcolonial multilingual contexts like Algeria, where the boundary between “EMI” and “multilingual instruction” is often fuzzy in practice. Tsuneyoshi (2005), writing earlier from the Japanese context, anticipated many later debates by stressing that EMI is shaped not only by language but also by institutional culture, by faculty identity, and by the expectations of students and parents. Her work reminds us that EMI is never just a linguistic phenomenon; it is also a cultural and institutional one.

Finally, Dafouz and Smit (2016) propose what is perhaps the most theoretically ambitious definition. They introduce the concept of ROAD-MAPPING, a framework that approaches EMI through six interlocking dimensions: Roles of English, Academic Disciplines, (language) Management, Agents, Practices and Processes, and Internationalisation and Glocalisation. From this point of view, EMI is not a thing that can be defined in a single sentence; it is a complex configuration of factors that vary across institutions, disciplines, and national contexts. The Dafouz and Smit framework is particularly useful for studies, like the present one, that try to understand EMI as it is actually lived in a specific disciplinary and national context, rather than as an abstract policy category.

1.2.3 Scope and Boundaries of EMI

Putting these definitions together, a few key points become clear. EMI is not the same as teaching English. EMI is not the same as bilingual or immersion education. EMI is not necessarily intended to develop students' English skills, even if such development often happens as a side effect. EMI is, fundamentally, the choice to deliver disciplinary content (mathematics, history, political science, medicine) in English in a context where English is not the first language of most students.

These boundary conditions are widely accepted in the scholarly literature. Macaro et al. (2018), in their systematic review, emphasise that the absence of an explicit language-learning aim is what most clearly separates EMI from related practices such as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and immersion education. Galloway and Rose (2021) reach a similar conclusion in their global overview, arguing that conflating EMI with these other approaches has produced policy confusion in many national systems. Ouarniki (2023), in her Algerian study, makes the point even more concretely: when EMI is mistaken for an English language programme, institutions provide the wrong kind of support, evaluate students by the wrong criteria, and ultimately undermine both the disciplinary learning and the language development that the policy was supposed to produce. The four criteria identified by Pecorari and Malmström (2018) and the boundary conditions discussed here are therefore not just conceptual exercises; they have direct implications for institutional design and policy formulation, which is one reason why the present study takes them as the starting point for its analysis of EMI in Algerian Political Science departments.

This last point is particularly important for the present study. The Algerian Political Science classrooms studied in this dissertation are EMI classrooms by all the criteria above: English is the medium of instruction, the subject being taught is Political Science (not English), the goal of the courses is disciplinary learning rather than language learning, and English is a second or third language for almost all participants.

1.3 EMI vs. ESP

Among the related concepts mentioned by Lasagabaster (2022), the one most often confused with EMI is English for Specific Purposes (ESP). The two approaches both involve teaching English in connection with a specific academic or professional field, and in the Algerian university system both are sometimes present in the same department. It is therefore important to clarify the differences between them, because the two approaches have very different goals and require very different teaching strategies.

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a long-established branch of English Language Teaching (ELT). The classical definition by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) describes ESP as "an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning." In other words, ESP is fundamentally a language course: its main

purpose is to develop the learners' English skills. What makes it "specific" is that the content of the course is chosen to fit the academic or professional field of the learners. So, for example, an ESP course for Political Science students might focus on reading academic articles, writing argumentative essays about political topics, or learning the vocabulary of international relations.

Within the broader category of ESP, scholars often distinguish between English for Academic Purposes (EAP), which prepares learners for academic study in general, and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP), which prepares them for the particular language demands of their discipline. Hyland (2006) emphasises that good EAP and ESAP programmes go beyond vocabulary and grammar; they introduce learners to the discourse conventions of their field, including how to argue, how to cite, and how to organise an academic text. In the Algerian context, ESP courses for Political Science students typically combine general EAP with discipline-specific elements.

1.3.2 The Core Difference: Goal and Focus

The most important difference between EMI and ESP can be summarised in a single sentence: in ESP, English is the goal; in EMI, English is the medium. This is not just a question of vocabulary. It changes everything about the way the course is designed, who teaches it, how students are assessed, and what they are expected to learn.

In an ESP course, the teacher is usually a language specialist (often from the English department), and the assessment focuses on the learners' English skills. The disciplinary content (Political Science, in our case) is used as raw material for language work. Students are evaluated on whether their English has improved.

In an EMI course, by contrast, the teacher is a content specialist (a Political Scientist, in our case), and the assessment focuses on whether the students have understood the disciplinary content. The English language is the channel through which content is delivered, but it is not what is being measured. A student can pass an EMI exam by writing in imperfect English as long as the political analysis is correct; in an ESP course, the same student would lose marks for the same imperfect English.

1.3.3 A Comparative Summary

Table 1.1 below compares EMI and ESP across a range of dimensions. The table is based on a synthesis of Macaro (2018), Lasagabaster (2022), Hutchinson and Waters (1987), and Hyland (2006).

Table 1.1, A Comparative Summary of EMI and ESP

Dimension	EMI	ESP
Main goal	Learning of academic content in a discipline.	Development of English language skills for a specific use.
Status of English	Medium (a tool for delivering content).	Goal (the actual subject of the course).
Type of teacher	Content specialist (e.g. a political scientist).	Language specialist (e.g. an English teacher).
Typical assessment	Disciplinary knowledge and analytical skills.	English proficiency and academic literacy in English.
Curriculum focus	Disciplinary theories, concepts, and methods.	Vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing, speaking strategies.
Place in higher education	A whole content course delivered in English.	Often a support module alongside content courses.
Relation to language proficiency	Assumes a sufficient level of English already in place.	Aims to develop the level of English itself.

Despite these clear differences, EMI and ESP are not in competition. On the contrary, the EMI literature increasingly argues that the two approaches should work together: a well-designed EMI programme is usually accompanied by ESP or EAP support so that students can develop both their disciplinary knowledge and the English skills needed to engage with it. McKinley (2025) goes further and argues that the future of EMI in non-Anglophone contexts depends on closer collaboration between content teachers and language specialists, since neither group on its own can address all the dimensions of EMI delivery.

1.4 The Theoretical Foundations of EMI

Defining EMI and distinguishing it from related practices like ESP is an important first step, but it does not by itself explain why EMI works (or fails to work) in particular ways. To go

further, we have to look at the theoretical foundations on which the practice of EMI rests. These foundations come from several distinct but overlapping traditions of educational theory, and reviewing them briefly is useful both for understanding the design of the present study and for interpreting its findings in Chapters Two and Three.

1.4.1 Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Theory

The first theoretical foundation comes from the tradition of Content and Language Integrated Learning, or CLIL. Coyle, Hood and Marsh (2010), in their influential book on the subject, argue that effective integration of content and language in a non-native classroom rests on four interlocking dimensions, often referred to as the 4Cs: Content (the subject matter being learned), Communication (the language used to learn it), Cognition (the thinking processes involved), and Culture (the wider cultural and identity dimension of the learning experience). Although CLIL was developed primarily in European secondary education and is not identical to EMI, its theoretical insight is directly relevant. The 4Cs framework reminds us that an EMI lecture is not just a vehicle for content delivery; it is a complex learning environment in which language, thought, and culture interact at every moment. An EMI teacher who pays attention only to content (and not to communication, cognition, and culture) is likely to produce shallow learning outcomes regardless of how well the content itself is delivered.

1.4.2 Cummins' BICS and CALP Framework

A second important theoretical foundation comes from the work of Jim Cummins. Cummins (1979, 2008) introduced the distinction between Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). BICS refers to the conversational fluency that students typically develop relatively quickly in a second language; CALP refers to the much more demanding kind of language proficiency required to engage with academic content, abstract reasoning, and discipline-specific texts. According to Cummins, BICS can be acquired in one to two years of exposure, while CALP normally takes five to seven years to develop. The implications for EMI are direct and serious. Many Algerian Political Science students have BICS-level English (they can hold simple conversations, watch films, and follow basic instructions), but they have not yet developed CALP-level English (they cannot easily read theoretical articles, follow complex argumentative lectures, or write extended academic essays).

The gap between BICS and CALP is, in effect, the theoretical explanation for many of the difficulties that this study documents empirically in Chapter Two.

1.4.3 Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory and the Zone of Proximal Development

A third theoretical foundation comes from Lev Vygotsky's sociocultural theory of learning. Vygotsky (1978) introduced the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), defined as the gap between what a learner can do on their own and what they can do with appropriate guidance and support. Within this zone, scaffolding by a more capable peer or teacher is crucial: it allows the learner to engage with material that would otherwise be inaccessible. For EMI, this insight is fundamental. Algerian Political Science students engaging with English-medium content are operating, for many topics, within their ZPD: the content is just beyond what they could manage on their own, but with the right scaffolding (advance materials, multilingual glossaries, paced delivery, peer support) they can engage with it productively. Without scaffolding, the same content collapses into incomprehension. The student preference for advance lecture slides, reported in Chapter Two, can therefore be read as an intuitive request for the kind of scaffolding that Vygotsky's theory predicts will be most effective.

1.4.4 Translanguaging Theory

A fourth theoretical foundation, which will be developed in detail in §1.9.3, is translanguaging theory. Otheguy, García and Reid (2015) define translanguaging as the deployment of a speaker's full linguistic repertoire across the boundaries that are conventionally drawn between named languages. In a translanguaging perspective, the multilingual EMI classroom is not seen as a place where different languages compete, but as a single learning environment in which the learner mobilises all available linguistic resources to make sense of new content. This theoretical orientation is especially important in Algerian EMI classrooms, where Arabic, French, and English coexist routinely, and where students naturally combine them to construct understanding. Translanguaging theory provides the conceptual vocabulary needed to describe this practice not as a problem of code-switching but as a productive learning strategy.

1.4.5 The Internationalisation of Higher Education

Finally, EMI is theoretically embedded in the broader discourse of the internationalisation of higher education. Knight (2008) defines internationalisation as the process

of integrating an international, intercultural, and global dimension into the purpose, functions, and delivery of higher education. From this perspective, EMI is not just a language policy; it is one of the principal vehicles through which universities internationalise their teaching, research, and student recruitment. Hultgren, Jensen and Dimova (2015) have argued that EMI should always be analysed against the backdrop of internationalisation strategies, because the meaning of teaching in English varies considerably depending on whether the goal is global ranking, regional engagement, or domestic capacity-building. For Algerian universities, which have launched EMI as part of a broader push toward international visibility, this theoretical perspective is particularly relevant.

1.5 Core Dimensions of EMI Implementation

Once EMI has been clearly defined and distinguished from ESP, the next step is to identify the most important elements that any analysis of EMI should consider. The literature has gradually converged around a set of core dimensions that recur across different national and disciplinary contexts. These dimensions are interrelated, and ignoring any one of them tends to produce a partial or misleading picture of EMI implementation. The following sub-sections present the seven most important elements, organised according to the typology proposed by Bradford (2016) and refined in the more recent work of Macaro et al. (2017), Lasagabaster (2022), and Chroqui et al. (2025).

1.5.1 Language Proficiency of Students and Teachers

The first element is the level of English proficiency of the people involved in the EMI classroom. EMI assumes that both teachers and students already have a sufficient level of English to handle academic content in that language. In practice, however, this assumption is rarely fully met. Macaro et al. (2017) found that mismatched proficiency levels, between teachers and students, or among students themselves, are one of the most common challenges in EMI worldwide. In multilingual settings like Algeria, students often arrive at university with very different English backgrounds depending on their school, their region, and their socio-economic situation. The same is true of teachers: some have studied or worked abroad and feel comfortable in English, while others teach in English mainly because they have been asked to do so, not because they feel fully prepared.

1.5.2 Disciplinary Literacy in English

A related but distinct element is what McKinley (2025) calls "disciplinary literacy". This concept goes beyond general English proficiency. It refers to the specific way of reading, writing, arguing, and thinking that characterises a particular academic discipline. Two students with similar TOEFL scores can have very different levels of disciplinary literacy in Political Science, depending on how much they have read, written, and discussed political content in English. The EMI literature increasingly argues that disciplinary literacy, not general proficiency, is the real key to EMI success, a point that is especially relevant for a content-heavy and concept-rich discipline like Political Science.

1.5.3 Pedagogical Strategies

The third element is pedagogy. Teaching effectively in a second language is not the same as teaching in one's first language; it requires explicit attention to pace, terminology, comprehension checks, scaffolding, and the design of learning materials. Bashar (2025) shows that, even in well-resourced EMI universities, teachers tend to fall back on traditional lecture-based methods unless they receive specific training in EMI pedagogy. Chroqui et al. (2025) make this point even more strongly: EMI faculty readiness is not just linguistic but pedagogical, and developing EMI-specific teaching strategies is one of the most pressing professional needs identified across the international literature.

1.5.4 Assessment

Assessment in EMI is one of the most under-examined elements in the literature, and yet it is crucial. When students are assessed in English on disciplinary content, the assessment is testing two things at the same time: their understanding of the subject and their ability to express it in English. Disentangling the two is methodologically difficult, and unfair assessment can lead to unfair grades. Lasagabaster (2022) argues that EMI requires assessment practices that are deliberately calibrated to the linguistic conditions of delivery, for example, by allowing students more time, by simplifying the language of exam questions, or by giving partial credit for content even when expression is imperfect. The teachers interviewed in Chapter Two of the present study unanimously identify EMI assessment as one of their main difficulties, which confirms how important this element is.

1.5.5 Institutional Support

No EMI programme can succeed on the individual effort of teachers and students alone. Bradford (2016) and Marcjanik et al. (2025) insist that institutional support is the structural condition for effective EMI. This includes administrative recognition of the additional workload involved in preparing EMI courses, professional development opportunities, access to teaching materials in English, language support services for students, and the creation of communities of practice in which EMI faculty can share experience. The absence of such institutional support is a recurrent finding in the literature, and the present study confirms it strongly in the Algerian Political Science context.

1.5.6 Language Policy and the Role of the Mother Tongue

The sixth element concerns the wider language policy context. EMI is never introduced in a vacuum; it is always introduced into an educational system that already has its own language(s) of instruction, its own history, and its own ideological commitments. In Algeria, EMI enters a context shaped by Arabic, French, and Tamazight. The question of how the mother tongue (or tongues) of students and teachers should be treated within an EMI classroom is one of the most theoretically interesting and practically important questions in EMI research. The literature on translanguaging (Otheguy, García & Reid, 2015; Lu et al., 2023), discussed in detail in Section 1.9.3 below, addresses this question directly.

1.5.7 Stakeholder Attitudes and Identity

Finally, EMI is never just a technical educational decision; it carries identity and ideological dimensions. How students and teachers feel about EMI, whether they see it as an opportunity or as a threat, as a step toward modernisation or as a form of linguistic imperialism, affects how it is implemented and experienced. Sah et al. (2024) and R'boul (2022) argue that ignoring the identity dimensions of EMI in postcolonial contexts leads to policies that are technically reasonable but ideologically blind. The present study takes this dimension seriously and gives space to stakeholder voices in both the questionnaire and the interview phases.

1.5.8 The Interaction of These Elements

It is essential to understand that the seven elements above are not independent. They interact constantly. Pedagogical strategies depend on language proficiency. Assessment depends

on pedagogy. Institutional support shapes the room available for translanguaging. Stakeholder attitudes shape the willingness of teachers to invest in professional development. Bradford (2016) makes this point clearly when he insists that no single dimension can be addressed in isolation. This idea of interaction will guide the analysis of the empirical findings in Chapter Two and the discussion in Chapter Three.

1.6 The Global Landscape of EMI

The expansion of EMI in higher education has become one of the most striking features of the global academic landscape in the past two decades. Macaro et al. (2017) carried out a major systematic review of 83 studies on EMI in higher education and showed that the phenomenon has spread very rapidly across many regions of the world. They also found that despite this rapid expansion, the evidence about whether EMI actually helps students learn content or improves their English remains inconclusive. According to them, key stakeholders often have serious concerns about EMI even while accepting it as inevitable.

Lasagabaster (2022) provides a more recent synthesis of EMI research. He argues that EMI is rarely introduced with a clear policy framework, which means that lecturers and students are often left to manage major linguistic and pedagogical challenges on their own. This observation echoes Bradford's (2016) influential typology, which identifies four kinds of EMI implementation challenges: linguistic, cultural, administrative-managerial, and institutional. Bradford insists that these dimensions interact and that solving EMI problems requires action on all of them at the same time.

More recent reviews (Saldo et al., 2025; Liao et al., 2025) confirm that EMI improves students' English language skills and global competitiveness, but only when institutions provide proper support, training, and translanguaging-friendly approaches. Without these supports, EMI is more likely to widen gaps than to close them. This conclusion is directly relevant to the Algerian context, where institutional support for EMI is still developing.

It is also worth noting that the motivations for adopting EMI vary from one context to another. In some countries, EMI is part of an active strategy to attract international students and improve university rankings. In others, it is a response to economic and labour-market demands, since most international companies and global organisations operate in English. In still other

contexts, EMI is the result of slow, unplanned drift rather than of a deliberate decision: courses are simply offered in English because the textbooks, the digital resources, and the disciplinary literature are mostly in English. Identifying which of these motivations is strongest in any given case is important, because the kind of EMI that emerges depends heavily on why it was introduced in the first place. The Algerian case combines elements of all these motivations, which is one of the reasons why studying it carefully is so valuable.

1.7 Language Policy in Algerian Higher Education

1.7.1 From French to Arabic to English

Algeria has one of the most complex linguistic situations in the world. It was a French colony for more than 130 years, which left French deeply embedded in administration, science, and higher education. After independence in 1962, the Algerian state launched the Arabisation policy in order to promote Modern Standard Arabic and to build a unified national identity (Le Roux, 2017). However, as Djaballah (2021) explains, the application of Arabisation was uneven: pre-university education was Arabised quickly, while many university disciplines, especially in the sciences, kept French as the language of instruction.

The historical trajectory of language policy in Algerian higher education is therefore not a simple succession of one language replacing another, but a layered process in which different languages have come to occupy different functional spaces. In the early years after independence, Arabic was promoted as the language of national identity and of cultural revival, while French was tolerated as a temporary necessity in scientific and technical fields. With time, what was supposed to be a temporary arrangement became a long-lasting structural feature of the higher education system. Several generations of Algerian academics were trained in French, published in French, and built their professional identities in French, even as the political discourse continued to insist on the centrality of Arabic.

This created a difficult situation for many students. Dendane (2015) shows clearly how medical students in Tlemcen, who were educated in Arabic at school, suddenly had to study medicine in French at the university. The same problem can now happen with EMI: students who studied in Arabic and French throughout their schooling are suddenly asked to read and discuss Political Science in English. As Rouabah (2022) points out, this kind of language mismatch is

not just a technical problem but also a question of social justice and equal access to higher education.

It is important to note that the Algerian linguistic landscape includes more than the three languages most frequently mentioned. Tamazight, recognised as a national language in 2002 and as an official language in 2016, is the mother tongue of a significant proportion of the population, and Algerian Arabic (often called Darija) is the daily language of communication for most Algerians, while Modern Standard Arabic remains the formal written and educational variety. Adding English to this configuration does not simply replace one language with another; it adds a new layer to a multilingual landscape that is already rich and complex. Any analysis of EMI in Algeria that ignores this multilingual reality is bound to be partial.

1.7.2 The Emergence of English in Algerian Higher Education

More recently, English has started to gain importance in Algerian higher education. Mbata (2025) describes how English is now becoming visible in legal and policy texts in Algeria, especially in higher education and public administration. Senouci et al. (2024), based on a study at Saida University, report that students and teachers generally have a positive attitude toward EMI but feel that Algerian universities are not yet prepared for the rapid shift to English-medium teaching.

Maraf (2024) adds an important critical voice. Drawing on data from 200 students and 20 teachers across 64 Algerian universities, she argues that the rapid promotion of English carries the risk of an "unnoticed linguistic imperialism" that could reproduce some of the patterns of dependency that Arabisation tried to overcome. This concern is also raised by Abdat-Hadjadj (2024), who studies the impact of globalisation on Algerian language policy. Rabahi et al. (2026), in a recent theoretical synthesis, argue that Algerian university classrooms are now sites where Arabic, Tamazight, French, and English meet and sometimes clash, reflecting bigger histories of colonialism, Arabisation, and globalisation.

A particularly important contribution to the Algerian-specific EMI literature is the work of Ouafa Ouarniki of Ziane Achour University of Djelfa. In her 2023 study, "Exploring teachers' perspectives on the implementation of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in Algerian higher education institutions: Challenges and opportunities", Ouarniki interviewed ten Algerian higher-education teachers from different fields of specialism and identified a set of recurrent

themes that closely parallel those examined in the present study. These include resistance to the rapid pace of EMI introduction, the need for capacity-building and professional development, and the recognition that EMI carries clear benefits for research and international competitiveness. Her work is one of the very few Algerian studies that gives systematic attention to teacher voices in EMI implementation. In a more recent contribution, Ouarniki and Boumediene (2025) extend this line of analysis by showing that EMI experience varies significantly across disciplines, with the humanities and social sciences facing distinctive challenges that are not always visible in studies focused on STEM. The present dissertation builds directly on Ouarniki's line of research by extending it to the specific case of Political Science, a discipline that her own work identifies as particularly under-examined.

1.8 EMI in Postcolonial and Comparable Multilingual Contexts

The literature on EMI in postcolonial and multilingual settings beyond North Africa offers valuable comparative insight for the Algerian context. Countries such as Morocco, Tunisia, Lebanon, Jordan, Pakistan, India, and several Sub-Saharan African nations share structural similarities with Algeria, including colonial language legacies, multilayered language hierarchies, and the tension between national languages and English as an emerging medium of instruction. These parallel contexts, while distinct in their specificities, collectively illuminate the challenges and contradictions that characterize EMI implementation in societies where English competes with historically entrenched colonial languages such as French, or where it is positioned as a tool of modernization against a backdrop of linguistic nationalism.

R'boul (2022) offers a strong theoretical analysis of EMI in Moroccan universities. He argues that EMI in postcolonial North African contexts cannot be reduced to a simple pedagogical question. It is also a political question, because it involves the cultural and epistemic relationship between the Global North and the Global South. His work, based on focus groups with 24 Moroccan university teachers, shows that teachers often see EMI as a tension between global integration and local academic identity.

R'boul's analytical contribution goes further than this single observation. He develops the concept of "linguistic governmentality" to describe how EMI in Morocco, and, by extension, in similar postcolonial contexts, exercises a kind of soft power over the categories through which knowledge is produced and transmitted. From this point of view, choosing English as the

medium of instruction in a Political Science department is not just choosing a language; it is choosing a particular set of intellectual traditions, a particular canon of authors, a particular way of framing the very questions that the discipline is supposed to answer. This insight is highly relevant to the Algerian context, where the choice between Arabic, French, and English carries different ideological and theoretical weights.

Abdeljaoued (2023) studies the Tunisian case, which is the closest to Algeria in terms of postcolonial linguistic configuration. She finds that Tunisian students hold positive but pragmatic attitudes toward EMI and engage in fluid translanguaging between English, French, and Arabic to make sense of their courses. This observation is very important for the present study because Algerian students are likely to do the same. The methodological design of Abdeljaoued's study, combining survey data with classroom observation, is also relevant: it shows that what students say about their EMI experience and what they actually do in the classroom can differ in interesting ways, and that mixed-methods designs are particularly well suited to this field.

Sah et al. (2024), in a wider theoretical contribution, call for a decolonial lens on EMI research and practice in the Global South. They argue that many EMI policies, by ignoring the colonial legacy embedded in the privileging of English, can reproduce colonial ideologies even when they look like neutral modernisation projects. This argument is especially relevant in Algeria, given the country's long postcolonial history. Sah et al.'s key methodological insight is that EMI in the Global South cannot be evaluated only in terms of pedagogical efficiency; it must also be evaluated in terms of its relationship to the wider question of who produces knowledge and on whose terms.

In addition to these regional studies, Aljehani et al. (2024) provide a useful Saudi Arabian perspective on EMI in the Gulf, while Sahan et al. (2022) offer a large-scale comparative study of EMI in Thailand and Vietnam. Although these contexts differ from the Algerian one in important ways, they share with Algeria a postcolonial or post-imperial linguistic legacy and the experience of a relatively rapid policy shift toward English. The convergence of findings across these very different contexts, particularly around the gap between policy ambition and institutional readiness, strengthens the case for taking the Algerian situation seriously as part of a broader pattern that deserves coordinated international attention.

1.9 Stakeholder Attitudes, Pedagogical Readiness, and Multilingual Practice

1.9.1 Faculty Perspectives

Faculty attitudes are a central issue in EMI research. Dafouz (2018) shows that lecturers in Spanish EMI universities generally see EMI as good for their professional identity but worry about their double role as content teachers and language models. Bashar (2025), in a Turkish case study, finds that even motivated teachers tend to fall back on lecture-based, teacher-centred approaches when they don't receive proper EMI training. Chroqui et al. (2025), in a systematic literature review, conclude that successful EMI requires both linguistic proficiency and EMI-specific pedagogical strategies that most content teachers do not naturally possess.

Curd-Christiansen et al. (2021) and Marcjanik et al. (2025), in studies based in China and Poland respectively, identify the same set of issues: lack of institutional support, mixed student abilities, and the absence of structured professional development. The convergence of these findings across very different contexts is striking and suggests that the problem is structural rather than national.

1.9.2 Student Perspectives

Student attitudes toward EMI are usually described in the literature as "pragmatically positive but experientially ambivalent" (Jiang et al., 2025). Students like the career and mobility opportunities that come with EMI but also report comprehension difficulties and classroom anxiety. Sahan et al. (2022), in a large study covering 17 universities in Thailand and Vietnam, show that students often resist strict English-only approaches and prefer flexible language use that recognises their multilingual repertoire.

Zhou et al. (2023) bring an interesting nuance: their longitudinal study finds that self-efficacy and motivation predict EMI success better than English proficiency itself. McKinley (2025) goes further and argues that what is often called a "proficiency problem" in EMI is actually a "disciplinary literacy" problem, students struggle not because they don't know English but because they have not yet developed the academic literacy of their specific discipline in English.

1.9.3 Translanguaging and Multilingual Classroom Practices

A growing body of research challenges the assumption that EMI must mean "English only". Otheguy et al. (2015) provide the foundational definition of translanguaging as the use of a speaker's full linguistic repertoire across socially constructed language boundaries. From this perspective, when a student switches between English, French, and Arabic during a lecture, this is not a failure of EMI but a sophisticated cognitive strategy for making sense of complex content.

Lu et al. (2023), in a systematic review of 66 articles on translanguaging in EMI and CLIL classrooms, identify five major research foci and confirm that translanguaging is one of the most active areas of contemporary EMI research. Zhu et al. (2024), in a bibliometric analysis, show that the field is moving toward what they call a "translanguaging turn".

For Algeria, this is particularly relevant. The Algerian classroom is already multilingual: students bring Arabic, French, and increasingly English to the same learning experience. Sah et al. (2020), however, raise a useful warning: translanguaging itself can reproduce hierarchies if it systematically privileges some languages over others. In a country like Algeria, where Arabic, French, and English carry very different symbolic weights, this is a question that needs careful attention.

1.10 Research Gaps and Rationale for the Present Study

From this review of the literature, several gaps become visible and justify the present study. First, despite the rapidly growing EMI literature, very few studies focus on Algeria specifically, and the few that exist (Senouci et al., 2024; Maraf, 2024) tend to focus on STEM fields or on general policy, not on a specific discipline.

Second, the EMI literature is very heavily focused on STEM. Political Science is almost completely missing. Yet, as argued in the introduction, Political Science is a discipline where language carries particular weight, since it deals with politically sensitive concepts.

Third, the existing Algerian literature has rarely engaged with the theoretical concept of translanguaging in any serious empirical way, even though the multilingual reality of Algerian classrooms makes the concept particularly relevant. The present study takes this concept seriously and uses it as one of the analytical lenses for interpreting the data.

Fourth, the present study covers three universities (Saida, Sidi Bel Abbès, Tlemcen), giving the findings a regional dimension that single-site studies cannot achieve. By including three institutions, the study can identify shared patterns that are likely to apply across the broader Algerian context, while also remaining sensitive to local variation.

Finally, by focusing explicitly on the perspectives of both students and teachers, and by giving them a voice in the design and the analysis, the study aligns itself with the transformative paradigm described in Chapter Two. This means that the study is not just trying to describe EMI in Algerian Political Science departments; it is also trying to contribute, in a small way, to its improvement. The specific gaps identified above are not just academic gaps; they correspond to real pedagogical and institutional problems that affect real students and teachers every day.

By trying to fill these gaps, the present research aims to contribute meaningfully both to the international EMI literature and to the practical improvement of EMI in Algerian Political Science departments.

1.11 Conclusion

This chapter has defined EMI, distinguished it from ESP, and presented the theoretical foundations and core dimensions that shape its implementation. It has also situated EMI within the Algerian and MENA contexts and shown that, despite a growing body of research, EMI in Algerian Political Science remains largely unexplored. This gap provides the rationale for the empirical investigation presented in the next chapter.

Chapter Two

Methodology, and Data Analysis

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodological framework of the present study and reports the empirical findings obtained from both phases of the research. As shown in Chapter One, EMI in Algerian Political Science departments is a complex phenomenon that requires more than one type of evidence to be properly understood. For this reason, the study uses a mixed-methods design that combines a student questionnaire with a teacher interview.

2.2 Research Design

The present study adopts a transformative sequential mixed-methods design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). The transformative paradigm is suitable here because EMI implementation in Algeria is not a neutral pedagogical question; it is connected to wider issues of language policy, national identity, and educational equity in a postcolonial context. By giving voice to students and teachers, the study aims not only to describe EMI implementation but also to contribute to its improvement in a way that empowers stakeholders.

The sequential structure means that the two phases of the study are connected: the quantitative phase gives a broad picture of student perceptions, while the qualitative phase gives depth and explanation by drawing on teacher experience. Together, they allow the study to be both broad and deep.

2.3 Setting and Participants

2.3.1 Research Setting

The study was carried out in the Departments of Law and Political Science of three Algerian public universities: the University of Dr Tahar Moulay (Saida), the University of Djillali Liabès (Sidi Bel Abbès), and the University of Abou Bekr Belkaïd (Tlemcen). These three universities have all started implementing EMI in their Political Science programmes in recent years, which makes them appropriate sites for this research.

2.3.2 Student Participants

A total of 92 undergraduate students enrolled in EMI modules participated in the questionnaire phase, with around 30 respondents from each university selected through stratified random sampling. The sample is concentrated in the early years of the Political Science

programme (1st, 2nd, and 3rd year), which reflects the fact that EMI modules are mainly offered in those years.

2.3.3 Teacher Participants

Four teachers participated in the interview phase. Two of them were from the University of Dr Tahar Moulay (Saida); one was from the University of Djillali Liabès (Sidi Bel Abbès); and one was from the University of Abou Bekr Belkaïd (Tlemcen). This small number is not a limitation of the recruitment process; it reflects the actual number of teachers currently delivering Political Science in English in these departments. As Ouarniki (2023) has documented in her broader study of Algerian higher education, the shortage of EMI-qualified faculty is a structural feature of the Algerian context rather than a local accident, and it is observable across many disciplines and institutions. The same pattern has been observed in the international literature on EMI faculty readiness (Chroqui et al., 2025; Marcjanik et al., 2025).

In terms of academic rank, three of the four interviewed teachers held the position of Lecturer, while one held the position of Assistant Professor. All four had less than five years of experience teaching Political Science in English, which is consistent with the recent introduction of EMI in their departments. Their pseudonyms, T1 and T2 (Saida), T3 (Sidi Bel Abbès), and T4 (Tlemcen), will be used throughout the rest of the chapter to refer to their individual contributions while preserving their anonymity. Table 2.1 below summarises the profile of the teacher sample.

Table 2.1, Profile of Teacher Participants (N = 4)

Pseudonym	University	Academic Rank	EMI Experience
T1	Dr Tahar Moulay (Saida)	Lecturer	Less than 5 years
T2	Dr Tahar Moulay (Saida)	Lecturer	Less than 5 years
T3	Djillali Liabès (Sidi Bel Abbès)	Lecturer	Less than 5 years
T4	Abou Bekr Belkaïd (Tlemcen)	Assistant Professor	Less than 5 years

2.4 Data Collection Instruments

2.4.1 The Student Questionnaire

The student questionnaire was designed to measure the three key constructs of the study, challenges, opportunities, and pedagogical implications, through four sections. Section A collected demographic and linguistic information (academic year, English proficiency, prior EMI experience). Section B contained four Likert-scale items measuring perceived challenges (anxiety, lecture pace, textbook difficulty, code-switching). Section C contained four Likert-scale items measuring perceived opportunities (career, digital resources, global participation, international mobility). Section D was a ranking task in which students ranked five potential pedagogical supports from most helpful to least helpful.

All Likert items used a six-point forced-choice scale, from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 6 (Strongly Agree). The choice of six points was deliberate: it forces respondents to take a clear position rather than choose a neutral middle option. The questionnaire was reviewed by two EMI researchers and one applied linguist for content validity, and was piloted with a small group of students from a non-participating department before the final version was used.

2.4.2 The Teacher Interview

The teacher interview was structured in three sections. The first gathered demographic and professional information. The second contained five structured statements about EMI practice, to which teachers responded on a three-point scale (Agree / Neutral / Disagree). The third invited teachers to rank five professional development needs and to give open-ended additional comments. The protocol was reviewed by the same expert panel as the questionnaire to ensure that both instruments were aligned.

2.5 Data Collection Procedures

Institutional approvals were obtained from each of the three universities before any data were collected. The two phases of the study followed slightly different procedures, which are described below.

2.5.1 The Student Questionnaire (Electronic Distribution)

The student questionnaire was distributed electronically. A digital version of the instrument was created online and shared with students through the official university communication channels and through course-related groups, which is the most common way students stay in contact with their teachers and peers in the participating departments. Each

respondent received a short introductory message explaining the purpose of the study, the voluntary nature of participation, and the anonymity of the responses, before having access to the actual questions.

Choosing an electronic format had several practical advantages. It allowed the researcher to reach a larger and more dispersed population of EMI students across the three universities at the same time. It also helped to reduce the social pressure that students sometimes feel when they fill in a paper questionnaire in front of their teacher or peers, which improved the honesty and quality of the answers. Students could complete the questionnaire at their own pace, in a place of their choice, and on the device of their choice (smartphone, tablet, or laptop). On average, completion took between ten and fifteen minutes.

After the data-collection period closed, the responses were exported into a structured spreadsheet, cleaned, and verified. Frequency counts were computed, and a second coder independently checked a sample of the entries to minimise data-entry error before the final statistical analysis was carried out.

2.5.2 The Teacher Interview (Face-to-Face and Audio-Recorded)

In contrast, the teacher interview was conducted face-to-face. Each of the four teachers was met individually in a quiet office at their home institution. The face-to-face format was deliberately chosen for the qualitative phase because the interview required nuance, follow-up questions, and the kind of trust that is hard to build through a screen, especially when teachers are asked to comment honestly on the institutional conditions of their work.

Each interview lasted between thirty and forty-five minutes. With the explicit consent of the participant, the audio of the interview was recorded using a mobile phone in order to capture the full content of the discussion accurately. After each interview, the recordings were carefully scripted (transcribed) word-for-word by the researcher, and the transcripts were then anonymised. To protect participant identity, the four teachers were given the pseudonyms T1, T2, T3, and T4. The recordings were stored on a password-protected device and used only for the purpose of transcription.

Combining the two procedures, an electronic questionnaire that reaches a larger student sample, and face-to-face audio-recorded interviews that produce rich qualitative data from

teachers, gave the study both breadth and depth, and reflects the logic of the sequential mixed-methods design described in Section 2.2.

2.6 Data Analysis Strategy

The two phases of the study required different analytical procedures, which are described in this section before the empirical findings are presented.

2.6.1 Quantitative Analysis

The quantitative analysis follows three steps. First, descriptive statistics are computed for each Likert item: frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviations. The mean represents the central tendency of responses on the six-point scale, while the standard deviation measures the dispersion: a higher standard deviation indicates more disagreement among respondents. Second, responses are also grouped into two categories, disagreement (1–3) and agreement (4–6), to make comparison easier and to align with the conventions of the international EMI literature (Macaro et al., 2017; Sahan et al., 2022). Third, the ranking data from Section D are analysed using both a mean rank (where lower values indicate higher preference) and a weighted preference score (Rank 1 = 5 points, Rank 2 = 4 points, etc.), which provides a more sensitive aggregate measure of student preference.

The decision to rely primarily on descriptive statistics, rather than on inferential tests such as ANOVA or chi-square, reflects the modest sample size and the descriptive ambition of the present study. With 92 respondents, inferential tests would generate confidence intervals so wide that meaningful comparisons between sub-groups would be difficult to interpret. The descriptive approach allows the data to speak clearly without overstating the precision of the analysis.

2.6.2 Qualitative Analysis

The qualitative analysis follows Braun and Clarke's (2006) thematic analysis approach, which involves becoming familiar with the data, generating initial codes, identifying themes, and refining them. After the four interviews were transcribed and anonymised, the transcripts were read in full several times to develop familiarity with the content. Initial codes were then assigned to each meaningful unit of the transcripts, capturing the key ideas, observations, and concerns expressed by the participants. The codes were then grouped into preliminary themes, which were

refined through several rounds of comparison with the original data. The final themes, presented in §2.8.3, were chosen because they recurred across multiple participants and because they captured analytically meaningful patterns in the data.

Themes that emerge from the qualitative phase are then triangulated against the quantitative findings in Section 2.9. This triangulation is the core analytical operation of the mixed-methods design: it asks where student data and teacher data converge, where they diverge, and what each set of findings implies for the interpretation of the other. The triangulation does not aim to "validate" one data set against the other; rather, it aims to bring two complementary accounts of the same phenomenon into productive dialogue.

2.7 Quantitative Findings: Student Questionnaire (N = 92)

2.7.1 Demographic and Linguistic Profile

Table 2.2 below summarises the demographic profile of the 92 student respondents, and Figures 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3 visualise the data. The sample is dominated by 1st-year students (52.2%), followed by 3rd-year students (34.8%) and 2nd-year students (13.0%). No 4th-year students participated, because EMI modules in the participating departments are mainly offered in the early years.

Table 2.2, Demographic and Linguistic Profile of Respondents (N = 92)

Variable	Category	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Academic Year	1st year	48	52.2%
	2nd year	12	13.0%
	3rd year	32	34.8%
	4th year	0	0.0%
English Proficiency	Beginner	12	13.0%
	Intermediate	48	52.2%
	Advanced	24	26.1%
	Fluent	8	8.7%

Variable	Category	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
Prior EMI Course	Yes	28	30.4%
	No	64	69.6%

In terms of English proficiency, 52.2% of respondents describe themselves as intermediate, 26.1% as advanced, 13.0% as beginners, and 8.7% as fluent. This shows considerable variation in English ability within the same classrooms, which is one of the most demanding features of EMI delivery in non-Anglophone contexts (Bradford, 2016; Marcjanik et al., 2025).

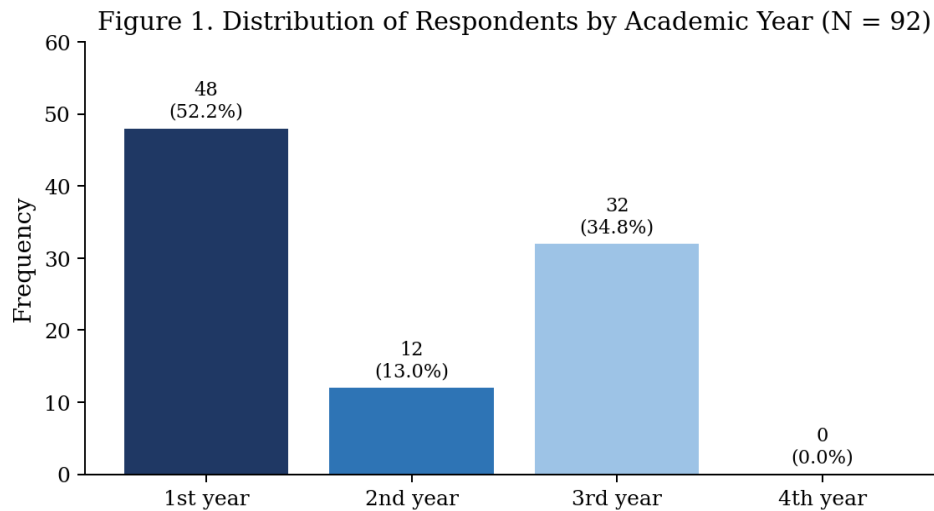


Figure 2.1, Distribution of respondents by academic year.

Figure 2. Self-Reported English Proficiency (N = 92)

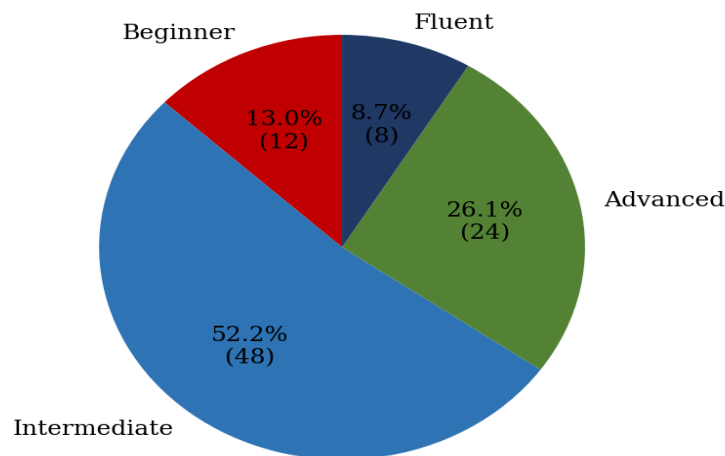


Figure 2.2, Self-reported English proficiency among respondents.

It is also striking that 69.6% of respondents report no prior experience of courses taught entirely in English, while only 30.4% had encountered EMI before. For most students, then, the introduction of EMI in Political Science is their first contact with English-medium tertiary education.

Figure 3. Prior Experience with Courses Taught Entirely in English (N = 92)

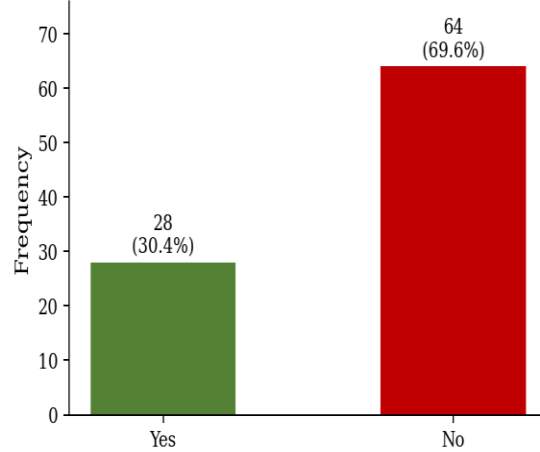


Figure 2.3, Prior experience with English-medium courses.

2.7.2 Section B: Reported Challenges of EMI

Table 2.3 below reports the frequency distribution of responses to the four challenge items, and Figure 2.4 visualises the same information as a percentage stacked bar chart. Mean scores and standard deviations are introduced in the prose discussion that follows.

Table 2.3, Section B: Frequency of Responses to Challenge Items (N = 92)

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I feel tense and nervous when listening to PS lectures in English.	24	4	8	44	8	4
5	The speed of English-medium lectures makes it difficult to keep up.	16	12	8	12	36	8
6	Reading English textbooks and articles in PS is a challenge for me.	16	16	8	24	12	16
7	I often switch between English, French, and Arabic to understand content.	8	20	8	4	12	40

Figure 4. Section B – Reported Challenges of EMI in Political Science

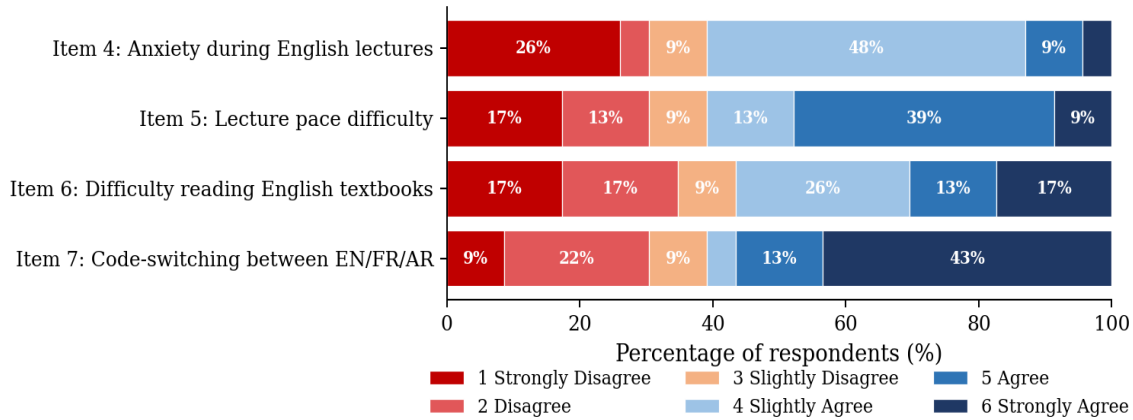


Figure 2.4, Distribution of responses to Section B items (challenges).

The data show that across all four items, the majority of respondents agree (scores 4–6), with agreement percentages ranging from 56.5% to 60.9%. This means that the perceived challenges of EMI are not limited to one type of difficulty: they extend to listening (Item 4), processing speed (Item 5), reading (Item 6), and the linguistic management of content (Item 7).

Item 4 measures classroom anxiety. The mean is 3.22, with 60.9% agreement that students feel tense and nervous during English-medium lectures. The standard deviation of 1.50 indicates moderate dispersion: while many students report some level of anxiety, others do not, and the experience of EMI lecture comprehension is clearly variable across the cohort. This variability is itself analytically meaningful, since it suggests that anxiety is not a uniform feature of EMI but a response that depends on individual factors such as English proficiency, prior EMI experience, and self-efficacy. Zhou et al. (2023) have argued that affective responses to EMI vary considerably with these individual factors, and the present data are consistent with that argument. The unanimity of the teachers' assessment that EMI assessment is harder than assessment in other languages (§2.8.1 below) further suggests that anxiety is not unfounded; it reflects a real recognition by students that EMI raises the stakes of their classroom performance.

Item 5, on lecture pace, has the highest mean among listening-related items ($M = 3.70$), with 60.9% agreement that the speed makes it difficult to keep up. The high mean here is significant because it points to a specific, observable feature of teachers' delivery rather than to a general affective response. If many students agree that the pace of English-medium lectures is too fast for comfortable comprehension, the implication is that teachers, who are themselves often delivering in a second language, may not always realise how rapid their delivery sounds to

students. This is precisely the kind of pedagogical concern that EMI-specific professional development would be expected to address.

Item 6, on reading, shows the most polarised distribution ($SD = 1.72$), with 56.5% agreement that English Political Science textbooks are difficult. The polarisation suggests that students with different levels of English proficiency have very different reading experiences. For some students, the texts are clearly accessible; for others, they are a serious obstacle. This polarisation is consistent with the variation in self-reported English proficiency documented in §2.7.1, and it argues for differentiated reading support rather than a one-size-fits-all approach.

Item 7 has the highest mean of all challenge items ($M = 4.22$), with 43.5% strongly agreeing that they switch between English, French, and Arabic to fully understand course content. This is a very important finding. Read through the lens of translanguaging research (Otheguy et al., 2015; Lu et al., 2023), this is not a deficit but an active multilingual strategy. The fact that this item produces the highest mean of all challenge items is particularly striking, because it suggests that what students experience as a "challenge", having to mobilise multiple languages, is also a strategy they have developed to cope with the cognitive demands of EMI. The framing of multilingual practice as a "challenge" in the questionnaire item is therefore worth interrogating: it may be a challenge from the perspective of strict EMI ideology, but from the perspective of translanguaging theory, it is a sophisticated meaning-making practice that should be recognised and supported rather than treated as a problem.

2.7.3 Section C: Perceived Opportunities of EMI

Table 2.4, Section C: Frequency of Responses to Opportunity Items ($N = 92$)

Item	Statement	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	Learning PS in English will improve my future career.	8	4	8	16	20	36
9	Accessing English digital resources has improved my learning.	16	12	8	20	12	24
10	Using English helps me participate in global academic discussions.	8	8	8	4	36	28
11	Mastering PS in English will allow me to work internationally.	8	12	8	12	28	24

Figure 5. Section C – Perceived Opportunities of EMI in Political Science

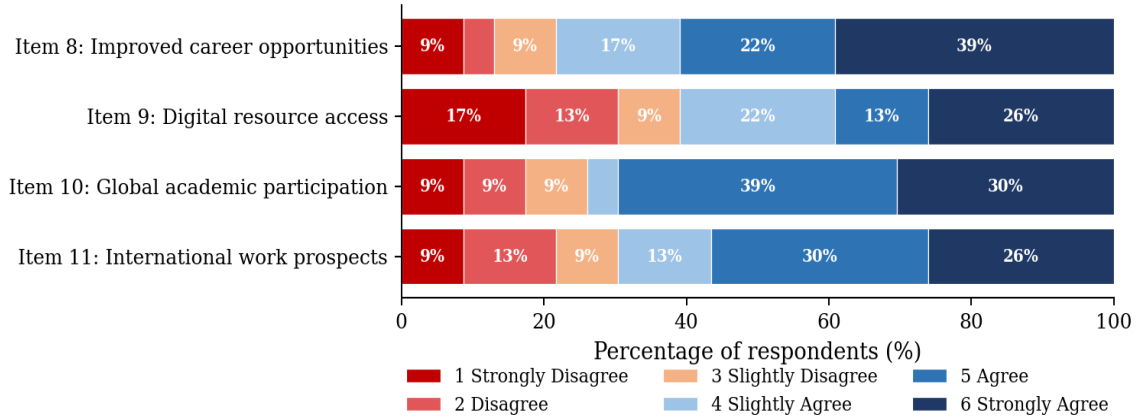


Figure 2.5, Distribution of responses to Section C items (opportunities).

The opportunity items show a clear positive pattern. Item 8, on career opportunities, has the highest mean of any item in the questionnaire ($M = 4.57$), with 78.3% agreement. Item 10, on global academic participation, follows closely ($M = 4.48$; 73.9% agreement). Item 11, on international work prospects, also shows strong agreement ($M = 4.22$; 69.6%). Item 9, on digital resources, has a lower mean ($M = 3.78$), suggesting that students are still not fully experiencing English digital resources as actively helping them.

2.7.4 Comparing Challenges and Opportunities

When the mean scores of the four challenge items and the four opportunity items are compared, a clear pattern emerges: the opportunity items consistently score higher than the challenge items. The challenge items range from $M = 3.22$ (anxiety, Item 4) to $M = 4.22$ (code-switching, Item 7), while the opportunity items range from $M = 3.78$ (digital resources, Item 9) to $M = 4.57$ (career value, Item 8). This means that, despite the real linguistic and pedagogical difficulties they experience, Algerian Political Science students do not reject EMI. They hold a pragmatic, ambivalent view in which the long-term benefits outweigh the short-term costs. This pattern is fully consistent with the broader EMI literature on student attitudes in non-Anglophone contexts (Jiang et al., 2025; Sahan et al., 2022) and with the Algerian-specific findings reported by Senouci et al. (2024) and Ouarniki (2023).

2.7.5 Section D: Pedagogical Preferences

Table 2.5, Section D: Distribution of Rankings for Pedagogical Supports ($N = 92$)

Pedagogical Support	Rank 1	Rank 2	Rank 3	Rank 4	Rank 5
Glossary (EN/FR/AR)	4	20	24	32	12
Lecture slides in advance	20	24	36	8	4
Bilingual Tas	20	20	12	8	32
EAP sessions	16	20	8	36	12
Multimedia resources	32	8	8	12	32

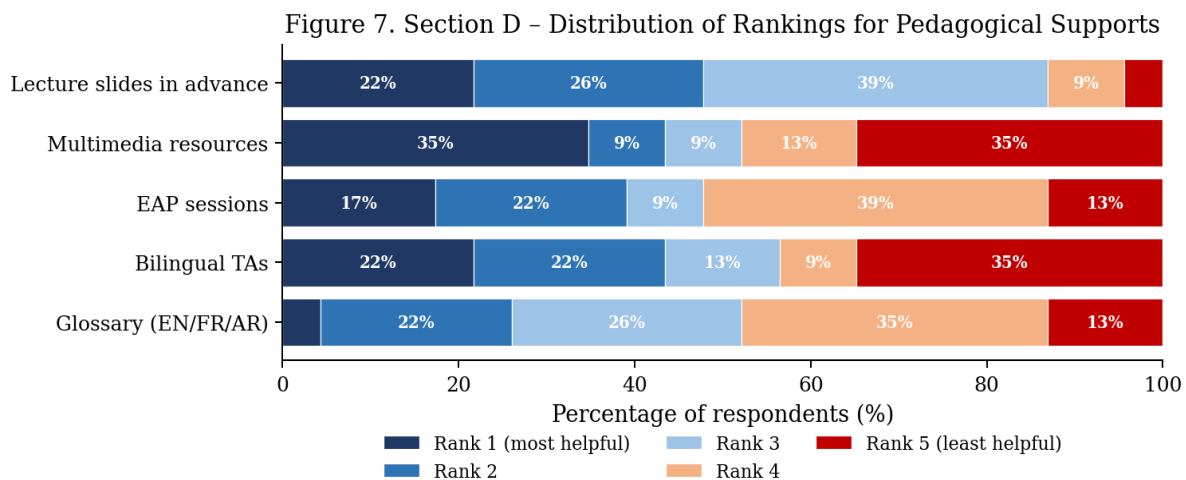


Figure 2.6, Distribution of rankings for the five pedagogical supports.

The data in Table 2.5 and Figure 2.6 reveal a clear pattern of student preference. Lecture slides circulated in advance attract by far the largest concentration of high rankings: 20 students placed this support in their first place and 24 in their second, giving a total of 44 students (47.8%) who consider it among their two most helpful options. This is a logical response to the difficulties students reported in Section B, especially with lecture pace (Item 5) and listening anxiety (Item 4). When real-time comprehension is uncertain, advance access to lecture materials provides a cognitive scaffold that allows students to preview content, anticipate terminology, and reduce in-class processing load. Multimedia resources, additional EAP sessions, and bilingual teaching assistants follow at moderate distances behind, while the multilingual glossary occupies the lowest position in aggregate. The relatively low ranking of the glossary is at first sight surprising, given the very high frequency of trilingual code-switching reported in Item 7; the most plausible explanation is that students prefer dynamic, real-time supports (slides, multimedia, and people) over static reference materials.

2.8 Qualitative Findings: Teacher Interviews

This section reports the findings from the four semi-structured interviews. The findings are presented in two parts: first, the structured responses to closed statements; second, the thematic analysis of the open-ended commentary. Each part is followed by an interpretation that situates the findings in dialogue with the broader EMI literature reviewed in Chapter One.

Before presenting the analysis itself, it is worth recalling the methodological context of the qualitative phase. The four interviewed teachers represent the entire population of EMI Political Science teachers currently active in the participating departments. While the small sample size ($N = 4$) prevents any statistical generalisation, it allows for an in-depth, contextualised account of the lived experience of EMI delivery. Each interview lasted between thirty and forty-five minutes and was recorded on a mobile phone with the participant's explicit consent before being transcribed and anonymised. The pseudonyms T1 and T2 refer to the two participants from Saida; T3 refers to the participant from Sidi Bel Abbès; and T4 refers to the participant from Tlemcen.

2.8.1 Faculty Consensus and Divergence

Table 2.6, Teacher Responses to Structured Interview Statements ($N = 4$)

Statement	Agree (n)	Neutral (n)	Disagree (n)
Assessing students' learning in EMI is more challenging than in French or Arabic.	4	0	0
Students face difficulties understanding complex Political Science terms in English.	4	0	0
There is insufficient institutional support for effective EMI teaching.	4	0	0
The university provides adequate professional development opportunities for EMI instructors.	0	4	0
Collaboration among faculty members helps improve EMI teaching practices.	2	0	2

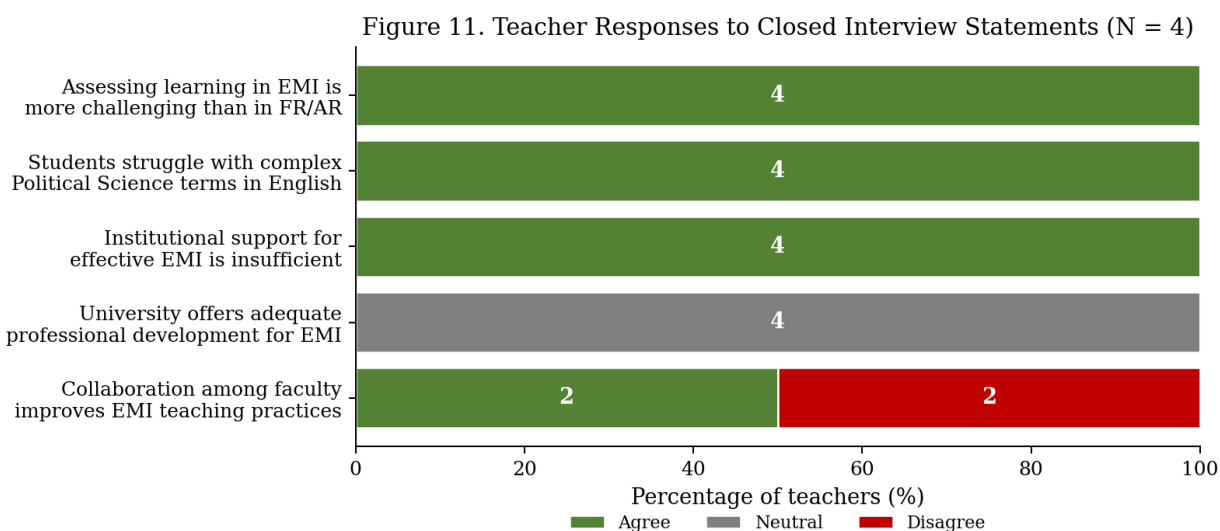


Figure 2.7, Distribution of teacher responses to closed interview statements.

The teacher responses show a striking pattern of unanimous agreement on three statements about EMI difficulties. All four teachers (100%) agreed that assessing students' learning in EMI is more challenging than in French or Arabic. This is significant because it shows that EMI introduces specific assessment problems, beyond the more often-discussed problems of content delivery. As Lasagabaster (2022) and Lu et al. (2023) note, EMI assessment is one of the least studied dimensions of EMI implementation. The unanimity of the Algerian Political Science teachers on this point therefore not only confirms an existing concern in the literature, but also adds empirical weight to the argument that EMI assessment deserves dedicated attention. In a discipline like Political Science, where examinations and assignments often require students to produce extended argumentative writing, the linguistic dimension of assessment is not a marginal issue: it can determine whether a student's political analysis is recognised at all. A student who has understood the political question being asked, but who cannot express that understanding fluently in English, may be unfairly graded on the surface form of the answer rather than on its substance.

All four teachers also agreed that students struggle with complex Political Science terms in English. This directly mirrors the student data on reading difficulty (Item 6) and supports McKinley's (2025) argument that EMI difficulties stem from disciplinary literacy gaps more than from generic English ability. The teachers' conviction on this point is particularly notable because they are themselves the people best placed to observe how students actually engage with disciplinary content. When teachers describe their students as struggling with terms like

sovereignty, hegemony, legitimacy, governance, or the state, they are not making a general comment about English proficiency; they are making a specific observation about the way disciplinary concepts are received in a language other than the one in which the students initially encountered the broader political vocabulary of their society. The observation aligns closely with what Ouarniki (2023) reports for Algerian universities more broadly: across many disciplines, content teachers identify the conceptual translation between languages, rather than English fluency in itself, as one of the central pedagogical challenges of EMI.

All four teachers agreed that institutional support for EMI is insufficient, which echoes the systemic readiness diagnoses found in many international contexts (Curdt-Christiansen et al., 2021; Marcjanik et al., 2025; Bashar, 2025). The convergence of the teachers' testimony on this point is particularly important because it cannot be dismissed as the personal complaint of any one individual. When all four teachers, working in three different universities, with different ranks and different specialisations, all agree that institutional support is insufficient, the diagnosis is structural in nature. It points to a system-level gap between the policy decision to introduce EMI and the institutional capacity actually mobilised to make EMI work in practice.

The unanimous neutral response to the statement on professional development is itself meaningful: it suggests that whatever current provision exists is perceived as too limited or too inconsistent to either fully accept or fully reject. A neutral response from one teacher could be interpreted as a personal lack of opinion, but four neutral responses across three institutions cannot. The most plausible interpretation is that there is some institutional activity around professional development, workshops, occasional seminars, individual initiatives, but that this activity is not coherent, sustained, or well-connected to teachers' actual EMI practice. This kind of in-between situation is precisely what Ouarniki (2023) describes when she identifies "the need for capacity-building and professional development" as one of the recurrent themes in her interviews with Algerian university teachers.

The most divergent response concerned faculty collaboration: two teachers agreed that it helps EMI practice, two disagreed. This 50/50 split likely reflects the absence of structured collaboration mechanisms in these departments. In a context where collaboration is left to individual goodwill rather than supported by institutional structures, some teachers will naturally find collaborative experiences helpful while others will find them frustrating or unproductive.

The split in the data therefore points to an emerging professional norm that has not yet been institutionalised, and it suggests that creating formal channels for EMI collaboration, such as departmental EMI working groups, shared resource banks, or peer-observation schemes, could turn this dimension of EMI practice from a divisive issue into a unifying one.

2.8.2 Ranked Professional Development Needs

Table 2.7, Teacher-Identified Needs Ranked by Priority

Rank	Identified Need
1	Training on EMI pedagogical strategies
2	Workshops on assessing students in EMI settings
3	Support for integrating digital tools into EMI courses
4	Resources for developing bilingual teaching materials
5	Networking opportunities with other EMI educators

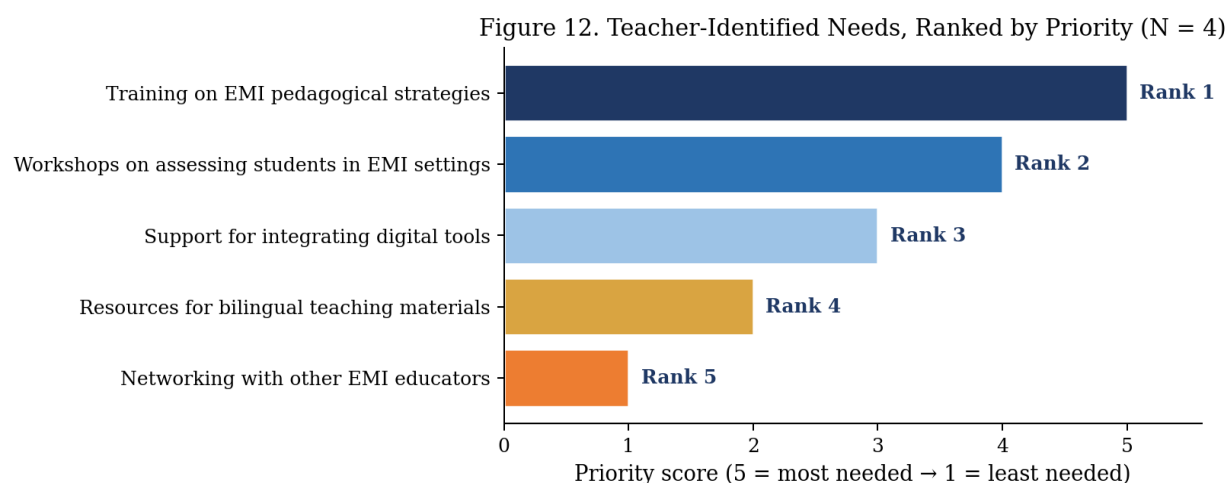


Figure 2.8, Teacher-identified needs, ranked by priority.

The two highest-priority needs, training on EMI pedagogical strategies and workshops on EMI assessment, concern the core acts of teaching and evaluating. They reflect the mature understanding that teaching Political Science in English is not the same as simply teaching Political Science. The third-ranked need (digital tools) connects to the lower student endorsement of digital resources (Item 9), and the fourth-ranked need (bilingual materials) connects to the high student frequency of trilingual code-switching (Item 7).

It is important to underline how rational and well-organised this ranking is. The teachers do not ask first for general English language training, even though that would have been an easy answer; they ask first for tools that help them teach their content more effectively. They do not ask first for shiny technological infrastructure either; they ask for the basic pedagogical and assessment supports that any EMI lecturer would need. This pattern shows a high level of professional awareness and aligns precisely with the conclusions reached by Chroqui et al. (2025) and McKinley (2025) at the international level: the most useful investments in EMI faculty development concern the design and assessment of teaching, not the language proficiency of the teachers themselves. Ouarniki (2023) reaches a similar conclusion in her own Algerian study, where capacity-building and EMI-specific professional development emerge as the most consistent demands across the diverse field-specialisms she interviewed.

A further observation worth noting is the relative position of the fifth-ranked need: networking opportunities with other EMI educators. The fact that this need is ranked last is not because it is unimportant, but because the four other needs are seen as more immediate. Once the basics of pedagogy, assessment, digital tools, and bilingual materials are in place, networking would naturally follow. In other words, the ranking can be read not just as a static priority list but as a developmental sequence: it tells institutions which steps to address first, and which steps to plan for later as the EMI ecosystem matures.

2.8.3 Thematic Analysis of Open-Ended Commentary

Three main themes emerged from the open-ended teacher commentary, following Braun and Clarke's (2006) procedure.

Theme 1: EMI Difficulties as Structural, Not Individual

The first theme reflects the way teachers frame EMI difficulties as structural, not individual problems. One teacher put this clearly:

"I assume that the issue appears to be structural rather than superficial. Teachers should play a greater role in motivating students to appreciate and engage with their field of study.", T1

This framing is theoretically important. It moves the analysis away from individual deficit explanations and locates difficulty within the broader institutional and educational system.

This is precisely the lens advocated by decolonial EMI scholarship in the Global South (Sah et al., 2024; R'boul, 2022).

The two halves of this teacher's statement deserve particular attention. The first half ("the issue appears to be structural rather than superficial") is an explicit refusal of any reading of EMI difficulties as a matter of individual student or teacher deficit; the difficulty is built into the structure of the system itself. The second half ("teachers should play a greater role in motivating students to appreciate and engage with their field of study") refuses the opposite extreme as well: it does not let teachers off the hook by attributing all difficulty to the system. The two halves together articulate a balanced and mature analytical position. Difficulties are structural, but teachers still have agency and responsibility within those structures. This is precisely the kind of position that makes effective change possible: it does not lead to fatalism, and it does not lead to blame either.

Theme 2: Disciplinary Identity and Aspirations

The second theme concerns the distinctive identity of Political Science and the aspirations it carries. One teacher articulated this very clearly:

"Political science students are expected to develop into an intellectual elite capable of critical thinking and leadership. However, limited departmental support and an insufficiently developed English program further weaken their academic progress." , T1

This frames Political Science as a formative project, one that prepares future intellectual and political leadership. The gap between this aspiration and current institutional resources, as the teacher sees it, undermines the discipline's mission.

It is worth pausing on the specific phrasing used by the teacher. The expression "intellectual elite capable of critical thinking and leadership" is not a standard academic formulation; it carries an evaluative and normative charge that reveals what the teacher believes Political Science education should be. The statement therefore offers a window onto a deeply held understanding of the discipline as a vehicle for the formation of national thought-leadership and political competence. When this aspiration is then placed alongside the criticism of "limited departmental support and an insufficiently developed English program", the criticism becomes much sharper than it would have been on its own. It is not just an institutional complaint; it is a moral concern about the mismatch between the discipline's mission and the resources available

to fulfil it. This kind of disciplinary self-awareness is precisely what Ouarniki and Boumediene (2025) describe in their work on discipline-sensitive EMI in Algerian higher education: different disciplines carry different identity stakes in EMI, and the humanities and social sciences are particularly sensitive to the gap between aspiration and provision.

Theme 3: A Call for Greater Institutional Attention

The third theme is an explicit call for more institutional attention to EMI. A lecturer in International Relations from the Tlemcen site stated simply:

"As a lecturer in International Relations, I suggest more attention should be given to teaching this discipline in English.", T4

This is a measured, professional recommendation. None of the teachers expressed opposition to EMI itself; their criticisms were always about the conditions of its implementation, not about the principle. This pattern fits the dominant finding of the international literature (Marcjanik et al., 2025; Curdt-Christiansen et al., 2021; Bashar, 2025).

The choice of words in this short comment is also revealing. The participant explicitly identifies herself as "a lecturer in International Relations" and frames the recommendation in disciplinary terms, "teaching this discipline in English". International Relations is, of course, a sub-field of Political Science whose intellectual tradition is heavily English-language: the dominant journals, the major theoretical schools, the most-cited scholars, and the most influential think-tank reports are all primarily in English. To teach International Relations effectively at the university level in 2026, regular engagement with English-language scholarship is almost unavoidable. The participant's recommendation should therefore not be read as a generic plea for more English; it should be read as a discipline-specific argument for the recognition that International Relations, more than other Political Science sub-fields, requires sustained EMI provision and institutional support. The same observation could be made, with appropriate adjustments, for Comparative Politics, Public Policy, and other sub-fields whose international scholarly conversation operates predominantly in English.

2.9 Integration: Triangulating Student and Teacher Perspectives

When the two sets of data are read together, five major points of convergence emerge.

First, both groups identify the difficulty of complex Political Science terminology as a central EMI problem. Students reported significant agreement with reading difficulty (Item 6, 56.5%), and teachers unanimously confirmed it. The bilateral confirmation of this finding across two independent data sources lends it considerable weight. It is one thing to observe that students complain about reading difficulties; it is another to discover that teachers, looking at the same students from the other side of the classroom, identify the same problem with the same intensity. The convergence indicates that this is not a matter of student perception or teacher perception, but a real feature of the EMI Political Science classroom.

Second, both groups recognise that multilingual practice is part of classroom life: students switch languages frequently (Item 7, $M = 4.22$), and teachers want bilingual materials. This second convergence point reframes what might otherwise look like a problem (students switching languages) as a structural feature of the learning environment that institutional resources should support, not suppress.

Third, both groups acknowledge a digital resource gap (Item 9 from students; digital tools as third teacher priority). It is striking that this gap is acknowledged from both sides at exactly the moment when global higher education is moving toward more digitally mediated learning. The convergence here highlights an opportunity for relatively easy institutional gains: investments in English-language digital infrastructure for Political Science would be valued by both stakeholder groups simultaneously.

Fourth, both groups frame EMI within a pragmatic, instrumentally positive disposition: students endorse the career and mobility benefits, and teachers do not oppose EMI in principle. This shared disposition is perhaps the most strategically important finding of the study. It means that the policy direction is not contested; the contested terrain is the implementation. Resources spent on persuading stakeholders to accept EMI would therefore be largely wasted; resources spent on improving the conditions of EMI delivery would be much better invested.

Fifth, the two preference profiles articulate a coherent policy agenda, students need scaffolds, teachers need training, that institutions can address as one integrated package. This is the analytically richest of the five convergence points, because it shows how two apparently different sets of demands turn out to be two halves of the same coin: students would benefit from teaching practices that EMI-trained teachers would naturally adopt; teachers would benefit from

training that would equip them to provide the scaffolds students request. The policy agenda is not "students versus teachers"; it is "institutional investment in the conditions that allow students and teachers to succeed together".

Beyond these five convergence points, the integration of the two data sources also illuminates a small number of divergences worth noting. Students rank the multilingual glossary fifth (last), while teachers rank bilingual teaching materials fourth. This minor mismatch may reflect the difference between what students consciously prefer in a list of options and what teachers, observing classroom practice as a whole, see as actually useful. Students may rank glossaries last because they imagine glossaries as boring, isolated lists; teachers may rank bilingual materials higher because they have actually seen students engaging with such resources during class. Both perspectives are valuable, and the difference between them is itself a useful guide for institutional design: well-conceived bilingual resources should be lively and integrated into actual teaching, not just static reference lists.

2.10 Ethical Considerations

The study followed standard ethical principles. Institutional approvals were obtained from each university. Participants were informed of the study's purpose and provided consent. Participation was voluntary and could be withdrawn at any time. Anonymity was protected through anonymous questionnaires for students and through pseudonyms (T1–T4) for teachers. All data were stored securely.

2.12 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the methodology, instruments, and findings of both phases of the present study. The student questionnaire (N = 92) shows that students experience real linguistic challenges but strongly endorse EMI for career and mobility reasons, and prefer advance lecture slides as their main pedagogical support. The teacher interviews (N = 4) reveal unanimous concern about assessment, terminology, and institutional support, and identify EMI pedagogy training as the top professional development priority. The integration of the two data sets articulates a clear and convergent agenda for institutional and pedagogical action.

Methodologically, the chapter has demonstrated the value of a sequential mixed-methods design that takes both breadth and depth seriously. The electronic distribution of the student questionnaire allowed the study to reach a substantial sample across three universities, while the face-to-face audio-recorded interviews with teachers produced rich qualitative data that no questionnaire alone could have captured. The triangulation of the two data sets in §2.9 has shown that the two phases of the study reinforce each other: the breadth of the student data gives confidence that the patterns identified are not idiosyncratic, and the depth of the teacher data gives texture and explanation to the broad patterns observed.

Substantively, the chapter has documented an EMI implementation that is neither failing nor succeeding, but operating in a state of latent potential. Stakeholders are ready; institutions and policy frameworks are still catching up. The findings reported here will be discussed in Chapter Three in dialogue with the international and Algerian-specific literature reviewed in Chapter One, and translated into concrete recommendations for the four principal stakeholder groups: institutions, faculty, students, and policymakers.

Chapter Three

Discussion, Implications, Suggestions and Recommendations

3.1 Introduction

This chapter takes the next step in the analytical process. It moves from describing what was found to interpreting what those findings actually mean, for our theoretical understanding of EMI in postcolonial multilingual contexts and for the practical work of those who implement, experience, and govern EMI in Algerian universities.

3.2 Discussion of the Principal Findings

Five main findings emerge from the empirical chapter, each of which deserves discussion in light of the broader EMI literature. Before turning to each finding individually, it is helpful to summarise briefly how student and teacher data converge across the main themes of the study. On the question of conceptual-linguistic difficulty, students reported significant agreement that reading Political Science texts in English is difficult, and all four teachers unanimously confirmed that students struggle with complex Political Science terminology. On multilingual practice, students reported the highest mean of any challenge item ($M = 4.22$) on the question of code-switching between English, French, and Arabic, while teachers ranked support for bilingual teaching materials among their identified professional needs. On the question of lecture pace and anxiety, more than sixty per cent of students reported that the speed of delivery created comprehension difficulties, and teachers implicitly recognised this in their concerns about real-time understanding. On the value of EMI for career and global mobility, students gave the questionnaire's highest mean of all ($M = 4.57$; 78.3% agreement) and teachers offered no opposition to EMI in principle, with one explicitly calling for greater attention to be paid to the teaching of Political Science in English. On institutional support, students placed advance lecture slides and EAP support at the top of their pedagogical preferences, and teachers unanimously agreed that current institutional support is insufficient. On professional development specifically, all four teachers responded with neutral answers, and they ranked training on EMI pedagogical strategies as their first priority. On EMI assessment, all four agreed that it is more difficult than assessment in French or Arabic; and on faculty collaboration, the teacher sample split evenly, suggesting a still-emerging professional norm. With this synthetic picture in mind, the following five sub-sections discuss each main finding in turn.

3.2.1 The Conceptual-Linguistic Gap

The first major finding is that both students and teachers identify difficulty with complex Political Science terminology as a central EMI challenge. 56.5% of students reported difficulty reading English Political Science texts, and all four teachers unanimously confirmed this difficulty. The fact that two independent sources of data agree on this point gives the finding strong empirical weight.

This finding aligns directly with McKinley's (2025) argument that what looks like a "proficiency problem" in EMI is in fact a "disciplinary literacy" problem. Students may be able to use everyday English without too much trouble, but the specialised vocabulary of Political Science, sovereignty, hegemony, legitimacy, governance, statecraft, carries dense theoretical meaning that requires specific preparation. The Algerian Political Science context is therefore a clear example of the disciplinary literacy challenge that McKinley describes.

This reframing is not just a theoretical refinement; it has direct practical consequences for how institutions should respond to the difficulty. If students were simply lacking general English proficiency, the answer would be to send them to language classes. But because the difficulty is disciplinary, the answer must be different. It must involve the explicit, structured introduction of disciplinary vocabulary in context, the careful unpacking of theoretical concepts in terms students can connect to their existing knowledge, and the gradual building of disciplinary literacy through reading, writing, and discussion of authentic Political Science texts in English. None of this is the work of a generic English course; all of it is the work of well-designed EMI Political Science courses delivered by faculty who understand both the discipline and the linguistic conditions of its delivery.

It also resonates with R'boul's (2022) Moroccan study, which argues that teaching politically sensitive content in a language whose conceptual frame does not match students' previous formation creates not just a translation problem but an epistemological challenge. R'boul's analytical insight is particularly important because it reminds us that the difficulty of translating "sovereignty" into Arabic, French, and English is not just about finding the right word in each language. Each language carries with it a particular intellectual history, a particular set of authoritative texts, and a particular tradition of debate. When a Political Science concept moves from one of these traditions to another, something is always gained and something is always lost. The Algerian classroom in which Arabic, French, and English coexist is therefore not just a

multilingual classroom; it is a classroom in which several intellectual traditions meet, sometimes productively and sometimes uneasily.

Ouarniki (2023) reports a similar finding from her interviews with Algerian teachers across multiple disciplines: the conceptual translation between languages is consistently identified as a more pressing challenge than English fluency in itself. The convergence between Ouarniki's findings, the international literature on disciplinary literacy, and the present empirical data points strongly to the same conclusion: institutional responses to EMI difficulty in Algerian Political Science departments should foreground disciplinary literacy work, not generic language remediation.

3.2.2 Multilingual Practice as the Norm

The second main finding concerns the central role of multilingual practice in Algerian classrooms. Item 7 had the highest mean of any challenge item ($M = 4.22$), with 43.5% of students strongly agreeing that they switch between English, French, and Arabic to fully understand content. Teachers, on their side, ranked bilingual teaching materials among their identified needs.

Read through the lens of translanguaging research (Otheguy et al., 2015; Lu et al., 2023), this is not an indicator of EMI failure. It is evidence of an active, repertoire-based meaning-making strategy. Students are using their full linguistic resources to understand complex disciplinary content. The Algerian Political Science classroom is, in practice, a multilingual classroom where English is the nominal medium of delivery but where meaning is built using all available languages.

The implications of this reframing are wide-ranging. If multilingual practice is recognised as a meaning-making strategy rather than as a problem, then the institutional task is no longer to suppress code-switching but to design pedagogical contexts in which translanguaging contributes to disciplinary learning. Concretely, this might involve the deliberate introduction of key Political Science concepts in English, French, and Arabic during the same lecture; the development of trilingual study materials that allow students to connect new English terms to their existing linguistic knowledge; or the use of small-group discussion in students' chosen language followed by report-back in English. Each of these techniques takes the multilingual reality of the Algerian classroom seriously and turns it into a pedagogical resource.

This finding agrees with Abdeljaoued's (2023) Tunisian study, which described the same kind of fluid translanguaging between English, French, and Arabic. It also supports Rabahi et al.'s (2026) recent argument that Algerian university classrooms should be seen as multilingual ecologies where multilingualism is an asset, not a problem.

At the same time, Sah et al.'s (2020) work on Nepal reminds us that translanguaging itself can reproduce hierarchies if it consistently privileges some languages over others. In Algeria, Arabic, French, and English carry very different symbolic weights, and any institutional strategy supporting multilingual practice should be designed with care to avoid reinforcing existing inequalities. For example, a translanguaging approach that systematically privileges French over Arabic, perhaps because the existing reference materials happen to be in French, could inadvertently reproduce the colonial hierarchy that Arabisation policies were designed to overcome. A truly equitable translanguaging pedagogy in Algerian Political Science would treat Arabic, French, and English as equally legitimate intellectual resources, while remaining clear-eyed about the practical realities of which texts and references are available in which language at any given moment.

3.2.3 The Pragmatic-Positive Disposition Toward EMI

The third main finding is the broadly pragmatic and positive disposition that both students and teachers hold toward EMI in principle, even while criticising its current implementation. Students endorsed Item 8 (career value of EMI) with 78.3% agreement, the highest of any item in the questionnaire. Teachers, in their open-ended commentary, expressed no opposition to EMI itself; their criticisms were always about how it is being implemented, not about the policy itself.

This places the Algerian Political Science case firmly within the pragmatic-positive MENA pattern (Jiang et al., 2025; Sahan et al., 2022; Aljehani et al., 2024). It is also an important empirical correction to readings of EMI in postcolonial contexts that anticipate widespread ideological resistance: in this study, the data show stakeholders actively endorsing EMI while making clear and specific demands for the institutional support that would make it work.

The pragmatic character of this disposition deserves further reflection. Students do not endorse EMI because they have suddenly become enthusiasts of English-language education in

the abstract; they endorse it because they have made a clear-eyed assessment of the labour market, the academic publishing system, and the global circulation of ideas, and they have concluded that English-language credentials in Political Science offer them better life chances than Arabic-only or French-only credentials would. This is a rational and informed position, and any institutional response to EMI implementation should respect it. Trying to argue students out of this assessment would be both pointless and patronising; the more useful response is to ensure that the EMI experience actually delivers the benefits that students rightly expect.

Teachers' position is structurally similar but pitched at a different level of abstraction. They do not endorse EMI as a technical-pedagogical preference; they endorse it because they recognise that Political Science is increasingly an internationalised discipline whose major debates, journals, and theoretical traditions are accessible primarily in English. Refusing EMI would mean cutting Algerian Political Science off from the international scholarly conversation, which would be intellectually impoverishing for the discipline and economically damaging for the students it trains.

This finding does not diminish the importance of the postcolonial and decolonial concerns articulated by R'boul (2022) and Sah et al. (2024). On the contrary, it sharpens their urgency: precisely because stakeholder buy-in is high, the responsibility for the quality and equity of EMI implementation rests squarely with institutions and policymakers. If institutions fail to deliver the conditions for effective EMI in a context where stakeholders have already accepted the policy, the failure cannot be excused by appealing to ideological resistance from below; it can only be explained by inadequate institutional and policy effort from above.

3.2.4 The Structural Reading of EMI Difficulties

The fourth finding emerged from the qualitative phase: the framing of EMI difficulties by teachers as structural rather than individual. The Saida lecturer who described the issue as "structural rather than superficial" articulated a view that aligns directly with the decolonial EMI scholarship of Sah et al. (2024) and with the call by Rabahi et al. (2026) to read Algerian university language practices in the long historical context of colonialism, Arabisation, and globalisation.

It is also consistent with the systemic readiness diagnoses produced by Bradford (2016), Chroqui et al. (2025), and Marcjanik et al. (2025). Each of these studies concludes that EMI

success depends on coordinated institutional effort, not on individual heroism. The same conclusion is reached, in the specifically Algerian context, by Ouarniki (2023), whose interviews with ten Algerian university teachers identified the need for capacity-building and professional development as one of the most pressing themes; and by Ouarniki and Boumediene (2025), who show that the structural inadequacies of EMI implementation are felt particularly acutely in the humanities and social sciences.

The same teacher's aspirational framing of Political Science, as a discipline expected to produce "an intellectual elite capable of critical thinking and leadership", adds another dimension. It suggests that teachers see EMI as connected to the wider mission of the discipline, and that they perceive a high-stakes mismatch between this mission and the institutional resources currently allocated to it. This concern echoes the finding by Ouarniki (2023) that Algerian teachers across multiple disciplines link the success of EMI to the broader academic identity and credibility of their fields.

3.2.5 Convergent Stakeholder Demands as a Coherent Policy Agenda

The fifth main finding emerges only when student and teacher data are read in dialogue. Students prioritise scaffolds that reduce real-time cognitive load (advance lecture slides, multimedia resources, EAP support). Teachers prioritise pedagogical and assessment training. Read together, these two preference profiles do not represent two separate wish-lists; they represent a single, coherent policy agenda. The supports students request are exactly the kinds of practices that EMI-trained teachers would adopt naturally if they had received the professional development they themselves identify as needed.

This complementarity is the most important practical finding of the present study. It shows that effective EMI implementation in Algerian Political Science departments does not require a complex or contested intervention. It requires a coordinated institutional commitment to a package of measures whose elements reinforce each other.

The political and administrative significance of this finding is worth underlining. In many policy areas, reform efforts fail because the demands of different stakeholder groups appear to conflict, students want one thing, teachers want another, administrators want a third, and the result is a stalemate. The present study shows that this is not the case for EMI in Algerian Political Science departments. Students and teachers do not want different things; they want

different parts of the same thing. Once this convergence is recognised, the institutional task becomes much clearer: rather than trying to balance competing demands, institutions can invest in a single, integrated programme of support that meets the needs of both groups simultaneously. The investment may be substantial, but the design is straightforward, and the political ground for it is already prepared.

This conclusion has implications that go beyond the immediate Algerian context. It suggests that, in many EMI implementation projects across the Global South, the apparent fragmentation of stakeholder demands may dissolve under careful empirical analysis. What looks at first like a complicated multi-actor problem may turn out to be a relatively simple coordination problem, in which the main obstacle is not the divergence of interests but the absence of an institutional framework that brings the convergent interests into a single coherent programme.

3.3 Theoretical Implications

Beyond its specific findings, the present study contributes to several theoretical conversations in the EMI literature.

3.3.1 Repositioning Multilingual Practice

The strong evidence of trilingual translanguaging in Algerian Political Science classrooms repositions multilingual practice from a peripheral phenomenon to a central feature of EMI as it is actually practised. This contributes to the translanguaging turn in EMI research (Zhu et al., 2024; Lu et al., 2023) by adding a postcolonial Maghrebi case where three named languages, Arabic, French, and English, coexist with substantial symbolic and disciplinary weight.

What makes the Algerian case theoretically interesting is precisely the symbolic asymmetry of the three languages involved. In contexts where translanguaging takes place between English and a single other language, the analysis is comparatively straightforward. In contexts where three languages with different histories, different status, and different functional domains are all in play, the theoretical challenge is greater. The Algerian classroom in which Arabic, French, and English coexist therefore offers a rich test case for translanguaging theory, and the empirical findings of the present study contribute to that test case directly.

3.3.2 Refining the Decolonial Analytical Lens

The structural reading offered by teachers in this study refines and extends the decolonial lens advanced by R'boul (2022) and Sah et al. (2024). The Algerian data add an empirical specification of how those concerns are perceived and articulated by stakeholders themselves, even when these stakeholders do not use a decolonial vocabulary explicitly.

This is an important contribution because much of the existing decolonial EMI literature operates at a relatively abstract theoretical level, drawing on the wider postcolonial-studies tradition without always grounding its claims in the day-to-day experience of teachers and students. The present study shows that the structural framing advocated by decolonial scholars is not just a theoretically appealing analysis from outside; it corresponds to how Algerian Political Science teachers themselves understand the difficulties they encounter. This convergence between scholarly analysis and stakeholder framing strengthens both, it gives the decolonial analysis empirical traction, and it gives stakeholder voices a theoretical vocabulary that makes their structural concerns easier to articulate and to act upon.

3.3.3 Confirming Multi-Dimensional Readiness

The convergence of student and teacher diagnoses provides bilateral confirmation of Bradford's (2016) typology of EMI implementation challenges (linguistic, institutional, administrative, cultural) and of Chroqui et al.'s (2025) insistence that EMI readiness involves linguistic, pedagogical, and institutional components in interaction.

This confirmation is methodologically valuable because it suggests that the typological frameworks developed in the EMI literature are robust across very different national contexts. Bradford's typology was originally developed in the Japanese university context; Chroqui et al.'s synthesis draws on studies from multiple regions of the world. The fact that the same dimensions emerge again in the Algerian Political Science case indicates that EMI implementation challenges have a recognisable cross-national structure, which means that lessons learned in one context can be productively applied to others.

3.3.4 Supporting the Disciplinary Literacy Turn

Finally, the unanimous teacher agreement on the difficulty of complex Political Science terminology, together with student data on reading difficulty, provides empirical support for

McKinley's (2025) call for an academic-literacy framing of EMI preparedness. EMI preparation in Political Science requires sustained attention to disciplinary academic literacy in English, the capacity to read, write, and reason in the specific genres, vocabularies, and arguments of the discipline.

Concretely, this means that programmes designed to support EMI students in Political Science cannot simply reproduce general English language teaching practices. They must be designed in close consultation with content specialists and must focus explicitly on the rhetorical and conceptual conventions of Political Science as a discipline. They must teach students how to read theoretical texts critically, how to construct argumentative essays in a recognisably political-scientific style, and how to engage with the established conceptual vocabulary of the field. This is the work of English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) calibrated to Political Science, and it represents the productive intersection of EMI and ESP that was discussed in §1.3 above.

3.4 Pedagogical and Institutional Implications

3.4.1 EMI as a Distinct Pedagogical Practice

The first implication is that EMI in Political Science cannot be treated as a simple change of language while everything else stays the same. Faculty need to develop EMI-specific teaching repertoires that include explicit terminology work, deliberate pacing, advance materials, and assessment practices calibrated to the linguistic conditions of delivery.

In practical terms, this means that EMI Political Science lectures should look noticeably different from the same lectures delivered in Arabic or French. They should make more deliberate use of visual support, return more often to key concepts, build in more frequent comprehension checks, and integrate written materials with oral delivery in carefully designed ways. The pace should be moderated to allow for the additional cognitive load of processing complex content in a second language. The role of the lecturer is no longer just to transmit content but to orchestrate a multi-modal learning experience that takes the linguistic conditions of the classroom seriously. None of this requires advanced technology or expensive infrastructure; it requires deliberate pedagogical attention and the institutional time and recognition to make that attention possible.

3.4.2 Multilingual Pedagogy as an Institutional Resource

The second implication is that the multilingual reality of Algerian classrooms should be treated as an institutional resource. A pedagogically informed multilingual approach, using Arabic and French strategically to anchor key concepts while building English-language disciplinary fluency, is more likely to succeed than a strict monolingual EMI ideal.

A practical example may help clarify this point. When introducing the concept of "sovereignty" in an EMI Political Science lecture, an experienced teacher might begin in English by giving the standard scholarly definition, then briefly anchor the concept in the Arabic term that students already know from their political vocabulary, and then return to English to develop the implications and applications of the concept in international relations theory. This kind of strategic translanguaging is not a deviation from EMI; it is a sophisticated EMI practice that uses the multilingual repertoires of students as a learning resource. Institutionally, supporting such practice means giving teachers explicit permission to use multilingual strategies, providing them with bilingual or trilingual reference materials, and including multilingual pedagogy in EMI professional development.

3.4.3 Institutional Support as a Coordinated System

The third implication is that effective EMI implementation requires a coordinated system of institutional supports, not isolated interventions. Faculty preparation, advance materials, EAP integration, digital infrastructure, and recognition of multilingual practice are not alternatives; they are mutually reinforcing components of a single coherent policy direction.

The danger of treating these as alternatives can be illustrated by considering what happens if any one of them is implemented in isolation. A digital infrastructure investment without faculty preparation produces well-equipped classrooms in which untrained teachers continue to use traditional methods. A faculty preparation programme without recognition of multilingual practice produces trained teachers who are nevertheless required to operate within a monolingual EMI ideology that does not match the reality of their classrooms. An EAP support programme that is not integrated with the disciplinary content of Political Science produces students who can read general academic English but who continue to struggle with the specific conceptual vocabulary of their discipline. These illustrative scenarios show that the elements of

EMI support cannot be separated without losing their effectiveness; they must be deployed together as a system.

3.5 Suggestions and Recommendations

The recommendations that follow are organised by audience and follow directly from the empirical findings. They address in turn the four principal stakeholder groups: institutions, faculty, students, and policymakers. Within each group, the recommendations are presented in approximate order of priority, with the most pressing actions discussed first.

3.5.1 Recommendations for Institutions

Institutions bear primary responsibility for translating the latent stakeholder support for EMI into effective educational practice. Four specific recommendations follow from the data.

- Establish structured, EMI-specific professional development for Political Science faculty, with particular emphasis on pedagogy and assessment. The unanimous neutral response from the four interviewed teachers regarding adequate professional development is a clear signal that current provision is insufficient. Such provision should include both pre-service workshops for faculty newly entering EMI delivery and in-service support for faculty already engaged in it. The content of these programmes should focus on the specific pedagogical and assessment challenges of EMI rather than on generic teaching skills, and should be designed in collaboration with applied-linguistics specialists who understand the linguistic dimensions of disciplinary teaching.
- Mandate the advance circulation of lecture materials in EMI modules. The student preference for advance access to lecture slides, with a weighted score of 3.52, is the single clearest practical signal in the entire questionnaire data. This is a low-cost, high-impact intervention that institutions can implement immediately. A simple departmental policy requiring teachers to share lecture slides with students at least 24 or 48 hours before each session would, by itself, address one of the most pressing student concerns identified in this study. The administrative cost is minimal and the pedagogical benefit is substantial.
- Establish a departmental EMI coordinator role to oversee delivery quality and support faculty navigating the transition to English-medium teaching. This responds to the systemic readiness gap documented in the international literature (Bradford, 2016;

Marcjanik et al., 2025). The coordinator would not need to be a full-time appointment; it could be a partial allocation given to an experienced EMI teacher with the responsibility for organising peer support, sharing resources, monitoring student outcomes, and acting as the institutional point of contact for EMI-related questions. The very existence of such a role would signal that the institution takes EMI seriously and would help to build the kind of community of practice that the international literature consistently identifies as a precondition for EMI success.

- Invest in English-language digital infrastructure and Political Science e-resources. The relatively lower student endorsement of digital resources (Item 9, M = 3.78) indicates that this is currently an underdeveloped dimension of EMI provision. Investment in this area should include subscriptions to major political-science databases, the development or curation of open-access reading lists, and the integration of multimedia resources into course design. This is the kind of investment whose benefits accumulate over time and whose absence is felt most strongly by precisely the students who would benefit most from it.

3.5.2 Recommendations for Faculty

Within the limits of current institutional provision, faculty themselves can take immediate steps to make EMI more effective. The recommendations that follow are designed to be feasible without requiring substantial institutional change, while pointing toward the more ambitious institutional reforms discussed in §3.5.1.

- Adopt translanguaging-aware classroom practices that recognise students' multilingual repertoires. Use Arabic and French strategically to anchor key concepts before consolidating content in English. This does not mean abandoning English as the primary medium of delivery; it means using students' other languages as bridges into the conceptual content of the discipline. Practical techniques include defining new English terms by referring briefly to their Arabic or French equivalents, using parallel summaries in two languages for particularly difficult concepts, and allowing students to discuss complex questions in small groups using whatever language they find most useful before reporting back in English.
- Build trilingual (English/French/Arabic) glossaries of core Political Science concepts for use across modules. While students ranked the multilingual glossary fifth, the high

frequency of trilingual code-switching shows that the underlying need is real. Even a simple shared document accessible to all Political Science students, listing key terms in English with their Arabic and French equivalents and a one-sentence definition in each language, would be a significant resource. Such a glossary could be developed collaboratively over time, with each cohort of students contributing additions and clarifications.

- Engage with English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and applied-linguistics colleagues to co-design English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) materials calibrated to Political Science. This responds to McKinley's (2025) call for collaboration between content and language specialists. The collaboration could begin in modest ways, a joint workshop on academic writing in Political Science, a co-taught study-skills session for first-year EMI students, or simply a series of informal conversations between content and language colleagues to identify shared priorities. Over time, such collaborations can produce more formal materials and can establish the kind of cross-departmental community of practice that supports sustainable EMI delivery.

3.5.3 Recommendations for Students

Students themselves are not passive recipients of EMI policy; they can take constructive steps to support their own learning, even within the constraints of current institutional provision. The following recommendations are designed to be feasible for students with different proficiency levels and different access to digital resources.

- Use pre-class preview strategies, including reading short summaries of key terms before lectures and reviewing course outlines in advance. The strong student preference for advance lecture slides indicates that students themselves recognise the value of pre-class preparation; they can extend this strategy to materials they generate independently. Even in the absence of formal advance materials, students can spend ten or fifteen minutes before each lecture identifying the topic of the session and looking up unfamiliar terms in advance. This simple habit substantially reduces the cognitive load of real-time lecture comprehension.
- Form structured peer-study groups in which students from different proficiency levels work together on EMI content, transforming code-switching from an individual coping strategy into a collective learning resource. In a study group, students with stronger

English skills can help those with weaker skills navigate complex texts, while students with deeper conceptual understanding in Arabic or French can help others connect English terms to existing knowledge. Such groups multiply the linguistic resources available to each student and reduce the isolation that often accompanies EMI difficulties.

- Engage actively with English-language digital resources in Political Science, academic blogs, open-access journals, recorded lectures, and university course materials available online, to build the disciplinary literacy that is central to EMI success. Many high-quality resources are now freely available online, and regular engagement with them is one of the most effective ways to develop the disciplinary academic literacy that the present study has identified as crucial. Even fifteen or twenty minutes of focused English-language reading on a Political Science topic each day can produce significant gains over the course of a semester.

3.5.4 Recommendations for Policymakers

Policymakers, at the level of the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research and the relevant national bodies, bear responsibility for the broader policy environment in which EMI is implemented. The findings of this study suggest several specific policy directions that go beyond what individual institutions can achieve on their own.

- Issue an explicit national EMI policy framework for the Social Sciences and Humanities that articulates the rationale, expected outcomes, and institutional responsibilities for EMI delivery. The current absence of such a framework, observable in the present study and consistent with the international literature on emerging EMI contexts (Lasagabaster, 2022; Marcjanik et al., 2025), leaves implementation to the improvisation of individual departments. A clear national framework would not need to be heavily prescriptive; it would simply need to set out the basic expectations and entitlements for both teachers and students, and to provide a reference point against which institutional practice can be measured.
- Provide dedicated national funding for EMI faculty preparation and for regional EMI-resource networks linking the participating universities. The shortage of EMI-qualified faculty is itself a substantive finding of this study, and Ouarniki (2023) has documented that the same shortage exists across many Algerian disciplines. National-level funding for

sustained faculty preparation programmes, combined with regional networks that allow EMI teachers in different institutions to share resources and experience, would address this shortage in a way that no single university could achieve on its own.

- Recognise multilingualism as a legitimate pedagogical resource within national EMI policy. This aligns with the decolonial scholarship of Sah et al. (2024) and Rabahi et al. (2026). Such recognition would have practical effects: it would give institutional cover to the translanguaging practices that this study has shown are already widespread in Algerian classrooms; it would legitimate investment in trilingual reference materials; and it would protect teachers who use multilingual strategies from the implicit accusation that they are diluting the EMI policy. In a country where multilingualism is a fact of social life, making it also a fact of educational policy is the logical and equitable next step.
- Commission a national-scale empirical study of EMI implementation across all major Algerian universities and disciplines. The present study, focused on three universities and one discipline, can identify patterns that are likely to apply more broadly, but a national study would be needed to confirm them and to identify variations between regions, institutions, and disciplines. Such a study would provide the evidence base for the kind of coordinated national action that the present findings suggest is necessary.

3.6 Suggestions for Future Research

The present study, as a first systematic empirical investigation of EMI in Algerian Political Science departments, opens many directions for future research. Each of the following directions corresponds to a specific limitation or boundary of the present study and would, if pursued, deepen our understanding of EMI in the Algerian higher-education context.

- Longitudinal studies tracking individual cohorts of Political Science students through the full duration of an EMI programme would address the cross-sectional limitation of the present design. Such studies would reveal how perceptions, practices, and outcomes evolve from the first encounter with EMI to graduation, and would help to identify the moments at which institutional support is most critical.
- Larger-scale quantitative studies covering more institutions and a more substantial faculty sample would allow for inferential statistical comparisons. With a larger sample, it would become possible to compare students across regions, year-groups, English-proficiency

levels, and prior EMI exposure, and to test specific hypotheses about which conditions are most strongly associated with EMI success.

- Classroom-discourse studies, using audio recordings, ethnographic observation, and discourse analysis, would provide a fine-grained empirical account of how multilingual meaning-making actually unfolds. The present study captures perceptions of multilingual practice through self-report; a discourse-based study would capture the practice itself, in real time, with all the nuance that direct observation can provide.
- Comparative studies linking the Algerian case to comparable Maghrebi and MENA contexts (Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt, Lebanon) would situate the findings in a broader regional framework. Such studies could identify which features of the Algerian experience are specifically Algerian and which are shared across the broader region, providing a stronger basis for both regional cooperation and tailored national responses.
- Sub-disciplinary studies focusing on particular branches of Political Science, International Relations, Political Theory, Comparative Politics, Public Policy, would build on the indication that sub-disciplinary specialisation matters for how EMI is experienced. The lecturer in International Relations interviewed in the present study suggested that her sub-field requires particular EMI attention; similar studies in other sub-fields would test whether this perception is shared or whether different sub-disciplines have different EMI profiles.
- Studies of EMI assessment in Political Science specifically, addressing the unanimous teacher concern that EMI assessment is more challenging than assessment in French or Arabic, would address an under-examined dimension of EMI implementation. Possible focuses include the development of valid assessment instruments for EMI Political Science, the comparison of student performance across different assessment formats, and the analysis of the relationship between linguistic features of student responses and their disciplinary substance.
- Action-research projects in which faculty experiment with specific EMI interventions, advance lecture slides, trilingual glossaries, peer-study groups, or translanguaging-aware classroom techniques, would generate practical evidence about which interventions actually work in the Algerian context. The present study identifies what students and faculty want; action research would test what actually delivers the intended benefits in practice.

- Studies of student outcomes (grades, retention, graduate employment) in EMI Political Science programmes, compared with parallel non-EMI programmes, would provide the kind of quantitative evidence that policymakers find most persuasive when justifying institutional investment. Such studies are methodologically demanding but increasingly necessary as EMI moves from an experimental to an established practice in Algerian higher education.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter has interpreted the empirical findings of the study, articulated their theoretical and practical implications, and offered recommendations for the four principal stakeholder groups. Taken together, the chapter argues that EMI implementation in Algerian Political Science departments is characterised neither by overt failure nor by smooth success, but by a configuration in which broad stakeholder support coexists with substantial institutional and pedagogical inadequacies.

General Conclusion

General Conclusion

This work has presented a mixed-methods empirical inquiry into the implementation of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in Algerian Political Science departments. Through a structured questionnaire administered to 92 students and semi-structured interviews with the four faculty members currently delivering EMI in Political Science across three universities (Saida, Sidi Bel Abbès, Tlemcen), the study has aimed to document the challenges, opportunities, and pedagogical implications of this important and rapidly developing dimension of Algerian higher education.

The three hypotheses set out in the General Introduction can now be revisited in light of the empirical findings.

H1, which predicted that both students and teachers would face significant linguistic, conceptual, and pedagogical challenges, was clearly supported by the data. On the student side, more than 56% of respondents reported difficulty with English-language Political Science textbooks, around 60% reported difficulties with lecture pace and listening anxiety, and 43.5% strongly agreed that they had to switch between three languages to understand course content. On the teacher side, all four interviewed teachers unanimously identified assessment in EMI as more challenging than in Arabic or French, unanimously confirmed that students struggle with complex Political Science terminology, and unanimously described institutional support as insufficient. Their unanimous neutral position on professional development opportunities further indicated dissatisfaction with current provision.

H2, which predicted that both students and teachers would identify clear opportunities in EMI implementation, was strongly confirmed. Students endorsed the career value of EMI with 78.3% agreement (Item 8, $M = 4.57$), the value for global academic participation with 73.9% agreement (Item 10), and the international mobility benefit with 69.6% agreement (Item 11). On the teacher side, no participant expressed opposition to EMI in principle; the criticisms always concerned how EMI is being implemented, not whether it should be implemented at all. The lecturer in International Relations who explicitly suggested that "more attention should be given to teaching this discipline in English" articulated a position that was implicit across the entire faculty sample.

H3, which predicted that both groups would identify a convergent set of needs articulating a coherent agenda, was perhaps the most strongly supported of the three. The integration of student and teacher data revealed five major points of convergence, and the two preference profiles, students prioritising in-class scaffolds, teachers prioritising professional development, turned out to be complementary rather than competing. They articulate a single coherent policy direction in which the supports students request are precisely the kinds of practices that EMI-trained teachers would be in a position to deliver. The empirical evidence therefore supports the wider claim that effective EMI implementation in Algerian Political Science departments depends on coordinated institutional and policy action, not on individual effort alone.

The study makes several contributions. Empirically, it provides the first systematic mixed-methods documentation of EMI implementation in Algerian Political Science departments, an under-researched area in both the Algerian and the international EMI literatures. Theoretically, it contributes to the translanguaging turn in EMI research by adding a postcolonial Maghrebi case in which three named languages coexist; it refines the decolonial analytical lens by showing how stakeholders themselves articulate structural concerns; and it supports the disciplinary literacy reframing of EMI preparedness advocated by recent scholarship. Practically, it offers a clear and convergent set of recommendations for institutions, faculty, students, and policymakers, organised in a coherent action programme.

Beyond these contributions, the study also adds value at the methodological level. By combining an electronic student questionnaire with face-to-face audio-recorded teacher interviews, and by triangulating the two data sets through a deliberate integrative analysis, it demonstrates a research design that other Algerian researchers can adapt to their own disciplinary contexts. The methodological choices made in this study are not the only valid choices, but they are well suited to capturing both the breadth of student experience and the depth of teacher reflection on a single educational phenomenon.

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