

**T.C.
BAHCESEHIR UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT**

**POLICIES AND PRACTICES OF EMI IN TURKISH TERTIARY-LEVEL
EFL CONTEXT**

**PhD THESIS
ERHAN GÜLŞEN**

ISTANBUL 2023

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**THESIS ADVISOR
Assoc. Prof. Enisa MEDE**

ISTANBUL 2023



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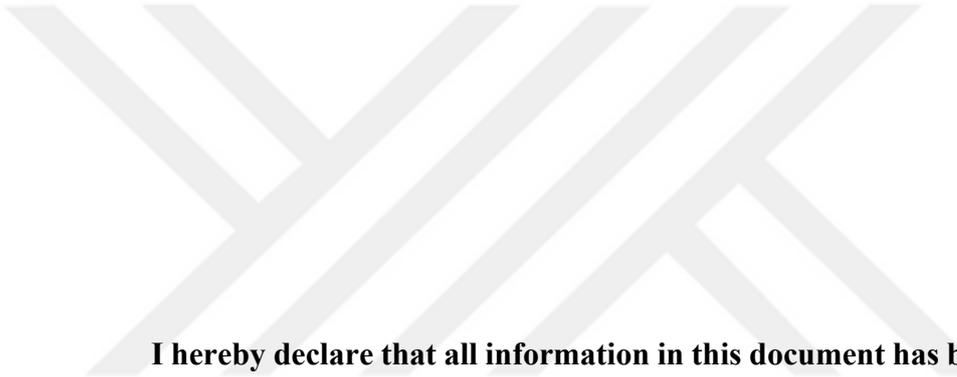
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ABSTRACT

POLICIES AND PRACTICES OF ENGLISH MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION IN TURKISH TERTIARY-LEVEL CONTEXT

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English as a medium of instruction (EMI) is a widely recognized phenomenon due to internationalization and globalization. It is also a delicate approach because foreign language policies assume determinative roles in its implementation. In the Turkish tertiary level EFL context, EMI has been in practice for a while and, as its primary prerequisite, students must prove their language proficiencies at English PYP schools before starting their EMI courses. Although several studies analyzed the macro and meso policy documents of Turkish EMI and foreign language education and explored the EMI instructors and students' perceptions, no local studies integrated the analysis of PYP schools' policy documents and explored the perceptions of the stakeholders about EMI. To fill in this gap, the present study analyzed twenty PYP schools' policy documents and curricula besides ten macro policy documents. Additionally, the perceptions of the EMI instructors, the EMI students and English PYP school administrators, instructors and students were gathered from online surveys and interviews. According to the document analyses, there was a mismatch between policies and practices, and huge variations existed in PYP schools and among EMI departments themselves existed. The quantitative and qualitative analyses mainly showed that students' productive skills needed improving, EMI instructors and language instructors needed to collaborate and be trained in EMI pedagogy and

methodology, and the curricula of the EMI departments and PYP schools needed alignment across institutions for a more effective EMI courses. The findings provided significant pedagogical implications for the EMI instructors, language instructors, students, institutions, and policy makers.

Key words: Education policy analysis, English medium of instruction, Turkish tertiary-level education, English PYP schools



ÖZ

Türkiye'deki Üniversitelerde Eğitim Dilinin İngilizce Olarak Kullanılmasına Yönelik Yürütülen Uygulamalar ve Politikalar

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Eğitim dilinin İngilizce olarak kullanılması (EMI), uluslararasılaşma ve küreselleşme nedeniyle yaygın olarak tanınan bir olgudur. Ayrıca yabancı dil politikalarının uygulanmasında belirleyici roller üstlenmesi nedeniyle hassas bir yaklaşım olmuştur. Türkiye yükseköğrenim bağlamında EMI bir süredir uygulanmaktadır ve öğrencilerin EMI eğitimlerine başlamadan önce İngilizce hazırlık okullarında dil yeterliliklerini kanıtlamaları gerekmektedir. Türkiye'deki EMI yaklaşımının ve yabancı dil eğitiminin makro ve mezo politika belgelerini analiz eden ve EMI öğretim görevlileri ile öğrencilerin algılarını araştıran birtakım çalışmalar olmasına rağmen, hiçbir çalışma hazırlık okullarının politika belgelerinin analizine ve paydaşların algılarına yer vermemiştir. Bu boşluğu doldurmak için, bu çalışmada on makro politika belgesinin yanı sıra yirmi hazırlık okulunun politika belgesi ve müfredatı da incelenmiştir. Ayrıca, EMI öğretim üyesi ve öğrencilerinin yanı sıra İngilizce hazırlık okulu öğrencilerinin, öğretim görevlilerinin ve müdürlerinin EMI yaklaşımı ve öğrenci dil yeterliliklerine ilişkin algılarını çevrimiçi anketlerle; odak grup görüşmeleri ve derinlemesine görüşmeler yoluyla toplamıştır. Belge analizlerine göre, politikalar ve uygulamalar arasında bir uyumsuzluk, hazırlık okulları ile EMI bölümlerinin kendi içlerinde ise büyük farklılıklar bulunmaktadır. Nicel ve nitel analizler temel olarak öğrencilerin üretken becerilerinin geliştirilmesi gerektiğini, öğretim görevlilerinin ve dil öğretmenlerinin işbirliği yapması ve EMI pedagojisi ve metodolojisinde eğitim

alması gerektiğini ve EMI bölümlerinin ve hazırlık okullarının müfredatlarının daha etkili bir EMI eğitimi için kurumlar arası uyumlu hale getirilmesi gerektiğini göstermiştir. Bulgular, EMI öğretim görevlileri, dil öğretmenleri, öğrenciler, kurumlar ve politika yapıcılar için önemli pedagojik çıkarımlar sağlamıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Eğitim Politikası Analizi, Eğitim Dilinin İngilizce Olarak Kullanılması, Türkiye’de Yüksek Öğretim, İngilizce Hazırlık Okulları



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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CBI	Content-Based Instruction
CEFR	Common European Framework of References
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CoHE	Council of Higher Education
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EGAP	English for General Academic
EGP	English for General Purposes
EMI	English Medium of Instruction
ESL	English as a Second Language
MEB	Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı (MOE)
MOE	Ministry of Education
MOI	Ministry of Interior
PYP	Preparatory Year Programme
TMI	Turkish Medium of Instruction
YOK	Yüksek Öğretim Kurumu (CoHE)



Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Theoretical Background

In the past three decades, English as a medium of instruction (EMI) has gained global significance as an educational approach (Dearden, 2014; Goodman, 2014; Lei & Hu, 2014; Othman & Saat, 2009; Smala, 2009; Yılmaz-Virlan & Demirbulak, 2020). It has been adopted as a strategic educational policy by many countries to lead innovation in education, globalization, internationalization, and cultural and economic development (Collins, 2010; Dalton-Puffer, 2011). To achieve social, political, and economic development and meet Turkish university students' English learning needs for globalization, the Turkish government encourages the adoption of EMI and acknowledges that Turkish graduate students can attain English language proficiency and academic expertise to communicate, study and work in international contexts. Accordingly, EMI has been adopted in many Turkish universities and students whose English proficiency level is not adequate are given from 6-month to 1-year English PYP before they proceed to their departmental studies.

There is a lack of studies on how English instruction is implemented for EMI purposes at Turkish universities according to students', English PYP instructors' and departmental EMI instructors' perceptions and on how foreign language education at PYP schools has been discussed in current language-in-education national policies and the education policies of English PYP schools based on EMI. The present study explores policy and practices of English PYP schools in Turkish tertiary contexts in response to EMI as a need for globalization by foregrounding students', instructors' and departmental EMI instructors' experiences, perceptions, and beliefs. Consequently, the results provided insights into the rationale for standardization of education in English PYP schools at Turkish universities because EMI requires common goals as a key to engagement with internationalization of education and socio-economic development of the country.

The first chapter introduces the study along with a contextual background for the research and indicates the significance of the investigation. The research questions and the general outline of the study will be provided as well.

1.1.1. Higher education system in Turkey. The formal education system in Turkey is divided into levels: pre-school education, primary education (4 years of elementary school and 4 years of middle school), secondary education (4 years of vocational and technical high school or 4 years of general high school), higher education and post-graduate education. For higher education, students can first achieve associate or bachelor's degree or one-tier, long-cycle degrees of dentistry, veterinary, pharmacy or medicine. Then, they can achieve, respectively, master's degree or doctorate degree, specialization in medicine or doctorate in art.

There are mainly six types of higher education institutions and academic units in Turkey, which are faculty (college), graduate school, 4-year school, conservatory, post-secondary vocational school and research and application center. A faculty (college) is a division carrying out higher education, scholarly research and publication besides providing educational programmes for bachelor's degrees, which last at least for four years. A graduate school is an institution in universities that provide graduate education and scholarly research and award MA, MSc and PhD degrees. A 4-year school is an institution of higher education providing a four-semester instruction for a specific profession. A conservatory is an institution of higher education which provides four-semester training for artists performing arts and music. A post-secondary vocational school is aimed at training human capacity for specific professions for four semesters. A research and application center are aimed at supporting institutions of higher education with research and applied studies to meet scientific needs in various fields of study. In addition, the department or unit of foreign languages exist in almost every institution where medium of instruction is English and additional foreign languages are taught as elective or must courses in departments. A university in Turkey can possess all or some of these departments or units. The senate of a university, which is composed of rector, vice rector, a faculty member from each faculty, directors of post-secondary vocational schools, deans and directors of institutes, gathers and decides to form the institutions and units according to the

institutional needs. Now, universities can act on their own accord, but they have been coordinated by Turkish Council of Higher Education (CoHe) for more than forty years.

After CoHe was established, the higher education system has undergone substantial changes. For instance, Turkish universities had not acquired their autonomy and legal personality until June 13, 1946, when University Law No. 4936 was adopted. They had been attached to Ministry of Education in Ankara and the faculties had been gathered under the roof of a university in Ankara. In 1946, there were only three universities in Turkey: Istanbul University (1933), Istanbul Technical University (1944), and Ankara University (1946). In the following years, other universities were established as well and in 1970s, the number of universities rose to 108 in Turkey as a direct result of social demands and the developments in the educational system.

On November 6, 1981, CoHE was established, and a new period began in higher education because it became less difficult to access higher education. Accordingly, the number of institutions were increased to meet the demand and the first foundation university, Bilkent University, was established in 1984. In 2003, the number of state universities was 53 and it has reached 129 since then. In addition, there are 73 foundation universities and 5 vocational schools. 26,198 bachelor programmes, 12,628 master's programmes and 5,539 doctoral programmes are offered now. Currently, Turkish Higher Education is regulated through CoHE, and the Inter-University Council (ÜAK) as described in the national legislation (Law No. 2547 on Higher Education and Law No. 2809 on the Organization of Higher Education Institutions) (Crozier, et al. 2020).

Over the years, CoHE has become an institution with an autonomy and public identity possessing powers and duties given to it with the Article 130 and 131 in Constitution. It is now mainly responsible for coordination, supervision, monitoring and strategic planning of higher education institutions and maintaining quality assurance (QA) mechanisms. Since the 2000s, the Turkish higher education system has transformed and expanded continuously to keep up with the latest academic trends all over the world. Universities readily reflect the dynamics of information society and

economy as they receive students from different backgrounds. CoHE is thus adopted the role of educating the work force with universal quality standards by taking Turkish context into consideration. Gathering all universities in Turkey under one roof, it aims to restructure academic, institutional, and administrative units in higher education from the perspective of globalization.

1.1.2. Globalization in Turkish higher education. Over the past decades, the demographic, economic and technological changes across the world have brought out an “educational revolution.” (Graddol, 2006, p. 70). As far as the higher education is concerned, it has led to the globalization of universities (Hans & Philip, 2021). Globalization has simply acquired the meaning of transforming from local or national institutions into global ones that must compete for its students and staff:

The top universities are citizens of an international academic marketplace with one global academic currency, one global labor force and, increasingly, one global language, English. They are also increasingly sending their best graduates to work for multinational companies. The creation of global universities was spearheaded by the Americans; now everybody else is trying to get in on the act (*The Economist*, as cited in Graddol, 2006, p.74).

As mentioned above, English is playing an unparalleled role as for academic research, and medium of instruction in higher education across the globe (Jones & de Wit, 2014). Indeed, it is generally regarded as the lingua franca of the scientific community and approximately 87 percent of the journals indexed in Scopus is English (Mauranen, et. al., 2016; Vera-Baceta et. al, 2019). And even more important point is the extent to which this research is accessible to Turkish academics, undergraduate or graduate students and researchers. As a great deal of research in all fields is published outside Turkey and written in English, Turkish students and researchers need to have a good command of English if their research is to be published in international journals. According to West et. al (2015), Turkish academics found their English proficiency inadequate, and they needed support for writing peer-reviewed academic journals, which shows there is an English-deficit in Turkish universities as far as *research* is considered to be the key main driver of globalization in a national context. In more recent studies which investigated the perceived proficiency levels of Turkish academics and students in higher education, similar findings have been revealed,

which indicates that nothing much has changed for the last six years. For instance, Durmuşođlu-Köse et al. (2019) found that Turkish academics and graduate students from different departments had language-skill specific needs rather than subject-specific ones. Correspondingly, Macaro & Akınciođlu (2018) and Ekoç (2020) suggested that the EMI students need intensive English courses to negotiate the linguistic barrier and comprehend the disciplinary knowledge better. Thus, although CoHE has taken significant steps in university globalization in the face of English being a lingua franca for academic community, global collaboration in research, international student mobility, academic staff mobility and revision of EFL and English as an Academic Purpose (EAP) program still needs encouraging in Turkey (Adams et al., 2011; Ađçam & Babanođlu, 2019).

1.1.2.1. The Bologna processes The second main driver after international publications for CoHE to commence university globalization was Bologna Process. Now having 49 signatories, it was originally signed by 29 countries in 1999. It was aimed at creating a convergence of higher education in European Union and promoting student and staff mobility as well as job opportunities and collaborative research among institutions and countries (Taquini, et al., 2017). It does not aim at unifying the curricula but at exchanging academic knowledge without compromising the autonomy and diversity of each institution. As a matter of fact, it is firmly structured upon the view that university has a strong basis on autonomy because lack of freedom would hinder academic quality and cooperation. The principles are clearly defined in the Magna Charta Universitatum, which was signed in Bologna in 1988 by 388 European universities and is still protected by the Magna Charta Observatory (www.magna-charta.org). Turkey signed up in 2001, together with Cyprus, Croatia and Liechtenstein and there are currently more than 900 signatures from universities from 89 countries (Füruzan, 2012; Hans & Philip, 2021; Kirkpatrick, 2014; Yađcı, 2010).

Bologna Process aims to harmonize higher education particularly in five main areas:

- Quality assurance (QA),
- Recognition of degrees and study periods,

- Joint degrees,
- Degree structure (bachelor, master, doctorate system),
- Social dimension (lifelong learning, gender issues, etc.) (Dearden, 2014).

Turkey's motivation in signing the Bologna agreement is affiliated with its interest in quality and internationalization. The ideas of modernization and internalization construct the basis for educational reforms and clarify the desire for participating in the Bologna Process. By being a signatory, Turkey has made it clear that it intends to improve the international reputation of Turkish universities and making them competitive around the globe (Westerheijden et al., 2010).

British Council (2015) reported that almost all Turkish universities were compliant with the Bologna process principles and that most of them had chosen European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS) as verification of compliance. However, this has not replaced the older credit system and there still remains to be done to measure student outcomes (Enders & Westerheijden, 2014; Westerheijden et al., 2010).

In addition, the report by British Council (2015) found that nearly all Turkish universities which participated in the fieldwork of the project were quite satisfied with Bologna Process, especially as far as documentation, student participation in evaluation, international collaboration and mobility were concerned. And, recently, QA has become an important agenda item for the sake of maintaining the compliance with the Bologna Process (Yılmaz, 2019).

1.1.2.2. Quality assurance with the setting-up of the Commission for Academic Assessment and Quality Improvement in Higher Education (YÖDEK) in 2005, initial steps were taken to create a national quality system with the coalescence of some QA activities. Although the inefficiency of the commission in meeting the Bologna requirements was acknowledged by the President of CoHE in 2014, Turkey has recently implemented a new road map by regarding QA as a policy process guided by public authorities. Being aware of the fact that QA is one of the constituent pillars of the Bologna Process, CoHE continues to implement a QA agenda within the

framework of process model (Yılmaz, 2019). In 2015, the Higher Education Quality Board was established under the auspices of the Higher Education Quality Assurance Regulation. In 2017, the structure was renamed the Higher Education Quality Council (THEQC) and became the only national body responsible for QA in the Turkish Higher Education (Crozier et al., 2020).

THEQC monitors the internal quality of institutions on annual basis and performs institutional external evaluation at least once every five years according to *THEQC Institutional Self-Evaluation Report Writing Guide* and *THEQC External Evaluation Guide*. It also authorizes and recognizes independent accreditation agencies. However, English PYP schools' external evaluation has just recently started on demand of CoHE as well as various stakeholders and, especially as a requirement by European Quality Assurance Register (EQAR) because there is no national accreditation system in the field of foreign language education (HEQC, 2019). Through some guidelines (HEQC, 2019, p. 23) the system is performed only on voluntary basis. Thus, the foreign language departments have either developed respective QA systems or become members of national/international systems. For English language departments, DEDAK (Council of Language Evaluation and Accreditation) was established in 2012. It has been actively implemented to give EFL accreditation to PYP schools of Turkish universities since the last quarter of 2022. The council last gave accreditation the English preparatory program of İzmir Economics University. And, since late 2022, eight more universities have applied for accreditation and their processes are still in progress (DEDAK, 2023).

In addition, international systems have become widespread, such as Pearson Assured and BALEAP from the UK, EAQUALS from the Council of Europe and CEA from the USA (Karaferye, 2017). While Pearson Assured is available for any educational programs, the others are only applicable for English language programs. All of them require inspection but not classroom observation. To the knowledge of the researcher, no study has established the number of institutions using these quality assurances schemes since British Council's report (2015). Accordingly, 8 state universities and 4 foundation universities use one of these schemes and Pearson

Assures has been the most popular one. The figures are reminiscent of a high level of transparency and considerable effort made in meeting international standards.

1.1.2.3. Student mobility One of the most noticeable results of globalization in higher education is student mobility. Higher education market has been growing by seven percent a year since the 1990s and Turkey is one of the major players in the market. There are three main reasons why a country would be attracted by student mobility. They are *quantity*, which is related with the intention to provide revenue by attracting poorly-qualified international students; *quality*, which is concerned with attracting qualified international students' attention to academic positions in order to improve the universities' quality; and the last one is *ideology*, which is associated with fostering ideology or culture by attracting international students through generous scholarships (British Council, 2015; Hans & Philip, 2021; Yılmaz-Virlan & Demirbulak, 2020). As for Turkey, it was not possible to say in the previous decade that it had an effective international student policy. However, CoHe has taken considerable steps especially in the last five years by considering quality, quantity, and ideology. The international exchange programmes such as Mevlana Exchange Programme (<http://www.mevlana.yok.gov.tr>), Erasmus + Student Mobility, Project-Based International Exchange Programmes, CoHE YUDAB Research Programme for Doctorate Students, Farabi Exchange Programme Pak-Türk Grant Programme for Researcher Mobility, CoHe Scholarship for International Students, and integration of Syrian students into Turkish Higher Education system have increased the number of students (CoHE, 2019a). And the department of international relations of CoHE provides most updated knowledge for international students on <http://www.studyinturkey.gov.tr/>. The below table shows the number of international students in Turkey from 2014 to present:

Table 1
Number of International Students from 2014 to 2021 in Turkey (YOK, 2019b)

Years	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021
No. of international students	51,997	79,308	96,657	117,435	135,419	154,509	185,047	224,053

The table suggests that Turkey has taken globalization seriously in the last seven years, which is opposed to the period before 2013 (Özoğlu et al., 2012). Most of the students have been accepted through Examination for Foreign Students (YÖS) and they are mostly from Arabian, Asian and Balkan countries (YOK, 2019b).

The most popular exchange program among both international and Turkish students have traditionally been Erasmus + Student Mobility over the years although joint-diploma programmes in the USA are also in demand. CoHE has shared the number of incoming and outgoing students on its reports (YOK, 2019a; YOK, 2019b). The numbers are in sharp increase and the current dissertation shares the numbers for Erasmus + Student Mobility for exemplification as it is the most popular one:

Table 2

Number of Students in Erasmus + Student Mobility from 2014 to 2019

Years	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
No. of outgoing students	14,710	16,215	15,827	17,092	17,623	17,653
No. of incoming students	7,948	7,438	7,379	2,785	3,396	4,674

The table has itself shown that Turkish students are more interested in studying in European countries than European students are interested in studying in Turkey. However, in addition to the joint programs in the USA, the UK and Europe (Netherlands, Germany, France), there are also students outgoing to or coming from Malaysia, Kazakhstan, Russia, and Spain, although in much lower numbers. All in all, both figures indicate that Turkey has invested a lot in globalization of higher education (Yılmaz-Virlan & Demirbulak, 2020).

1.1.2.4. Staff mobility as with student mobility, Turkish CoHe has attached importance to staff mobility for the sake of globalization in higher education. By introducing Mevlana Exchange programme and participating in Erasmus + Staff Mobility programme, CoHE has opened the way for academic staff at Turkish and foreign universities to exchange knowledge on academic basis. Over the last five years, between 140 and 160 academic staff have visited Turkish universities to give lectures for two weeks to three months. However, no academic staff has visited foreign universities since 2014 within the scope of Mevlana. The reason is that two other

exchange and mobility programmes have been introduced, Project-Based International Exchange Programme and Pak-Türk Grant for Researcher Mobility Programme. Within the scope of the former, higher education institutions prepare mutual projects on the fields approved by the Executive board of CoHE. Since 2016, there have been 66 projects between 36 Turkish state universities and 28 international higher education institutions and incoming staff between 50 and 70 and outgoing staff between 60 and 90. Each higher education institution has their own application process for the programme. As for the latter, it is a Turkish-Pakistani cooperation initiative in academic fields. Ten projects have been approved so far and there have been 20 outgoing and 15 incoming academic staff (YOK, 2019a; YOK, 2019b; Taquini et al., 2017). the current dissertation shares the numbers for Erasmus + Student Mobility for exemplification as it is the most widely used one:

Table 3

Number of Students in Erasmus + Staff Mobility from 2014 to 2019 (YOK, 2019b)

Years	2014/15	2015/16	2016/17	2017/18	2018/19
No. of outgoing staff	2,757	2,772	3,334	3,244	3,104
No. of incoming staff	2,206	1,520	1,199	1,958	2,288

The numbers have proven that CoHE has attempted to take giant steps in globalizing Turkish Higher Education System as it has done with student mobility, quality assurance and Bologna Process. The next section deals with the language (s) of instruction preferred in Turkish universities.

1.1.3. Language of instruction in Turkish Higher Education. The history of using English as a medium of instruction in Turkey dates back to the founding of Robert College (now Boğaziçi University) in 1863:

Robert College was founded in 1863 in Istanbul, Turkey, by Dr. Cyrus Hamlin, an educator, inventor, technician, architect and builder, and Mr. Christopher Rheinlander Robert, a well-known philanthropist, and a wealthy merchant from New York. ... A curriculum was drawn up, and Hamlin insisted that English should be the language of instruction.

The tradition was followed by Middle East Technical University in 1956 and Bilkent University in 1984. There has been a rapid growth in the number of universities in Turkey in the past 20 years and the total number of state and Turkish universities has more than doubled. As for medium of instruction, each university may use Turkish, English, or mixed Turkish-English and there has been an ongoing debate on which language(s) should be used for instruction as part of the planning of Turkish higher education policy (British Council, 2015; Kırkgöz, 2014; Taquini et al., 2017; Yılmaz-Virlan & Demirbulak, 2020).

It is hard to give accurate figures for the number of universities using certain languages simply because medium of instruction may be mixed in many ways or because universities do not always make it clear in their shared materials (Başibek et al., 2013). However, since Turkey signed up the Bologna Process, there has been a striking tendency towards adopting English as a medium of instruction, as in many universities in non-English speaking countries (Hue & Lei, 2014). Most foundation universities and 23 out of 53 state universities are now teaching through EMI (Coşkun, 2013). The driving force behind has actually been the desire to be accredited with a higher ranking in quality (Benson, 2008; Kirkpatrick, 2014). However, there has also been a wide range of variety due to different reasons such as the better impact of first language instruction on learning, which has been put forward by academic research (e.g. Dalton & Puffer, 2011; Spolsky, 2004; Yılmaz-Virlan & Demirbulak, 2020). While some departments such as medicine and engineering are offering English-only classes, others offer EMI in only some of their courses and Turkish in the rest. Before starting their departments, all students are offered English PYP school if they cannot pass the proficiency test prepared and proctored by the university. The number of the degree courses which they are going to take in English does not matter. They have to prove their English proficiency level before starting their degree courses (Yılmaz-Virlan & Demirbulak, 2020). Both foundation and state universities provide English PYP school, and, according to British Council (2015), Turkish state universities are mostly mixed Turkish-English medium (T-EMI), and they preserve access to their PYP schools by introducing 30% of the degree lessons in English. And, in the last decade, some Turkish universities have adopted T-EMI for medicine, engineering departments and vocational schools. T-EMI has taken two forms: horizontal or

vertical. Horizontal programmes are those offered both in Turkish and English in a parallel way. Students can complete their degrees either in Turkish or English, which means the same program is offered in both languages. Vertical programmes are those where Turkish and English are used side-by-side and mostly 70% of the lessons are provided in Turkish. (Başıbek et al., 2013; Dearden, 2014).

However, it is important to note that no higher education institution follows a common curriculum in their English PYP schools. As previous ones did, the latest CoHE Legislation on Foreign Language Education in Official Institutions and the Principles to be Implemented in Foreign Language Education, which was published in official journal No. 29662 merely provides a general guideline on foreign language instruction, without referring to common curriculum activities. Thus, there is a wide variety in English language teaching curricula prepared by universities themselves in Turkish higher education. The next section provides brief information on English PYP schools' teaching programmes.

1.1.4. Language teaching programmes in Turkish higher education system.

Traditionally, English has been taught at Turkish universities in a one-year PYP school in 'foundation', 'basic' or 'access' levels and then through language support classes in undergraduate education. The first PYP school was established at Boğaziçi University in 1958 and METU followed in the beginning of 1960s. Audio lingual textbooks and weekly materials purchased from Boğaziçi University (then Robert College) was used (British Council, 2015; Kırkgöz, 2009). In 1996, each university was required to find a PYP school to provide a one-year English for Academic Purposes (EAP) curriculum and Turkish medium instruction (TMI) universities were given the same requirement in 2001 and 2002. Now, formerly TMI universities incorporate at least 30% the EMI courses to retain their English preparatory programmes (Doğancay-Aktuna & Kızıltepe, 2005; Erden et al., 2017; Karcı & Gündoğdu, 2020).

1.1.4.1. Eligibility for a PYP school English programme To be admitted to an undergraduate program, high school final year students must take a two-stage process of national exams conducted by the Turkish Republic Student Selection and Replacement Centre (ÖSYM). According to the guidelines on

<http://www.osym.gov.tr>, students must achieve a minimum pass mark in the Higher Education Exam (YGS) and then can take the Undergraduate Placement Test (LYS) whose scores are registered by ÖSYM's placement system. According to these scores, each candidate makes their preferred list of undergraduate programmes (EMI, T-EMI or TMI) (Macaro & Akıncioğlu, 2018).

Once accepted, all EMI and T-the EMI students start preparatory English programmes if they have not performed well in the university's entrance test (mostly called English proficiency test) or if they do not have a score in an international English language exam. On average, between 5 and 25 percent of the students can start their undergraduate courses while others start their foundation year in the PYP school. Most of the universities let their students graduate from the PYP school at the end of each semester as long as they pass an in-house proficiency exam. And, almost all universities provide provision programmes for those who fail the PYP school in order that they can retake the English lessons for an additional two years at most. And, for both EMI and T-EMI programmes, the PYP school is compulsory in all Turkish universities but non-credit bearing while it might be compulsory, voluntary, or given on department's request for TMI students. And, for their TMI departments, some Turkish universities make their optional PYP school programs more alluring by providing powerful incentives such as international badges or certificates or even difficult exit tests completely aligned with Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). The distribution of lesson hours a week range from 20 to 25 (Karcı & Gündoğdu, 2020; British Council, 2015).

1.1.4.2. Language proficiency level For departments other than foreign language education (in English, German, Spanish, or French), translation and interpreting studies (in English, German, Spanish, or French), (German, English, Spanish, French) language and literature and linguistics, the university entrance system or Student Selection and Placement System, currently implemented in Turkey takes no account of the students' English-language proficiency levels and admits them to EMI programmes as long as they get a high-enough score. For foreign language departments, students have to sit in a multiple-choice test in English or one of the relevant languages. Most of the students starting PYP school are weak at English

although some start at a higher level. The language requirements are not consistent among institutions. The EMI universities who admit students with high score in university entrance examination (YGS) require the students to finish the course with C1 or C2 on Common European Proficiency Framework of Reference while some foundation universities or state universities who admit students with lower scores require their students to pass with B2 (Çağatay & Gürocak, 2016; Korkmaz, 2017; Vale et al., 2013; Yılmaz-Virlan & Demirbulak, 2020). The reason is, as studies suggest, preparatory programmes do not align with CEFR principles and the adaptation process to CEFR has not followed a common path (Gökdemir, 2010; Kınısız & Aydın, 2008; Tosuncuoğlu & Peaci, 2019). And, as Maden et al. (2009) illustrated, the fact that universities PYP school curricula differ a lot makes it hard to reach standardization in CEFR.

1.1.4.3. Curriculum Although English language curriculum varies a lot among Turkish universities and this situation renders the implementation of EMI diverse, there are mainly five kinds of English language curriculum used in Turkish universities. Table 4 summarizes them:

Table 4

Kinds of English Language Curriculum in English PYP Schools at Turkish Universities

English for General Purposes (EGP)	English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP)	Mixed EGP-EGAP	English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP)	English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)
General English covering all four skills	Academic English designed to teach the skills required for academic study (with no application to any field or study)	EGP in semester 1 and EGAP in semester 2 or EGP to beginners and EGAP to high levels	EGAP applied to a specific field of study (e.g., English for nurses, economists, etc.)	Work related language skills or business English (e.g., writing business reports, e-mails, phone conversations, etc.)

No matter what his or her field of study is, students encounter with different kinds of English language curriculum being used at different stages in their academic

career in Turkey, which results in differences among students' needs and departments' academic achievements and goals (Erden et al., 2017). For instance, some students continue taking EGAP on their field during their degree studies while others finish their foreign language learning after PYP school and are only provided with elective ESAP or EOP courses later. Studies have revealed that students prefer preparatory curriculum to be designed according to EAP and ESP as they find themselves inadequate in technical English on their field after PYP school because departmental lessons have higher levels of English (e.g., Kınısız, 2005; Kırkgöz, 2009; Macaro & Akıncıoğlu, 2018; Özkanal & Hakan, 2010). The below section briefly touches upon the EMI in departments at Turkish universities.

1.1.5. English mediated education in Turkish universities. English-mediated education in Turkish universities holds a wide variety of approaches to teaching academic content through English. Three main approaches can be illustrated as:

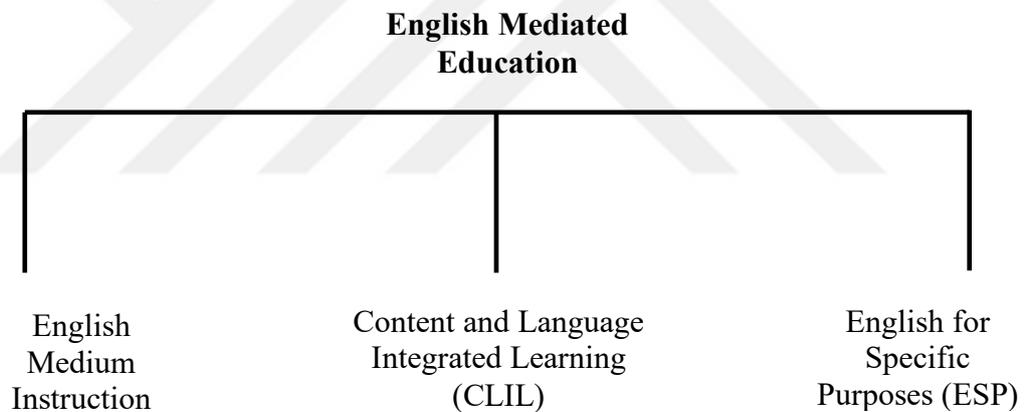


Figure 1. Approaches to English-Mediated Education in Turkish universities (British Council, 2015; Ekoç, 2020; Kırkgöz, 2009)

1.1.5.1. English medium instruction (EMI) EMI can be simply defined as teaching content through a language different from the one that is generally used by the students (Costa & Coleman, 2013). The development of English as a global language has paved the way for many non-native English-speaking institutions around the world to implement EMIs as a new trend in ELT (Wilkinson, 2012). Many reasons can be documented for the adoption of EMI such as “internationalization, student exchanges, teaching and research materials, staff mobility, graduate employability, the market in international students” (Coleman, 2006, p. 4). According to Wachter and

Maiworm (2008), EMI is good for attracting international students and adapt domestic students for the global market and improving the ranking of the institutions. Turkey is not an exception in the growth of EMI in higher education and universities desire to achieve a global status (Turhan & Kırkgöz, 2018).

1.1.5.2. Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) CLIL has been employed in European countries since 1990s and in Asian countries for the last decades. Marsh and Maljers (1994) define CLIL as an approach where language is not isolated from the contents being learnt as it is emphasized together with the content of academic subjects. It is a popular form of immersion education, encouraging teaching academic subjects through an additional language and providing learners with the chances of using their language skills to learn content. For the teaching and learning of both content and language, the foreign or second language is used and “content goals are supported by language goals” (Mehisto et al. 2008, p. 11). It can be distinguished from EMI in that it has a clear objective of improving both content and language (Dearden, 2014). It has recently become popular in European universities, where international degree programmes are provided (Ruiz-Garrido & Campoy-Cubillo 2013).

Mehisto et al. (2008) states that content teachers teach CLIL courses, and they are expected to support the students in linguistic knowledge required to understand the content. In rare cases, language teachers become in charge of EMI courses, and they gather support from EMI instructors. According to Gustafsson et al. (2011), EMI at universities can be implemented by language teachers who can teach content or content lectures who can support linguistic needs of the students or, thirdly, through the collaboration of both parts. However, Airey (2016) disagrees with the first kind of the EMI instructors. He has argued that a language teacher cannot be an EMI instructor because “content teachers are not expected to take on the role of language experts, but rather to explain the ways in which language is used to build and share knowledge within their discipline” (Airey, 2016, p. 77). As a matter of fact, this is the same case in English mediated education at Turkish universities, where EMI is implemented by EMI instructors (Ekoç, 2020).

According to recent research, Content-based instruction (CBI) is also known as CLIL in Europe (Cammarata, 2009; Cenoz, 2015; Coyle et al., 2010; Tarnopolsky, 2013) as CBI also aims to integrate language and content. Barnard (2014) suggests that CLIL implemented in European institutions is actually the origin of EMI, which has caused English to take up a role as an additional language to the academic subject. He examined the medium of instruction at University of Maastricht, where Dutch was originally the medium of instruction, and the courses were taught in an additional language (German, English or French). However, in the upcoming years, French and German was omitted, and the programme became EMI based. The distinctions between CBI and CLIL will be further explored in the literature review section of the present dissertation.

1.1.5.3. English for specific purposes Day and Krzanowski (2011) state that English for specific purposes (ESP) involves learning and teaching the skills and language required for a particular purpose. It is usually taught by a language teacher rather than an academic or EMI instructor. Its purpose may be occupational (EOP) or academic (EAP) and it may have a broad (EGAP/EGOP) or narrow (ESAP/ESOP) focus (British Council, 2015). Due to the internalization of higher education, EAP has grown dramatically in Turkish higher education institutions (Ekoç, 2020; Kırkgöz, 2009) and all around the globe (Ennis & Prior, 2020). EAP was first identified as its own approach to teaching English as early as 1974” (p.2). As students taking EAP courses need to prepare for international academic context, they need to learn more than four language learning skills: listening, reading, writing, and speaking (Wilson, 2016). EAP courses provide students with academic skills and language for social communication, which would help them thrive in English speaking environments (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002).

In Turkish universities, all three approaches might be encountered. ESP is taught as a language support and normally not credit-bearing. CLIL is rare and EMI is quite common at universities where English is chosen as the medium of instruction. However, the teaching strategies the proportions of English and Turkish vary a lot (Kırkgöz, 2009; Zaif et al., 2017). The situation of EMI and the views on it will be further discussed in the literature review chapter of the present dissertation.

1.1.6. Language policy

1.1.6.1. The definition of policy Schmidt et al. (2006) notes that ‘policy’ is hard to define and describes the term as “legislative or regulatory action taken by federal, state, city, or local governments, government agencies, or non-governmental organizations such as schools or corporations” (p.22). In other words, it defines the priorities for actions, strategies, accountability of stake holders and the allocation of resources. ‘Policy’ can be composed of written documents or unwritten forms to guide the individuals for goals intended by governmental or non-governmental or private organizations.

1.1.6.2. The definition of language policy According to Johnson (2013), language policy is “a policy mechanism that impacts the structure, function, use or acquisition of language” (Johnson, 2013, p. 9). It can be inferred from this definition that language policy is made up of official regulations that can create a change in the form, function, and acquisition of language. A language policy can also have an impact on economic, political, and educational factors (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997; Spolsky, 2004).

In this sense, the term ‘language policy’ connotes ‘language planning’, which “is a body of ideas, laws and regulations (language policy), change rules, beliefs and practices intended to achieve a planned change (or to stop change from happening) in the language use in one or more communities” (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997, p. 3). As the definition suggests, language planning incorporates language policy. However, their relationship is convoluted:

Language is one of the fundamental dimensions of education and government policies for education often includes reference to language issues. The relationship between language policy and planning and education is complex, as education is both something that is the object of work in language planning and policy and also a mechanism through which language planning and policy goals are achieved.

(Liddicoat, 2013, p. 5-6).

To cope with the uncertain relationship, Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) used the term language-in-education policy and described it as a part of formal education in

national education systems and as a component of language planning. Such policies are intended to improve language proficiency and achieve national goals such as socio-economic and political ones. As a matter of fact, most societies have policies reading teaching and learning additional languages and they include language policies aimed to shape the teaching and learning languages in educational institutions (Liddicoat, 2013). Language-in-education policies are of different types which emphasize different factors:

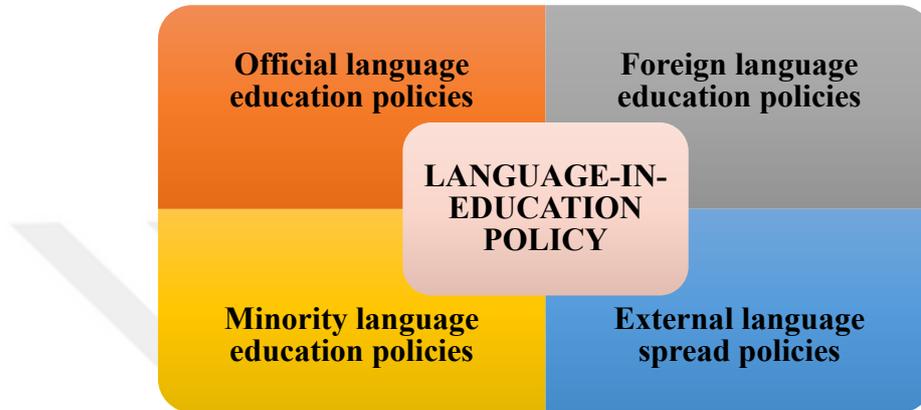


Figure 2. Types of language-in-education policies

(Adapted from Liddicoat, 2013, p. 7)

Baldauf and Kaplan (2005) designed an outline consisting of seven planning objectives for analyzing a language-in-education policy. They are access policy, personnel policy, curriculum policy, methods and materials policy, resourcing policy, community policy and evaluation policy. According to different researchers (e.g., Kırkgöz, 2017; Köksal & Şahin, 2012; Nguyen, 2011; Sarıçoban, 2012), these seven policy objectives are required for analyses because they reflect specific educational actions to be taken.

Just as Kaplan and Baldauf (2013) stated, language planning and policy may occur at “macro or polity level, meso or community/organizational level, or at the micro or individual level” (Kaplan & Baldauf, 2013, p. 201). In the present study, the national policy documents are analyzed as official written documents at two macro levels: Governmental and Ministerial levels. They are education laws, policies in education and language-in-education policies. In addition, meso (community/organizational level) policy documents are examined to indicate the language teaching and learning practices at Turkish universities. They are language

legislations and course syllabuses of English PYP schools of foreign language units at universities all around the country.

1.1.7. Current foreign language education-in-policies in Turkish education system. It is true to highlight that foreign language education-in policy and planning (LPP) and the medium of instruction (MOI) are intertwined with its social, geographical, and historical context. In Turkish context, English and English as MOI were introduced in tertiary level due to globalization and the global spread of English as in many other polities but there have also been geographical and historical reasons as well as influences of such acts on MOI (Kaplan & Baldauf, 2013; Kırkgöz, 2017). For instance, since Turkey stands as a bridge between Asia and Europe, English is the language most widely used as *lingua franca* of communication and an essential tool for globalization. As far as the countries' ambitions to become among the ten largest economies in the world by 2023 are concerned, a labor force proficient in English language skills is essential to enable the country to be integrated with the rest of the world (CoHE, 2019a).

In Turkey, Turkish is the national and official language and English is a foreign language (EFL) in non-native English speakers (NNES) context and it is currently the only compulsory foreign language at all levels of education. In the last century, there have been tremendous changes in language policy making. Since Turkish Republic was established in 1923, a planned education policy has been implemented to respond to the global influences of English in the overall education system. Developing workforce for international relations on economic and social levels, the perceived language needs for national economic growth along with the economic ambitions to raise the overall living standards have been among the most powerful drivers in the country (Grossman et al., 2007; Vale et al. 2013).

Two major language policy acts introduced in 1983 and 1984 laid the foundations of foreign language planning in Turkey. The 1983 Foreign Language Teaching and Learning Act stated the regulations concerning foreign language teaching at schools. It states that the language of instruction in secondary and high schools is Turkish and the decisions on foreign language teaching at these schools are

made by Turkish Ministry of National Education [Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı (MEB)]. MEB is now responsible for preparing the English language curriculum and syllabi to be implemented at secondary and high school levels (Kırkgöz, 2009).

At tertiary level, Turkey has continued to implement the policy of foreign language medium education since The Higher Education Act was approved in 1984. Since then, there has been an increase in the number of English-medium universities. Due to internationalization and globalization, the English as the medium of instruction remained on the agenda and the issue of whether to use English or Turkish as MOI was discussed at macro policy level. In 1996, Turkish CoHE introduced a list of criteria for a university to meet in order to offer English as MOI (YOK, 1996). With a view to developing national human capital proficient in English, many universities were encouraged to provide EMI programs. As for universities with Turkish MOI, they incorporated English as a compulsory course in the curriculum (Kırkgöz, 2009; Mizikaci, 2011).

In relation to foreign language (English) education, three major curriculum reforms have taken place in Turkey so far: The first one was introduced in 1997; the second one in the year 2005 took place because ELT curriculum was updated as part of the government policy to harmonize education with that of the European Union (EU) norms, and the latest one was started in 2012 to be implemented in the 2013-2014 academic year. All these reforms were made for primary and secondary levels of education at state schools in Turkey and the 2013 Educational Reform highlighted the need for developing communicative competence and the language use in an authentic communicative environment. In addition, the new ELT curriculum model closely followed the principles and descriptors of CEFR: Learning, Teaching and Assessment (MEB, 2013). The learner autonomy, self-assessment, appreciation for cultural diversity – as the three descriptors of the CEFR – were taken into account. (Kırkgöz, 2017). Investigating teachers' perceptions of this reform in Turkish state primary education, Kırkgöz and Yaşar (2014) found that teachers were not ready to teach the curriculum and suggested that they needed training. The issues on how to improve the teaching and learning of English from primary to tertiary level in Turkey have been going on for decades. The British Council carried out research called *The Turkey*

National Needs Assessment (TNNA) between February – July 2013 in cooperation with MEB and the Economic Policy Research Foundation (TEPAV). The study covered primary, secondary, and high and vocational English language teaching. It concluded that Turkey was not performing adequately in the field of ELT due to inadequate teaching in primary and secondary schools (Vale et al., 2013).

According to the report, there are two reasons underlying the deficiency in the country's performance in teaching English at primary and secondary levels. The first one is about the teachers. More than 80% of the English teachers at schools hold the necessary teaching qualifications and English proficiency level. But they teach the language as a subject lesson, merely to help their students to pass on to the next level or pass their classes, rather than as a tool or language of communications. As a consequence, students cannot learn to communicate independently in English (Vale et al. 2013).

The other reason is the students. Even after 1000 + hours of English classes at the end of high school, their competence level was found to be rudimentary, which was against the expected level of at least B2 when starting tertiary level of education considering the perceptions of the stakeholders and policy makers about the necessary proficiency levels.

According to the study by British Council (2015), which was made in partnership with TEPAV into English Language provisions in the higher education level, EMI universities are traditionally favored more. And this is most probably because of the inefficacy of the foreign language education in primary and secondary levels (Kırkgöz, 2017). Visiting 38 universities across 15 cities in Turkey, the researchers of the study surveyed the academic staff and leadership teams and they also observed classes. According to the findings, Turkish universities had good initiatives in EMI instruction and English proficiency levels of the academic staff meet the international standards, but they are not high enough in number and thus EMI departments cannot be improved in some universities. In addition, as the current English proficiency levels of both students and academic staff hinder effective learning, the study recommended that the

EMI instructors be given EMI teaching training on how to implement a range of language and technological strategies to improve their students' learning.

As discussed, beforehand, Turkey enacts reforms within the framework of Bologna Process for foreign language-in education policies at universities. To knowledge of the researcher, since 2001, when Bologna Declaration was signed, there has not been a great attempt to revolutionize English language teaching and education at Turkish universities by the state. In the field of ELT, only several research studies (e.g., British Council, 2015; Kırkgöz, 2014; Sahan, 2021) have been conducted to evaluate the present situation or gather the perceptions of the teachers and/or students. In addition, Turkish CoHE published a report in order to discuss the attempts to adjust Turkish higher education to international standards further according to the new developments in the Bologna Process (YOK, 2019). The importance of EMI at higher education was once more underlined. The report covered the following points: (1) The European Higher Education Area (EHEA), (2) Approval of the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS), (3) Students and academic exchange and mobility, and (4) Establishing an accreditation and quality assurance system in teacher education (Kırkgöz, 2017).

In general, the focus has been more on primary and secondary education because the purpose is to improve the foreign language education for young or even very young learners in order to prepare them well for EMI at tertiary level education, as the 2013 Education Reform states (MEB, 2013). However, as noted beforehand, the reform is not successful enough because most students must take English classes for two semesters at PYP schools of their universities before proceeding to the departments with EMI. Thus, it can be concluded here that English PYP schools act both as a compensation and as an important part of the Bologna Process on the way to achieve internationalization in higher education.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In many non-native English-speaking countries, EMI has been widely implemented for academic studies in higher education (Hue & Lei, 2014). Some influential factors can be dictated behind the reason why EMI has been preferred so

much. To start with, Kirkpatrick (2014) alleges that it is the Bologna Process that has motivated the universities to adopt EMI because it aims to standardize university degrees and facilitate staff and student mobility across Europe. From another perspective, Coleman (2006) suggests that marketization of universities as a financial concern plays the most important role in EMI adoption. Besides, Dalton-Puffer (2011, p.185) claims that “the perceived weakness of traditional foreign language teaching” prioritizes the adoption of EMI in tertiary level degree programs. The last but not the least, EMI has been considered as an advantage that can increase disciplinary learning and English proficiency in higher education by other studies (Hu & Lei, 2014; Yılmaz-Vurlan & Demirbulak, 2020). Thus, it is not surprising that there has been an increase in EMI programs at universities all around the world due to the internalization process.

As for Turkish universities, English PYP schools have been providing English education as part of EMI in degree studies on the basis of the Bologna Process (YOK, 2017). However, the recent literature has indicated that EMI might not produce the expected results due to students’ lack of proficiency in English and their difficulty in understanding the content or lack of teacher training in EMI (e.g. British Council, 2015; Füzuan, 2002; İnal et al., 2021; Kırkgöz, 2014; Kırkgöz, 2017; Benson, 2008; KİNSIZ & Aydın, 2008; Taquini et al., 2017; Yılmaz-Vurlan & Demirbulak, 2020). For instance, the study of needs analysis by Erden et al. (2017) has indicated that PYP students and students in the departments differ a lot in terms of language needs. Investigating the 380 prep school students’ and 65-degree students’ needs in terms of EMI at a Turkish state university through an online questionnaire, it has drawn attention to the fact that it is necessary to pare the differences between the needs of students in prep schools and departments while designing a curriculum for PYP schools. In a similar vein, aiming to see if there is a relationship between motivation, perception as well as the success of 100% EMI and 30% the EMI students at the PYP school of a state university, Yılmaz-Vurlan and Demirbulak (2020) found that there was no significant relationship between success and motivation while there was a decrease in the achievement of 100 % the EMI students and an increase in the performance of 30% the EMI students. The study concluded that there was so much difference in students’ perceptions of learning English for further academic instruction and curriculum design studies of PYP schools should be conducted accordingly.

Correspondingly, Karakaş (2019) investigated why EMI instructors and students resorted to using Tarzanish (a mixed version of English and Turkish) in Turkish universities in addition to trying to indicate the use and conceptualization of the term in different sources along with its descriptive characteristics. The findings suggest that Tarzanish is preferred due to low level of language proficiency and domains of language use such as tourism and business in higher education.

From another perspective, in their large-scale study of 989 students from 18 Turkish universities, Macaro and Akıncioğlu (2017) aimed to report whether there were differences in students' perceptions and attitudes towards EMI in terms of institutional variables such as gender and year of study. Choosing their participants among PYP school and department students, the researchers found that there were significant differences in terms of year of study, university type (state or private) and gender. They concluded that such variables should be investigated deeply in similar tertiary level contexts while designing curriculums for PYP schools.

As far as the academics' needs and perceptions are concerned, in addition to also providing an overview of teaching practices in EMI undergraduate programmes, Ozer (2020) investigates the practices and views of 113 faculty members of different academic ranks on the implementation of EMI in Turkish universities. The study has indicated that a variety of techniques are being used by EMI instructors and that the faculty members needed both a tailored training in EMI and a robust collaboration with prep school instructors.

Based on these overviews, it can be concluded here that the EMI students and EMI instructors are having difficulties related to language proficiency and competency during degree studies. As it is the final academic period where undergraduate students take an intensive English language education before, they proceed to their departmental studies, English PYP is of vital importance for the ongoing success of EMI in higher education as far as internationalization and globalization are concerned. Therefore, English foreign language-in education policies need to be designed in a way that English PYP schools are able to prepare the EMI students well for their

departments in terms of language proficiency and competence. Currently, each university prepares its own English PYP school curricula by conforming to the regulations stipulated by foreign language-in- education policies by CoHE, which are structured in line with the Bologna Process (Kırkgöz, 2014; Yılmaz-Virlan & Demirbulak, 2020, YOK, 2017). However, what students and instructors perceive and perform for EMI purposes might be quite different from what universities, program developers and policy makers foresee in their policies (Kiran, 2013; Kırkgöz, 2017). To the knowledge of the researcher, there is little existing research and reporting successes and failures of both macro and meso language-in-education policies at tertiary level in preparing students for EMI courses and none has considered students and instructors' perceptions. Remarkably, although the challenges in implementing EMI on international scale have been reported in different contexts (Barnard, 2014; Bradford, 2013; Coleman, 2006; Dearden, 2014; Smith & Nguyen, 2010), the evidence of the strategies used to deal with such challenges and the implementers and students' perceptions have not been explored sufficiently in those studies, either. Therefore, there is a problem in EMI instruction in Turkish universities, which is most probably related with the foreign language education policies (macro level) and in the most essential component of the globalization aimed by Turkish authorities: English PYP schools (meso level).

1.3 Objectives of the Study

EMI in higher education have been emphasized well by many studies conducted in other countries as mentioned in the following literature review section of the present study. However, what is beneficial for one country may fail in another because successful methodologies differ within different contexts or in different universities even within the same context (Dearden, 2014; Goodman, 2014). In Turkey, EMI is not in its infancy. However, although many universities employ this educational approach in their departments by staying loyal to higher education policies for each subject or discipline for many years, there are not many studies focusing on the implementation of policies and practices for EMI purposes in macro and meso level, especially by considering English PYP schools. Thus, the present study aims to find out to what extent EMI as a direct result of globalization is addressed and practiced in macro language-in-education policies of the Turkish government and meso level documents

of English PYP schools of Turkish universities and to explore what perceptions English PYP students and instructors as well as the EMI students and EMI instructors hold about the current education and English proficiency level in terms of EMI and how the relevant perceptions of two cohorts differ; to gather the recommendations of students, instructors and EMI instructors for improving EMI in Turkish universities and the views of the meso policy makers' views on students and instructors/EMI instructors' perceptions. In particular, this study aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent are EMI addressed in current macro policies of the government and meso policies of English PYP schools within Turkish tertiary EFL contexts?
2. What are EMI students' and instructors' perceptions of EMI in Turkish tertiary EFL contexts?
 - 2a. Are there any significant differences in EMI students' perceptions according to gender, university, department, and school year?
 - 2b. Are there any significant differences in EMI instructors' perceptions according to gender, university, department, and education level?
3. What are PYP students' and instructors' perceptions of English PYP in terms of EMI in Turkish tertiary EFL contexts?
 - 3a. Are there any significant differences in PYP students' perceptions according to gender, university, department, and the time spent at PYP schools?
 - 3b. Are there any significant differences in PYP instructors' perceptions according to gender, university, years of experience, and certification or education in English language teaching?
4. What is the perceived impact of EMI on English language proficiency for EMI courses (according to EMI students and instructors)?
 - 4a. Are there any significant differences in EMI students' perceptions according to gender, university, department, and school year?
 - 4b. Are there any significant differences in EMI instructors' perceptions according to gender, university, department, and education level?

5. What is the perceived impact of English PYP on English language proficiency for future EMI courses (according to English PYP students and instructors)?
 - 5a. Are there any significant differences in PYP students' perceptions according to gender, university, department, and the time spent at PYP schools?
 - 5b. Are there any significant differences in PYP instructors' perceptions according to gender, university, years of experience, and certification or education in English language teaching?
6. What are the EMI students' and EMI instructors' recommendations on how to improve EMI courses?
7. What are English PYP students' and instructors' recommendations on how to improve English PYP for future EMI courses?
8. What are English PYP school directors' views on the recommendations and perceptions shared in regard to EMI courses and English PYP for future EMI courses?

To address these research questions and provide solutions, an explanatory, cross-sectional mixed methods research was designed through macro and meso policy document review, questionnaire surveys (students and instructors/EMI instructors), interviews (instructors/EMI instructors) and focus groups (students). (number) macro and meso policy documents were reviewed as the essential part of the present study. The aim was to find out the status of EMI in current higher education and PYP school policies and practices, the contemporary English language education at PYP schools, the reasons for the implementation of EMI, whether there is an alignment between the Turkish government's and CoHE's expectations of EMI programs and the teaching and learning practices at PYP schools in Turkish tertiary EFL contexts. In addition, data was collected from questionnaires for (number) instructors, (number) PYP students, the EMI students and the EMI instructors from in (number) Turkish universities located in (places). The purpose was to explore the participants' perceptions of EMI, understand the perceived impact of the current education on students' English language proficiency levels for the EMI courses and explore the participants' suggestions for improving the EMI courses in Turkish tertiary EFL context. Then, instructors and students who were appropriate for the selection criteria

(see Chapter 3) were invited to participate in in-depth semi-structured interviews and focus groups. This stage was conducted to better understand the quantitative findings in stage 1 and 2. Consequently, the perceptions of the participants were shared with the department/unit directors of English PYP schools to gather their ideas on how to improve EMI. Ultimately, the findings were analyzed and interpreted, and important implications were made.

1.4 Significance of the study

The present study aims to help policymakers, higher education institutions, instructors, EMI instructors, and students gain insights into EMI adoption as a direct result of globalization in Turkish tertiary level education and understand whether English language education at universities is sufficient for the EMI courses and how it can be improved for a better adoption of the approach. The findings from students', instructors' and EMI instructors' perceptions and their recommendations will be significantly beneficial for Turkish universities and related Turkish authorities because the study foregrounds instructors', EMI instructors, and students' voices in the evaluation of EMI in the Turkish context. Accordingly, adjustments can be timely made for improving the EMI courses in Turkish universities.

1.5 Definitions

1.5.1. English medium instruction (EMI). It refers to any teaching and learning context where content is taught through a language different from the mother tongue of the learners (Costa & Coleman, 2013).

1.5.2. Language policy. It is a governmental document that defines the macro or meso practices of how to teach a language for its better function, use, and acquisition in a given context (Johnson, 2013).

1.5.3. Policy. It is a legislative or regulatory act of a state, city, a government, or institutions such as schools or universities that defines the actions, strategies, and responsibilities of stake holders (Bull et al., 2014; Schmidt, 2006).

1.5.4. English for specific purposes. It is an approach to teach English for different fields such as economics, linguistics, medicine, or politics (Dudley-Evans, 1997.)

1.5.5. English for academic purposes. It is an approach to teach English for helping students to do academic research studies in English (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001).

1.5.6. Content-based instruction (CBI). It is a language learning and teaching approach where the aim is shifted towards teaching subject matter through a different language rather than to teaching the language (Leaver & Stryker, 1989).

1.5.7. Content and language integrated learning (CLIL). It refers to any teaching and learning activity where a subject or discipline is learnt through a foreign language to teach content and increase language proficiency at the same time (Coyle, 1999).

1.5.6. Preparatory year programme (PYP). It refers to an intensive English as a second language (ESL) course offered by Turkish universities for their undergraduate students so that they can be academically proficient enough in the language before they start their EMI courses. The course is compulsory and repeated at each university if the students cannot pass an in-house English test or prove their language proficiency with a score they receive from an equivalent exam (Macaro & Akıncıoğlu, 2018).

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a concise summary of content-oriented approaches to teaching content through a foreign language, including English for Specific Purposes (ESP), Content-Based Instruction (CBI), Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI). The similarities and differences between these approaches will be presented. Afterwards, the chapter will explore the literature on EMI as a global phenomenon by emphasizing on the literature of EMI from European countries and Asian countries including the Turkish context. The current studies on the implementation of EMI in the Turkish context will be presented with a thorough analysis.

2.2 English as a Global language

A language is considered to be global when it is assigned a special role and recognized in a certain country (Crystal, 2003). Crystal (2003) adds that “To achieve such a status a language has to be taken up by other countries around the world” (p. 4) and that “it is inevitable that a global language will eventually come to be used by more people than any other language” (p. 6). According to Kachru’s (1991) concentric circles model, some countries such as the USA, Canada, Britain, Australia, and New Zealand consider English as the official or native language and these countries are regarded as Inner Circle. And, in other countries such as the Philippines, India and Singapore (Outer Circle), it is considered as a second language or an essential language in curricula or culture while it is a foreign language as a lingua franca in Vietnam, Korea, Japan, China, Turkey, etc. (Expanding Circle).

As highlighted by Crystal (1998, 2003), the foreign language-in-education policies adopted by the countries of Outer Circle and Expanding Circle have been subject to change in years. For instance, a region using English as a second language (ESL) in the past may have started to use it as a foreign language. According to Salomone (2015), English is used as a means of communication for a large majority of global population because it harbors core elements to be considered as a lingua France. Salomone (2015)

indicates that “no longer is global English the wave of the future; it is an imperative of the present” (p. 246) because “about a quarter of the world’s population is already fluent or competent in English” (Crystal, 2003, p. 6). At the moment, English is being spoken fluently by more than 1.5 billion people as a first or second language all over the world.

English as a global language has vastly influenced English language teaching (ELT) policies and practices as well as language-in-education policies in the whole world. As a direct consequence of this, English has been treated as a way of engaging with global communication rather than just a school subject. Among the most significant recent trends of English language teaching, for instance, is content-based approach in English language teaching that highlights the role of language in meaning-making and the function of meaning-making in learning a language (Richards, 2000). In particular, the number of the higher education institutions (HEIs) using English as the medium of instruction around the world have noticeably increased in the last decades (Ibrahim, 2001).

2.3 Common approaches to teach content through a foreign language.

The growth of internationalization and globalization has led to a rapid rise of content-oriented approaches to teach language through a foreign language. Among the most common ones are English for Specific Purposes (ESP), Content-Based Instruction (CBI), Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI). Unique and parallel characteristics as well as conflicts and overlaps have been dictated among them by many academic circles. It is of crucial importance to highlight the links between EMI, ESP, CLIL and CBI because the research studies on these approaches touch upon a variety of similar issues encountered by EMI instructors. Hence, this section will initially examine the approaches individually and then review the literature on similarities and differences.

2.3.1. English for specific purposes (ESP). ESP has emerged as a discipline and has kept this status owing to many factors since the 1960s (Anthony, 1998; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Javid, 2013). The “Oil Crises”, which broke out in the 1970s, brought together the phenomenon of welcoming the Western knowledge (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Javid, 2015). There were

increasing demands for learning English due to special needs that were mostly associated with language use for authentic communication. What's more, the studies on language gained popularity due to the developments in educational psychology (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), learners need to learn a language for different purposes which impact "the effectiveness of their learning" (p. 8) as well as their impetus to learn and the popularity in ESP stemmed from "a combination of three important factors: the expansion of English demand for particular needs, developments in the fields of linguistics and educational psychology" (p. 8). They also state that "all three factors seemed to point towards the need for increased specialization in language learning" (p. 8). Thus, the ESP approach was shaped by these economic, linguistic, and political situations; as a consequence, it is one of the most prevalent approaches in EFL teaching "to answer to the changing political, economic and social trends and this flexibility requires its permanent adaptation to different contexts" (Medrea & Rus, 2012, p.1166).

ESP is actually an approach, "not a product and not a particular kind of language or methodology, nor does it consist of a particular type of teaching material" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 19). It has been defined as a language-centered approach structured around learners' needs. It was also highlighted that ESP is an approach to language teaching "in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 19). Thus, "there is, in other words, no such thing as an ESP methodology, merely methodologies that have been applied in ESP classrooms, but could just as well have been used in the learning of any kind of English." (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 18).

In the meantime, ESP has been regarded as a learner-centered approach by other researchers (Dudley-Evans, 1997; Javid, 2015). Definitions of ESP have been made on the basis of the distinctions between its features. To exemplify, Dudley-Evans (1997) described ESP's characteristics as absolute and variable. The absolute characteristics were defined as:

ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learner. ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines that it serves; ESP is centered on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse, and genre.

As for its variable characteristics, they were the features under the influence of the specific disciplines on using ESP methodological designs other than those of General English. Dudley- Evans (1997) stated that it is easy to differentiate between what is ESP and what is not by considering these absolute and variable characteristics.

Javid (2015) suggests that learners specific needs can be met through ESP because English language teaching is integrated with content teaching, occupations, and tasks. In addition, ESP is designed in a way that students' linguistic demands as to professional contexts can be met. In a similar vein, Dudley-Evans (1997) states that ESP seems to be suitable for learners at tertiary levels or in a professional setting. He also highlights the fact that ESP is mostly designed for intermediate and advanced level students and some rudimentary knowledge of the language systems is required for ESP (Dudley-Evans, 1997). As opposed to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), he asserts that ESP differs from EFL teaching as far as its methodology is concerned, by adding ESP is to “involve the teaching of the language and the skills associated with a range of disciplines” (Dudley-Evans, 1997, p. 6). In other words, ESP is designed to equip the learners with sufficient language awareness and study skills to help them learn the subject content. Javid (2015) contributes to the point by adding that specific needs of specific students determine the teaching practices of ESP.

The roles of ESP practitioners have been described as a teacher, course designer, material designer, collaborator, researcher, learner, and evaluator by some researchers (Dudley-Evans, 1997; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Javid, 2015; Kiran, 2013). As material developers and course designers, ESP teachers are to provide relevant learning materials that are tailored to learners' learning objectives. It involves choosing suitable materials for specific groups of learners, adapting them if necessary, creating more activities or materials if there aren't any appropriate ones (Dudley-Evans, 1997). As a matter of fact, selecting the teaching materials is one of the primary concerns of the ESP approach. The main issue here is whether authentic or non-authentic materials are of better use for ESP courses. According to Pham and Malvetti (2012), authentic materials restrict the students from using the target language flexibly and creatively since they are too difficult for them to understand. The role of ESP

teachers in choosing materials has been studied carefully in the literature, which can actually attend to the issues present in EMI, such as the appropriateness of the EMI materials or the necessity to get the instructors to design or adapt such materials.

Dudley-Evans (1997) emphasizes that ESP teaching should transcend teaching merely the language and it should involve “teaching skills involved in the macro-skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking, such as the importance of listening or reading for meaning” (p. 7). In other words, ESP teachers should be equipped with the knowledge on how to integrate the language itself with language skills.

A vast majority of scholars (e.g., Dudley-Evans, 1997; Javid, 2015) are of the opinion that there should be a collaboration between ESP teachers and subject specialists so that the most appropriate ESP materials can be prepared. Such a collaboration can be made in different stages. For instance, they can huddle together to create materials or to come up with the courses or work activities by drawing on “the content of the courses or work” (Dudley-Evans, 1997, p. 7).

Additionally, ESP teachers adopt the roles of a motivator and counsellor to provide encouragement and enhance the students’ interest in learning. They also act as an evaluator who tests achievements of the students and assesses the courses along with the materials (Dudley-Evans, 1997; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Javid, 2015; Le, 2014).

According to Javid (2015), ESP teachers should be knowledgeable about the content areas their students are specialized in. While learning about the content, they must “pick and choose from a host of teaching methodologies to run an effective ESP course” (Javid, 2015, p. 29). Otherwise, lack of course materials and specialist knowledge may cause them to have difficulty teaching (Kiran, 2013).

In brief, ESP is among the first attempts to respond to internationalization of universities (Ament & Pérez-Vidal, 2015). It equips the students with language skills tailored to their subject areas or professions by addressing their needs and helps them to study in a multilingual tertiary context.

2.3.2. English for academic purposes (EAP). English for Academic Purposes is “the teaching of English with the specific aim of helping learners to study, conduct research or teach in that language,” and this approach is “an international activity of tremendous scope” (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001, p. 8). Major English-speaking countries such as the US, UK, Australia, Canada, and New Zealand use the EAP approach because a large number of overseas students dwell in those countries as non-native speakers of English. In addition, countries where the second language and the medium of instruction at universities is English use the EAP approach (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002). It is also implemented by countries where it is necessary to reach the research literature prepared in English for participating in global economy and academic circles.

Hyland and Shaw (2016) highlight that EAP has emerged as a result of the English for specific purposes (ESP) movements in the 1980s and has an important place in language teaching. Some researchers also consider it a sub-branch of ESP (e.g., Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001; Hamp-Lyons, 2011; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Perhaps the most important branch of ESP is EAP as it directly focuses on English language teaching in academic settings (Anthony, 2013).

From another point of view, EAP can be defined as a language instruction given to meet the communicative needs and contribute to the communicative practices of certain groups in academic circles (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002). Consequently, EAP helps students to participate in some cultural and academic settings. It is believed that students learn more effectively if they are provided with academic language and language for social communication in academic circles. Therefore, in English-medium academic settings, college and university students can master English and use it appropriately for their subjects thanks to EAP. Wilson (2016) also states that students should be provided with opportunities through which they can go beyond mastering the four language learning macro skills of listening, reading, speaking, and writing. In his three ethnographic case studies, Wilson (2016) highlights the significance of critical thinking and reading skills in EAP reading even though the participant teachers taught these skills through different methods. He also argues that students taking EAP

may be encountered with cultural challenges (of living overseas) and feel anxiety regarding passing language tests (such as English placement tests). Correspondingly, Flowerdew and Peacock (2001) underline the fact that EAP should prepare the students for reading academic textbooks, listening to lectures, creating academic essays, and doing library research in addition to other language skills.

EAP lessons are prepared with texts and tasks that are authentic for academic world (Hyland & Shaw, 2016). Besides, intended to improve communicative behaviors specific to academic or workplace contexts, EAP gets the students to analyze the texts and contexts in which these texts and tasks are found in real world. As a consequence, the students are provided with insights into the structures and the meanings of texts. According to these researchers, EAP teachers can design courses, materials, and tasks by performing needs analysis to pinpoint the necessary skills, texts and activities students will need in their prospective academic/professional settings. However, according to Hyland and Shaw (2016), EAP cannot get engaged with different cultures and fail to provide solutions for students who may have culturally different ways of creating texts and possess disparate ideas regarding discursive organization.

As for EAP teachers, they are mostly non-native speakers or users of English around the world because of the swift increase in EAP learners (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002). Consequently, there have been some concerns regarding the language proficiency of academics teaching through EAP, “especially those teaching and researching in non-English language countries where English is used as the medium of university instruction” (p. 4). Accordingly, specially targeted EAP materials and training courses for EAP teachers using English as the medium of instruction have been developed in response.

According to the literature on EAP, there are concerns similar to those in EMI as far as EMI instructors’ language proficiency and pedagogical support for teachers are concerned. Such concerns have motivated the researcher of the present study to explore how the teaching and learning approaches in English PYP schools of Turkish

universities are tailored for EMI purposes and find out the perceived impact of those approaches on students' prospective degree studies through EMI.

2.3.3. Content-based instruction (CBI). Content-based instruction (CBI) was introduced in the 1960s (Rodgers, 2014) and has been widely used since 1990s (Sari et al., 2015). CBI is defined as an approach “in which language proficiency is achieved by shifting the focus of the course from the learning of language per se to the learning of subject matter” (Leaver & Stryker, 1989, p. 270). On theoretical grounds, it is described as an approach where teaching is structured around the content that the learners are supposed to acquire more than the linguistic syllabus. CBI is regarded as an umbrella term for various approaches that combine language and content by concentrating on the content rather than the language.

Through CBI, the target language is acquired naturally and unconsciously and, therefore, task-based learning, brainstorming, discussions, project work are often used (Tarnopolsky, 2013). It has alternative form at different educational levels and they “vary considerably with how CBI is organized - as part of an entire program, specific classes or courses, an adjunct to general education, or entire educational programs” (Genesee & Lindholm-Leary, 2013, p. 4).

In CBI, content and language can be integrated and taught together and teachers decide how much language and content should be integrated by examining the objective and the focus of the relevant course (Genesee & Lindholm-Leary, 2013, Swain, 2001). Genesee & Lindholm-Leary (2013) have analyzed two studies of CBI, one for second language education for majority language students in Canada and the other for dual language education for minority language students in the U.S. They suggest that these CBI programs are good at contributing to competence in a second language and increasing L1 competence and academic achievement for both majority and minority language students. However, their research study has also shown that there is not a systematic approach on how to integrate language with content instruction to increase learning while keeping academic achievement high. As a consequence, students may not acquire native-like language skills as there is a strong focus on content or “the accuracy with which they use language to communicate may

go unnoticed, unchecked, and, thus, underdeveloped” (Genesee & Lindholm-Leary, 2013, p. 22).

Brinton et al. (1989) identifies three models of CBI, which are theme-based courses, adjunct/link courses and sheltered subject-matter instruction courses. According to Romova (2011), however, ESL and EFL contexts often use theme-based model of CBI. In this model, the content may come from one subject area or from a majority of topics of a general essence where vocabulary and reading comprehension tasks are included and authentic materials are used (Romowa, 2011). As for the teaching and learning process, theme-based language instruction integrates the four language skills for professional purposes (Tarnopolsky, 2013).

As far as the aims of the CBI approach are concerned, it is intended to help students attain academic language skills through content (Genesee & Lindholm-Leary, 2013). Romowa (2011) has performed observation of a content-based practitioner and a language development specialist on the use of CBI at a tertiary institution in New Zealand for more than three years and, through his reflections, found out that CBI is seemingly a teaching model with low anxiety. However, he has also revealed that some challenges may occur if the teacher focuses too much on content knowledge. So, there should be a balance between language and content learning in CBI approaches.

In multilingual education, for the purposes of globalization and internationalization, CBI is intended to encourage the learners to think in the target language while learning the content at the same time. However, in CBI, language should always be specific to the content being taught (Ament & Pérez-Vidal, 2015) and the language is a tool for communication in content rather than an end or an object to study. CBI and EMI have shared some similar characteristics as far as the instruction and teaching and learning process are concerned. They will be described in detail in the upcoming sections.

2.3.4. Content and language integrated learning (CLIL). Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is an umbrella term which has been adopted by the European Network of Administrators, Researchers and Practitioners (EUROCLIC)

in 1990s (Coyle, 1999). CLIL describes any teaching activity in which a non-language subject is learnt through a foreign language. Through CLIL, both the content of the subject to be taught and learnt and the foreign language are emphasized. It is also a term coined by David Marsh and Ann Maljers in 1994 as an approach where academic subjects are taught and learnt through language learning processes. Correspondingly, language cannot be separated from the content being learnt.

CLIL refers to situations where subjects, or parts of subjects, are taught through a foreign language with dual-focused aims, namely the learning of content and the simultaneous learning a foreign language.

(Marsh, 1994, p. 23)

According to some scholars, CLIL is becoming increasingly popular in countries in Europe, Asia, Africa, South America and the Far East and Deller and Price (2007) suggests that learners are better prepared for their professional lives by learning subjects through English than by learning it as a subject without content. They also stated that use of language in a language class is dissimilar to that in a content class and that four language skills of listening, reading, speaking, and writing should be regarded as part of the end product and a tool to teach a new language and check linguistic knowledge in a language class. In content classes, however, these four skills should be considered as a means of learning new content knowledge and meaning making or critical thinking. In other words, “the language is a means to an end, rather than an end in itself” (Deller & Price, 2007, p. 6).

It has been stressed by many scholars that CLIL is regarded as an approach specific to Europe and a common practice of immersion education in the continent. For instance, according to Ament and Pérez- Vidal (2015), CLIL is a strategic educational instrument used as a response to the internationalization of Europe. Other scholars also indicated that by learning content through English, CLIL learners can grasp the opportunities of using their language skills to learn content (Mehisto et al., 2008). Used as an approach to teach content through a non-native language, CLIL can be implemented by language teachers using cross-curricular content or by content teachers using English as the language of instruction (Deller & Price, 2007). Both types of CLIL teachers encourage the students to learn content and English

simultaneously. However, the language teacher must teach the content through English rather than merely teaching the language. For this reason, some language teachers can get extra qualifications to teach CLIL appropriately. Content teachers are knowledgeable about the content but the content “may not be used to giving input through another language” or “they may not have the armory of interactive activities that language teachers need” (Deller & Price, 2007, p. 7).

With the CLIL approach, the means of learning content is the knowledge of the language, and language is integrated into the content, which renders language acquisition central. A majority of scholars suggest that CLIL is an effective approach (Mehisto et al., 2008); however, the outcome should direct the teachers to equip the learners with the language skills and the learners need to use the language accurately. In this way, students and teachers can reflect on learning and teaching processes. Mehisto et al. (2008) suggest that CLIL creates a safe and diversified learning setting where students’ language awareness increases and students become confident enough to experiment with language and content through authentic learning materials. They also state that CLIL teachers adopt the role of a facilitator while the students have more chance to communicate with each other. Students can collaborate with the teacher and pinpoint language, learning and content skills outcomes. Mehisto et al. (2008) also highlight the fact that materials used in CLIL should be selected among authentic media according to students’ interests. Besides, CLIL teachers are encouraged to cooperate with subject teachers to plan their curriculum and with the parents, local community, and the authorities to support the learners.

In their experimental research with two groups of 270 accountancy students (the experimental, N=139, CLIL students) and the control group (N=131, non-CLIL students) Chostelidou and Griva (2014) investigate the implementation of CLIL in terms of learner performance related to language skills and subject-specific content. The results have shown that CLIL is effective in reading skills and promote comprehension abilities rather than production abilities. In addition, CLIL students tend to show more positive attitude towards learning English as a second language compared to non-CLIL students.

In a similar vein, regarding the impact of CLIL on language skills, Aguilar, and Munoz (2014) performed a follow-up study of a CLIL pilot research study, in which 63 bilingual postgraduate engineering students from a Spanish university participated. They gauged the students' listening and grammar skills after a CLIL course lasting for a semester. The researchers found out that the participants' listening performance has improved while their improvement in grammar skills was insignificant. They have also concluded that CLIL was more beneficial for students less proficient in English as they showed much more improvement in shorter time than more proficient students. The positive impact of CLIL on students' language proficiency may promote the use of CLIL approach at English PYP schools for better performance in the EMI courses in Turkish tertiary institutions. Therefore, it is essential that the use of CLIL at these units be explored in the present study.

2.3.5. English as a medium of instruction (EMI). In the global age, the reformation of higher education system is strategic for internationalization and globalization for any country or state. It has been among primary educational trends to adopt English as a medium of instruction. Many suggest that CLIL is redefined as Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education (ICLHE) or English – medium university teaching or English – medium of instruction (EMI) (Aguilar, 2017; Dalton & Puffer & Smit, 2013). CLIL is a term used in primary and secondary education research while EMI, ICLHE and CLIL are common terms in HE. In a similar vein, Airey (2016) underlines the fact that EMI is more widespread in tertiary settings than CLIL (or ICLHE). That's why he used "CLIL/EMI" instead of only CLIL when discussing teaching CLIL in higher education.

EMI has been defined in various ways. For instance, Dearden (2014) defines it as "the use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the population is not English" (Dearden, 2014, p. 4). On the other hand, Brown, and Bradford (2014) have stated that EMI is more associated with subject-content mastery and English is used as a means to deliver content; in the meanwhile, language learning is incidental. According to them, the attitudes of the personal instructor or the discipline determines how language is acquired. Accordingly, they define EMI as:

EMI entails the use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the population is not English. It may or may not include the implicit aim of increasing students' English language abilities.

Brown and Bradford (2014, p. 330)

According to Söderlundh (2013), university education “is a part of an international area” (p. 114). And the methods, strategies and goals for internationalization transcend cultures and nations. Most of the universities around the world consider EMI as essential for developing learners' English language competence, and they therefore regard EMI as important for pursuing internationalization. The noteworthy rise in EMI programs in Asia and Europe during recent decades as a part of tertiary education strategies has become the subject of research as well (Wächter & Maiworm, 2008). To exemplify, in Europe, a great majority of researchers have carried out research studies on the implementation of EMI in Germany, France, Italy, Ukraine and Sweden (Goodman, 2014; Gürtler & Kronewald, 2015; Salomone, 2015). Also, EMI in some Asian countries such as Hong Kong, China, Korea, Japan, and Vietnam were studied (Evans & Morrison, 2011; Othman & Saat, 2009).

The expansion of the use of English in tertiary education is a direct influence of globalization and internationalization (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2012). EMI is “a must for universities if they want to take an active role in the global academic and scientific markets” (Cots, 2013, p. xx). In addition, EMI can be adopted in local contexts in response to global and transnational flows (Söderlundh, 2013).

2.3.6. Similarities and differences among common approaches to teach content through languages. The definitions of ESP, CLIL, CBI and EMI include some common points and connote some similarities as well as differences. According to Tarnopolsky (2013), however, the literature on these similarities and differences are scarce. Brown and Bradford (2014) suggest that “a shared understanding of the sometimes-overlapping goals and outcomes of each approach has yet to emerge” (p. 328). They also emphasize the fact that none of the educational stakeholders – either in Asia or Europe – have not come up with a consensus on the definitions of CLIL, CBI and EMI, and so, they are not clear to scholars.

Tarnopolsky (2013) has clarified that the most essential difference between these approaches is the shift from language courses to courses of non-linguistic subjects instructed in the target language. In the meantime, Deller, and Price (2007) have compared different kinds of language teaching for ESP, cross-curricular foreign language teaching and CLIL – teaching subjects through a foreign language and they have noted that CLIL is more effective in helping learners develop a foreign language ability as well as in providing them opportunities for future studies and future professions. In a similar vein, Mehisto et al. (2008) state that students in CLIL programs study for something that is integral to their school life and thinking in English rather than merely the language; that's why they seem to be more motivated than those in regular language classes. By learning other subjects through a foreign language, learners have the chance to develop their linguistic intelligence required for specific subjects. However, there are also some obstacles for both CLIL teachers and learners. For instance, teachers may have difficulty explaining a term specific to the subject or discipline in English and having students respond in English (Mehisto et al., 2008).

In his study, Cenoz (2015) has made an observation in a school which is located in a Basque County. In that school, the academic content is generally provided through the medium of Basque and English to learners whose first language is Spanish. The researcher conducted an analysis of the basic characteristics of CBI and CLIL to single out the similarities and differences. As far as the similarities are concerned, the researcher pointed out that CLIL and CBI can be implemented in all levels (e.g., tertiary, primary) and that both can be used for total immersion (content-driven) or just partial immersion (language driven) while CBI is mainly intended to combine the learning of content and language. He also suggests that CLIL and CBI are actually umbrella terms, as defined by Stoller (2008) and Mehisto et al. (2008):

Content-based instruction (CBI) is an umbrella term referring to instructional approaches that make a dual, though not necessarily equal, commitment to language and content-learning objectives.

(Stoller, 2008, p. 59)

CLIL as an umbrella term covering a dozen or more educational approaches (e.g., immersion, bilingual education, multilingual education, language showers and enriched language programmes).

(Mehisto et al., 2008, p. 12)

Owing to the common characteristics among these approaches, prep school instructors may not be knowledgeable about for which one how they should teach their students English in Turkish tertiary context. Therefore, instructors' and students' perceptions of EMI present in the PYP schools of Turkish universities will be investigated in the present study.

However, Cenoz (2015) has not found any differences between CBI and CLIL as far as their core characteristics are concerned. He just notes the “accidental differences” between them are associated with the particular educational settings. In addition, he highlights that they are “not pedagogically different from each other” (Cenoz, 2015, p. 19). Both aim to develop multilingualism – to contribute to the development of both majority language and additional language – and integration – with the society and the educational policies – not assimilation. According to the researcher, the integration of language and content is one of the core features, perhaps the most essential one – of CLIL/CBI. Both provide students with the means to communicate with other people and understand other cultures in addition to preparing them for their professions. In some cases, thanks to either one of these approaches, students can better develop minority languages of their communities. This perspective is parallel to Coyle et al. 's (2010) emphasis that CLIL and CBI are just labels for the same product, but the latter is seemingly the most popular approach in the USA and Canada while the former is widespread in Europe.

Some principles shared by content-oriented approaches have been reviewed by Fernandez (2009). For instance, a great majority of approaches state that teaching and learning a foreign language is an educational practice where content is integrated with linguistic matter by using the language as the medium of instruction to contextualize area-content knowledge. In addition, those approaches differ from each other in various aspects. Fernandez (2009) suggests that the language used is of less significance than the task of communication information in CBI, which is “mainly concerned with content” (Fernandez, 2009, p. 13). In a similar vein, ESP is

concentrated on “productive skills and contextually appropriate language forms, functions and tasks” (Fernandez, 2009, p. 14), which encourages the students to use their problem solution and critical thinking skills. As for CLIL, Fernandez (2009) states that it is a theme-based approach in which discourse is constructed through content and the language forms are used to promote discourses related to disciplines. In this approach, language is a process rather than an end and it is actually a European version of CBI (Tarnopolsky, 2013) and an umbrella term for dual language contexts (Coyle, 2007). In other words, CBI is a “narrower version of CLIL” (Tarnopolsky, 2013, p. 5). These similarities and distinctions of the relevant approaches can help provide insights into the EMI addressed in English PYP schools of Turkish universities especially when the focus of EMI is concerned: is it on the content or the language or on both?

The classes of multilingual programs in European countries such as Spain are described through both EMI and CLIL (e.g., Dearden, 2014; Marsh, 1994). However, the clearest distinction between them can be made by concentrating on the language used to teach academic subjects. According to Dearden (2014), CLIL is used in a specific context, which is EU, while EMI does not have any context as it is global. From another perspective, Marsh (1994) emphasizes that CLIL is implemented to teach content or parts of content through a foreign language with the core aims of integrating the content and the foreign language. CLIL does not specify which language – second, foreign or additional – is used to deliver the content. However, EMI clearly indicates the medium of instruction as English. EMI, thus, merely concentrates on content learning without providing any language support. Dalton-Puffer and Smit (2013), however, explains that the language of CLIL programs is mostly English although it may also refer to any additional language. Besides, CLIL curriculum declares the objectives of both content and language while EMI excludes such an objective. As Dearden (2014) suggests, EMI is a practice of using English as a medium to teach an academic subject to students whose first language is not English.

The content courses in higher education have been interpreted in different ways by two scholars. Airey (2016) has differentiated the approaches of teaching content through English in higher education and recommended looking at EAP, CLIL and EAP

approaches by heeding the continuum of language and content in them and emphasizing the language learning and content learning outcomes together. He suggests that EAP courses with only language learning outcomes “provide students with the academic reading and writing skills they need to complete their studies” (Airey, 2016, p. 73). On the other hand, CLIL focuses on both language and content learning outcomes while EMI just focuses on content learning outcomes. In the EMI courses, English is a tool to teach the content and “the choice of teaching language is pragmatic and not expected to affect the content taught to any great degree” (Airey, 2016, p. 73).

As for Dearden (2014), she has carried out a study in which university teachers from Poland, Italy, and Austria, who were given professional development courses by the British Council, participated in 25 semi-structured interviews and written questionnaires. Then, by using the results from the interviews and the questionnaires, she designed a survey with open-ended questions for policymakers and local university professors from 55 countries. In the end, she came up with the conclusion that “the term English medium instruction itself is relatively new and no universally accepted definition exists” (Dearden, 2014, p. 7). While some countries use the term EMI, others do not prefer to use any term or confuse the term with CLIL, ESP or teaching EFL.

As a final remark, according to Brown and Bradford (2014), the differentiation between these approaches can only be made by identifying the role played by content and language. They conclude that “in EMI, content is central; CLIL has a dual focus on content and language; and in CBI, content is peripheral” (Brown & Bradford, 2014, p. 332).

Table 5 summarizes the essential features of common content-oriented approaches.

Table 5
Essential features of common content-oriented approaches

Approach	Date	Context	Languages	Main characteristics	Level
ESP	1960's	International	English	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Language and content are related in particular disciplines, activities, tasks or occupations - English is taught for particular needs of the learners or specified purposes (Anthony, 1997) - Language is acquired while the content matter, which acts as a source for linguistic matter, is being given and the content is related to students' profession (Tarnopolsky, 2013) - No specific type of teaching material is used (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) - There are no pre-set or pre-defined language teaching methodologies - There is no new content knowledge or professional skills for students to acquire 	Higher Education

Table 5 (cont.d)

EAP	1970's (Ennis & Prior, 2020)	International English	<p>- It focuses on the communicative needs and practices of students in academic contexts (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002)</p> <p>- It is a sub-branch of ESP (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Robinson, 1980).</p> <p>- It aims to prepare students for mastering English appropriately enough to achieve their academic goals in their subjects in English-medium settings (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002)</p>	Pre-tertiary (college - university) (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002)	
CBI	1960's	Canada and the USA	Second, foreign and minority languages (Cenoz, 2015; Genesee & Lindholm-Leary, 2013)	<p>- Language and subject matter are studied concurrently (Brinton et al., 1989)</p> <p>- Language is used as a medium for learning content, which functions as a resource for developing language(s) (Cenoz, 2015; Stoller, 2002)</p> <p>-Language and content-learning objectives are dually followed</p>	At all levels of education (Cenoz, 2015)

Table 5 (cont.d)

				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - (Stoller, 2008, p. 59) - It gives “priority to meaning within the context of language instruction” (Cammarata, 2009, p. 561). - Teachers decide on how much content and language should be integrated - Language is regarded as a subject more than a tool (Brown & Bradford, 2014) - Students are assessed according to their language proficiency /performance (Brown & Bradford, 2014) 	
CLIL	1990’s	Europe	English, French, German or foreign but not second languages (Dalton-Puffer & Smit, 2013)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - It has a dual-focus on subject content and language learning (Coyle et al., 2010) - An additional language is used as a tool for the learning and teaching of both content and language (Coyle et al., 2010) - Curricular content is designed to lead to language learning, - Teaching materials are chosen among authentic ones, e.g., from media, other 	Mainly at all levels of education (Cenoz, 2015)

Table 5 (cont.d)

				sources, and students' interests (Mehisto et al., 2008)	
				- Language functions as a tool and mediator and it is regarded as a subject (Brown & Bradford, 2014)	
				- Students are assessed according to their language proficiency/ performance and subject content knowledge (Brown & Bradford, 2014)	
				- English acts as a medium of language of education (Coleman, 2006; Lueg & Lueg, 2015)	
				- It focuses on "content learning only and no L2 language support is given" (Ament & Pérez-Vidal, 2015, p. 52)	Higher education (Wächter & Maiworm, 2008)
EMI	1990's	International	Only English		
				- There exists no specific contextual origin (Dearden, 2014)	
				- Language functions as a tool (Brown & Bradford, 2014)	

Table 5 (cont.d)

- Students are assessed only according to their subject content knowledge (Brown & Bradford, 2014)



2.4 English as a medium of instruction as a recent trend

In the last two decades, a significant increase in the number of EMI programs has been recorded in higher education in non-English speaking countries, mainly as a response to the implications of the Bologna Declaration, which is the Joint Declaration of the Ministers of Education of 29 European countries in order to establish the European style of higher education (Dearden, 2014; Seitzhanova et al., 2015). In the meantime, for the internationalization of higher education, EMI trends have been highlighted (Doiz et al., 2011). This approach towards globalization in educational contexts has been noted well in the literature (e.g. (Dearden, 2014; Goodman, 2014; Lei & Hu, 2014; Othman & Saat, 2009; Smala, 2009). For instance, A research study with 1011 students and 117 instructors has been carried out by Collins (2010) in an English-medium university in Turkey. The researcher has pointed out that the education approached adopted in Turkish tertiary level of education (EMI) can provide an example for non-English speaking countries in the international market. According to the findings of the study, EMI can broaden the students content knowledge to a great extent as well as contributing to their English proficiency and professional knowledge of English. In other words, English becomes a means for academic achievements. Researchers are of the common opinion that EMI is being widely used in Expanding Circle countries in Europe (Coleman, 2006; Dearden, 2014) and East Asia (Evans & Morrison, 2011; Huang, 2006). In addition, it has been pointed out that EMI encourages foreign students to heighten university rankings and contribute to the learning and teaching of English as it gives them the chance to participate in international communication (Cots, 2013; Seitzhanova et al., 2015).

On the other hand, Dearden (2014) highlights the fact that different national views on EMI have been shared and they were sometimes promoted and refined and sometimes rejected and reversed. In her study of 55 countries, more than half of the participants reported that “EMI was thought to be controversial in public opinion” (p. 19), while only 38.2% favor EMI. According to Dearden (2014), ‘controversial’ here means different conflicting views regarding EMI exist and individuals might be in constant clash with each other as far as their attitudes towards EMI are concerned.

EMI in Europe, nevertheless, has been increasingly growing since the 1990s and the subjects Economics, Business Administration/Management, Engineering and Science, Law, Medicine, Agriculture, Mathematics, and Information Technology has been taught in English since then (Coleman, 2006; Dearden, 2014). As a matter of fact, EMI has significantly grown in higher education in a great majority of countries with “over half of the world’s international students being taught in English” (Ball & Lindsay, 2012, p. 44).

2.4.1. Attitudes towards EMI. As a means for economic and political advancement, financial survival, globalization and internationalization, EMI has been cordially welcomed in a great number of countries such as Spain, German, India and Japan. However, it has also become a controversial phenomenon in other countries such as Senegal, Venezuela and Israel for political reasons or a threat to the native language due to the effect of EMI on the home languages (Barnard, 2014; Dearden, 2014). For instance, the case study conducted by Lee (2014) has found out that Korean students do not expect to learn content in English after surveys, focus group interviews and peer observations with students and professors of EMI courses were conducted in a Korean university. Students also reported that they had difficulty understanding the instructions given in English. The study also revealed that the academic staff’s desire to achieve EMI at full potential and the practices used in EMI courses.

In a similar vein, the study conducted by Joe and Lee (2013) in a Korean university indicates that students do not like English-medium instructors and are demotivated to take an English-medium course no matter how well their English is. Another study, conducted by Cots (2013), reveals an ambiguous situation in which an institution desires to implement the EMI courses but does not provide the content instructors with any essential methodological resources to “adapt their materials and teaching style (p. 123).

The study by Collins (2010), which was conducted in Turkey, has revealed that students (N=1011) and instructors (N=117) are both in favor of and in contradiction of EMI. In addition, the study has indicated that 58% of the instructors are of the opinion that EMI has a positive impact on students’ academic success while most

students allege that their academic achievements have decreased just because they have to learn through EMI, and it would therefore be more fruitful to study in Turkish.

In various contexts, students and instructors alike have reported both negative and positive attitudes towards EMI. It is essential that attitudes towards EMI at the Turkish tertiary level EFL context be investigated while students are still learning English at PYP schools, right before they embark on their degree studies, in order to make necessary amendments or provide suggestions for PYP school curriculum. Therefore, the present study will investigate the perceptions of the students and instructors at English PYP schools of Turkish universities on implementation of EMI in higher education.

2.4.2. Issues regarding the implementation of EMI. Some concerns regarding the implementation of EMI have also been raised in previous research. For instance, Seitzhanova et al. (2015) have analysed the issues in Kazakhstan HEIs and revealed that non-English speakers lack professional training and English courses are not structured upon a literature while higher education management changes from institution to institution. Other researchers have indicated the lack of teachers trained in EMI in addition to lack of standards for both sources and English proficiency levels (Barnard, 2014; Dearden, 2014); lack of interest in teaching through English (Coleman, 2006; Cots, 2013). As a matter of fact, 83% of the HEIs in the countries analysed by Dearden (2014) are of the opinion that the number of teachers qualified for EMI is not high enough in their countries.

Other difficulties and obstacles have also been identified by the previous research. They include absence of clear guidelines for teaching (Dearden, 2014) and methodological support (Seitzhanova et al., 2015). Dearden's (2014) participants mention that they do not have clear-cut guidelines on how to teach through EMI and whether English is the only language used in higher education.

Issues considering the implementation of EMI need addressing well while analysing EMI practices in particular contexts as they may affect the success of EMI or even the perceptions of instructors, policy makers, stakeholders and even students as well as the strategies to be used while teaching the EMI courses. And, within the

context of the present study, as students from various departments gather in the same preparatory classes to acquire or improve English as an L2 before they start their degree studies through EMI, the curriculum used for English PYP schools may present additional or similar challenges or they may be updated or adapted to oust the upcoming challenges faced in future the EMI courses.

2.4.3. The EMI instructors. Around the world, as another direct influence of globalization and EMI in return, the question of who teaches EMI has been raised. The absence of teaching staff who are qualified enough to teach the subjects in English has been dictated in many studies (e.g., Coleman, 2006; Dearden, 2014). From another perspective, Dearden (2014) has shown that instructors who participated in her study from 55 countries are aware of language level, test, or qualification for EMI teachers” (Dearden, 2014, p. 27). In addition, more than 50% percent of the participants reported being worried about the absence of clear guidelines for EMI methodology.

As underscored by Dafouz (2011), teachers appear to separate language from content in the EMI courses. Content EMI instructors mostly concentrate on the content and disregard language teaching in their courses just because they feel they are not proficient enough in English or because they are not trained in language teaching. An EMI instructor is mostly responsible for guiding the students in getting the knowledge by themselves rather than providing the knowledge (Cots, 2013). Most researchers (e.g., Cots, 2013; Dafouz, 2011; Dearden, 2014; Dearden & Macaro, 2016; Wilkinson, 2012) are of the opinion that content teachers mostly encourage their students to learn the subject, but they disregard the role of improving their students’ language ability. In a similar vein, in his mixed-methods study, Banks (2018) investigated 60 instructors’ attitudes and linguistic and pedagogical needs in a Spanish university by conducting questionnaires and observations of the EMI courses and by analysing reflective teaching plans, lesson plans and written observation reports. According to the findings, the instructors consider themselves to be content teachers whereas some describe themselves as physicists, scientists, art-historians, and their role of teaching as secondary.

Previous literature has also investigated the collaboration between content and language teachers. In some contexts, such a collaboration has been regarded as a

successful practice (e.g., Jiang et al., 2019; Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2012). However, in some (e.g., Kong, 2014; Cots, 2013), it has been found to be unnecessary and uncommon. For instance, Cots (2013) has shown in a Catalan-Spanish bilingual university context that co-teaching between a content expert and a PYP instructor is “not only an expensive methodological resource but also one with a short tradition, at least in Spanish universities” (Cots, 2013, p. 124).

The challenges encountered by EMI instructors have been dictated as their own language proficiency and pedagogical skills and students’ language ability in previous literature (e.g., Coleman, 2006; Dearden, 2014; Dearden & Macaro, 2016). For example, conducting a study with 25 EMI instructors from Austria, Italy, and Poland, Dearden and Macaro (2016) investigated their attitudes towards teaching through EMI. The results have indicated that universities do not support them adequately for EMI pedagogy.

Thanks to previous research conducted in the other countries, it can be concluded that issues related to the implementation of EMI are mostly language and pedagogy related. In Turkish tertiary EFL contexts, students attempt to acquire or improve their English at English PYP schools for a certain period before embarking on undergraduate studies provided through an approach that presents so many difficulties for both instructors’ and students’ parts. It is essential to learn how much aware the instructors, policy makers and stakeholders at English PYP schools are of such difficulties in Turkish tertiary EFL context to prepare the students well enough so that they can learn through EMI flawlessly.

2.4.4. The EMI students. EMI students are students whose first language is not English. Some researchers have attempted to seek insights into the EMI students’ attitudes towards the approach, how EMI influences their language proficiency and what kind of challenges they are faced with in the EMI courses (Hu & Lei, 2014; Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2012; Lei & Hu, 2014). Accordingly, they may possess both negative and positive attitudes towards EMI. Some students are of the opinion that they can improve their language ability thanks to the EMI courses (e.g., Wächter & Maiworm, 2008; Yeh, 2014), whereas others think that EMI does not affect their language proficiency in one way or another (Lei & Hu, 2014).

According to Gröblinger (2017), the EMI students are probable to be faced with a double challenge of learning a new content through a foreign language, which requires them to “improve their English language proficiency, learn new terminology in a given field and become familiar with different registers” (Gröblinger, 2017, p. 5).

The other challenges faced by the EMI students have been reported in recent literature as language related problems (Byun et al., 2011; Yeh, 2014), absence of academic resources (Goodman, 2014), difficult levels of content and vocabulary (Gröblinger, 2017). Challenges faced by students in different contexts will be investigated further in the following sections.

2.4.5. Teaching and learning techniques. Due to numerous challenges faced in EMI, students and EMI instructors alike have developed a myriad of techniques and strategies to oust them. For instance, codeswitching or L1 use translanguaging is often used in various EMI contexts (Barnard & McLellan, 2013). Code-switching (CS) is defined by scholars as “the systematic, alternating use of two or more languages in a single utterance or conversational exchange” (Levine, 2011, p.50). This technique has been found to help students understand the content of the lecture better as long as the mother tongue is used at a minimal level to reduce non-understanding (e.g., Joe & Lee, 2013, Köylü, 2018). However, it is also a controversial topic in the literature as codeswitching to L1 is regarded as “a communicative and pedagogic resource in bilingual contexts, especially where pupils struggle to understand difficult subject matter whilst simultaneously learning a foreign language” Ferguson (2009, p. 231). Other scholars also suggest that teachers may turn out to use it for such a long time that “they would find it difficult to change” (Lewkowicz, 1990). In a similar vein, Sert (2005) puts forward that students may not continue listening to the target language and they may not be exposed to the foreign language as much as they should be. The issues of codeswitching in different settings might help understand similar issues present as techniques used in English preparatory classes to prepare students for their EMI courses in future. Therefore, it is essential that it be investigated as a strategy in the present study.

Different contexts have adopted EMI in different ways, or even locally to tailor the present strategies with the sole aim of meeting the contextual needs or providing some particular benefits and dealing with methodological challenges. According to Goodman (2014), EMI is a global phenomenon, but its practice is context-dependent and includes teacher factors, student factors, classroom factors and institutional factors. For instance, within the context of the present study, English PYP schools, which are not implemented in any other international context, play an essential role in preparing students for future the EMI courses as they are aimed and supposed to teach academic foreign language to students according to the principles of the Bologna Process. Therefore, the above-mentioned factors need to be investigated to foreground students' and instructors' voices by concentrating upon the teaching and learning practices and policies of English PYP schools in Turkish tertiary EFL contexts. In this way, a better understanding of the approaches implemented to prepare the students for EMI can be achieved.

2.4.6. EMI and European tertiary contexts. Barnard (2014) suggests that EMI was at one time called Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) in European universities. In addition to English, French or German were also used in CLIL courses, but the dominant role has been played by English and “very soon, the latter languages were dropped, and the programme continued through English medium instruction (EMI)” (Barnard, 2014, p. 11). Similarly, Ament and Pérez-Vidal believed CLIL is a precursor of EMI.

In European tertiary contexts, the language of higher education is English (Coleman, 2006). EMI programs have been implemented as a direct consequence of the Bologna Declaration in 1999 and they have long been considered to be educational reforms (Goodman, 2014; Seitzhanova et al., 2015). In the light of these reforms, the EMI courses are designed to raise European universities' reputation and create a European Higher Education Area “where countries would standardize their higher education system in three cycles corresponding to bachelor's, master's and doctoral degrees” (Salomone, 2015, p. 247). It has also been stated by some scholars (e.g., Goodman, 2014; Papatsiba, 2006) that the mobility of students within EU can be facilitated thanks to EMI and help students from other countries and continents to start or continue their academic career in European universities. According to Coleman

(2006), Swedish and Dutch universities started teaching through EMI in the early 1950s while other countries like Finland, Hungary and Norway started in 1980s, and “the trend really takes off in the 1990s” (Coleman, 2006, p. 6). The number of EMI programs in European universities has plunged from 800 in 2002 to 8,089 in 2014 (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2012; Wächter & Maiworm, 2008). However, some universities still do not implement EMI programs and others implement them partially. The reasons have been investigated by Wächter and Maiworm (2008). The reasons are indicated to be lack of academic staff and domestic students proficient in English, lack of sufficient international students, legal obstacles, absence of adequate funding and human resources and unsuitable institution or discipline type.

Coleman (2006) has dictated the issues regarding the challenges of the EMI courses in European tertiary context as well. They are low level of language proficiency, lack of training programs for EMI teachers and students, the fear of losing linguistic and cultural diversity, teachers who are hesitant to teach through EMI, the lack of local students who are interested in EMI, questions regarding the fairness of the assessment for native and non-native speakers and the critical mass of international students.

The following section summarizes the recent studies on EMI carried out in some European countries will be reviewed in the next section.

2.4.6.1. Spain At two Spanish universities,¹³ the EMI instructors were interviewed by Doiz, Lasagabaster and Pavón (2019), who aimed to gain insights into the main challenges faced by the EMI instructors and their attitudes towards a team-teaching approach in which language and EMI instructors collaborated for the EMI courses. Similar to the results of other studies by Goodman (2014) and Wächter and Maiworm (2008), Doiz, Lasagabaster and Pavón (2019) came up with the finding that the EMI instructors had difficulties regarding the linguistics or language competence which resulted in the issue of “reducing their chances of establishing a good rapport with the students” (p.158). In addition, challenges associated with students’ language proficiency are indicated in the results of the study as the obstacles that “hinder the development of the classes” (p.159). As a direct consequence of these problems, EMI instructors reported that they use their own teaching strategies. For example, they try

to create a more cordial atmosphere in the classes or slow down the pace of the lessons. EMI Instructors also stated that they did not feel comfortable while they are teaching through English.

As for the collaboration between language and EMI instructors, Doiz, Lasagabaster and Pavón (2019) revealed that the EMI instructors had positive feelings about it. Accordingly, the collaboration would be “profitable” (p.164) and “this kind of support could be offered not only in the classroom but also outside, offering assistance to EMI instructors while, for example, preparing the lessons” (p.164). The presence of language or EMI instructors in classes cause anxiety as some EMI instructors reported but Doiz, Lasagabaster and Pavón (2019) concluded that the benefits outweigh the misgivings.

Through semi-structured interviews conducted with eighteen teachers from four universities in different countries (5 interviews at a UK university, 5 interviews at an Austrian tourism college, 3 interviews at a Finnish university and 5 interviews at a Spanish university), but Dafouz, Hüttner, and Smit (2016) aimed to gain insights into the EMI instructors’ perceptions about the integration of content and language in English-medium education at multilingual universities. According to the results of the study, EMI instructors’ views about the integration of language and content differ a lot. While some EMI instructors believe that the integration is essential for students’ effective learning, others allege that teaching both English and content may require more preparation time and support from language EMI instructors. The EMI instructors suggest that more materials be provided to their students and curricula be prepared in more detail. In addition, language proficiency of the students and their cultural and academic background have been reported to cause difficulties.

It is remarkable that Dafouz, Hüttner, and Smit (2016) discussed the use of other languages in addition English in their study: “The use of other languages was regarded as positive when the respective languages were used among proficient speakers, thus helping students with their work, especially at the beginning of the programme” (p.134). However, according to the researchers, the use of other languages may be regarded as a “failure” (p.136) because there might exist a low level of proficiency in

English for both teachers' and students' part and "inadequate materials or inferences with the L1" (P. 136).

Some participants in Dafouz, Hüttner, and Smit's (2016) study also stated that what or how they are teaching content is not affected by using English to teach them. They added that their teaching practices are the same whether they are teaching in L1 or English because academic content is already given in English on the textbooks or materials. However, they also claim that it is not useful to teach some content (e.g., Spanish tax law) in English just because they are closely tightened with national models.

2.4.6.2. Italy According to Salomone (2015), who has investigated the spread of English as a lingua franca across the globe, EMI at Milan's Polytechnic University has become controversial and caused a legal conflict between individuals and the institution. Those who are against EMI suggest that the official language of teaching is Italian, and it should therefore be given a major role in higher education. They allege that both EMI instructors and students are free to choose the language they desire to learn or teach through. Salomone suggest that students are concerned about EMI because of their teachers' low level of English proficiency and "the method of assessing English proficiency among incoming students" (Salomone, 2015, p. 258). EMI Instructors' language proficiency and language assessment techniques are common problems in EMI programs across the globe. Students at English PYP schools in Turkish universities may fear they will have the same problems in their upcoming the EMI courses. Therefore, it is essential to investigate the students' perceptions and whether policies and programs for English PYP schools are being prepared to take measures against such issues.

Salomone (2015) also notes that university rector is confident the EMI graduate courses offered in 2014 will prepare the students and the institution for the global age and the difficulties will reduce in time.

2.4.6.3. Austria At an Austrian university of applied sciences, Tatzl (2011) conducted a survey and interviews on English-medium graduate programs and found that students believed their English language skills improve thanks to English medium

instruction and it also prepares them for the internationalization and globalization. In the meantime, EMI instructors stated that students are more encouraged to practice English thanks to the EMI courses as they feel more confident. And, they added that they had difficulty dealing with students' mixed level of English and motivating them to negotiate the language-related problems while teaching through EMI. According to Tatzl (2011), among the challenges encountered by the students are vocabulary and technical terms, EMI instructors' English proficiency, motivation, time management and workload. Similar issues might be expected in Turkish tertiary EFL context. Therefore, the items of the questionnaire for the present study will involve similar language related issues for future the EMI courses of the students at English PYP schools. The students' and the instructors' perceptions will be gathered to investigate whether English PYP school policies and programs are prepared to eliminate such future problems.

2.4.6.4. Germany According to Gürtler & Kronewald, (2015), domestic-language programs are higher than English-medium degree programs in Germany even though the country is listed among the countries with the largest number of ETPs in Wächter and Maiworm (2014).

In order to investigate foreign language as a medium of instruction (FLMI) and EMI teaching experience, online questionnaire surveys were conducted with content instructors at German HEIs by Gürtler and Kronewald (2015). According to the findings, teachers with some FLMI and EMI experience and those without any experience vary a lot in their perceptions of EMI. The former has more motivation and positive attitudes toward EMI while the latter are against EMI. Besides, Gürtler and Kronewald (2015) also stated that experienced teachers had fewer problems than those without any experience in FLMI/EMI. In the present study, whether the perceptions of the instructors at English PYP schools regarding EMI are influenced by their experiences in teaching English will be investigated.

Additionally, Gürtler and Kronewald (2015) has revealed that some challenges have been faced by both groups of instructors. Among them are students' lack of foreign language proficiency, additional student workload, students' varying language levels and instructors' own inadequate language proficiency. Another issue indicated

by the researchers is that native German students ask the instructors to switch to their mother tongue, German. As a consequence, they use their foreign language use less in FLMI/the EMI courses. It can be concluded here that many factors, such as students and disciplines, impact the use of EMI in the German context. Thus, it is important that whether students at English PYP schools in Turkish universities are prepared for such issues be investigated in the present study.

2.4.6.5. France When France initiated the use of English as a medium of instruction in education in 2013, public oppositions regarding national identity, cultural pride and consequences of globalization were made. Salomone (2015) states that France has a novel legislation of language and culture through which another language (English) can be used to teach courses at universities as long as financial support from the European Union is taken or an agreement with foreign or international educational institutions is made. The French Assembly also stipulates that international students study French and French grades be calculated for final scores. According to Genevieve Fioraso, the then Minister of Education and Research, claimed the new legislation would help increase the international reputation of the country thanks to the increase in the number of international students in the country. In addition to the minister, other supporters of EMI argued that the EMI courses would help students to improve their English and gain opportunities to take part in global economy.

However, the opponents of the approach based their views on the Toubon Law, which was put into practice in 1994 to save French from the expansion of English and they thought that the EMI courses at universities would exacerbate the position of French as the communication tool of international affairs. In addition, several professors explained their concern that native-English speakers would take their positions. In spite of the Toubon Law, English is being used in the higher education (Salomone, 2015).

As seen above, each country may develop ways to pinpoint the position of English as the medium of instruction in its higher education. Within the context of the present study, the strategies and approaches adopted in English PYP schools of Turkish universities should be investigated to gain insights into how these schools

prepare the students in line with the policy and practice of EMI in the Turkish education system.

2.4.6.6. Sweden According to the study conducted by Wächter and Maiworm (2008), Sweden is the country which has the third-largest number of ETPs among 28 European countries. At an international university in Sweden, Söderlundh (2013) investigated the use of a transnational strategy of EMI and put forward that “English medium-instruction does not necessarily mean that students speak English all the time” (Söderlundh, 2013, p. 113), in the Swedish context. Through the observation of courses at the university and interviews conducted with the students and the instructors, Söderlundh (2013) has reached the conclusion that English is not use in all classes. The students’ linguistic ability and social relations with exchange or local Swedish students determine the extent of first language use in certain courses. According to Söderlundh (2013), students can choose when it is suitable to use English, Swedish and other languages and adapt the use of EMI in local contexts to local expectations and ideologies. However, Söderlundh also suggest that use of Swedish hinders the use of English as a lingua franca, which is the language expected to be used by students with different linguistic backgrounds. For example, the results of his study have shown that an exchange student did not prefer their EMI instructors to use Swedish while explaining a word to Swedish students. Other students have come up with similar results. For instance, Kuteeva et al. (2015) have shown that use of English and Swedish differs across the courses.

The case study by Kuteeva et al. (2015), which investigated undergraduate students’ attitudes towards English-medium instruction in Business studies at a Swedish university, conducted a survey with 58 students and subsequently carried out interviews with 5 students. The findings have shown that students have positive attitudes toward learning English for their degree studies. One interesting finding of the study is that students use translanguaging, which means “code-switching between English and Swedish” (Kuteeva et al., 2015, p. 183), to maintain their communication effectively and mix Swedish and English while communicating with other students and instructors in addition to using other foreign languages in their studies. The researchers have also pointed out that these strategies are quite natural in the relevant university’s context. English is the main but not only means of communication and

instruction within the academic context. Thus, the EMI programs in the Swedish contexts are not English-only programs (Kuteeva et al., 2015).

The recent studies in the Swedish context have shown that use of the mother tongue can be effective in EMI programs. Correspondingly, it is essential that the present study also investigate whether the use of the first language, Turkish, in the Turkish context is viewed natural by instructors and students at English PYP schools and find out what relevant approaches are implemented in these schools for preparing the EMI students for their future courses.

2.4.6.7. Denmark According to Jensen and Thøgersen (2011), the increase in the use of English in higher education in the Danish context has raised some problems, as it has in other European countries. The university of Copenhagen, they examined the attitudes of the instructors towards the debates in EMI. Their study focused on such common topics as obligation of dissemination of knowledge at Danish universities, the national cultural heritage of the Danish language and non-native English-speaking students or international students. Most of the instructors in their study are worried about the possible negative results of EMI, and less dissemination of knowledge to the public and inefficient learning for students in addition to loss of domain for Danish. However, they also stated that they hold positive views regarding the globalization and internationalization of their university through EMI. The age of the instructors and the workload in EMI at the university has an impact the attitudes of the staff toward EMI, according to Jensen and Thøgersen (2011). Their study has concluded that younger instructors and those with higher workload in EMI hold positive views towards the EMI courses. In a similar vein, the English PYP instructors' knowledge, demographic information, and perceptions of EMI – as well as those of the students – may influence the EFL teaching approaches at these schools. Therefore, it is necessary that the present study examine such factors within its particular context as well.

Another study by Werther et al. (2014) conducted interviews (33 audio recordings of instructors) and student questionnaires (N=1794). The instructors have reported that they are experienced in teaching in their mother tongue but not experienced enough in delivering courses in English, which causes serious difficulties for them. The researchers have also reported that the instructors' attitudes towards EMI

vary a lot. Some consider it as a chance to improve their English language skills while others are sceptical about the benefits. Within the context of the present study, which is Turkish EFL contexts, the instructors are all English teachers experienced in delivering English to students who are to learn their courses through EMI in near future. Thus, it is hard to investigate the perceptions of EMI instructors as the researchers in the Danish context did. However, examining their perceptions regarding the efficiency of the English PYP school policies and practices along with those of their students, will help investigate and shape the current policies and practices adopted at English PYP schools, which are essential institutions for EMI instruction at the Turkish tertiary context.

In addition, to revert back to the Danish context, the quasi-experimental study conducted by Lueg and Lueg (2015) attempted to specify the reason why international English-speaking students choose EMI in a non-English speaking setting. According to the results, students consider EMI as a sign of distinction. Besides, the researchers found that students' choice is to be influenced by social background and social strata. If the students are from the lower stratum, their choices are influenced by peer and family pressure. Similarly, within the context of the present study, the reasons why students at English PYP schools choose EMI and whether the English education at these schools prepare them for their upcoming the EMI courses will be investigated.

2.4.6.8. The Netherlands A study of instructor experiences and behaviors in Dutch contexts has been conducted by Vinke et al. (1998). The researchers examined 245 instructors' perceptions and the results showed that "a change of instructional language tends to reduce the redundancy of EMI instructors' subject matter presentation, EMI instructor's speech rate, their expressiveness, and their clarity and accuracy of expression" (Vinke et al., 1998, p. 392). In addition, the researchers confirmed that this change affected students' learning and their ability to process the presented knowledge and the amount of learning per course.

A comparative study by Huang (2006) on the internationalization of higher education curricula in China, Japan and the Netherlands has indicated that EMI programs are an essential part of the internationalization of Dutch higher education institutions. Mwhile, Wächter and Maiworm (2008) have shown that the Netherlands

has the largest number of EMI programs (1,078 ETPs) among 28 European countries, which they have studies in their research. Besides, the number of Dutch-medium programs are fewer than English medium programs in some universities such as the University of Amsterdam and the University of Leiden (in 2003). (Huang, 2006). The Dutch educational institutions at tertiary level are allowed by the Dutch government to use other languages as long as:

- 1) The language in question is the object of study;
- 2) There are guest EMI instructors whose first language is not Dutch;
- 3) It is necessary due to the specific nature of the subject, for the quality of the education or the background of the students.

(Dearden, 2014, p. 25)

According to Wilkinson (2012), however, entry tests to assess the students' language ability for the EMI courses are not implemented under Dutch law. They are only allowed for school-leaving diploma. As a consequence, students have difficulty in their EMI courses, and they need support. However, it is well-known fact that students' language proficiency influences their understanding of the content during the EMI courses (e.g., British Council, 2015; Dearden, 2014). Wilkinson (2012), correspondingly, indicated in his study that students actually desire to take screening tests before taking the EMI courses. In the light of these findings, the present study will investigate what language requirements students must meet before embarking on their EMI courses in the Turkish context, whether they consider it necessary to take language ability tests. Additionally, it is essential to investigate whether students at English PYP schools of the Turkish universities are satisfied with the development of their English and which language skills the instructors at these schools think students should improve before they commence their EMI courses.

From another perspective, Wilkinson (2012) has also found that there is a collaboration between language and content teachers at Maastricht University. Accordingly, language teachers attended content classes and gave feedback to content teachers and students. In this way, content teachers were given the chance to receive the advice of English teachers on materials and tasks. Wilkinson concluded that such

a collaboration contributed to the success of the EMI courses at the university. Therefore, English PYP instructors' perceptions of such a collaboration will be examined in the present study to see whether there is any in the Turkish tertiary context and how it is appreciated at English PYP schools.

2.4.7. EMI and Turkish tertiary context. As in European countries, EMI has played a crucial role in Turkish tertiary EFL context. And, over the last ten years, a myriad of studies has been conducted with different purposes and methods. Some of the major studies in the field touch upon the role of language and state policies, the impact of EMI on overall academic success, and the perceptions of the EMI instructors and students while others have treated of language strategy use of the EMI instructors and use of Turkish in the EMI courses.

To start with, a single country case study by Kırkgöz (2017) analyzed foreign language education and policy planning and medium of instruction in Turkish primary, secondary, and higher education by referring to the major education reforms. The framework used to analyze the reforms was developed by Kaptan and Baldauf (2003). According to the findings, Turkey has had to stick with a broader international education agenda and has therefore developed various macro and micro language and medium of instruction policies to address the needs in education systematically. These needs have been brought about by internationalization and globalization. At macro level, CoHE, MOE, and institutions have played significant roles while, at micro level, language teachers or instructors have played their own respective roles to facilitate the challenging reforms in education over the years. However, the study has also concluded that there was not an alignment between policies and practices.

In a similar vein, the case study by Sahan (2021), which investigates the implementation of EMI in engineering departments at a Turkish university, revealed huge gaps between macro, meso, and micro policies and practices. Gathering the data from national policy documents, classroom observations, interviews with the EMI instructors and the students, the study found that the implementation of EMI differed a lot in the same institution, varying much across classrooms and departments. Although they all agreed that they had to cooperate with language instructors at PYP schools for better language teaching, the EMI instructors had varying views regarding

the use of L1 and language practices they were applying in their lessons. In addition, they were quite knowledgeable about the macro-EMI policies and knew that they could not instruct language according to the major language policies. As for the students, they mentioned experiencing language and content related difficulties in the EMI courses and therefore resorted to L1.

As for the studies concentrated upon the academic success of the EMI programs, they mostly gauged whether such variables as EMI, language proficiency, TMI, the amount of L2 use, learner challenges and learner perceptions could predict the academic success in EMI context. For instance, the quantitative study by Civan and Coşkun (2016) gathered and analyzed semester point averages of students from nine different departments at a private university for four years in order to investigate the impact of EMI on academic success. The findings indicated that EMI affected the academic success of the students negatively for four years of their undergraduate education although the impact was most intense in the first year. However, there was a positive effect for the students holding merit-based scholarships simply because of higher motivation and diligence. The researchers implied that such students had learnt English better at PYP schools due to high motivation levels and, therefore, language instruction should be improved for all types of students by considering their motivation levels.

From another perspective, the mixed method study by Curle et al. (2020) conducted a linear regression to explore whether there were relationships among the TMI, EMI, and language proficiency test scores of 159 tertiary level fourth year students. According to the findings, general English proficiency was not a significant predictor of EMI academic success. However, TMI was a significant predictor of EMI academic success. The study implied that first language courses had a mediatory effect on EMI academic success and that general language proficiency is not as influential in academic success as academic proficiency. Therefore, it was concluded that the EMI students should be exposed to more academic English, especially academic vocabulary.

Correspondingly, taking the EMI students' academic success as a proxy of EMI success, the quantitative empirical study by Kamaşak and Sahan (2023) investigated

the impact of students' language challenges in relation to content learning, students' opinions about the effectiveness of EMI courses, students' proficiency levels, and the amount of English use in the EMI courses on academic success through regression analysis. The analysis of the findings from a questionnaire taken by 498 EMI students revealed that the only predictors of academic success were challenges and language proficiency. The study implied that the EMI students needed additional language support through language-aware, scaffolded instruction aimed to mitigate the challenges faced. The researchers suggested that the language curricula in the universities should be redesigned by heeding the EMI students' needs and that language challenges should be reduced through collaborations between language instructors and the EMI instructors. In addition, the lack of positive relationship between L2 use and academic success was associated with the fact that the EMI instructors did not have training on teaching through EMI.

Another quantitative study by Altay et al. (2022) conducted a macro, meso, and micro-level analyses of EMI course achievement scores, TMI course achievement scores, and English proficiency scores of 357 students from, mathematical, physical and life sciences (MPLS) and of 359 students from social sciences at a Turkish public university. The findings revealed that English proficiency predicted the academic achievement of social science students significantly while achievement in TMI courses predicted the achievement in the EMI courses for MPLS students. And, no significant differences were found at macro, meso, and micro levels. The study implied that social science students needed more language reinforcement whereas MPLS students needed TMI mediation. And the researchers recommend policy makers to address the needs of the EMI students and EMI instructors by considering their departments, the English language reinforcement they were taking, the intensity and role of TMI courses they were taking.

The recent studies which have focused on the perceptions of the EMI instructors and students in Turkish EMI context aimed to collect data regarding the attitudes towards EMI, perceived language competencies, perceived challenges, suggestions, and institutional variables such as year of study and type of the institution.

Among the studies investigating the EMI instructors' perceptions, the quantitative experimental study by Başıbek et al. (2014) gathered survey data regarding attitudes towards EMI from 63 EMI instructors working at two different universities giving partial EMI. The participants were of the opinion that EMI could help learners become successful in their academic and social lives and that they could access all academic sources in English. However, they thought that their learners' English was not proficient enough for them to learn content in English and, therefore, they should take some lessons through TMI for learning content better. The study implied that stakeholders, government as well as EMI instructors should be considered while EMI policies were being designed and that the EMI instructors who were not proficient enough in teaching through English should take language, communication, and pedagogical courses.

The non-experimental quantitative study by Ağçam and Babanoğlu (2019) gathered 90 Turkish EMI instructors' perceptions of their competences in EAP according to the variables, academic experience, gender, teaching experience, and training abroad via a Likert-type scale they themselves developed. There were significant differences in the perceived competences of the EMI instructors in terms of training taken abroad, teaching experience gained abroad, and the number of academic publications or presentations in English. In addition, the researchers revealed that there was a positive correlation between speaking competency and other skills and that there was a positive relationship between reading competency and writing and listening skills. The researchers suggested that EMI instructors should be involved in international projects where they could practice their academic English and read and write academic papers in English, and that course and seminars on EAP should be designed in a way that the EMI instructors could improve their speaking competency.

In a similar vein, considering the EMI instructors to be the key actors in EMI courses, another non-experimental quantitative study by Özer (2020) aimed to explore 113 EMI instructors' perceptions regarding their language-related challenges and teaching practices in EMI through a questionnaire developed by the researcher. The results indicated that the EMI instructors were benefitting from a myriad of teaching methods in the class and facing challenges especially while addressing to students with different English levels. Thus, the participants thought they needed an in-service EMI

training adapted to their needs such as language support and methodological training. As far as their students' language proficiency is concerned, the EMI instructors mostly believed that there should be a collaboration between PYP instructors and the EMI instructors. The study implied that higher education institutions should consider such inclusive practices while designing teacher training courses for the EMI instructors.

The recent studies which concentrated upon the EMI students' perspectives have come up with similar findings. For instance, the descriptive study by Ekoç (2020) aimed to explore EMI 252 students' attitudes towards the EMI courses, challenges in the lessons, and suggestions for improving EMI courses at a technical university through a survey. The students stated that EMI was beneficial to them as it prepared them for international work life, and they could get a large number of academic sources in English. However, they also underscored the linguistic difficulties they were faced with during the lessons and the limited language proficiency of some EMI instructors. In line with these challenges, the students suggested that they should take intensive EAP courses and EMI instructors should develop their language skills before teaching through EMI.

Exploring 39 International Relations and Psychology students' perceptions of the challenges they were facing and the strategies they were using in EMI courses, Soruç and Griffs (2017) came up with parallel findings in their qualitative study. The participants identified problems in vocabulary, listening and speaking, teacher and the classrooms, and motivation and cognition. They were quite aware of the cognitive strategies that they could use to cope with such difficulties, like thinking critically, using prior experience, using the context for clues, and looking for main ideas. They also mentioned controlling the learning environment and their teachers through such strategies as increasing their participation and taking down notes. However, the students were lack of strategies to eliminate their problems regarding the affective domain and speaking skills. The results of the study implied that the EMI students should be made more aware of their difficulties and they should receive language support. In addition, the researchers suggested that EMI lectures should be trained how to deliver the EMI courses by heeding the students' needs effectively.

Investigating 989 EMI students' perceptions about EMI in 18 universities, a large-scale quantitative study by Macaro and Akıncıoğlu developed an online survey to analyze their data primarily according to gender, university type (private or state), and years of study, in addition to exploring the reasons and motivations to choose EMI, satisfaction with EMI courses, the challenges faced, and perceived institutional provision. The findings of the study showed that the students chose the EMI courses principally for working and studying abroad. However, the second-year students were more realistic in their perceptions, private university students aspired to greater career opportunities, and female students hoped more out of their EMI courses than males. For the satisfaction with EMI courses, most of the students felt quite positively about their education. However, private university students and female students were more satisfied with their education, progress, and institutional provision. As far as the challenges are concerned, almost all the participants mentioned some difficulties they were facing while taking the EMI courses. However, they could apparently cope with their problems on their own accord. And there was only one difference according to the above variables: female students found it more difficult to speak in public than males.

The research studies which focused on L1 use in EMI courses mostly benefitted from conversation or discourse analyses or investigated their participants' perceptions of L1 use in the classrooms or the effectiveness of language chosen for medium of instruction. To start with, a very recent study by Kırkgöz et al. (2023) conducted conversation analysis on the data obtained from audio recordings of the EMI instructors and classroom observations of EMI courses at a state university as a part of a bigger study. The aim was to explore the ways translanguaging could address to interaction and learning needs, classroom practices, and literacy demands of two disciplines: natural sciences (food sciences) and social sciences (English language and literature). The findings evinced that translanguaging was an essential part of classroom language and both the EMI instructors and the students were using it strategically to meet their specific disciplinary needs. The study also showed that there were differences in terms of translanguaging practices across different disciplines in addition to similarities. The most common reasons why translanguaging was used were comprehending the content, building rapport, and managing the classroom. However, English language and literature courses required more over translanguaging

than food sciences courses mostly because the students and the EMI instructors in the former required not only content comprehension but also linguistic mastery. The study implied that translanguaging could be integrated into EMI curricula across the country as a critical learning and teaching tool and that ‘one-size-fits-all’ approach should not be adopted. In addition, the researchers put forward that the most appropriate approaches must be adopted for different disciplines and classrooms because they might have different translanguaging needs. In this respect, training programmes for the EMI instructors and reflection sessions on translanguaging should be conducted.

Investigating the importance of mother tongue in EMI courses through EMI instructors’ perceptions, Karakaş (2016) conducted an interview with 13 EMI instructors at three different Turkish state universities for his case study. The findings indicated that the majority of the EMI instructors were in favor of integrating Turkish into their classes, although in differing degrees, for specific purposes such as content comprehension or learning disciplinary knowledge. However, some were against using it due to the presence of foreign students and international language policies. The researcher implied that institutions and policymakers must align language policies with actual classroom practices by listening to the EMI instructors and that EMI instructors must focus on languaging or what the EMI students can do or create by using English and other languages because English is just a means to learn content.

Correspondingly, Coşgun (2020) investigated 237 EMI students’ perceptions of L1 use in a foundation university through a questionnaire on student attitude towards instructional medium and individual semi-structured interviews with some of the participants for her mixed-method study. The findings showed that participants found it necessary to use L1 in EMI courses although they considered English to be essential for their courses as it was beneficial for their future careers. The majority of the students favored Turkish in some parts of their lessons primarily to understand the disciplinary knowledge better. The researcher suggest that EMI instructors should be allowed to get their students to benefit from translanguaging until they became proficient or felt proficient enough in English.

From another perspective, the quantitative study by Zaif et al. (2017) compared the midterm and final exam grades of students who were taking English medium

courses in business administration with those of the students who were taking Turkish medium courses in the same department. The study was conducted at a state university and 386 students took part in it. The researchers also explored whether there were significant differences in students' scores according to educational year and rankings in university entrance examination. The findings showed that there weren't any significant differences in terms of medium of instruction, but there were significant differences according to rankings. The EMI students with higher rankings in the exam were more successful in their courses. The results of the study implied that lack of English proficiency and EMI did not cause any failure in attaining content learning outcomes.

To determine the training needs of the EMI instructors, a qualitative study by Genç and Yüksel (2021) analyzed the video recordings of 7 the EMI instructors' content courses with the aim of investigating the questions they asked during the lessons in terms of contingency, contingency-divergence, talk, and typology through a social interactionist perspective. According to the findings, EMI instructors resorted to questioning more often in engineering and mathematics courses and the EMI instructors most often used display, text-based, and convergent questions, which caused restriction in interaction during the lessons. The study implied that the EMI instructors must be trained in classroom discourse for a better student involvement in lessons.

In a similar vein, the descriptive study by Ege et al. (2022) investigated the discourse strategies used by 7 the EMI instructors at 5 different universities while they were teaching through EMI. The researchers observed the EMI instructors' lessons by taking field notes and recording the sessions for a more robust data. Through a corpus-based analysis of the data gathered, the study revealed that the EMI instructors mostly used code-switching, self-phrasing, and fillers as discourse strategies in order to deal with linguistic problems and contribute to students' comprehension. However, the communicative potential of these strategies was not very high and, therefore, the study came up with the conclusion that the EMI instructors must be trained in using discourse strategies with a full potential to facilitate learners' learning processes as far as their communicative needs are concerned.

Chapter 3

Methodology

3.1 Introduction

Providing a detailed description of the research design and the methodological approach of the present study, the chapter initially describes the research design, research instruments and the methods conducted to answer the research questions. Subsequently, it respectively treats of the data collection procedures, macro and meso policy document analyses, quantitative research and qualitative research. A brief analysis on ethical consideration is also provided.

To address to the issues put forward through the research questions, a mixed method design which can be described as a more complex design which helps understand the research problems and issues better and more comprehensively than one research approach can do, was conducted (Creswell, 2014; Mills & Gay, 2016; Pole, 2007).

Mixed methods research combines quantitative and qualitative research designs by including both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study. The purpose of mixed methods research is to understand a phenomenon more fully than is possible using either quantitative or qualitative designs alone.

(Mills & Gay, 2016, p. 443)

3.2 Research Design

The present research study benefits from pragmatism as its philosophical stance. According to Creswell (2014), situations, actions and consequences construct the basis of knowledge more than antecedent conditions. Therefore, pragmatic researchers have an edge on other researchers simply because they are able to come up with appropriate research methods, instruments as well as procedures with the aim of responding thoroughly to the issues in their research questions. While reporting qualitative and quantitative results of their studies, they base their ideas on their value systems existing literature (Teddie & Tashakkori, 2009). Using multiple methods through lenses that can provide various worldview assumptions and different ways of data collection and analysis, they are able to solve practical problem in the real world thanks to their

research approaches (Pole, 2007). Thanks to pragmatism, a researcher can interrogate a certain question or phenomenon by using the most appropriate research method (Feilzer, 2010). Pragmatism is mainly contingent upon constructivism and positivism as it prioritizes the interaction between research questions and real-world phenomena. Accordingly, the present study was implemented through the integration of multiple sources of evidence, which are macro and meso document analysis, surveys, interviews, and focus groups. And the participants were direct implementers (students, EMI instructors and PYP instructors) of the phenomenon, English language teaching and learning at selected universities. As a result, the voice from myriad participants was included by referring to their perceptions, beliefs, first-hand experience, whereby the research questions were answered from different perspectives.

An explanatory mixed method study is composed of questions than can be answered both qualitatively and quantitatively to “verify and [or] generate theory in the same study” (Creswell, 2014). In the present study, eight research questions were answered through the data collected from policy document analysis, student, and EMI instructor/instructor surveys as well as EMI instructor/instructor in-depth interviews and student focus groups. The findings were analyzed and presented in separate chapters of the present file and subsequently merged and interpreted in the discussion part. Figure 3 illustrates the mixed method approach used in the present research study.

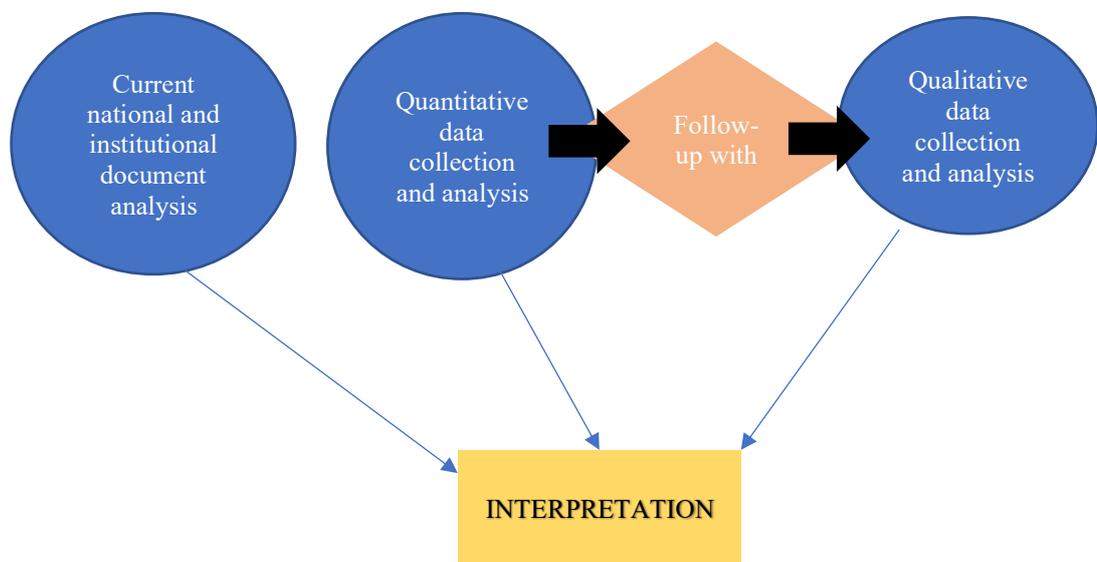


Figure 3. Mixed Method of the Research

Having a mixed method study design, the present research collected all types of data simultaneously after the relevant quantitative tools were adapted. 10 macro policy

documents and the relevant meso policy documents gathered from the English PYP school units of 20 public and private Turkish universities, which were all associated with the research questions and problems were collected and analyzed while the online survey links were being shared with EMI instructors, instructors, the EMI students and English PYP students at the same time. According to Bowen (2009, p. 27), document analysis is a method of reviewing or evaluating documents systematically with the aim of gaining insights into the content and gathering empirical knowledge. The present study sought to understand whether the macro and meso documents address EMI and whether they make references to it explicitly or implicitly. The findings from the document analysis were later compared with the findings from the surveys, focus group meetings and interviews and it was found that all the findings were complementary. The results from the document analysis also helped established the historical, cultural, political, and economic context for the research. Furthermore, the macro and meso policy analysis suggested questions for the interviews and focus group meetings. In this way, bias was minimized, and credibility was enhanced because a combination between documentary evidence and quantitative and qualitative findings was ultimately established.

The present study followed the below steps while policy document analysis was being implemented:

- (1) Choosing relevant documents,
- (2) Collecting macro and meso documents,
- (3) Selecting primary areas/contents for analysis (implicit or explicit references of EMI)
- (4) Document coding,
- (5) Analysing,
- (6) Translating into English (for all macro and for some meso documents)
- (7) Interpretation.

The sixth step was added to this study because a vast majority of the macro documents and some meso documents were analysed was in Turkish. These details will be discussed in the next sections of this chapter.

For the next stage of the study, the quantitative data were gathered through online questionnaires for the EMI instructors and students and PYP instructors and students. The quantitative phase was aimed to gather the participants' perceptions about EMI in Turkish context and how English PYP school lessons and undergraduate EMI courses were implemented for EMI purposes.

The following phase involved in-depth interviews with the EMI instructors, PYP instructors and student focus-groups, and PYP school directors. The aim of the third phases was to refine and explain the findings from the quantitative phase. The semi-structured questions used in the interviews helped enhance the findings from the questionnaires thanks to participants' elaborated answers, which also provided the researcher with the chance to delve into the perspectives of the participants that could not be revealed in the quantitative phase. The findings from the qualitative phase were compared and contrasted with those from the quantitative phase in order to see if the research results were consistent.

The study aimed to answer the following research questions by collecting, analysing, and interpreting the data in each phase:

1. To what extent are EMI addressed in current macro policies of the government and meso policies of English PYP schools within Turkish tertiary EFL contexts?
2. What are EMI students' and instructors' perceptions of EMI in Turkish tertiary EFL contexts?
 - 2a. Are there any significant differences in EMI students' perceptions according to gender, university, department, and school year?
 - 2b. Are there any significant differences in EMI instructors' perceptions according to gender, university, department, and education level?
3. What are PYP students' and instructors' perceptions of English PYP in terms of EMI in Turkish tertiary EFL contexts?
 - 3a. Are there any significant differences in PYP students' perceptions according to gender, university, department, and the time spent at PYP schools?

- 3b. Are there any significant differences in PYP instructors' perceptions according to gender, university, years of experience, and certification or education in English language teaching?
4. What is the perceived impact of EMI on English language proficiency for EMI courses (according to EMI students and instructors)?
 - 4a. Are there any significant differences in EMI students' perceptions according to gender, university, department, and school year?
 - 4b. Are there any significant differences in EMI instructors' perceptions according to gender, university, department, and education level?
5. What is the perceived impact of English PYP on English language proficiency for future EMI courses (according to English PYP students and instructors)?
 - 5a. Are there any significant differences in PYP students' perceptions according to gender, university, department, and the time spent at PYP schools?
 - 5b. Are there any significant differences in PYP instructors' perceptions according to gender, university, years of experience, and certification or education in English language teaching?
6. What are the EMI students' and EMI instructors' recommendations on how to improve EMI courses?
7. What are English PYP students' and instructors' recommendations on how to improve English PYP for future EMI courses?
8. What are English PYP school directors' views on the recommendations and perceptions shared in regard to EMI courses and English PYP for future EMI courses?

Each stage of the present study involved a different data collection method. In the first stage, the data from current national policy documents were collected from the official website of the Turkish government and Council of Higher Education (CoHE). Besides, PYP school legislation documents, syllabuses, and EAP/ESP/EGAP course documents were collected from the official websites of the universities. In the second and third stage, the data were collected from the participants who had first-hand experienced in the relevant context.

With a mixed-method design, the present study aimed to interpret the answers to the research questions by combining the quantitative and qualitative approaches.

3.2.1. Research site. The researcher selected 20 Turkish universities located in different parts of Turkey and analyzed their English PYP school and EMI course documents to learn more about the current meso practices and to what extent EMI was implemented around the country. Among Turkish universities, in all of which EMI is favored, these universities were chosen because they are each located in one geographical region. More than one university were chosen from Ankara, Istanbul and İzmir because these metropolitan cities have more universities than other Turkish cities do. In addition, students, lectures, and instructors from 48 universities answered questionnaires and 7 the EMI instructors from 4 different universities, 6 language instructors from 6 different universities, 16 EMI and PYP students from 12 different universities participated in the interviews. The online questionnaire link was sent to all the universities in Turkey and the answers were gathered randomly.

3.2.2. Participants. In light of the research questions and on the basis of the purpose of the study, the EMI instructors, students and English PYP instructors and students participated in the research.

Table 6

The Participants of the Study

EMI Instructor Questionnaire	EMI Student Questionnaire	English PYP School Instructor Questionnaire	English PYP School Student Questionnaire	Lecturer and Instructor Interviews	Student Focus Groups
100	125	100	100	10	16

3.3 Policy Document Analysis

3.3.1. Policy document collection. The 10 macro policy documents, which were all in Turkish, were selected for analysis in the study because they consisted of relevant information on EMI in Turkish tertiary EFL context. They all treated of EMI either explicitly or implicitly. And they were officially circulated from 2000 to 2020 by the

Turkish government and CoHe. The documents between 1983 and 2020 were specifically chosen because EMI started to be implemented in 1983 and the latest change to one of the documents was made in 2000. For example, the Laws of Higher Education issued in 2000 formed the basis for foreign language education in Turkish universities and highlighted the importance of education in English by making references to later policy documents. These macro level policies influence the implementation both institutions and individuals adhere themselves to at universities. So, they signify the importance of EMI at national level. The macro policy documents analysed in the present study are given in a chronological order in Table 7.

Table 7

Documents for macro policy analysis

Translated Titles	Published
1. Laws of Higher Education No. 2547/17506	2000
2. Law on organization of higher education institutions No. 2809/18003	1983
3. Regulation on foreign language education and foreign language medium instruction in higher education institutions No. 29662	2021
4. Law on foreign language learning and education and learning the different languages and dialects of Turkish citizens No: 2923/18196	1983
5. Regulation on opening compulsory PYP school classes No: 29662	2008
6. Decision on the principles of Bologna Coordination Commissions in higher education institutions No. 2008.22	2008
7. Regulation on programs of staff and student exchange between higher education institutions No. 27454	2010
8. Regulation on common education programs between Turkish higher education institutions and their counterparts abroad No. 29849	2016
9. Decision on recruiting foreign instructors other than EMI instructors for departments No. 1303	2020
10. Documents on the strategy for internationalization in higher education.	2017

The meso policies collected from 20 universities were chosen because they gave information about EFL approaches, lessons, assessments, and course content of English PYP schools along with the lessons given to undergraduate departments for EMI purposes. Mainly, the meso documents of each university were grouped under three categories, which were English PYP school legislations, English PYP schools' syllabuses and curriculum, and EAP/EGAP/EGP courses provided for undergraduate 100% EMI, 30% EMI and 100% Turkish departments. The first groups of documents were all in Turkish while the second and third group were all in English. The legislations were important because they gave information about how the relevant university made references to EMI – explicitly or implicitly. As for, PYP school syllabuses and curriculum, they provided information about the implementation of EFL courses and how or whether they were all aligned across the country for EMI purposes. The ESP, EGP, and/or EGAP course documents or curricula gathered from the website of the EMI departments or English PYP schools informed the researcher about the language courses given to undergraduate student for EMI purposes and how English PYP schools and EMI departments worked and coordinated to contribute to language education after English PYP school finished. The below table shows the details provided by each type of meso documents.

Table 8

The types of documents for meso policy analysis

English PYP School Legislations	English PYP School Syllabuses and Curriculum	ESP/EGP/EGAP courses for undergraduate departments
Explicit and/or Implicit references to EMI in school policies	Details of EFL courses and assessments Whether or how they are aligned with other schools' syllabuses and curricula	The types of the courses, The departments they are offered to, Whether they are offered by English PYP schools, departments, or both.

3.3.2. The analysis of policy documents. “Content analysis is the process of organizing information into categories related to the central questions of the research,” (Bowen, 2009, p.32). A summative content analysis was conducted in the present study to analyze the selected macro and meso policy documents. A researcher can

focus on both the frequency of specific words and content through a summative content analysis; and can describe and interpret the content through latent content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). For the purposes of the present study, the researcher first screened the micro and meso documents and omitted the portions unrelated to EMI. Next, he coded the and analysed the data through MAXQDA Standard software.

The coding for this study was conducted as descriptive coding because it is a method direct enough for any researcher to make out the main themes within the whole data (Saldaña, 2013). However, as descriptive coding can only provide a researcher with simple descriptive words or short phrases, magnitude coding, which can provide more complex and theoretical analyses, was also applied. For instance, the researcher made use of statistical information, such as frequencies of words (explicit or implicit references) to report the findings. The next step involved pattern coding, in which key themes and subthemes were found, translated from Turkish to English, and interpreted.

The macro and meso document analysis was conducted to determine whether there is an alignment within governmental procedures and university EFL programmes for EMI purposes in Turkish tertiary level contexts. The main themes found while analysing policy documents also helped adapt the questionnaires and create questions for the interviews.

3.4 Quantitative Research

Quantitative research helps explain any phenomenon through the collection of numerical data which are then analysed through mathematical and statistical methods (Muijs, 2010). The research questions 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 of the present study were answered through quantitative research design. Thanks to the questionnaires, more information could also be learnt about the population (Creswell, 2014).

3.4.1. Research instruments. A questionnaire has the potential to help a researcher to provide anonymity and gather flawless responses, and also, to save time as there is no need for face-to-face interaction (Kumar, 2011). As Creswell (2014) highlights, a survey with questionnaires helps collect quantitative data about samples

attitudes or opinions and generalize the findings to the population. The present study used online questionnaires adapted for every four cohort of participants (the EMI students, the EMI instructors, English PYP instructors, and English PYP students). As there were more than 150 universities in the country where the researcher lived and worked, it was timesaving to share the online questionnaire links simultaneously with most of the institutions.

All four questionnaires used in the present study were cross-sectional surveys, which were adapted to gauge students', EMI instructors', and instructors' perceptions, attitudes, beliefs, and practices regarding EMI in Turkish tertiary EFL context.

3.4.1.1. Questionnaires for EMI and English PYP students The questionnaires for students consist of five sections (see Appendix A1 and A2). Before the first section, the students were asked to provide information about gender, their university, department, year of education, length of PYP (for PYP students), EMI courses being taken or to be taken, the length of EFL education received, and the location of their university. This information was important for the researcher because the demographic variables were used to make comparisons among the participants' survey results in the quantitative data analysis. Besides, it gave the necessary evidence to select participants for EMI instructor/instructor interviews and student focus group meetings. The preliminary results gathered out of the questionnaires helped shape the questions for qualitative data collections tools.

As all EMI instructors and instructors did, the students were asked to type unique codes by using the first two initials of their names and the first two initial numbers of their date of birth. In this way, the researcher could find the responses easily and assure anonymity (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2009).

In the first section of the questionnaire, the students were asked to provide their perceptions of the drivers of the adoption of EMI in Turkish tertiary EFL context (10 items) and of EMI courses (for the EMI students) and English PYP for EMI courses (for PYP students) in general in the second section (12 items). Each item in the second section gauged the same point of view, but the subjects were different for each type of

students. For the EMI students, the subject was EMI courses, while it was English PYP for the other group.

In the third section, they were first asked to answer questions related to their satisfaction of overall language proficiency for the EMI courses (1 item) and the language skills for the EMI courses/purposes (8 items). For the first question, the wording for each group of students differed as ... *karşılıdığını* (for the EMI students), which means ... *met your language requirements before the EMI courses started* and as ... *karşılacağıını* (for PYP students), which means ... *will meet your language requirements before the EMI courses start*.

The fourth section of the questionnaire asked students about the perceived impact of EMI courses/ English PYP on competence for the EMI courses (17 items). All of the items were the same in both student questionnaires. Only the subject in the prompt above the questions differed for the EMI students as *Eğitim dili İngilizce olan dersler...*, which translates as *EMI courses*, and for English PYP schools' students as *Hazırlık eğitimi...* which translates as *English PYP*.

As for the fifth section, it concentrated on the recommendation on improving EMI courses or English PYP for better EMI courses in Turkish universities and general satisfaction with the education students were taking (21 items). The questionnaires for EMI lectures and students and, similarly, the questionnaires for English PYP instructors and students involved exactly the same items. The only difference between the former and the latter was the subject, just as it was in the fourth section. The students' questionnaires were translated into Turkish (see Appendix A1 and A2). Table 9 summarizes the structure of the students' questionnaires.

Table 9

Summary of student questionnaires

Sections	Category	Content
Demographic Information	Personal Information (8 items for English PYP students, 9 items for the EMI students)	Gender, university, departments, year of education, number of lessons, number of EMI courses, experience in EMI, length of English preparatory education, regions, codes
I	Perceptions of the drivers of the adoption of EMI (10 items)	Globalization and internationalization, employability, language learning needs, educational policies, international students, university rankings
II	Perceptions of EMI (12 items)	General satisfaction, the focus of EMI, the benefits of EMI, workload, use of English in the classes
III	The satisfaction with students' overall language proficiency and language skills for (future) the EMI courses (8 items)	Satisfaction with general language proficiency, and listening skills, general vocabulary, technical terminology, and grammar, writing skills, reading skills and speaking skills and self-assessment of these skills
IV	The perceived impact of EMI courses/ English PYP on competence for the EMI courses (17 items).	Impact on general skills, listening, writing, reading, speaking technical terminology and grammar
V	The recommendation on improving EMI courses or English PYP for better EMI courses (20 items, 19 items) General satisfaction with the EMI courses/English PYP in terms of the EMI courses (1 item)	Recommendations for teachers, students, and lesson materials, etc.

3.4.1.2. Questionnaires for EMI instructors and English PYP instructors The questionnaires for EMI instructors and instructors consist of five sections too (see Appendix A3 and A4). Before the first section, the participants were asked to provide information about gender, age, university, level of education (for EMI instructors),

department (for EMI instructors) EMI courses given (EMI instructors), and the location of their university.

As all student participants did, the EMI instructors and instructors were asked to type unique codes by using the first two initials of their names and the first two initial numbers of their date of birth.

In the first section of the questionnaire, the EMI instructors and instructors were asked to provide their perceptions of the drivers of the adoption of EMI in Turkish tertiary EFL context (10 items) and of EMI courses (for EMI instructors) and English PYP for EMI courses (for instructors) in general in the second section (15 items). Each item in the second section gauged the same point of view, but the subjects were different for each type of participants. For EMI instructors, the subject was EMI courses, while it was English PYP for instructors.

In the third section, the participants were first asked to answer questions related to their satisfaction of overall language proficiency of their students for the EMI courses (1 item) and the language skills of their students for the EMI courses/purposes (8 items).

The fourth section of the questionnaire asked the participants about the perceived impact of EMI courses/ English PYP on language competences of their students for the EMI courses (17 items). All of the items were the same in both types of questionnaires. Only the subject in the prompt above the questions differed for EMI instructors as *Eğitim dili İngilizce olan dersler...*, which translates as *EMI courses*, and for instructors as *Hazırlık eğitimi...* which translates as *English PYP*.

As for the fifth section, it concentrated on the recommendation on improving EMI courses or English PYP for better EMI courses in Turkish universities and general satisfaction with the education students were taking (20 items for the EMI students/EMI instructors and 19 items for PYP students/instructors). The EMI instructors' and instructors' questionnaires were also translated into Turkish (see Appendix D3 and D4). Table 10 summarizes the structure of the EMI instructor and instructor questionnaires.

Table 10

Summary of EMI instructor and instructor questionnaires

Sections	Category	Content
Demographic Information	Personal Information (8 items)	Gender, age, university, level of education (for EMI instructors), department (for EMI instructors) EMI courses given (EMI instructors), and the location of their university
I	Perceptions of the drivers of the adoption of EMI (10 items)	Globalization and internationalization, employability, language learning needs, educational policies, international students, university rankings
II	Perceptions of EMI (15 items)	General satisfaction, the focus of EMI, the benefits of EMI, workload, use of English in the classes
III	The satisfaction with students' overall language proficiency and language skills for (future) the EMI courses (8 items) (8 items)	Satisfaction with general language proficiency, and listening skills, general vocabulary, technical terminology, and grammar, writing skills, reading skills and speaking skills and self-assessment of these skills
IV	The perceived impact of EMI courses/ English PYP on competence for the EMI courses (17 items).	Impact on general skills, listening, writing, reading, speaking technical terminology and grammar
V	The recommendation on improving EMI courses or English PYP for better EMI courses (20 items, 19 items) General satisfaction with the EMI courses/English PYP in terms of the EMI courses (1 item)	Recommendations for teachers, students, and lesson materials, etc.

The online questionnaires used in this study consisted of closed questions which did not require any elaborated responses. This type of questions was chosen because they render the quantification direct, and a researcher can ask as many closed questions

as desired within a restricted amount of time (Oppenheim, 1992). The participants of the present study could provide their answers simply by clicking on numbers on a Likert scale or choosing options to share demographic information. A Likert scale includes positive or negative answers to a statement given in a questionnaire. Generally, a five-point scale includes a neutral option in case the participants are unsure. Most of the questions of the online questionnaire used in the present study has a five-point scale structure from 1 for *Strongly disagree* to 5 for *Strongly agree*. In Section 3, a five-point Likert scale from 1 for *not at all (hiç karşılamıyor)* to 5 for *very much (çok karşılıyor)* was used to gauge how much the students' overall language proficiency meet their language needs before they start their EMI courses. In Section 5, a five-point Likert scale from 1 for *absolutely no (hiç etmemeli)* to 5 for *absolutely yes (kesinlikle etmeli)* was used to gauge the overall satisfaction with the EMI courses in Turkish context.

The questionnaires in this study were adapted based on previous studies by Yeh (2014) and Byun et al. (2011). The former investigated 25 EMI courses at six universities in Taiwan with the purpose of learning about 476 students' experiences and attitudes. The present study referred to that study on the basis of the study by Tran (2020). The items related to beliefs about EMI policy and students' attitudes towards EMI were adapted according to Turkish tertiary EFL context. The study by Byun et al. (2011) used surveys on the effectiveness of EMI, English proficiency, satisfaction with the EMI courses and the importance of EMI. Some items from the study were adapted by referring to the study by Tran (2020).

Considering findings from the above studies, the items were adjusted in a way that they could be suitable for Turkish tertiary EFL context. For instance, the item *The government's and the Council of Higher Education (CoHE)'s current educational policies* were adapted according to the own context. In addition, some items were simplified or extended in meaning both in Turkish and English in a way that the participants could understand what was asked without any difficulty. To exemplify, the item *I am satisfied with my education* was adapted as *I am satisfied with the EMI courses I have been attending*. And, *There should be a cooperation between language teachers and EMI instructors* was changed as *There should be cooperation between*

EMI instructors and language instructors at PYP schools to pinpoint the stakeholders better and remove any ambiguity.

Besides, all the items in instructors and students' questionnaires were adapted for PYP lessons and schools because they were originally created for EMI courses. For instance, the items *English PYP will be useful to my future career* and *Universities are the right places to prepare the students for EMI courses* were recreated as *English PYP schools are the right places to prepare the students for EMI courses* and *English PYP will be useful to my future career*.

The questionnaires were also shortened after the pilot study as the students, EMI instructors and instructors who responded to the questions found them rather lengthy. The section concentrated on the difficulties experienced by students and instructors were therefore deleted and then the pilot study was conducted from scratch. The difficulties and challenges experienced were out of the scope of the present study because it aimed to analyze and explore macro and meso policies and gather the participants' perceptions of EMI and language proficiency in order to find whether the policies were aligned with practices. It did not aim to provide solutions to the problems faced in the context. The researcher also made sure that the wording of the items was directly related to the research questions (Mills & Gay, 2016).

3.4.2. Data collection procedure. The research phase of the present study was approved by the Ethical Committee of Bahçeşehir University, Istanbul, Turkey, in March 2022. With the ethical approval form, the student, EMI instructor and instructor information statement letters, the letters of content, research proposal document, the researcher contacted the Administrative Office of Bahçeşehir University to share the links of the questionnaires with the faculties and rectorates of the other Turkish universities over EDMS (Electronic Document Management System). In this way, the researcher ensured he would receive enough responses because universities had to respond to the messages received on EDMS, either positively or negatively, and shared the surveys with their students and staff via corporate e-mail accounts once they approved any research. The documents and the links of the present research were shared with the faculties and schools of the universities after the pilot study, and most of the institutions approved the research and shared the links with their students and

staff. The information about the project, the purpose of the survey and its usefulness, assurance of confidentiality, and the length of the survey was included at the beginning of each questionnaire. And the participants could reach the ethical approval form by clicking on a link before the questionnaire started. The research also took consent of the participants to participate in the survey through a multiple-choice branched question. If they did not give consent by choosing *no* for the relevant question, the survey immediately ended. At the end of the survey, the participants could also share their contact details if they were volunteered to participate in the interviews for qualitative data collection, for which they also gave their consent at the beginning of the survey. Each participant could also choose to receive the results of the study by answering another question.

The present study collected the quantitative data through online or internet-based surveys because it was the most straightforward method to reach the participants in the universities located in the far ends of the country. This method is defined as simple random sampling method for online surveys, and it is suitable for high-coverage populations such as universities and government organizations (Couper, 2000). In order to implement it, after receiving the ethical approval forms from the universities, the researcher first constructed a list-based sampling frame by getting the email addresses of the EMI and PYP instructors from the institutions' websites. And then, he sent individual emails to the teaching staff by introducing the research and including the survey links. Then, to receive responses from EMI and PYP students, he asked the institutions to share the same email content with the survey links with their official student email groups. For both the quantitative and the qualitative phases of the present study, participants were invited through the same method.

However, during the quantitative data collection procedure, some problems occurred. The links and documents were sent to every single Turkish university, but not all of them responded back or sent the online survey links to their students and staff by themselves. They preferred the researcher to send them himself via e-mail as they find it time-consuming. What's more, although nearly all the responses received back on EDMS were positive, not all faculties or schools of a single institution gave permission for the study owing to the high number of survey links already being shared or the busy schedules of the staff and students. Thus, the researcher had to read the

official documents carefully to send the links to the departments who gave consent for the research. Nevertheless, for each four cohort of the participants, a sufficient number of responses were gathered in the end.

Different from the sampling method implemented to receive responses for the surveys, the method to select PYP school directors required non-probability sampling (Creswell, 2014). The researcher sent invitations to the director of the school he was working at and those he was already acquainted with as they were easier to access for him at the time of the study. Therefore, convenience sampling was applied to select participants for the PYP school head interview.

3.4.3. Quantitative data analysis. The researcher used SPSS software version 25 to analyze the quantitative data. The figure below illustrates the process:

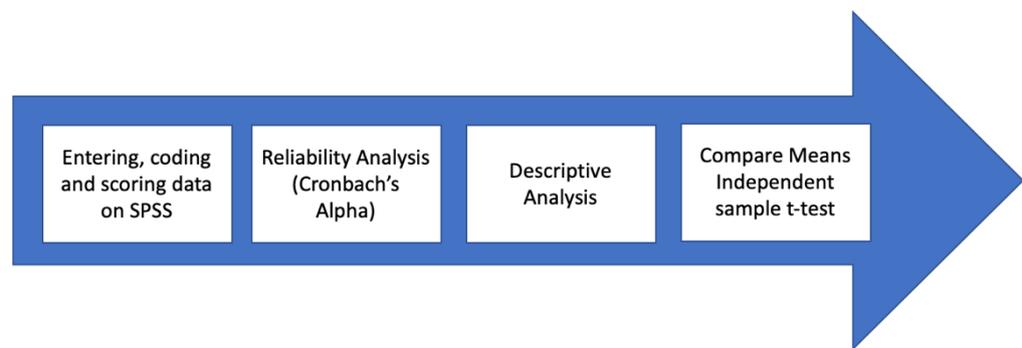


Figure 4. The process of quantitative data analysis

The findings from the surveys were analysed statistically according to each section, or thematically, right after the data were entered, coded, and scored numerically in SPSS. The sections of the surveys or themes reflected the conceptual scale of the quantitative data.

To describe the rudimentary features of the data collected, the present study used descriptive analysis, by focusing on the central tendency (mean), the dispersion (standard deviations) and the frequency distribution (percentages of the responses).

3.4.3.1. The effect sizes According to the results from *One-way ANOVA*, the *p* value was gauged and explored whether an effect exists. However, this value is not

always enough to pinpoint the effect size (Cohen, 1988; Green & Salkind, 2005). For this purpose, the present study calculated the effect sizes when there were significant differences between groups as well through *eta squared* (n^2). The results were identified as “small” (0.01), “medium” (0.06), and “large” (0.14).

Tables and figures were used to show the quantitative results of the present study. The tables were mainly descriptive, indicating the summary on the analysis of the number of participants, means, standard deviation, overall means, overall standard deviation, and percentages. The inferential tables were used to represent the results of *One-way Anova*. To report the quantitative results visually, pie charts and bar charts were also used. The researcher also made use of text to summarize the findings and interpret the quantitative data.

3.4.4. Validity and reliability. Piloting helps a researcher to gather feedback about the ways an instrument works and whether it serves its intended purpose (Dörnyei and Taguchi, 2009). Accordingly, necessary adjustments can be made by the researchers. For the purposes of the present study, the original versions of the questionnaires were translated into Turkish by the researcher-translator. The translated versions were then examined and back translated by a professional translator based in Istanbul, Turkey. He is a free-lance simultaneous interpreter working for renowned Turkish television channels and translation technical and academic text from English to Turkish and vice versa. Thus, he is accustomed to academic instruments and knowledgeable about the target population. By this way, the researcher aimed to examine and adapt the irrelevant items and ambiguous words before the research started. Later, the questionnaires were tested in a pilot study that included 27 English PYP students, 27 the EMI students, 27 English PYP instructors and 26 the EMI instructors. The participants were studying or working in various universities around Turkey. The surveys were piloted and analyzed as if they were being conducted for the real study and the items were checked for reliability and validity, which was measured using *Cronbach Alpha* in the piloting phase of the present study. The acceptable values of alpha range from 0.70 to 0.95 (Tavakol & Dennick, 2021). In this study, it was found to be between 0.7 and 0.8. The minimum value to remove any item was determined as Corrected Item-Total Correlation < 0.3 . Also, the Scale of item deleted was also examined to make sure all the items in the surveys did not affect the

reliability. In this way, a reliable correlation between each item of the questionnaires was built.

In addition, for construct validity, exploratory factor analysis was performed for all four questionnaires. Each section was analyzed one by one before the piloting study was conducted. It was found that each item explained only one factor for each section at rates between 40 and 45%, which means the items could explain the content of each factor. In other words, the data gathered from the questionnaires were valid for the purposes of the present study.

3.5 Qualitative Research

To gather richer and more in-depth data and contribute to the quantitative findings, a qualitative research phase was also conducted for the purposes of the present study. For qualitative data, direct quotes were gathered from the participants themselves, with whom the researcher had the chance to meet in online sessions.

3.5.1. Research Instruments

3.5.1.1. Focus Groups For gathering qualitative data, the researcher conducted focus group meetings with the students. These meetings provided the researcher with a chance to create an online setting where the students could communicate with each other to provide data for the study. And they also helped him to save time by providing deeper and richer data in a short period because the researcher did not have to ask the same question to each participant (Kitzinger, 1995; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2009). As for the students, they had a chance to communicate with each other by exchanging their points of view and felt comfortable to express their perceptions, as Duggleby (2005) suggests. From another point of view, the researcher also had the chance to observe the student's interactions, which led him to gather great amount of detail on individual opinions.

As for the size of a focus group interview, it depends on the resources at disposal, the purposes, and objectives of the research in question. However, it should not be too large or too small as it can deteriorate the quality of the discussion. The ideal number for a focus group is 5 to 8 (Duggleby, 2005; Kumar, 2011). In this study,

eight five-student focus-groups (4 EMI Student groups, 4 PYP Student Groups) were conducted. Students were from 6 different universities in Turkey.

3.5.1.2. In-depth interviews In-depth interviews are unstructured interviewing techniques that can provide the researchers with the most subjective information because the interviewees share their own words, thoughts, feelings perceptions or even narratives without any manipulation or direction, which is likely to add more to the understandings of the researcher(s) that cannot be structured in questionnaires (Litchman, 2010). Another advantage of the in-depth interviews is that they are unstructured interviews where the participants can share their perceptions at length. The researcher aimed to gather rich sources of data that he could not gather from the questionnaires by using this type of interviews so that he could learn about the EMI instructors' and instructors' understandings of EMI. When provided extra information by the participants, the researcher could have the chance to raise follow-up questions too. The solutions to power imbalances and ethical issues are discussed in section 3.6.

3.5.2. Data Collection Procedure. After gathering the findings from the quantitative phase, the researcher selected the participants who volunteered to participate in the interviews by contacting them through the details they shared at the end of the questionnaires. All volunteers signed the online Consent Form before they entered the online interviews, and the researcher explained the privacy statement and research procedure. They were not forced to open their cameras during the interviews. These steps were taken to ensure that the qualitative research was conducted ethically.

3.5.2.1. Focus Groups A focus group can be created according to the types of the data to be gathered from a particular study: individual data, group data, and interaction data (Stewart & Shamdasani, 2007). The present study made use of all these three types of data for its specific purposes. The data was collected in accordance with individual ideas and ideas shared among groups through interactions. The interactions contributed to the individual discussions and vice versa. The student focus groups were held in online meeting rooms, and they were all recorded, of which all the participants were made aware before the interviews started. The students shared their perceptions in Turkish, which were later transcribed and translated into English. Before the interviews, the researcher explained to the participants the scope of the research, the

reason why the data were being collected, the topic of the discussion and the time allocated for the discussion. The researcher also introduced himself briefly and asked the participants to introduce themselves to each other. By doing this, he aimed to reduce power imbalances. Besides, he explained the questions in detail so that the students could answer them freely, by adding that they did not have to answer every single question he asked. Thus, he ensured the voluntary participation in this way. At the end of the interviews, the researcher told the participants that some important quotes from their statements were shared as research data, but their names and affiliations would not be disclosed and that they might withdraw any information they shared at that point.

The discussions treated of the students' perceptions of the adoption of EMI in Turkish tertiary EFL context, the impact of English PYP and the EMI courses on their language proficiency, competences, learning strategies and suggestions for improving PYP and the EMI courses for better EMI in Turkey. The recorded videos and the transcribed data were used for data analysis.

The focus groups interviews lasted between 30 and 50 minutes and the students could share a lot more perceptions than the researcher expected. So, he organized fewer focus group interviews than he had initially planned. The students were from different regions of Turkey and studying different majors (e.g., medicine, engineering, etc.). English PYP students and the EMI students participated in different meetings because the questions asked to each group were different.

3.5.2.2. Unstructured interviews The unstructured interviews with the EMI instructors and instructors were held online. They were also conducted in Turkish for the same reasons. Some interviews were held one-to-one while others included two instructors or EMI instructors. The recorded videos and transcribed data were used for qualitative analysis. Similar to student focus-group interviews, EMI instructors and instructors were taken to separate meetings as different questions were asked. During the interviews, the researcher took the position of a passive listener and never judged the participants' statements so that more honest and open answers could be shared. If they had thought that they were being evaluated, their opinions would not have been authentic (Lincoln & Guba, 1990).

The in-depth interviews of the present study lasted from 30 to 50 minutes. The lectures and instructors alike were really keen on sharing their perceptions of EMI in Turkey. The questions were asked to gather their perceptions of Turkish tertiary EFL context, their beliefs about the adoption of EMI in the country, the impacts of English PYP and the EMI courses on their students' English language proficiency and competence for EMI courses, along with their recommendations for improving English PYP and the EMI courses in Turkey.

3.5.3. Qualitative data analysis. According to Fraenkel et. al (2015), quantitative and qualitative data analysis methods must be used for mixed methods research design both while organizing the data for analysis, investigating, analyzing the data, and representing the data analysis and while interpreting and validating the findings. The present study used MAXQDA Standard to analyze and interpret qualitative data. According to Consoli (2021), MAXQDA provides researchers with an easy way to gather ideas fast, create relationships between concepts and directly present findings from the data.

The present study followed the qualitative data procedure suggested by Margaret (2000). In the first step, all data was organized according to their types (documents, interviews, etc.) by revisiting the research questions through an iterative process. And then, ideas and concepts were identified accordingly. As the second step, recurring ideas or patterns of belief were found and salient ones were maintained while the irrelevant ones were omitted. In the third step, through a repetitive process of comparing and contrasting, categories and themes were identified to create domains, a procedure found to be of significance by O' Connor and Gibson, 2003. And the fourth step involved conducting axial coding to see whether the emergent themes are related to each other through similarity, analogy, co-occurrence, and sequence. The patterns created in this step helped assemble structures to explain the whole phenomenon.

As for the triangulation of the present study, it was achieved by collecting data from different participants (the EMI students, PYP students, the EMI instructors and PYP instructors), and different methods (in-depth interviews and student focus

groups). Therefore, the methods illuminate and verify each other to answer the same research questions, which in turn adds to the pragmatic aspect of the whole research (Richardson, 2000). The below steps describe how the qualitative analysis of the present study was conducted:

3.5.3.1. Organizing and preparing the data The one-to-one and focus group interviews from online video records were first transcribed. The analyses of the transcriptions involved examining the emotions, feelings, speech patterns and gestures. The salient words were bolded and pre-coded in different colors and memo were added on MAXQDA Standard. Finally, the transcripts were uploaded as Word documents on the software.

3.5.3.2. Coding and analyzing the data For the specific purposes of the present study, the qualitative data from EMI instructor/instructor interviews and student focus groups were coded and analysed separately. For both sources of qualitative data, qualitative content analysis method was carried out. The content analysis involved interpreting the content of the gathered data subjectively by coding and categorizing the themes (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). As the researcher made use of an existing theory and did not aim to come up with any theory out of the qualitative findings from the interviews and focus groups, a directed approach was applied for the purposes of the present study. This approach involves the steps of developing the coding scheme first and then analyzing the data to extend an existing theory (O'Connor and Gibson, 2003).

The coding scheme for the qualitative data of the present study was created and analysed through MAXQDA Standard. The coding phase involved attribute coding, sub-coding, magnitude coding and structural coding (Saldaña, 2013). Attribute coding provided the researcher with demographic information of the participants (university type, gender, department, years of experience, education level, certificates, time spent in PYP school, years of experience). During sub-coding and structural coding or axial coding (see 3.5.3.) phase, five salient patterns were identified and sub-coded according to the ideas, patterns of belief or concepts shared by the participants. In this phase, vivo coding method was also conducted because the researcher used actual words or phrases uttered. Later, categories and themes were created out of the preliminary data through pattern coding, which involved the processes of reorganizing, regrouping,

categorizing, and reanalyzing. In this way, the researcher was able to organize the findings into conceptual groups or sub-groups. Finally, major themes were described, and ultimate codes were created to report and interpret the findings (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Willis, 2007).

3.5.3.3. Translation of transcriptions into English As described above, all the macro documents and the legislation documents of the English PYP schools were in Turkish. The interviews and the focus groups of the present study were also conducted in Turkish, the participants' L1. Thus, the transcriptions were also in Turkish. However, not all the content of the transcriptions and the Turkish documents were translated into English; only the codes and themes were. As for the questionnaires, although they were first designed in English and then translated into Turkish for the participants, they were analysed only in English on SPSS.

It was challenging for the researcher to collect the data in one language and present the findings in another as many scholars point out that translation may lessen the trustworthiness of the findings (Birbili, 2000; Chen & Boore, 2010; Van Nes et al., 2010). As Van Nes et al. (2010) suggests, translated concepts might be understood differently than they are in the original text. Besides, the linguistic competence of the translator(s) and their knowledge about the participants may lessen the quality of the research (Birbili, 2000). Thus, the validity of the research might be exacerbated. To ensure the content is accurate and the translations are qualified, codes, themes, concepts, and quotes were translated into English by the researcher-translator, who is bilingual and expert in translation and interpreting studies and English language education. Thus, he is knowledgeable about the concepts associated with the scope of the study both in English and Turkish.

To eliminate the problems that may be caused by different meanings in translation, the researcher got his translations back-translated into Turkish by a Turkish translator-interpreter who is expert in the field. He is also bilingual in Turkish and English and has got experience in translating texts on English language teaching. According to Chen and Boore (2010), back-translation is the most prevalent and recommended method for translation. This method was used in the present study to

ensure the validity and reliability of the findings. The corrections and adjustments recommended by the second translator were made by the researcher synchronously.

3.5.3.4. Presentation and interpretation. The qualitative findings of the present study were presented and interpreted according to the suggestions by Burnard et al. (2008). Findings that were considered to be key to answering the research questions were included under each main theme and reported through verbatim quotes. And then, they were presented in the same chapter (Chapter 4) under different sub-chapters.

Before the findings were presented, the demographic information of the population was described with university, department, gender, years of education and years of experience. On the basis of the major themes created, findings were reported under sub-themes thematically.

For the purposes of the present study, verbatim quotations were also used as parts of the results because they served as the voice of the participants to provide explanation and illustration of the themes in addition to in-depth understanding of their perceptions (Corden & Sainsbury, 2006). While analysing the transcriptions, the quotations most relevant to the themes were selected for presentation.

3.5.4. Validity and Reliability. The validity and reliability of both the focus groups and the in-depth interviews were ensured in pilot studies. Before the studies were conducted, the interview and focus group questions were prepared in parallel to the items in the questionnaires and they were examined by the same translator who checked and reviewed the translations of the surveys. The researcher asked the questions to 4 different the EMI instructors and 4 different English PYP instructors before the study began in order to see whether any adjustments were needed as far as the coherence and meaning were concerned. As suggested by Breen (2006), such pilot studies helped the researcher to go over the statements and made necessary changes and omissions.

As for the trustworthiness of the qualitative findings, it was assured through Lincoln and Guba's (1985) four criteria: *credibility*, which is achieved by the time allocated for data collection, was assured because the researcher spent time by

constantly communicating with the universities' foreign language directors, instructors, EMI instructors and students; *transferability*, which means making thick description of the research context, was achieved by conducting in-depth, one-to-one interviews and focus group interviews with the participants who volunteered; *dependability and confirmability*, which refers to the documentation of research procedures such as data collection, analysis and interpretation and the joint coding through constant negotiation, were assured because the researcher shared and interpreted the findings with other qualitative researchers through debriefing in order to minimize bias. In addition, member-checking was performed by sharing the findings with some of the participants, who read them and approved their authenticity (Lincoln and Guba, 1990; Tobin and Begley, 2004).

3.6 The Limitations of the Study

The present study is significant because it integrates the EMI instructors, instructors, and students' voices to explore the practices of EMI in Turkish tertiary level context. However, it also has some limitations. As the findings are merely based on policy document analyses and participants' perceptions, they may not truly reflect the classroom practices. And the responses from the questionnaires and the interviews may not provide honest responses. The students, in particular, might have overrated some of the items in the questionnaires simply because they wanted to preserve face or remain loyal to their institutions and teachers. Thus, classroom observations by the researcher could have contributed to the findings of the present study because they could have provided less unbiased data. Although participants from a lot of Turkish universities have responded to the questionnaires and interviews included participants from myriad universities, the findings may not be generalized for every institution in the country. Thirdly, as the questionnaires were translated into Turkish and the policy documents were translated into English, the meanings in the original items and documents might have been compromised. Even though the translations were checked at the beginning of the research, some ambiguity might have still occurred as far as some items and policy documents are concerned. Finally, this study lacks implementation because of time restrictions, and it is just a PhD dissertation. Through a follow-up study, the findings might be used to design teaching methods for PYP schools and departments, and receptions of the participants might be gathered for the

efficacy of the implementation. The researcher realized his aim to collect responses and conduct interviews with a lot of participants and school directors to present valid and reliable results. The whole process took almost two years.



Chapter 4

Findings

4.1 Introduction

This chapter analyzes and reports findings from macro and meso documents in detail and then move on to presenting the quantitative and qualitative findings from the questionnaires and interviews.

4.2 Macro Policy Documents

This part presents the content analysis of ten macro policy documents at ministerial and governmental level issues between 2000 and 2020 through;

1. A summary of macro policy documents,
2. The representations of EMI instruction and English PYP in Turkish macro policy documents,
3. The reasons for adopting EMI in Turkish universities,
4. The objectives of adopting EMI in Turkish universities,
5. Globalization and internationalization as the drivers of EMI,
6. Autonomy of the institutions in adopting EMI and undergraduate students' choice,
7. The role of the EMI instructors' and PYP instructors' quality in maintaining EMI courses

The gathered data, analysis and results are presented in accordance with each research question. First, the findings of the first research question which aimed to find out the current macro and meso EMI policies are reported in the next section of this study.

4.2.1. A summary of macro policy documents. Appendix E4 presents an overview of the macro policy documents collected and analysed for the purposes of the present study. The documents are listed chronologically. Explicit references to EMI are '*İngilizce öğretimi*' (Teaching English), '*İngilizce ile Eğitim*' (English Medium Instruction), '*İngilizce eğitimi ve öğretimi*' (Teaching and learning English),

İngilizce Hazırlık (English PYP school), ‘küresel’ (global), ‘uluslararası’ (international). Implicit references to EMI were ‘yabancı dil hazırlık’ (foreign language medium instruction), ‘yabancı dil dersleri’ (foreign language lessons), ‘yabancı dil öğretimi’ (foreign language education), ‘yabancı dille öğretim’ (foreign language medium of instruction), ‘yabancı dil eğitimi ve öğretimi’ (teaching and learning a foreign language). Six documents were national policy documents (67%), and the rest were language-in-education (foreign language education) policies. The final column on Appendix E4 indicates the connection between these documents. And, on Figure 6, those connections are described in detail.

Appendix E1 displays the frequencies for each explicit and implicit word per macro policy. It was directly created on MAXQDA software after the eleven codes were first categorized as dictionary terms and then auto coded as nodes. The frequencies display the number of times each node appears in all documents and % shows the relevant proportions. The number of documents in which each node appears is shown under Documents and the relevant proportions are presented under Documents %. As for Frequency per Policy, it presents the number of times each node appears in each policy. In addition, descriptive statistics (M, SD) for each numeric column are reported.

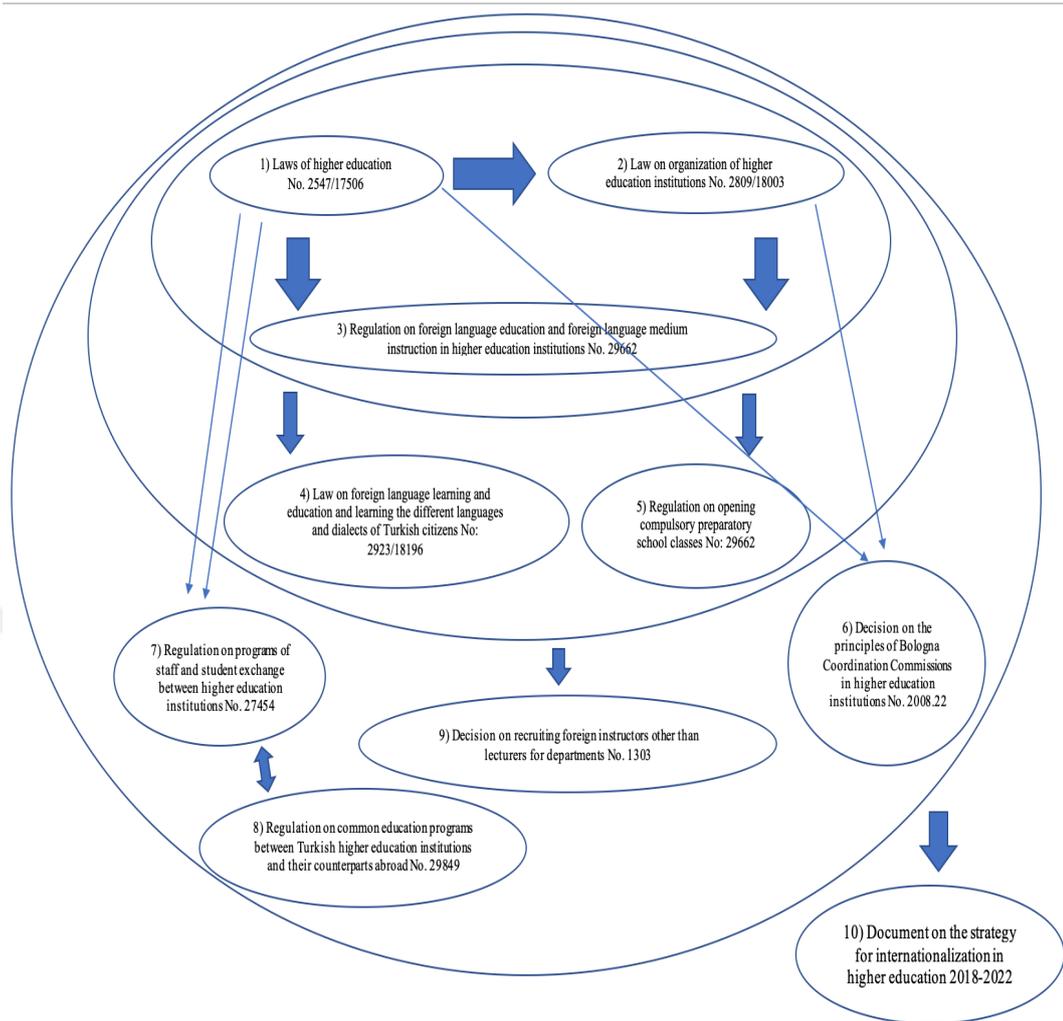


Figure 5. The relationship between analyzed policy documents

As can be seen on Appendix E1 and on Figure 6, the macro policy documents are connected to each other. The later policies were issued to contribute to the earlier ones or to build on them. For instance, the documents *laws on higher education* and *laws on the organization of higher education institutions* were the most primary policies, and *regulation on foreign language education and foreign language medium instruction in higher education institutions* and *regulation on opening compulsory PYP school classes* were enacted as documents to contribute to internationalization and thus English language education in EMI in Turkish tertiary EFL contexts. And that's why they were revised, extended, and edited in relation to each other in the years to come. Thus, they were all milestones in the adoption of EMI in Turkish universities.

It must also be highlighted here that national policies on education and language-in-education as well as the procedures of policy making and implementation in Turkey

has a top-down path. As opposed to Asian countries where the ministries of education and training are the highest units in tertiary education, Council of Higher Education plays the managerial role in Turkish tertiary education both partly in line with Turkish Ministry of National Education (MNE) and independently. A Turkish university must meet some certain criteria about curriculum, teaching staff, foreign teaching staff, alignment with Bologna process and instruction in English in order to provide the EMI courses (see 1.1.4. and 1.1.5). The MOI should be implemented in alignment with the guidelines stipulated by the government, YOK, MNE, and Ministry of Planning and Investment (YOK, 2019b).

4.2.2. The representations of EMI instruction and English PYP in Turkish macro policy documents. Since 1996, English has been the primary foreign language for tertiary level education in Turkey and has been considered as an essential tool of instruction paving the way for the social and economic development of the country as far as internationalization is concerned. At the macro level, national policies on education as well as political and economic agendas have been the most important bases to determine the language of instruction. First mentioned in 1984 as a new teaching and learning trend at the tertiary level in Turkish macro level policies, EMI is referenced more implicitly in broad terms such as *'foreign language medium of instruction'*. EMI was included in the documents with the introduction of English preparatory education, which is referenced in broad terms explicitly and implicitly as *'learning and teaching a foreign language'* and *'learning and teaching English'*. In most of the documents analyzed, references *'foreign language preparatory education'*, *'foreign language lessons'*, *'foreign language education'*, *'teaching English'*, and *'English medium of instruction'* are mentioned most frequently in addition *'internationalization'* and *'global'*. They are followed by *'teaching and learning English'*, *'English preparatory education'*, *'foreign language medium of instruction'*, and *'learning and teaching a foreign language'* as shown on Appendix E2. It can be understood from the word frequency analysis that PYP and FL and English language teaching and learning are essential parts of tertiary level in Turkey. However, they are mentioned more implicitly than explicitly although each document elaborates on the references by mentioning the connection between PYP and EMI in detail. It is also worth noting here that teaching and learning English is mentioned more implicitly while EMI is mentioned more explicitly. Even though the overall percentages of both

explicit and implicit terms are not so high, EMI in the Turkish context has been included in education and language-in-education policy documents together with preparatory education. Therefore, the adoption of EMI and the implementation of English PYP are both language and education policies.

The findings of the macro policy analysis reveal that English is dominant as an MOI and foreign language education at preparatory level among other foreign languages in Turkey. As far as statistics is concerned, 80% (n=8) of the documents include explicit references to EMI (M= 18,23, SD=25,97). For instance, *uluslararası* (international) (Government, 2022b), *ingilizce eğitimi ve öğretimi* (teaching and learning English), *ingilizce ile eğitim* (English medium of instruction) (Government, 2021d). As for the implicit references, 60% (n=6) of the documents mention them (M= 10,81, SD=17,25). To illustrate, *yabancı dil hazırlık* (foreign language preparatory education) (Government, 2022a), *yabancı dil dersleri* (foreign language lessons) (Government, 2021a), and *yabancı dil öğretimi* (foreign language education) (Government, 2021d) are used.

Turkish has been the official language for schools and academic institutions in Turkey since 1923. Foreign language learning and teaching and EMI instruction are determined by the Turkish president on the bases of the goals of education, Article 4.a of policy no. 3, which states that “voluntary PYP is defined as foreign language education which students can voluntarily receive before the first semester of TMI program they are enrolled in”, Article 4.b. of policy no.3 (Government, 2021a), which states that “partial foreign language education is defined as foreign language education for departments in which at least 30% of the total credits of the lessons given belong to EMI courses”, Article 4.ç of policy no. 3 (Government, 2021a), which states that “Turkish Higher Education Framework of Qualifications is a framework of qualifications designed in conformity to Turkish and European frameworks of qualifications and composed of learning and teaching curricula for higher education levels”, Article 4.d of policy no. 3 (Government, 2021a), which states that foreign language medium of instruction is the education in which the whole curriculum is taught in a foreign language”, Article 4.f of policy no.3 (Government, 2021a), which states that “compulsory PYP is the foreign language education students must take

before starting a department where 100% or 30% of the instruction is in a foreign language”.

Language policies are integral parts of social, economic, political, and cultural factors and are therefore determined by political leaders. Selection of a language as a medium of instruction is mostly made among the most prevalent and competing languages. For such reasons, English is the first choice as a medium of instruction in Turkish tertiary as well as in primary and secondary level education.

Laws of higher education No. 2547/17506 and Law on foreign language learning and education and learning the different languages and dialects of Turkish citizens No: 2923/18196 were milestones for implementing foreign language education and EMI in Turkish higher education system. Although almost none of the documents mention English explicitly as the foreign language to be taught and learnt in English preparatory classes, the analyses of the meso documents of the universities reveal that English is the primary language selected for foreign language medium of instruction in Turkey (see Section 4.3.). The only macro policy referring to ‘*English*’ specifically, not ‘*foreign language(s)*’ is Decision on recruiting foreign instructors other than EMI instructors for departments No. 1303. And it also makes direct references to English PYP schools. The document has the explicit references to English PYP schools below:

İngilizce hazırlık sınıflarında yabancı dil öğretimi için istihdam edileceklerden anadili İngilizce olanlar için; dil bilimi, dil ve edebiyat, karşılaştırmalı edebiyat, öğretmenlik veya eğitim bilimleri (pedagoji) gibi alanlardan birinde en az lisans derecesine sahip olması

(Among the foreign instructors who are to be recruited for English PYP schools, those whose mother language is English must have a minimum level of undergraduate degree in one of the fields such as linguistics, language and literature, comparative literature, language teaching or educational sciences (pedagogy)).

(Section 1, Government, 2021d)

İngilizce hazırlık sınıflarında yabancı dil öğretimi için istihdam edileceklerden ana dili İngilizce olmayanların; İngiliz Dili, İngiliz Edebiyatı, İngilizce

Öğretmenliği gibi alanlardan birinde en az lisans derecesine sahip olması ve aşağıdaki şartlardan en az birini sağlamış olması gerekir.

(Among the foreign instructors who are to be recruited for English PYP schools, those whose mother language is not English must have a minimum level of undergraduate degree in one of the fields such as English Language, English Literature, English Language Teaching and must meet at least one of the below requirements).

(Section 2, Government, 2021d)

Considering these findings, English is selected for preparatory foreign language education in Turkish tertiary level although CoHE gives the universities independency to select the language for the medium of instruction. Besides, as the global role of English has been taken into such consideration, the foreign instructors or EMI instructors must have a certain level of English to be recruited in higher education institutions. And, different from other European and Asian countries, Turkish higher education system provides voluntary or compulsory English PYP although the language is implicitly referred in macro policy documents.

English is the primary foreign language in the Turkish context, although not mentioned so explicitly in the macro documents as it is in meso documents, and a symbol of internationalization and globalization in higher education. Therefore, EMI references in the macro documents are ambiguous, especially as far as the statement about preparatory education, which is ““compulsory PYP is the foreign language education students must take before starting a department where 100% or 30% of the instruction is in a foreign language” is concerned (Government, 2021a). More detailed explanations about EMI, English preparatory education, and guidelines for the implementation of EMI are given by the institutions themselves, on their meso documents. This might be associated with the fact that CoHE grants independence and autonomy to institutions when it comes to the implementation of foreign language medium of instruction and to the fact that English is not the official foreign or second language of Turkish education system. However, the implementation of EMI does not follow a coordinated or clear-cut procedure although almost all the Turkish universities consider English as a primary foreign language and there is consequently lack of clear suggestions for achieving the goals of internationalization.

Although it is obvious that preparatory foreign language education has to be given to students before they start 100% or 30% EMI departments or even to TMI students who voluntarily learn English, the macro policy documents do not refer to English as a medium of instruction explicitly, but implicitly as a foreign language. It is understood from here that a Turkish university may choose another foreign language for MOI and provide PYP for any language as long as it meets the requirements. Currently, the other MOIs in Turkish tertiary level education are German and French and two universities provide PYP in Arabic for some of their departments. However, these are relatively few in number when compared to EMI departments and English PYP schools.

The most essential and comprehensive macro policy document implicitly referring to EMI in Turkish tertiary level education is regulation on foreign language education and foreign language medium of instruction in higher education institutions No. 29662, which is continuously updated according to the needs of the foreign language PYP schools and 100% or 30% EMI departments of the universities. It regulates the guidelines related to the objectives, concept, implementation and assessment procedures of foreign language teaching and foreign language medium instruction in connection with policies 1, 2 and 4 (Article 1.1, Government 2021a). The regulation makes it clear that foreign language medium of instruction aims to equip tertiary level students with foreign language proficiency they need for their fields when they graduate from associate degrees, undergraduate, or graduate departments and that foreign language education aims to help the tertiary level students to learn the basic rules of the language, improve their vocabulary, understand what they read and listen and express themselves orally and in written forms. The regulation also obliges the institutions to conduct their own exemption exams to prove their students' foreign language proficiency (Article 5.1, Government 2021a). If a student's foreign language level is not high enough to start the departmental education, he or she is obliged to start foreign language preparatory education. The level of the exams is determined by the departments in line with the approval given by the institutions' senates.

According to the regulation, for departments where MOI is Turkish, a higher education institution must conduct a compulsory foreign language exemption exam. If students do not pass the exam in the first semester of their associate degree,

undergraduate or graduate education, they are obliged to take compulsory foreign language lessons at least for two semesters and the level of the language is to be determined by the departments. If they have taken a voluntary preparatory education, and passed the proficiency exam, they do not have to take those lessons. As for the language, it is to be determined by the senates of the institutions themselves (Article 6.1, Government, 2021a). However, in almost all of the Turkish universities, the primary language for MOI is English and these lessons are given in varied ways, mostly as ESP, EGAP and EGP (see Section 4.3).

The regulation also presents guidelines on how to open foreign language medium of instruction departments and compulsory foreign language PYP schools. 100% or 30% of MOI can be given in a foreign language only when approved by CoHE and the senate of the relevant institution. The criteria for opening departments and foreign language PYP schools are determined by the senates of the higher education institutions (Article, 8.3, Government, 2021a). According to article 8.6 and 8.7 of the same regulation, each university must have 1 foreign language instructor per 30 students to open a PYP school and the courses to be taught through a foreign language medium of instruction must be taught by EMI instructors proficient enough in the foreign language. The language implicitly referred here is undoubtedly English because the policy 9, which is directly connected to the regulation and associated with the recruitment of foreign instructors and EMI instructors, mentions English explicitly.

The extent of the importance attached to foreign language medium of instruction, or EMI, in Turkish higher education is great because it is stipulated that students must finish PYP and then pass English proficiency exam in two years at most to start studying in their departments. Besides, the quality of EMI or foreign language medium of instruction departments must be regularly inspected by CoHE (Article, 8.15, Government, 2021a). However, although the relevant regulation has been in wide practice since 1996, it is not clear how and at which level instruction should be implemented and which approaches should be carried out. Similarly, there is not any information on the curriculum and foreign language instruction to be implemented in PYP schools. The main reason for such ambiguity is that each institution can regulate their PYP schools and foreign language medium of instruction or EMI departments and/or implement compulsory foreign language lessons for departments according to

the decisions taken or approved by their respective senates. Thus, this necessitates delving into the meso documents of Turkish universities which provide EMI and therefore compulsory English preparatory education.

4.2.3. The reasons for adopting EMI in Turkish universities. Turkish CoHE has been preparing a 5-year strategy plan for internationalization to systematize internationalization in higher education institutions and maintain it together with its stakeholders since 2017. In line with all the other macro policy documents, document on the strategy for internationalization in higher education 2018-2022 makes it clear that internationalization in higher education is essential for economic, political, and social development and enlarging international network. And, according to the document, internationalization has become one of the priorities of Turkish Higher Education system in the Tenth Development Plan (YOK, 2017, p.3). CoHE clearly states in the document that it aims to increase the number of graduate programs which provide higher education in a foreign language to achieve its three strategic aims, which are Access, Quality and Institutional Capacity (p.2). In general, the main objective of the latest strategy is to attract international students and EMI instructors. And therefore, as seen on Appendix E2, the document highlights the importance of EMI, implicitly through *yabancı dilde eğitim* (foreign language medium of instruction) and explicitly through *uluslararası eğitim* (international education), which is defined as:

Yükseköğretimde uluslararasılaşma, başta öğrenci ve akademisyen hareketliliği olmak üzere yükseköğretim alanına giren tüm uluslararası faaliyet ve işbirliklerini kapsamaktadır. Bu alanda akla gelen kavramlardan biri uluslararası eğitimidir. Bu kavram kısaca, öğrencinin kendi ülkesi dışında bir ülkede eğitimine devam etmesi olarak tanımlanabilir.

(Internationalization in higher education covers all the international activities and collaborations within the scope of higher education. One of the concepts which comes to mind within this context is international education, which can be briefly defined as pursuing one's education in a country other than his or her own country.)

(YOK, 2017, p.7)

It is also important to underline the fact that a university's MOI and education system must conform to those of another located in another country in order for its students to pursue their education without any academic or communicative barriers. Thus, the strategic plan insinuates the quality of the education given in a common foreign language, or lingua franca, which has been chosen as English by all Turkish universities where it is eligible to implement 100% or 30% of MOI in a foreign language (YOK, 2019a; 2019b).

Although the document considers academic development as the most primary reason for internationalization or, correspondingly EMI, in Turkish higher education,

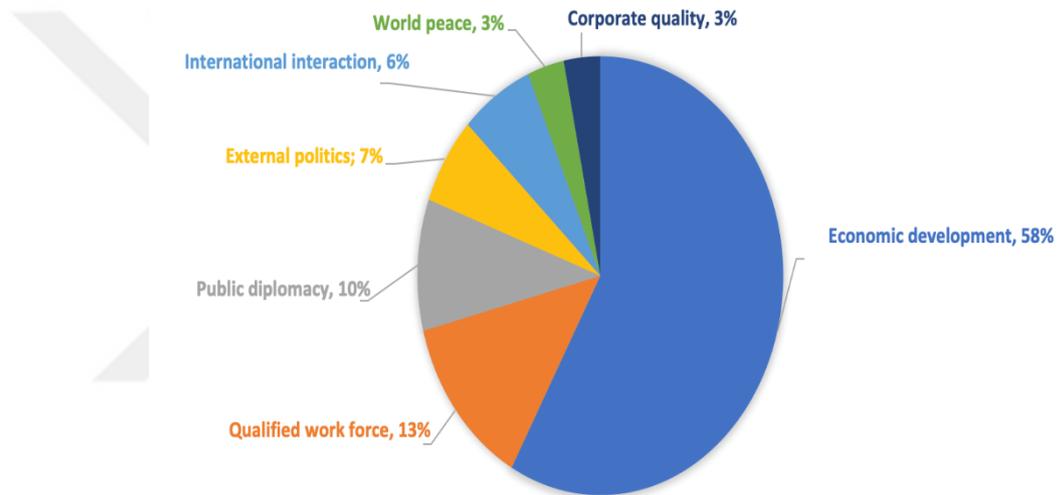


Figure 6. Reasons for adopting internationalization in Turkish higher education.

some other reasons are emphasized more frequently. As a matter of fact, the most essential ones are grounded upon economics, diplomacy, and politics, which are respectively followed by international interaction, world peace, and corporate quality. Figure 7 shows the frequency of the nodes as extracted from MAXQDA software.

Accordingly, internationalization maintains corporate quality by sharing the academic and scientific knowledge with other countries and ensures the world peace thanks to the cultural activities students are engaged in with the students from other nationalities. And, as for international interaction, the communication among the international university staff and students enhances the universality of the institutions. Besides, internationalization develops public diplomacy thanks to students who can

communicate their ideas on international political grounds. In this way, external politics improves too. And as qualified work force is composed of people who has received higher education, more competitive economic state is created when such a work force goes through internationalized education. All these factors contribute to economic development (YOK, 2017; YOK, 2019a). All in all, the role of MOI cannot be disregarded here as language is the most important asset for education (Taquini et al, 2017).

4.2.4. The objectives of adopting EMI in Turkish universities. The strategic plan confirmed that there has recently been a remarkable development in terms of scale and diversity of international education at Turkish universities and, therefore, the requirements of national industrialization and modernization have been met (YOK, 2017, p.15). The current national policy documents have identified the need for higher education to be internationalized. The government suggests that “Turkish higher education institutions must form strong bonds with higher education institutions in foreign countries by maintaining coordination in education through a foreign language and by providing the best opportunities for undergraduate and graduate education in accordance with the international standards which the foreign institutions possess.” (Government, 2016c). The Turkish government, therefore, implies that internationalization in higher education, especially the adoption of EMI, has a strategic role in renovating and improving the education and that EMI programs may help achieve strategic goals in economy, politics, and socio-cultural structure.

Among the key themes in the policy documents analyzed are linguistic outcomes such as improving students’ linguistic competence in reading, speaking, vocabulary and academic writing and gaining international standard of higher education (Government, 2021a, 2021b). Among the other educational objectives are enhancing the quality of foreign language education, granting the students with opportunities to study in other countries and increasing the rankings of Turkish universities. Attracting international academic staff and students are also strongly emphasized (Government, 2016c, 2021a; YOK, 2017).

The macro policy analysis also suggests that EMI programs have been increased in Turkey with the aim of achieving socio-economic and political goals such as

qualified work force and promoting the modernization of the country. On the basis of these main economic, political and social targets, two strategic objectives, which are (1) to make Turkey a center of attraction for higher education and (2) to increase corporate capacity in higher education, have been recently identified by CoHE and reported in YOK (2017). The below table displays the sub-objectives for both:

Table 11

Recent sub-objectives of adoption of EMI in Turkish higher education (YOK, 2017)

(1) to make Turkey a center of attraction for higher education	(2) to increase corporate capacity in higher education
to increase the number of international students	a. to create “Directorate of International Relations within the body of higher education
to increase the number of international academic staff	b. to recruit human capital qualified and proficient international relations
to attract qualified academic staff through reverse brain drain	c. to create inter institutional communication mechanisms for legislation, recent trends and developments in the field of internationalization
to raise the potential of Turkish universities for international cooperation	d. to employ personnel titled “academic consultant” who is responsible for higher education in the foreign representative offices located in target/focus countries
to improve the international visibility of higher education	
to increase the number of EMI programs	
to develop the proficiency of academic staff in teaching in English	

Of the fourteen objectives listed to achieve internationalization, only three, (2) a., (2) b. and (2) c., are associated with diplomacy and politics while the rest are all related to education. The sub-objective (1) h emphasizes the importance of foreign language education and Turkey has been increasing the number of EMI associate and undergraduate programs since 2017, which has risen from 1.652 in 2017-2018 academic year to 2.300 in 2020-2021 academic year (YOK, 2017). Thus, as the macro policies suggest (Government, 2016c, 2021a, 2021b), English has been playing an important role in attaining the objectives of the internationalization of education.

4.2.5. Globalization and internationalization as the drivers of EMI.

Language-in-education policies have been driven by internationalization and EMI courses has been considered to be essential for national and international development (Government, 2021a; YOK, 2017). As the need for qualified human resources

proficient in international communication increases on international agenda, learners' language learning needs change and the adjustment of foreign language education, or English education, becomes necessary. The findings of the macro policy analysis indicate that the Turkish Government encourages Turkish higher education institutions to provide EMI programs and English PYP schools in order to meet the global and international demands on political, economic, diplomatic and academic scale. EMI programs are expected to improve students' competence to use a foreign language in a multi-cultural working environment (Government 1999; Government, 2016a; Government, 2016b).

Turkish government promotes EMI programs as they are expected to “develop international cooperation and increase common international projects and scientific works” (YOK, 2017, p. 61). Strategic Plan issued in 2017 emphasized the need for international and global integration for comprehensive development of EMI courses in the 2017-2022 period.

Table 12 provides a summary of references to internationalization of higher education in Turkish macro policy documents which are related to the current EMI being implemented in the country.

Table 12

References of internationalization of Turkish Higher Education in EMI macro policy documents

References in documents	Percentages	Documents
1. Attracting/Exchanging international students	43,0	7, 10
2. Promoting student and staff exchange programs	30,8	1, 6, 7, 9, 10
International cooperation in education	16,9	1, 6, 7, 8, 10
4. National development and growth	15	1, 7, 8, 10
5. Attracting foreign investment	10	1, 10

As can be seen in Table 13, the most common reference to internationalization in the documents analyzed (n=5, 43%) is attracting/exchanging international students. Although it has been mentioned only in two documents, it can be understood that the primary driver of internationalization is to attract international students.

Correspondingly, most of the documents (n=5) state that higher education aims to promote exchange programs (30%) and international cooperation between institutions (16,9%). The joint training programs between Turkish higher education institutions and international partner universities, in most of which medium of instruction is English, are implemented and discussed in the analyzed documents. And they also encourage the regularity of these exchange programs such as Bologna process, Turquas Project and Erasmus + Project and consider them important for international cooperation between institutions.

Türkiye'nin Bologna sürecine dâhil olması, yükseköğretimini buna göre yeniden yapılandırması, Avrupa yükseköğretim alanında öğrenci ve öğretim elemanı hareketliliğinden önemli ölçüde yararlanmasına imkân sağlamıştır.

(Turkey has benefitted a lot from student and academic staff exchange programs in European higher education thanks to being a part of the Bologna process and restructuring its higher education accordingly.)

(Government, 2017, p. 16)

Üniversiteler arası kurul çalışmalarını kolaylaştırmak ve üniversiteler arasında ve uluslararası yükseköğretim kurumları ile işbirliğini düzenlemek amacı ile sürekli ve geçici birimler ve komisyonlar kurabilir. Bu birim ve komisyonların teşkil ve çalışma esasları Üniversitelerarası Kurulca belirlenir.

(Interuniversity Board can set up permanent or temporary units or commissions to facilitate its activities and maintain its cooperation between universities or international higher education institutions. The working and organizing principles of these units and commissions are determined by Interuniversity Board.)

(Section III, 11, Government, 2022a)

The international cooperation in Turkish universities is considered to be the most important way to improve foreign language teaching in higher education, which promotes national development and growth (15 %) and attracts foreign investment (10%). The macro policy document analysis shows that EMI programs and foreign

language PYP schools must be qualified and accredited by national and international organizations, such as YOK and DEDAK. The language to be chosen for exchange programs in foreign institutions and Turkish universities depends on the decision taken by institutions according to their curriculum and syllabus. With the most common one being English, these languages are German, French, and Italian in order of students' and staff' preferences (Government, 2017).

4.2.6. Autonomy of the institutions in adopting EMI and undergraduate students' choice. The policy documents concentrated on foreign language education, English PYP schools, higher education, higher education institutions and joint training programs state that EMI is not compulsory in Turkish higher education institutions although it is encouraged. The undergraduate students' choice and the institutions' preferences determined the implementation of EMI (Government, 2018; Government, 2021a; Government, 2022a; Government, 2022b). Students prefer to attend 100% or 30% EMI programs and then take compulsory English PYP at private and state universities if they can get a high enough score in the National University Entrance Examinations. And “students who chose to study in 100% or 30% EMI programs for the first time must take [an English] placement and/or proficiency exam prepared by the institution.” (Section II, Article 8.1 Government, 2021a). Thus, Turkish CoHE requires students to take a central exam to enroll in a higher education institution. However, the English exams, either placement or proficiency, are not central but are prepared by the institutions. So, the PYP schools are autonomous in choosing and preparing the examinations to assess their students' English level (Government, 2021b).

The EMI courses are not implemented in all Turkish universities. Teaching and learning English and in other foreign languages, as well as EMI programs, are authorized for some departments in certain universities (see 4.3.1). Not all universities can provide 100 % EMI, 30% EMI, and/or both for all and some of their departments. The analyses of the macro policy documents and Turkish CoHE history reveals that government encouraged EMI programs on a small scale, but now the number of the institutions, whether private or state, has been rapidly increasing. Most science, engineering, architecture fields including those related to faculty of arts and sciences and administrative sciences are taught in 100% or 30% EMI.

Half of the policy documents (n=5, 50%) analyzed indicate that EMI programs and foreign language schools must be registered and assessed to be eligible for certain criteria put forward by CoHE, which are related to the quantity and quality of the managerial and academic staff in the departments and foreign language PYP schools besides the eligibility of the teaching and learning environments. However, while implementing EMI programs and managing their foreign language PYP school units, the Turkish universities can decide upon the organizational structure, recruitment processes, finance, curriculum, student admission, and international cooperation. However, language proficiency of the teaching staff is to be assessed by national or international examinations such as TOEFL, YDS (Foreign Language Exam), etc. The quality assurance of the EMI programs and PYP schools are under institutions' control, too (Government, 2021b; Government, 2022b).

4.2.7. The role of EMI instructors' and PYP instructors' quality in maintaining EMI courses. Most of the documents (n=6, 60%) analysed also emphasized that the EMI instructors and foreign language instructors must have a certain level of English proficiency. the EMI instructors and foreign language school instructors “must score at least 85 out of 100 in the national central examinations accepted by CoHE or in the international examinations which are considered equivalent,” (Article 8.7.ç, Government, 2021a). In addition, both foreign language instructors and the EMI instructors must hold at least a master's degree in their own or any other related field approved by CoHE in order to be recruited in higher education institutions. For some majors such as teaching theoretical subjects or content knowledge, the EMI instructors also need to hold a Doctoral degree in their fields or one of the related fields.

Both foreign language instructors at PYP schools and the EMI instructors in the departments are parts of the quality programs run by CoHE (Government 2022a; Government, 2022b; Government, 2017) Therefore, teaching staff plays an important role in the success of EMI programs at Turkish universities (Government, 2017; Government, 2022a). The government provides the necessary administrative, organizational, and financial support for EMI teacher training and selection. Advisory Board of Higher Education Programs is responsible for “creating and developing

policies for employment in higher education and presenting views and suggestions on the planning procedures of new education programs and student/staff quotes” (Section 11, Article, 36, Government, 2021a). The importance attached to training the EMI instructors can be understood from the below article:

Yükseköğretim kurumları; kendilerinin ve yeni kurulmuş ve kurulacak diğer yükseköğretim kurumlarının ihtiyacı için yurt içinde ve dışında, kalkınma planı ilke ve hedeflerine ve Yükseköğretim Kurulunun belirteceği ihtiyaca ve esaslara göre öğretim elemanı yetiştirirler.

(Higher education institutions train the EMI instructors in Turkey or abroad according to the principles and targets of the development plan and the needs and principles to be determined by CoHE for the needs of their own organizations or those of other higher education institutions which have just been founded or are to be founded).

(Section V, Article, 35, Government, 2021a).

The macro policy documents also highlight that the EMI instructors need to be observed, trained, re-trained, assessed, or even sent to abroad to be qualified for EMI programs or foreign language preparatory programs. All these procedures are conducted by the institutions themselves.

Most of the analyzed macro documents (n=7, 70%) consider foreign staff, staff exchange, the content knowledge, and the English proficiency of the foreign staff to be pivotal for the success of EMI programs and foreign language PYP schools. Decision on the rules and procedures for recruiting foreign instructors and EMI instructors for departments No. 1303 provides detailed information about the recruitment criteria for foreign instructors and EMI instructors. For all foreign staff, the document stipulates that “[foreign EMI instructors/instructors] be offered a position as long as their payment is determined by comparing them with other EMI instructors/instructors in terms of research studies, publications and performance” (Section I, Article 3.a., Government, 2021d), and that “their yearly academic performance be assessed and submitted to the rectorate by the unit where they are employed once their contract ends.” (Section I, Article 3.c.). These articles reveal that the departments and PYP

schools should regularly assess the teaching performance of their foreign staff and make a fair judgment among them.

As far as content knowledge and language proficiency are concerned, the same policy states that if a foreign instructor to be recruited for PYP schools speaks English as a native language, he or she must hold at least an undergraduate degree in such fields as linguistics, language and literature, comparative literature, language teaching or educational sciences (pedagogy); or meet at least one of the below requirements as long as an undergraduate degree is possessed:

- a) to have at least two years of experience in teaching English at an accredited institution which is internationally renowned,
- b) to have DELTA, CELTA or TESOL certificate. (Article changed on 17.02.2021).

(Section II, Article 1, Government 2021d)

And, if a foreign instructor to be recruited does not speak English as a native language, he or she must hold at least an undergraduate degree in such fields as English language and literature, English language teaching; or meet at least one of the below requirements as long as an undergraduate degree is possessed:

- c) to have at least two years of experience in teaching English at an accredited institution which is internationally renowned,
- d) to have DELTA, CELTA or TESOL certificate. (Article changed on 17.02.2021).

(Section II, Article 1, Government 2021d)

It can be understood from the above requirements that CoHE gives autonomy to English PYP schools in defining their requirements while recruiting foreign instructors when it comes to teaching experience and international teaching certificates. And, although the undergraduate departments the foreign staff should have graduated from are specified, macro policy no. 2 states that the schools can specify any related department during the recruitment process as long as there is a need, and it is approved by CoHE (Government, 2022b).

For the EMI departments, a foreign EMI instructor must hold a PhD degree and prove English language proficiency. In addition, he or she must meet at least one of the below requirements:

- a) to document at least one year of employment in one of the higher education institutions recognized by Turkish CoHE,
- b) to have a book published in the relevant field or at least five articles published by peer-reviewed journals in the last five years.

(Section III, Article 1, Government 2021d)

Likewise, in spite of presenting the basic requirements for foreign the EMI instructors, CoHE grants autonomy, but not as much as it grants to English PYP schools, to departments both because they may ask for both of the above requirements and because policy no. 2 states that they can specify the fields or fields of research as long there is a need.

The curriculum, lesson plans, assessment and lesson procedures, examinations for each EMI department are determined by CoHE and each institution must submit the credits and lesson outcomes to CoHE's approval in line with Bologna process and Higher Education Law (Government, 2021a). Generally, English equivalents of the lessons in TMI departments are given. But, if any institution desires to provide additional lesson(s), they must prove their staff capacity and get approval from CoHe.

Considering English PYP schools, CoHE does not present any regulations except for assessment and attendance. Therefore, the PYP school unit of each Turkish university regulates their learning and teaching processes, assessment types, and lessons to be provided for EMI departments or Turkish departments themselves. Besides, they prepare their own curriculum, exams, and qualification procedures. Thus, there is a huge variation in the learning and teaching procedures of English PYP school, which requires delving into their own meso policies. The next section will present the findings on the meso policy documents of English PYP schools in Turkish higher education institutions.

4.3 Meso Policy Documents

This part presents the content analysis of meso policy documents of 20 universities at institution level through.

1. The multi-faceted variations in EMI courses in Turkish universities,
2. The representation of EMI in English PYP school policies,
3. Internationalization and EMI as the drivers of PYP,
4. The curricula of English PYP programs,
5. EAP/EGP/ESP courses given for undergraduate departments.

The next section presents the gathered data, analysis and results according to the findings of the first research question which aimed to find out the current macro and meso EMI policies.

4.3.1. The multi-faceted variations in EMI programs in Turkish universities

4.3.1.1. The number of EMI departments in universities Table 13 presents the details of the universities whose PYP school meso policies documents were analyzed by the present study. Before delving into the details of the policy documents, curricula, and EAP/ESP/EGAP courses of the universities, the study aims to provide details on the EMI departments, the number and percentage of EMI departments of the universities in addition to their status and the region they are located in.

As it can be seen on Table 11, the meso documents of 6 foundation universities (30%) and 14 state universities were analyzed. The reason why more state universities were added was that there are more state universities in Turkey (YOK, 2019c). As far as the region is concerned, 12 universities (60%) were from Marmara, 2 universities (10%) were from Aegean, 2 universities (10%) were from Central Anatolia, 1 university (5%) was from Eastern Anatolia, 1 university (5%) was from Southeastern Anatolia, 1 university (5%) was from Mediterranean, and 1 university (5%) was from Black Sea regions. Marmara is the region where most of the universities in Turkey is located and it is followed by Central Anatolia and Aegean (YOK, 2019c). The below figure displays the percentages of the status and regions of the universities

Table 13

The details of the universities and their EMI departments

Institution	Status	Region	No of all Departments	No of EMI Departments	Percentage of EMI Departments (%)
U1	Foundation	Marmara	11	11	100
U2	Foundation	Marmara	42	42	100
U3	Foundation	Marmara	46	24	52
U4	State	Marmara	35	34	97
U5	State	Aegean (West)	82	17	21
U6	State	Marmara	43	26	60
U7	State	Marmara	76	26	34
U8	Foundation	Marmara	22	22	100
U9	Foundation	Marmara	29	9	31
U10	State	Marmara	78	26	33
U11	State	Marmara	43	27	63
U12	State	Eastern Anatolia	100	3	3
U13	State	Mediterranean (South)	63	8	13
U14	State	Aegean (West)	70	24	34
U15	State	Central Anatolia	41	41	100
U16	State	Central Anatolia	75	21	28
U17	State	Black Sea (North)	24	3	13
U18	State	Southeastern Anatolia	46	15	33
U19	Foundation	Marmara	67	67	100
U20	State	Marmara	46	0	0
		M	52,0	22,3	50,7
		SD	23,3	15,9	36,5

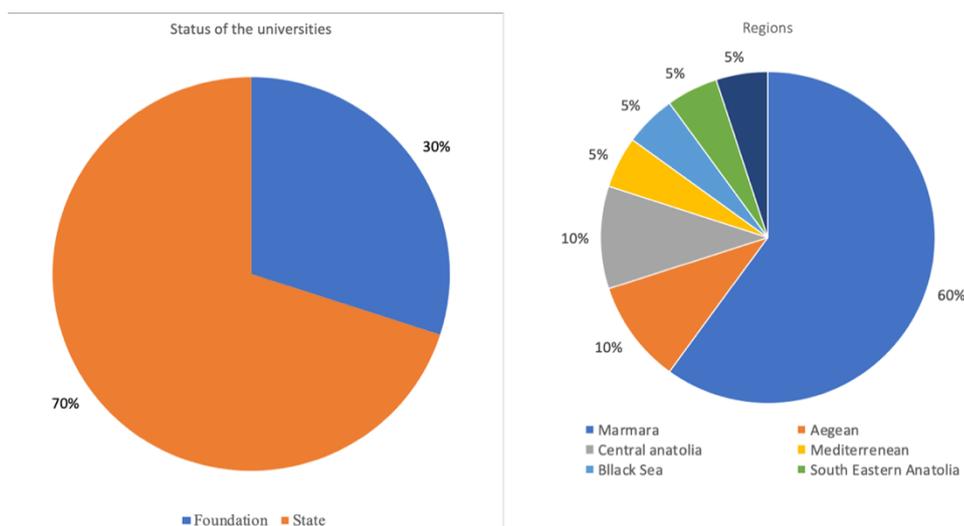


Figure 7. The details of the universities

The number of total departments that each university possess, regardless of the medium of instruction, ranges from 11 to 100 ($M=52$, $SD=53,3$). There is a huge variation in the number of the departments each university provides. Of these departments, some of them provide EMI while others TMI. As it can be understood from Table 11, the number of EMI departments ranges from 0 to 67, which means some universities provide all their undergraduate education in English while others provide only some of them in English ($M= 22,3$, $SD=15,9$). This suggests a huge variation as well. For instance, U1, U2, U8, U15, and U19 provides all of their departments (100%) in EMI regardless of their status. It is worth highlighting here that most of these universities are in Marmara region, where most of the Turkish universities are located. However, U20 does not provide any EMI department although it has an English PYP school unit. As for U3, it provides EMI in only 3 of its 100 departments. As for the percentage of EMI departments in proportion to all departments provided, the mean is 50,7% and the standard deviation is 36,5%.

4.3.1.2. The percentage of EMI instruction in departments The percentage of instruction given in English ranges from 100% to 30% in Turkey and some universities provide both 100% and 30% EMI for the same department (see Appendix C1). Only U8 provides 50% EMI, which is for law department. The students may prefer either one of the languages for instruction according to the score they receive from the national university entrance examination (Government, 2022b; YOK, 2019c). At

universities where EMI instruction is not given for all the departments, students may choose to start the same department through TMI. However, if a university provides all the departments in EMI, there is no TMI alternative for students. For instance, U1, U2, U8, U15, and U19 does not give any Turkish instruction for undergraduate departments. It can likewise be concluded from here that Turkish universities choose to give EMI instruction for any department according to their student needs and staff capacity (British Council, 2015). Thus, there is also a variation when the percentage of EMI in departments is taken into account.

4.3.1.3. The departments in which EMI is given As much as the percentages of EMI mentioned above are, the departments in which instruction is given in English vary in Turkish universities, regardless of the region and status (see Appendix C1). The institutions can teach through EMI as long as they can meet the requirements and recruit foreign staff as mentioned in macro policy documents 3, 7, 9, and 10 (see Table 6). Because of this obvious reason, departments where medium of instruction is English vary a lot from region to region or even within the same region in the country, which is associated with the autonomy given to Turkish universities (Government, 2017; Government, 2022b). The below figure shows the most common EMI departments of the universities whose meso policy documents the current study analyzed:

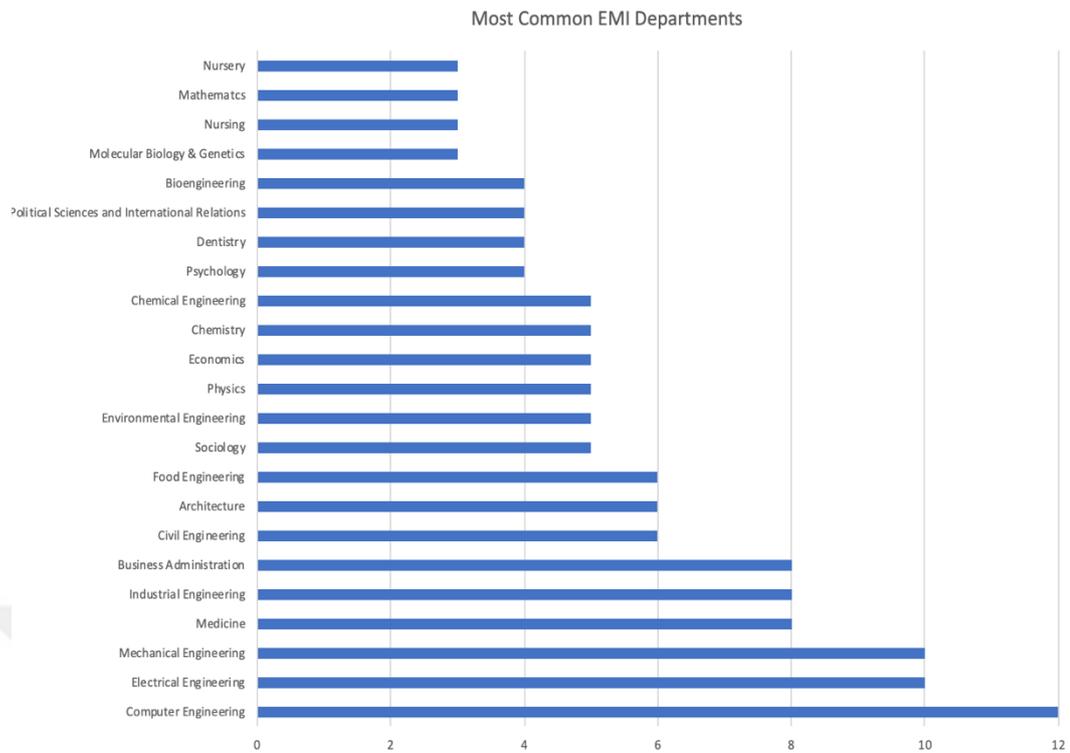


Figure 8. Most common EMI departments

As Figure 9 displays, the universities (n=20) of which the present study analysed the meso documents prefer to provide EMI most in engineering, medicine, business administration, sociology, physics, economy, and architecture departments. They are followed by psychology, dentistry, political sciences and international relations, bioengineering, molecular biology and genetics, nursing, nursery, and mathematics. It is essential to highlight here that numerical sciences are preferred more for EMI instruction than social sciences and humanities as far as the expertise areas are concerned. This might be associated with the demands of the students and popularity of the departments all over the world, or the reasons for adopting EMI (see Figure 11). Although the other departments are also in demand by the students (see Appendix C1), they may not be preferred by the institutions because the teaching staff needed to give the instruction in English are hard to find (YOK, 2019c).

It is also important to note here that some state and foundation universities can provide EMI instruction for all their departments while others can only provide TMI for the same departments. For instance, institutions in Marmara region (U1, U2, U4, U15, U19) are ready to support EMI in all faculties and departments, which is most probably because the region is popular among the academic and business circles, international

students, and international staff. As a matter fact, these institutions are internationally more popular because the academic staff publish studies in English more frequently.

This variation in both the number, percentage, and type of EMI departments provided by the universities undoubtedly leads to variation in English PYP as far as assessment and curriculum are concerned. According to Government (2022b), each foreign language PYP school must present the details of the curriculum and assessment details both on official gazette and their websites in the form of student handbooks along with or within their legislation. So, these documents are of primary importance because they may shed light on how each PYP school is organized for EMI instruction within the institutions.

4.3.2. The representation of EMI in English PYP school policies. An overview of how EMI was represented in 40 meso policy documents collected for the analysis is presented in Table 14. The documents of each university, which are PYP school legislation (1) and student handbooks (2), are grouped under the same folder on MAXQDA 2022 and analyzed as groups for word frequencies through the dictionary specifically created for the purpose of the present study. The dictionary included search items under two categories, which are explicit and implicit. The explicit search items or codes are *İngilizce* (English), *İngilizce ile eğitim* (EMI), *İngilizce eğitimi* (teaching English), *İngilizce öğrenme* (learning English), *bölüm İngilizcesi* (English for departments), *alan İngilizcesi* (English for majors), *akademik İngilizce* (academic English), *küresel* (global), *uluslararası* (international), *uluslararası öğrenci* (international student), *hazırlık okulu* (PYP school), *hazırlık sınıfı* (preparatory class), *hazırlık eğitimi* (preparatory education), *İngilizce yeterlilik* (English proficiency), *İngilizce yeterlilik sınavı* (english proficiency exam), and *İngilizce hazırlık okulu* (English PYP school), and *zorunlu İngilizce* (compulsory English). The implicit search items are *yabancı dil* (foreign language), *yabancı dil ile eğitim* (foreign language medium of instruction), *yabancı dil eğitimi* (teaching a foreign language), *yabancı dil öğrenme* (learning a foreign language), *akademik yabancı dil* (academic foreign language), *yabancı dil becerileri* (foreign language skills), *yabancı dil hazırlık* (foreign language PYP school), *yabancı diller yüksekokulu* (foreign language school/school of foreign languages), and *zorunlu yabancı dil* (compulsory foreign language). However, after the word frequency analysis on

MAXQDA, the researcher had to eliminate most of these items as they were not salient. The most salient ones among them were *yabancı dil* (foreign language), *hazırlık sınıfı* (preparatory class), *yabancı dil hazırlık* (foreign language PYP school), *yabancı diller yüksekokulu* (foreign language school/school of foreign languages), *uluslararası* (international), *zorunlu yabancı dil* (compulsory foreign language), *hazırlık okulu* (PYP school), *yabancı dil eğitimi* (teaching a foreign language), *küresel* (global), *uluslararası öğrenci* (international student), *yabancı dil öğrenme* (learning a foreign language), *yabancı dil becerileri* (foreign language skills), and *yabancı dil ile eğitim* (foreign language medium of instruction). That's why only these codes were taken into account as the word frequencies were calculated on MAXQDA. In addition, the researcher ran word combinations feature on the software to create a list of most frequent items and then added the relevant ones to explicit and implicit lists. Appendix E2 and E3 display these items and how often they appear under each university's folder group.

Table 14

References to EMI in collected meso policy documents.

Institution	References to EMI in PYP School Legislations and Handbooks	
	Explicit	Implicit
U1	6,2%	0,6%
U2	13,7%	2,8%
U3	14,4%	14,2%
U4	1,4%	0,7%
U5	7,4%	6,6%
U6	2,6%	0,5%
U7	5,8%	8,4%
U8	1,1%	0,5%
U9	4,1%	5,8%
U10	2,3%	1,9%
U11	11,4%	9,2%
U12	5,3%	5,9%
U13	4,3%	3,6%
U14	2,2%	3,2%
U15	8,5%	3,9%
U16	1,5%	12,3%
U17	1,9%	1,9%

Table 14 (cont.d)

U18	0,8%	1,1%
U19	6,6%	3,2%
U20	7,9%	17,0%
M	5,47%	5,17%
SD	5,26%	4,63%

As far as the above table indicates, explicit and implicit codes are not frequent in the meso documents of the PYP schools. The maximum percentage for explicit nodes was 14,4% (U3) and the minimum one was 0,8%. As for the maximum percentage for implicit nodes, it was 17,0% and the minimum percentage was 0,6%. Overall, explicit references were higher (M=5,47%, SD=5,26) than implicit ones (M=5,17%, SD= 4,63%). The references in meso documents were lower in percentage in proportion to macro documents. However, it is worth noting here that each meso document, including the legislation and handbook, contains a lot more words than a single macro policy document. That's why, it is better to examine each node according to their frequency on a separate table. Appendix E2 shows the most frequent codes in each university's folder group as analyzed using MAXQDA.

As reported in Table 14, explicit and implicit references within the meso documents could be analysed more clearly through word frequencies features of the software. It is clear that, whether the institution was state or foundation, EMI was represented more implicitly in the meso documents of the English PYP schools of the Turkish universities (M=240, SD= 380). As far as the explicit references are concerned, U2 has more references (n=136) than all the other institutions. However, it does not have as many implicit references (n=86). It is followed by U11 (n=125) and U15 (n=96). As for the implicit references, the former (n=201) has far more references than the latter in comparison to all the other institutions (n=88). In contrast, some universities (U12, U13, U18) have few explicit references (n=1) and others (U6, U8) have a few implicit references (n=11). It is significant to note here that U20 has more implicit (n=424) and explicit (n=13) references than these universities although it only provides voluntary PYP and does not have any EMI departments. Also, it is worth noting here that U1, U2, U15, and U19, which provide 100% EMI for all of their departments, have relatively higher number of both explicit (n=71, n=136, n=93, n=36) and implicit (n=15, n=83, n=88, n=102) references. What is more striking here is that the first three universities (U1, U2, U15) have more explicit than implicit

references. Likewise, U8 and U15 have more explicit (n=17, n=93) than implicit (n=11, n=88) references. And these universities give 100% EMI for all of their departments as well. Thus, all the universities which provide 100% EMI for all their departments and whose meso documents were analyzed by the present study have more explicit than implicit references to EMI.

Additionally, in Table 14, references to EMI were listed in order of frequency. The most frequent explicit reference was *ingilizce hazırlık okulu* (English PYP school) (n=173) and the most frequent implicit reference was *yabancı dil* (foreign language) (n=1287). The explicit reference was most frequent in the meso documents of U1, U2, U6, and U15. Three of these universities give 100% EMI for all their departments. And the other universities which give 100% EMI for all of their departments (U8, U19) also have higher explicit references in comparison to the other universities (n=8, n=4). As for the most frequent implicit reference, U20, which does not have any EMI departments but provides a voluntary preparatory education, has the highest number (n=197). It is followed by U3 (n=159), U16 (n=145), U7 (n=108), and U11 (n=104). The percentage of EMI departments in proportion to all departments provided by these institutions are relatively lower (respectively, 52%, 28%, 34%, 63%).

As for the lowest explicit and implicit references to EMI, the former is *uluslararası öğrenci* (international student) (n=10) and the latter is *isteğe bağlı hazırlık* (voluntary preparatory education) (n=14). International student appears most in the meso documents of U2 (n=5) while voluntary PYP appears most in the meso documents of U5 (N=3).

4.3.3. Internationalization and EMI as the drivers of PYP. The terms *uluslararası* (international) and *küresel* (global) were apparent in most of the meso documents analysed by the present study. Although the latter was found much less than the other references (see Table 14), the former compensated for the lack as far as the internationalization is concerned because the meso documents considered reaching the international standards to be the most primary vision in the policies of the most institutions. Analyzed and found on MAXQDA, the below excerpts can prove this point:

Vizyonumuz, ulusal ve uluslararası düzeylerde mesleki yeterlilik ve akademik bilincirlik düzeyine ulaşarak üniversitenin vizyonuna katkı sağlamak (Our vision is to contribute to the overall vision of the university by achieving the professional efficiency and academic recognition on national and international levels). (U1, handbook)

Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulumuzun en önemli hedefi öğrencilerimizi uluslararası standartlardaki yükseköğretim gerektirdiği İngilizce dil bilgisi ve becerileriyle donatmak. (The most important mission of our School of Foreign Languages is to equip our students with English grammar and skills required by international higher education standards). (U2, handbook)

Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu olarak uluslararası standartlarda eğitim veren üniversitemizin yabancı dilde eğitim kalitesini artırma hedefimiz doğrultusunda sizleri küreselleşen dünyamız için gerekli olan bilgi ve becerilerle donatma sorumluluğumuzu yerine getirirken... (As the School of Foreign Languages, in line with our mission to improve the quality of foreign language medium of instruction given by our university, we perform our responsibility for equipping you with the necessary knowledge and skills for our constantly globalizing world). (U11, handbook)

Hazırlık programımız üniversite öğrencilerinin ufuklarını genişletecek, uluslararası ilişkiler kurmalarını sağlayacak, bilgi haznelerini zenginleştirmelerini olanaklı kılacak, güncel gelişmeleri yakından takip edebilmelerini ve kendi alanlarına şahsi katkı sunabilmelerini sağlayacaktır. (Our preparatory program will broaden our students' horizons and help them form international relations, enrich their knowledge, follow the most recent developments, and make individual contributions to their fields of study) (U17, handbook).

Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu olarak misyonumuz, öğrencilerimizin ulusal ve uluslararası akademik ve iş yaşamlarında ihtiyaç duyacakları yabancı dili etkin ve işlevsel olarak öğrenmelerini sağlayacak ortamları sağlamaktır. (As the School of Foreign Languages, our mission is to create settings where our

students can learn the foreign language they will need in their academic and professional lives efficiently and functionally) (U20, handbook).

..... [Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu] dünya ölçeğinde kurumsal çevresel sorumluluk ve ‘küresel vatandaş’ olma sorumluluğu ile hareket edecektir. (School of Foreign Languages act by considering its institutional and environmental responsibility on global scale and the responsibility for being a ‘global citizen’) (U20, handbook).

Meso documents mention internationalization and globalization as the main purpose of learning a foreign language and even the reason for learning the majors in a foreign language or English. Most universities mention the importance of international relations, international communication, globalized world, and international language skills in their vision and mission statements. The most important thing worth noticing here is that they put emphasis on the students, their language needs, and academic language skills for EMI departments. Turkish universities open English PYP school programs to meet their students’ language needs on a more systematic and concentrated bases and they prepare their curriculum and lessons accordingly. All these needs are tailored for a more specific purpose, which is internationalization.

While referring to the language either explicitly or implicitly, the institutions also emphasize the fact that the foreign language education given at English PYP schools aim to help the students develop their language skills and language proficiency for their own departments. In addition, they give details regarding what kinds of language skills are to be improved for the upcoming undergraduate years, in which areas the students can benefit from the language they are learning, what academic benefits they will have as they learn and after they have learnt English, and what other language supports the students will receive after they have completed the PYP. The below excerpts are examples for the parts of the universities’ legislations or handbooks where such emphases are made:

Yabancı Dil Hazırlık Sınıfının amacı; öğrenilen yabancı dilin temel yapılarını öğretmek, öğrencilerin sözcük dağarcıklarını geliştirmek, yazılı ve sözlü olarak

mesleki ve sosyal hayatta iletişim kurma yeterliliği kazandırmak ve kendi alanlarındaki metinleri anlayabilmelerini sağlamaktır. (The purpose of the Foreign Language PYP is to teach the basic structures of the foreign language being learnt, improve the student's vocabulary knowledge, help them gain oral and written communication proficiency in their professional and social lives, and help them to comprehend the texts in their fields of study) (U13, legislation).

...bir yıl içinde alacağınız yabancı dil hazırlık eğitimiyle bundan sonraki yıllarınızın da temelini atacaksınız... With the foreign language education, you receive in one year, you will lay the foundation for your upcoming years (U16, handbook).

.... eğitimi boyunca akademik becerilerini sergileyebileceği İngilizce seviyesine ulaştırmayı, mezuniyet sonrası mesleki becerileri için gerekli olan İngilizceyi müfredatında barındırmaktadır. ([The institution] aims to help its students achieve an English level through which they can display their academic skills throughout their undergraduate years and harbours a curriculum which includes English lessons which they need for their professional skills after graduation) (U15, legislation).

... zorunlu yabancı dil hazırlık sınıflarında, öğrenimlerini sürdürecekleri dallarda yabancı dille verilen dersleri kolaylıkla izleyebilme, okuduklarını anlayabilme ve anlatabilme, metinleri Türkçeye çevirebilme, ilgili yabancı dilde yazılı ve sözlü olarak kendilerini ifade edebilme, uluslararası yayınları izleyebilme, seminer ve tartışmalara katılabilme ve mesleklerini uluslararası düzeyde uygulayabilmeleri için gerekli yabancı dil yeterliliğini kazandırmak amaçlanmaktadır. (...compulsory foreign language PYP aims to help the students to achieve a foreign language proficiency, whereby they can track the lessons given by their departments in the foreign language without any difficulty, comprehend and communicate what they read in that language, translate the texts into Turkish, express themselves orally and in written forms, follow international publications, participate in international seminars and discussions, and perform their professions on an international level) (U20, legislation).

As the excerpts indicate, all of the universities ground the curriculum and the mission of their English PYP schools on the EMI which their students will receive in the upcoming years of their undergraduate education. Besides, all of the institutions have the below or similar statement on their legislation, which endorses their PYP provides international standards.

Temel İngilizce Bölümümüzün İngilizce Hazırlık Programı'nın uluslararası dil eğitimi standartlarında faaliyetini sürdürdüğü tescil edilmiştir. (It has been officially accredited that Our Basic English Department and English PYP School run under international standards) (U11, legislation).

All institutions aim to provide a foreign language education under international standards by conforming to global norms in their foreign language units (or schools of foreign languages) and for their undergraduate departments. And, they all have international and national accreditation, and provide their students with certificates valid in European countries once they finish their PYP. To understand the quality of education and how it is tailored for EMI purposes, it is necessary to gather views and perceptions from the instructors, EMI instructors, unit directors, and students. However, before investigating and analysing the first-hand experiences, the researcher of the present study considered it necessary to make out a detailed outline of the foreign language education provided by the PYP schools and the language lessons by examining their curriculum, lesson plans, and the foreign language lessons provided for EMI departments.

4.3.4. The curricula of English PYP schools. The curricula of the universities whose meso documents were analyzed by the present study are displayed on a table in Appendix C2 because it does not show any numerical data. Instead, it summarizes the module duration, class levels, courses given by the PYP schools, and assessment types. The numerical and graphical data of the relevant findings will be briefly shown in this section.

4.3.4.1. Module duration of the English PYP schools The module duration of the English PYP schools of all universities in Turkey changes between 14-week and 7-week (see Appendix C2). Few universities divide one fall and spring semester, which

lasts for 14 weeks, into two modules and students pass onto the next level in the second 7-week period if they are successful at the end of the first 7-week period. If they are not, they repeat the same level in the second half. In 14-week modules, students complete two or more levels without any requirement to pass the first level. However, at the end of the semester, they must pass a final exam to move onto the higher levels in the second 14-week semester. At every PYP school, students must pass each 7-week or 14-week module by completing all levels successfully. Otherwise, they cannot take the English proficiency exam or the exit exam, which they must pass with a minimum score of 60 in order to start their departments. This rule is stated in macro policies no 1 (YOK, 2022a) and no 5 (YOK, 2021a). However, no macro policy document states how 7-week and 14-week periods are to be organized or when they should start and finish. Thus, each university is autonomous in defining their academic calendar, levels, and assessment dates. Some universities (e.g., U9, U19) start very early, at the beginning of September, and therefore finish the whole semester in May as they also provide summer school for PYP students. Others (e.g., U12) start and finish the semesters much earlier although they do not give any summer school education. The meso policies of the universities are also not aligned with the academic calendar of EMI departments each PYP school publish their academic calendar autonomously, after receiving the approval from the rectorate (YOK, 2022b). The below figure displays the frequency of the week durations and modules of the PYP school units of the universities whose meso documents were analysed by the present study:

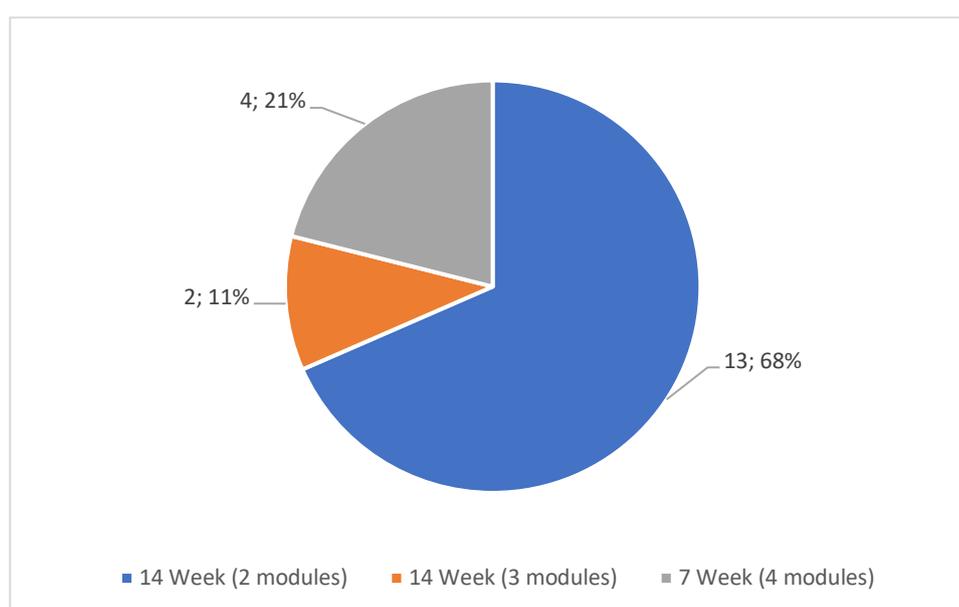


Figure 9. The frequencies and percentages of week durations and modules

Figure 10 summarizes the preferences of Turkish universities for their PYP school module durations well (British Council, 2015). Accordingly, most state and foundation universities opt for 14-week duration where they provide English education, or foreign language education as the macro and meso documents state, in different levels. And, only a few universities divide their PYP in 4 modules. As for the 3-module period, where there is also summer school education, it is not preferred much by the state universities but by foundation universities (e.g., U9, U19). Although a school of foreign language unit may change its education durations and modules if they consider it necessary and fit for the present context on condition that they inform the Council of Higher Education, many universities in Turkey have been using the same academic periods for years (YOK, 2022a). These differences in the durations and modules are only the tip of the iceberg. PYP schools vary much more as far as the proficiency levels, courses and assessment types are concerned. The following section will summarize the differences in levels and courses.

4.3.4.2. The definitions of the English proficiency levels addressed in English PYP schools All Turkish universities try to conform to CEFR as far as proficiency levels are concerned. However, there are again no clear-cut definitions of each level or a certain pattern to follow stipulated or stated by the Council of Higher Education. Every school of foreign language uses the levels defined by CEFR in compliance with their students' levels and needs. As each university accepts students with varying scores from national university entrance examinations, it is expectable that foreign language units adjust their levels according to their students' needs and background (YOK, 2021a; YOK, 2022b). Thus, although each level looks the same as far as their names are considered, the language instruction given for the same level in two separate universities might not be the same. However, this is out of the scope of the present study.

The proficiency levels of English for which language instruction is given in the schools of foreign language of the universities whose meso documents were analysed range from A1 to C1. Although A1 level is present in every single university's curriculum, C1 level is used by only a few institutions. Some universities (U4, U8, U9, U14, U15) choose to use the equivalents, foundation or beginner, pre-intermediate, intermediate, upper-intermediate, and advanced while some (e.g., U15) use both level

definitions. In addition, two of the universities (U15 and U16) even use the inter-levels B1+, B2+, B1.2+, and A1.2 (see Appendix C2). The reason might be associated with the fact that the universities are among the state universities preferred most by the students who receive high scores out of the national university examinations (British Council, 2015; YOK, 2019a). Likewise, other universities (U3, U6, U10, U11, U13, and U17) use the inter-levels B1+ and/or B2+ levels.

The EMI percentages of these universities vary so much that it is not possible to specify the reason for such a differentiation in two levels. Regardless of their states as state or foundation, these institutions might need to give these levels for specific

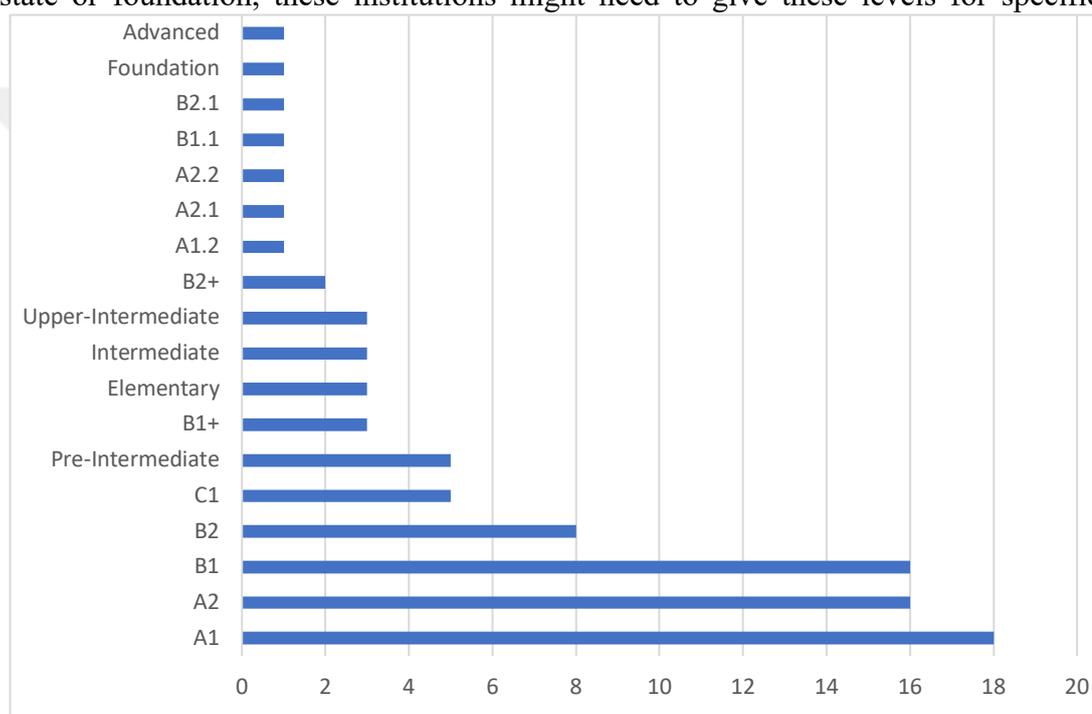


Figure 10. The frequency of English proficiency level definitions

departments or in order to make sure their students have learnt the previous level completely (British Council, 2015; YOK, 2019c). As the proficiency level of the incoming students varies a lot, the schools of foreign languages extend the differentiation. The below chart indicates the frequency of English proficiency level definitions used by the school of foreign languages whose meso documents were analyzed in the present study:

As the above figure indicates, there is also a huge variation, although not difference, in the types, definitions, and the number of levels addressed by each institution which the present study analyzed. As a matter of fact, it reflects the true

scenario in English PYP schools as the Council of Higher Education grants autonomy to the foreign language units as far as the levels of their students are concerned. Each school of foreign language conduct their own placement test to define the starting levels of their students:

.... *öğrenciler Seviye Belirleme Sınavı sonuçlarına göre uygun seviyelere ve sınıflara yerleştirilirler* (... students are placed into levels and classes according to the results of Placement Exam (U8, handbook)

Seviye Belirleme Sınavı (SBS): Hazırlık sınıfında öğrencilerin İngilizce eğitimine hangi düzeyde başlayacaklarını eğitim öğretim yılı başında belirlemek için gerçekleştirilen sınavdır. (Placement Exam: it [the exam] conducted to determine the levels of the students at which they can start their English education). (U17, handbook)

These placement tests are prepared either by the units themselves or by the third-party testing or publishing companies. However, most institutions prefer to use their own test for reliability and validity reasons. When they decide to conduct a third parties' exam, they choose a company that is accredited by the Council of Higher Education and the rectorate of the university.

The levels addressed to by the schools of foreign languages vary a lot due to the contextual reasons, the percentages of EMI instruction, students' background, and the variety of the departments provided by the institutions. In a similar vein, the courses provided in the English PYP schools do not follow a common pattern. The next section will focus on these courses.

4.3.4.3. The courses in English PYP schools Appendix C2 also displays the courses given by the schools of foreign languages of the institutions whose meso documents the present study analysed. The courses provided by the 20 institutions range from integrated skills to productive skills and grammar. Some universities provide more compact courses (not more than 2 in number) while others separate each skill into different courses in addition to grammar or use of English. There is no

common path state and foundation universities must follow as far as courses are concerned, too. The only common feature of the weekly schedules is that they are all composed of 24 hours and the students must attend at least 85% of them.

Each university is autonomous in the type of courses they prefer to provide for their PYP students as well. For instance, while U11 adapts the courses according to TOEFL examination as it is also a reputable TOEFL center in its region, U7, U11 and U17 give separate courses for higher levels. However, each school of foreign languages makes it clear in their handbooks and legislations that students learn the basics of the English language, communicative skills, and life-long learning skills in addition to four main skills:

Programdaki her derste belirli bir beceriye odaklanan entegre bir beceri yaklaşımı, iletişimsel amaçlar için kullanılmalıdır. (In each course of the programme, an integrated skill approach which focuses on a specific skill must be used for communicative purposes). (U1, handbook)

Öğrenciler becerilerin birleştirilmesi yoluyla lisans eğitimlerine devam etmek için çeşitli akademik konularda akademik metinleri anlamalarını sağlayacak gerekli okuma becerileriyle donatılacaktır. (Through integrated skills, students will be equipped with the reading skills required for understanding academic texts in various fields in order that they can pursue their undergraduate education). (U6, legislation)

Öğrenme aktiviteleri, öğrencilerin hayat boyu ihtiyaç duyacakları genel becerilerin yanı sıra 21. yüzyıl yetkinliklerini de içerecek şekilde planlanır. (Learning activities are planned in a way that they can help them develop their 21st century skills in addition to general language skills they will need throughout their professional lives). (U8, handbook)

Hazırlık sınıflarında bir yıl süresince okutulacak dersler, öğrencinin dört temel dil becerisini (okuduğunu anlama, duyduğunu anlama, yazılı anlatım ve sözlü anlatım) AODK çerçevesinde tanımlanan düzeylerde geliştirecek şekilde düzenlenir. (The courses to be given in the PYP schools for one year are

designed in a way that four main skills (reading, listening, writing, and speaking) are developed within AODK (international) framework). (U10, legislation)

As the above excerpts highlight, the schools of foreign languages organize their courses, whether they are integrated or not, in a way that the undergraduate students can develop their foreign language communicative skills on an international level for their academic and professional lives. Trying to conform to some certain international criteria, the institutions aim to ensure that their foreign language education can raise international citizens. Thus, this finding is in line with the finding described in section 4.3.3.

In addition to integrated, productive (writing and speaking), receptive (listening and reading) skills and grammar, some universities (U1, U4, U17) provide stand-alone vocabulary lessons while others (U1, U19) give ESP courses and academic skills courses. The below figure displays the frequency of all courses given in the schools of foreign languages of the 20 institutions whose meso documents were analysed by the present study:

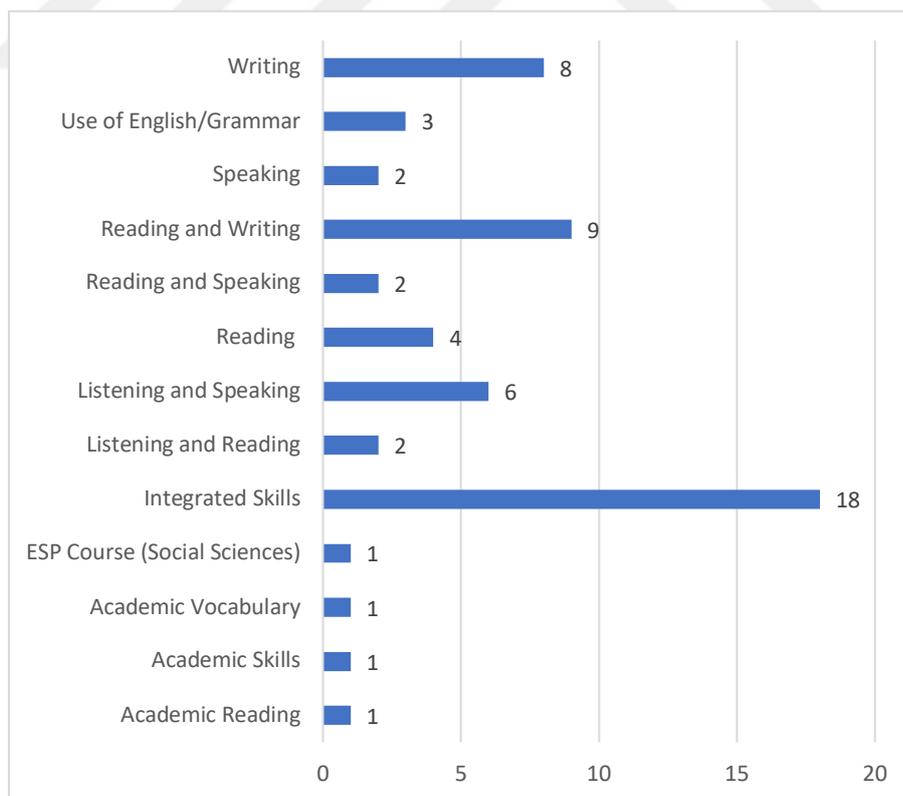


Figure 11 The frequencies of the courses given by the English PYP schools

As the above figure indicates, the course preferred most frequently by the English PYP schools is Integrated Skills (n=18). All the institutions give this course through a main course book in which four skills (listening, reading, writing, and speaking) are integrated in each unit in addition to some pronunciation, grammar (or use of English), and vocabulary sections. The units are structured around a common content within a certain context. Although the books selected by the institutions may differ even within the same academic year, the structure of an integrated skill course is almost similar in every university because the course books selected are mostly designed for the same purposes, same student outcomes, and around a similar curriculum:

İngilizce Hazırlık Okulu'nda dersler öğrencilerin dört dil becerisini (Okuma, Dinleme, Yazma, Konuşma) kazanabileceği şekilde yürütülmektedir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda dersler bu becerilerin bütüncül (integrated) bir biçimde işlenmesine olanak sağlayan bir doğrultuda planlanmıştır. (In English PYP school, lessons are implemented in a way that students can acquire four language skills (reading, listening, writing, speaking) simultaneously. In line with this purpose, lessons are planned through an instruction which makes it possible to cover those skills in an integrated way). (U19, handbook)

İngilizce dil bilgisi ve kelime bilgisi başta olmak üzere, öğrencilerin dinleme, konuşma, okuma ve yazma becerilerini düzeylerine uygun ders materyalleri ve sınıf içi etkinlikler aracılığıyla geliştirmelerini hedefler. (In addition to grammar and vocabulary knowledge, which are of primary importance, [this main course lesson] aims to develop students' listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills through lessons materials and in-class activities adapted to their levels. (U17, handbook)

As the books are provided by third-party publishing and distributing companies, the PYP schools do not share the names of their books in handbooks or legislation due to the reasons for copy right. However, the researcher had time to analyse most of the books or even use them in his own classes as an instructor. Thus, he was familiar with the lesson plans and the lesson content.

The second most frequently preferred courses are Reading and Writing (n=9) and Writing (n=8). Reading and Writing courses are mostly given through a coursebook where the reading skills such as scanning, skimming, and detailed reading are presented in model texts before process writing starts. Students study a model essay or article and then start writing essays or paragraphs. All the books used in these lessons are similar in structure and outline, only different in the level of the texts chosen for modelling. It is obvious here that the most preferred receptive skill as a lesson is Reading and the most preferred productive skill as a lesson is writing. As a matter of fact, Writing takes the third place in terms of frequency, which is because the proficiency examinations which students must take after they have successfully completed all levels are heavily concentrated upon the writing skill. Some universities (U4, U6, U10) even ask the students to write two different essays in the exam. In addition, stand-alone process writing and/or timed writing exams are important parts of assessment schedule in the English PYP schools (see 4.3.4.4). Some institutions define students' writing outcomes by giving details in their handbooks:

[Students] write discursive essays by organizing information through writing thesis statement, supporting, and concluding paragraphs, using linkers/sequence markers topics to express opinions and analyse cause-effect relationships. (U11, handbook)

Öğrencilere ürettikleri yazılarını birden fazla kez yazmalarına olanak verilerek, organizasyon, içerik ve dil açısından yazılarını geliştirmeleri sağlanır. By giving the students an opportunity to rewrite their essays more than once, [writing lessons] help them improve their writing in terms of content and language use. (U1, handbook)

Öğrenciler lisans eğitimlerinde gerekli olan akademik metinleri yazmalarını sağlayacak önemli yazma becerileri geliştireceklerdir. (Students will develop important writing skills which will be required to write academic texts during their undergraduate education). (U6, handbook)

The above excerpts show the importance the institutions attach to students' academic writing skills and why they give writing lessons more frequently than the

others in the list. In fact, this might be associated with the students' and EMI departments' demands as writing is of primary importance as far as academic English is concerned.

The third most frequent lesson provided by the institutions is Listening and Speaking. This lesson is given in a way similar to Reading and Writing mostly because the former lessons are receptive, and the latter ones are productive. Most institutions prepare their own packs for these lessons and students listen to a lecture or conversation as a model and then prepare their oral presentations later on. The tasks in packs are mostly taken from the materials of the course books and some institutions prepare their own tasks according to their students' levels. The students' outcomes for listening and speaking activities are tailored for academic purposes as well:

Temel İngilizce Bölümündeki dinleme derslerinin amacı öğrencilerin özgün ve yarı özgün ders anlatımlarını anlamalarını, genel ve özel anlama yeteneklerini, dinlerken cevaplama ve etkili not alma stratejilerini geliştirmelerini sağlamaktır. (The purpose of the listening lessons in Basic English Department is to help students to understand authentic and half-authentic lectures, develop general and specific comprehension skills and note-taking and while-listening strategies (U11, handbook)

Bu faaliyetlerin amacı sadece dinleme becerilerinin gelişmesi değil, aynı zamanda bu kayıtlar ve videolarda kullanılan dil yapılarını ve kelimeleri öğrenerek konuşma becerilerine aktarmaları beklenir. (The purpose of these activities is helping students not only to develop listening skills but also to transfer the language structures and vocabulary items used in these recordings and videos to their speaking skills. (U1, handbook)

...dinleme metnindeki önemli bilgileri başka kelimelerle anlatabileceklerdir. Farklı kaynaklardan fikirler çıkartarak buna dayalı bir konuşma yapabileceklerdir. (...they will be able to tell important knowledge in different words. By inferring ideas from different [listening] resources, they will be able to make a speech on them). (U6, legislation)

Based on the data gathered from the handbooks and legislations, universities prefer to concentrate on developing speaking skills by integrating listening activities into their lessons as they consider it necessary for the students to listen to an authentic speech as a model first. Although not high in percentage, speaking composes an essential part of all assessment portfolios of the universities the present study analysed the meso documents of (See 4.3.4.4).

In contrast, only two of the English PYP schools (U11 and U17) prefer to give speaking along with writing as a Reading and Speaking course. Correspondingly, only two schools (U7 and U11) give Listening and Reading course. The reason why only these three universities provide such courses in a different way from the others is that the EMI instruction of these institutions is more adapted to technical departments like engineering and architecture. In addition, these and other universities give Reading (U6, U11, U14, U16) and Speaking (U9, U16) as stand-alone lessons for certain levels. Thus, it can be inferred from here that the institutions' English PYP schools differentiate the instruction according to their students' needs. Likewise, U1 provides Academic Skills, Vocabulary and Speaking courses and U9 provides ESP courses for social science departments. This is associated with the fact that U1 is a technical foundation university which provides medical departments in English and U9 is the only foundation university which gives 100% EMI instruction for social science departments.

In the light of the above findings, it is easy to infer that English PYP schools have as much varied assessment weights as their course schedule. The next section will give brief information about the formative and summative assessments conducted in the English PYP schools.

4.3.4.4. Assessment in English PYP schools Regardless of their module or semester duration, each English PYP school conducts exams in terms of midterms and finals as summative assessments in addition to writing tasks, speaking assignments, online practices, etc. as formative assessments (see Appendix C2). For instance, U1, U3, U5, U6, U11, and U18 conduct Quizzes as midterms, U4, U9, U13 conduct Achievement tests as midterms, and U10 uses Progress Tests while all the others simply define them as Midterms.

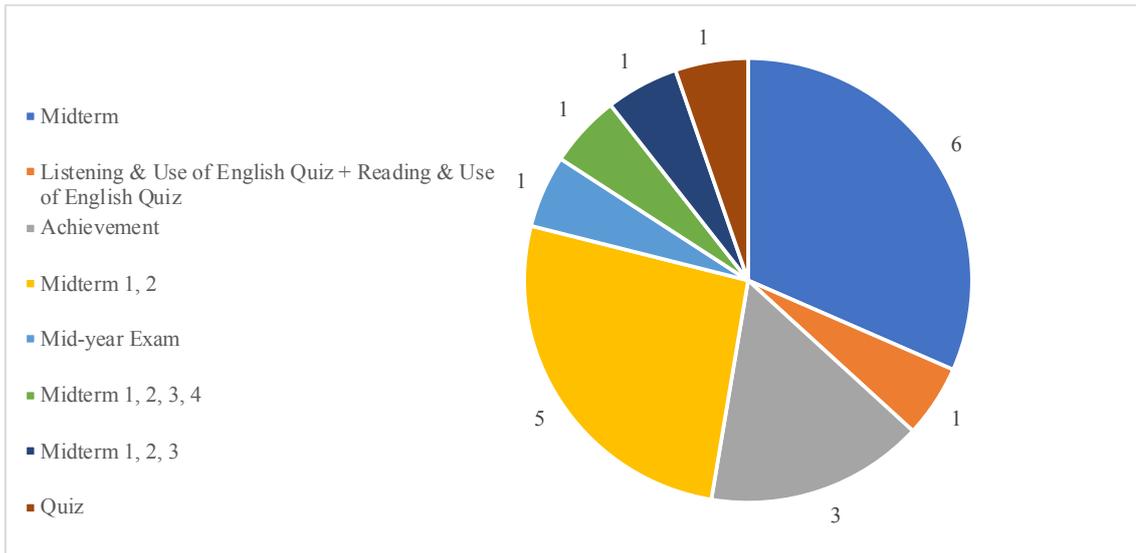


Figure 12. Midterm exam types

Similarly, U2, U3 conduct End of Module, U5, U11, U15 conduct Midterm, U6 conducts Mid-year/End-year, and U10 conducts Progress Test as final exams. Thus, there are no clear-cut definitions for each summative and formative assessment exam. What's more, most PYP schools (U3, U4, U5, U6, U7, U10, U11, U12, U13, U15, and U16) conduct more than one Midterm while others (U2, U13, U14) count some activities as midterm exam. However, they all perform 1 final exam as stipulated by law (YOK, 2022a). Accordingly, if students get a minimum score of 60 or 50 out of a final exam and participate 85% or 80% of the classes, they can pass their level or classes. Thus, the weight of the final exam changes between 50% and 60% at each English PYP school while the weights for midterm exams vary.

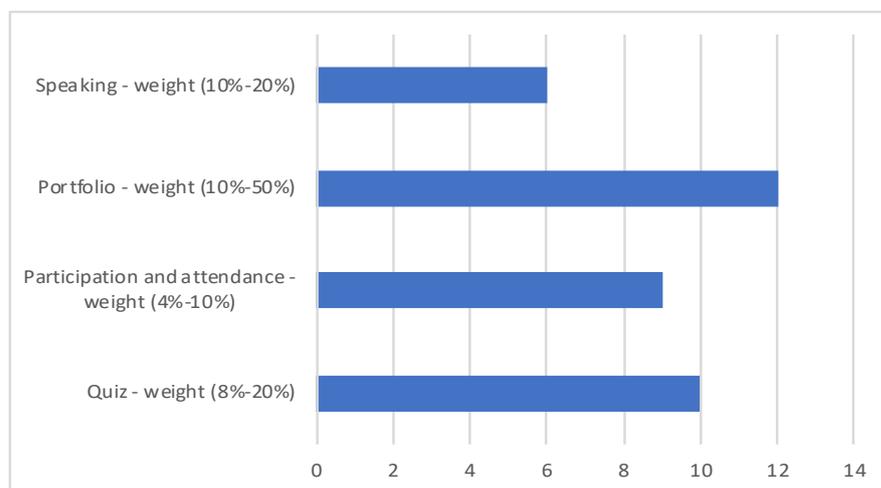


Figure 13. Frequencies of assessment components other than midterms and finals

As Figure 14 displays, almost half of the PYP schools (n=10) consider participation and/or attendance as an important part of the assessment criteria. However, while assessing participation and/or attendance, some institutions (U2 and U9) not only assess both or either but also online assessments or homework (see Appendix C2 and Figure 17). And they do not define it in the same way. For instance, U18 defines it as Teacher Evaluation while U9 adds it as a component and describes it as Attendance and Participation, Online Assignments. On the other hand, U1, U11, U15, and U19 simply call it Participation. The below excerpts indicate the extent of the importance the PYP schools attach to participation and attendance:

... her zaman derse katılan, derste hep İngilizce konuşan ve dersi hiçbir zaman aksatmayan öğrenci engagement (katılım) ve conduct (davranış/tutum) bandından 50 puan alır. (... a student who always participates in the lesson, who always speaks English in lessons and never misses a lesson gets 50 for engagement and conduct (U2, handbook)

Ödev ve derse katılım: Bu not öğrencilerin sınıf içi etkinliklere katılımı, ödev notları, derse hazırlıklı gelmesi ve sınıf içi tutum ve davranışları göz önüne alınarak verilir. (Homework and participation: this grade is given by considering the students' participation in in-class activities, whether they prepare for the lessons, behaviours and conduct in the classroom). (U1, legislation)

Öğrencinin ders içi etkinliklere katılımına bağlı olarak derse giren öğretim elemanlarının yaptıkları değerlendirmeler sonucunda belirli ölçütlere göre verdikleri puandır. It is the grade given by the instructors according to the assessments the made in the light of the students' participation in in-class activities (U16, handbook)

Portfolio is also frequently preferred by the English PYP schools. Twelve (12) institutions (U4, U5, U6, U7, U11, U13, U14, U16, U17, U19, and U20) add portfolio as a component into their assessment. Portfolio assessments mostly concentrate on developing productive skills through extensive tasks. U6 calls it student performance while the other institutions all define it as portfolio. Five institutions (U5, U6, U7, U11, and U19) merely give writing tasks as portfolios while the others also include speaking

(presentation) tasks, classroom participation, or homework. Only U7 assigns portfolios as separately as speaking and writing tasks.

As for quizzes conducted as exams other than midterms and finals, most PYP schools (U1, U3, U5, U7, U9, U11, U15, U17, U18, and U20) prefer to embed them into their assessment criteria as announced or unannounced pop exams. The form of exams ranges from writing quizzes to grammar quizzes conducted on a regular basis.

In addition to speaking presentations in portfolios, some schools (U1, U2, U6, U9, U11, and U15) prefer to conduct stand-alone speaking examinations. During the exams, students answer some open-ended questions asked by the instructor and their performances are evaluated according to a rubric designed by each institution itself. The names of the exams do not differ much, only U9 prefers to define it as Oral Exam.

As for the number of assessment components given by each institution, it ranges from 8 to 5 ($M=5,55$; $SD=1,15$) and most of the PYP schools have 5 different assessment components (see Table 15 and Figure 15). However, as described above, these components differ a lot from one institution to another. Correspondingly, the percentage weights differ so much even for the same component across the PYP schools. Even for midterm exams, which are to be conducted as stated in YOK policy (2022a), some universities use the percentage 50% although they also have 5 assessment components.

Table 15

The frequency of assessment components per institution

Institution	Number of Assessment Components
U1	5
U2	8
U3	4
U4	5
U5	6
U6	5
U7	5
U8	4
U9	6

Table 15 (cont.d)

U10	5
U11	5
U12	5
U13	7
U14	6
U15	7
U16	7
U17	7
U18	4
U19	5
U20	5
M	5.55
SD	1.15

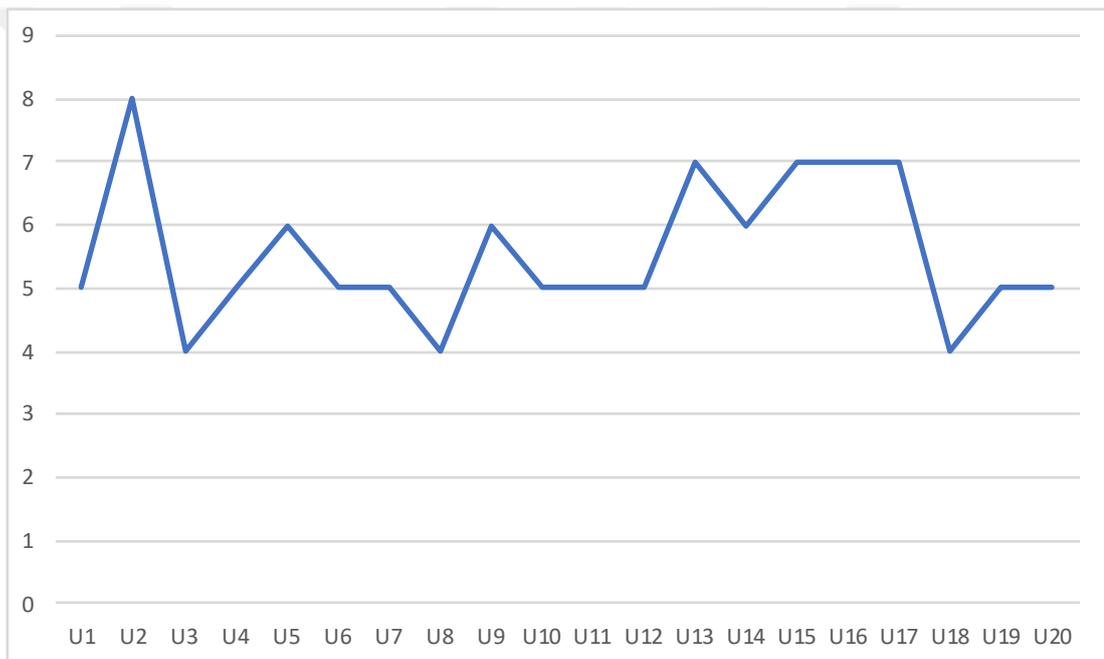


Figure 14. The frequency of assessment components per institution

the number of assessment components the PYP schools use during their semesters as in their content and types. Some PYP schools (U19, U12, U11, U15, and U16) even prepare different assessment components and higher weight percentages for the departments of English language and literature, English translation and interpreting studies, American culture and literature, and English language education as students who choose these departments mostly have a high level of English PYP school curricula vary a lot in many aspects as described in 4.3.3.1, 4.3.3.2, and 4.3.3.3. Such a variation can also be observed in the English courses provided for the EMI, or TMI departments, which is described in the next section.

4.3.5. EAP/ESP/EGP/EGAP courses given for undergraduate departments.

All Turkish universities must provide undergraduate students with foreign language courses if the medium of instruction is Turkish just as it is stated in the relevant policy:

For 100% TMI programs, no compulsory foreign language PYP can be given except for vocational foreign language lessons (YOK, 2022a).

(Section II, Article, 44c, Government, 2022a)

These courses are given by the English PYP schools or sub-units of these schools, which are usually called Modern/Western Languages/Foreign Languages Unit/Department. Given as EAP, EGP or ESP, the schools define their own curricula, course books and materials without any necessary to follow a centralized education system prepared and organized by Council of Higher Education. Thus, each English PYP school works on the curricula of the courses on their own or collaborates with the departments to determine the students' needs and then assigns instructors to give English courses to first- and second-year students. The same or similar lessons are also provided as compulsory or elective courses for 100% or/and 30% the EMI students if the university senates agree that the EMI students need English support during their undergraduate education. The content of the lessons either remains the same as those for TMI departments or is prepared in accordance with the curricula of the departments. At some universities, EMI departments rather than English PYP schools organize and give these lessons if they decide that the course should also provide technical knowledge, texts, and vocabulary.

Considering the content of these lessons, the PYP schools or/and departments use ready-made course books or prepare booklets or packs themselves. Whatever the course book is, the institutions follow the ESP and EAP/EGAP approaches described in the literature (see Section 2.3). The English PYP schools do not include any detailed information regarding these courses in either their handbooks or legislations. The syllabi and details of the courses are shared either on the websites of the PYP schools whose meso documents were analysed by the present study or on the main websites of the universities. The researcher presented information regarding the names of the courses, the departments they are offered to, and whether they are offered by the PYP schools or the departments on a table (see Appendix C3).

The number of courses provided to TMI or EMI departments vary a lot across institutions regardless of their types, foundation or state, the total number of TMI and/or EMI departments, and the region ($M=7,95$; $SD= 4,31$). The institutions provide courses according to their students' needs if they have the required academic staff qualified in their PYP schools or departments (see Table 16 and Figure 20). For instance, U15 is a reputable state university which was among the first to give 100% EMI in all of their departments in Turkey, but it provides only 4 courses for the EMI departments. This is because the students at the university take an intensive course adapted for their undergraduate studies at the English PYP school. Conversely, U14 is another reputable state university but it does not give EMI for all of its departments. Therefore, it provides 14 different courses for all TMI and EMI departments. Similarly, U5 and U7 are among the universities with the biggest number of departments, however, they do not give EMI to all their departments. Therefore, they both provide 15 different courses for their TMI and EMI departments (see Table 16 and Appendix C1).

Table 16

The frequency of EAP/ESP/EGP/EGAP courses per institution

Institution	The number of EAP/ESP/EGP/EGAP courses provided	The number of courses provided by English PYP schools	The number of courses provided by departments
U1	4	4	-
U2	2	2	-
U3	1	1	-
U4	11	8	-
U5	15	13	2
U6	12	12	-
U7	15	6	9
U8	5	5	-
U9	8	8	-
U10	11	11	-
U11	8	5	3
U12	12	10	2
U13	8	6	2
U14	14	10	4

Table 16 (cont.d)

U15	4	4	-
U16	8	8	-
U17	3	3	-
U18	7	6	1
U19	4	4	-
U20	7	7	-
M	7.95	6.65	3.29
SD	4.31	3.33	2.69

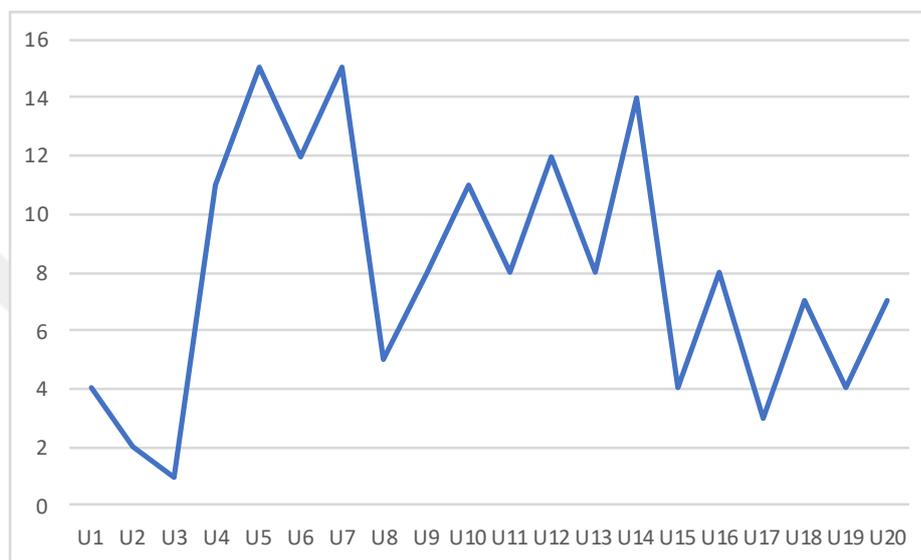


Figure 15. The frequency of EAP/ESP/EGP/EGAP courses per institution

According to Table 17, most of these courses are offered by English PYP schools ($M=6,65$, $SD=3,33$) within the institutions whose meso documents were analysed by the present study. In only 7 (35%) institutions provide some of its courses through the undergraduate departments. These institutions are mostly state universities specialized in technical EMI for engineering and architecture departments.

As for the names of the courses, there are no clear-cut descriptions stated in either macro or meso documents (see Appendix C3). Although the content of the courses is the same, one university (e.g., U1) may call a course Foreign Language while another (e.g., U7) may call it General English or even Academic English. Similarly, even though U13 and U17, for instance, use the same main course book, the former calls are English while the latter calls it Academic English. So, universities adapt the names of the courses according to their students' needs and the departments they have. In order to calculate the frequency of each course, the researcher categorized the courses into six groups according to their purposes, which are Academic,

Occupational, Skill Development, Integrated Skill Development, Business, and Technical (see Appendix C3). Accordingly, Academic group includes courses intended to develop English for a specific field such as *Language of Social Thought*, Occupational group includes courses intended to develop use of English for certain job branches like culinary such as *Maritime English*, Skill Development includes courses intended to develop one of four language skills such as *Academic Writing*, Integrated Skill Development includes courses intended to develop four main language skills in a single main course such as *Foreign Language I, II*, Business includes courses intended to develop English for business communication such as *Business Foreign Language*, and Technical includes courses intended to develop English for technical knowledge such as *Technical Writing*. Figure 17 displays the frequency of these groups:

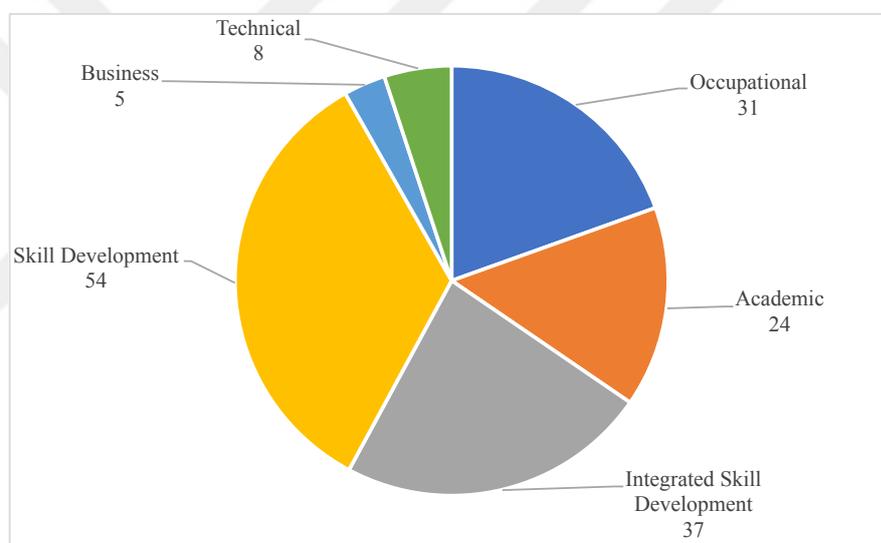


Figure 16. The frequency of EAP/ESP/EGP/EGAP courses' purposes

Most of the universities aim to develop their students' individual skills (n=54) and integrated skills (n=37) (See Figure 17). Some of them also concentrate on developing their English for specific occupational purposes (n=31) and for academic purposes (n=24). And not many of them prefer to provide technical or business courses.

There is a lot of variation in the types of the courses. For instance, while one university (e.g., U1) gives Occupational English as ESP, another (e.g., U14) another gives it as EGAP. Figure 18 displays the frequency of the courses given by the institutions whose meso documents were analyzed by the present study:

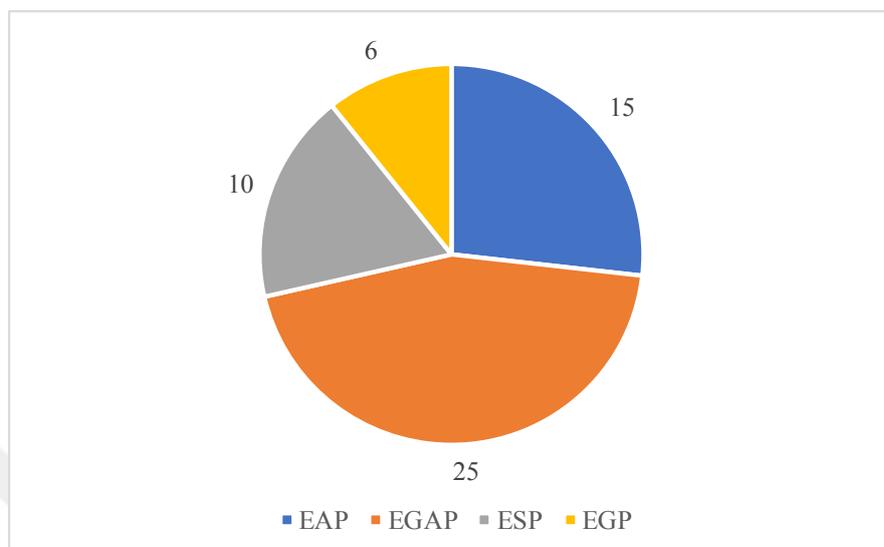


Figure 17. The frequency of EAP/ESP/EGP/EGAP courses

According to Figure 18, most of the lessons given are EGAP ($n=25$) while some of them ($n=15$) are EAP and others are ESP ($n=10$) and EGP ($n=6$). These courses are offered to various departments of the universities. Mostly, ESP and EGP courses are only offered to TMI while the others are offered to both TMI and EMI departments (see Appendix C3).

The variation persists when the course types are analysed across groups defined by the researcher (see Figure 19). Integrated Skills Development, Occupational, and Skill Development courses are given in more varied types than the other groups. In some universities, while one of them is given as EAP, it is given as EGAP or ESP in others. The universities provide those courses according to the needs of their students or the qualifications of the staff working in the departments in which they teach through EMI. However, the curriculum and syllabi of the departments, the major courses given for the departments such as engineering, economy, and business administration courses do not vary a lot as long as they are given through EMI. This is because all Turkish universities must conform to some international standards like those stated in Bologna Process (see Section 1.1.2.). As universities do not have a legislation or a policy to follow as far as the syllabi, content, and curricula of

EAP/ESP/EGP/EGAP are concerned, they also take autonomous decisions in this aspect.

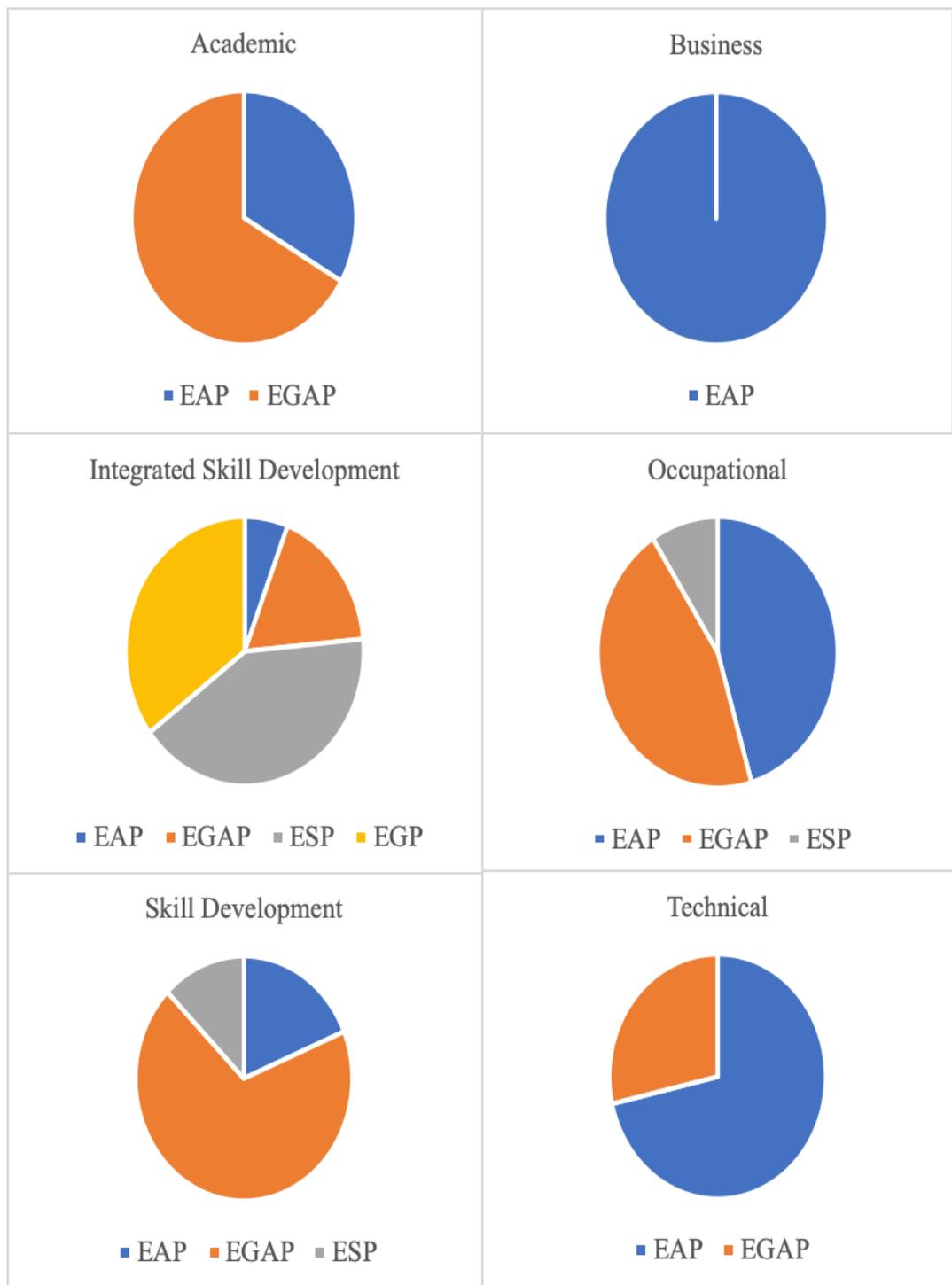


Figure 18. The frequencies of EAP/ESP/EGP/EGAP courses per group

As the above findings show, meso policies and curricula of the English PYP schools as well as the language courses they provide for undergraduate departments vary a lot across institutions although they seem to comply with similar handbooks and legislations. As English PYP schools are the backbones of the undergraduate departments in Turkish tertiary EFL system, it is necessary to gather the perceptions of the PYP instructors and students in addition to those of the EMI instructors and students from as many universities as possible. The next section will analyse the findings from instructor, EMI instructor, and student questionnaires.

4.4 Quantitative Findings

4.4.1. Participants' demographic information

4.4.1.1. The EMI students' information The participants were 125 Turkish the EMI students who were taking the EMI courses in 43 different 100% EMI departments at 14 universities from 4 different regions of Turkey. They all completed their English PYP one or two years before and therefore eligible for EMI programs as far as their English proficiency was concerned. As each university conducts their own preparatory program, their English levels may vary a bit although it is required by each institution that students complete B2 before they start the EMI courses (see 4.3.4.2). The participants were attending the EMI courses when they took part in the online survey. The online questionnaire links were sent to all higher education institutions in Turkey and the EMI students who volunteered (n=125) took the survey.

Table 18 summarizes the EMI students' demographic information. The data shows that more female the EMI students (58.4%) participated in the survey than male the EMI students. The gender ratio is 73% and 52% (female and male, respectively). Most of both female and male the EMI students were from Marmara region.

The EMI experience of the EMI students who responded to the online questionnaire was also varied. EMI experience was divided into 2 spans: less than 5 years and more than 5 years (see Table 22). Most of the EMI students (53.6%) had EMI experience for more than 5 years. Majority of the EMI students (n=112) were from Marmara region and the number of the EMI students from this region with either span of experience (n=55, for less than 5 years, n=57, for more than five years)

were almost equal. There was not any EMI student who participated from Central Anatolia with experience for less than 5 years. The number of the EMI students participating from the other regions ranged from 1 to 9.

As shown in Table 18, the school year of the EMI students who participated in the study ranged from 1st to 4th year of the department they were studying at. Majority of the EMI students (n=40) were 2nd-year students and there were fewer (n=22) 4th-year the EMI students than 1st, 2nd and 3rd-year students. Most of the EMI students (n=112) were from Marmara region. No 1st, 2nd, or 3rd year the EMI students participated in the online questionnaire from Central Anatolia. Similarly, no 1st or 3rd year the EMI students participated in the study from the Mediterranean region. The number of the EMI students participating from the regions other than Marmara ranged from 1 to 9.

Most of the EMI students' universities (n=112), as it can be expected from the above findings, are in Marmara region. The regions where the other universities are located in are Aegean, Central Anatolia, and the Mediterranean. 9 of the universities are located in Central Anatolia while only 3 and 1 of them are located in Aegean and the Mediterranean, respectively. As Table 18 displays, most of the EMI students (n=25) are from University C, which is followed by University I and University K with 23 and 20 participants, respectively.

As far as the departments are concerned, the EMI students who participated in the study were mostly from the department of Political Sciences and International Relations (n=12), which is followed by Computer Engineering (n=9), Biomedical Engineering (n=6), Economics (n=6), English Language and Literature (n=6), International Relations (n=6), Sociology (n=6), Business Administration (n=4), Industrial Engineering (n=4), and Physics (n=4). The number of female and male the EMI students in each department varies a lot. As a matter of fact, there are no male or female participants from some departments.

4.4.1.2. PYP students' information The participants were 100 English PYP students who were taking general English courses in the PYP schools of 15 universities in Turkey, which were located in the Mediterranean, Central Anatolia, and Marmara.

Students' English level varied from basic to advance although the definition for each level changed a lot from region to region (see 4.3.4.2). They were attending different semesters of their school at the time of the study. The links for online survey were sent to the PYP schools of each university in the country and the students who volunteered responded to the questions.

Table 18 displays the students' demographic information. According to the table, there were more female participants (61%) than male participants (36%) in the study. Only three of the students preferred not to specify their gender.

The universities where the participant English preparatory students were taking their education were located in the Mediterranean, Central Anatolia, and Marmara regions. Majority of the students (n=72) were from Marmara region. Only 1 PYP school student participated from the Mediterranean while 27 were from Central Anatolia.

The PYP students had different EMI experience ranging from less than five years to more than five years, which were specified as the time spans in the current study. The PYP students who had more than 5 years of experience were more in number (n=70) than those with less than 5 years of experience (n=30). As there were more participants from Marmara region, the number of participants with either time span was the highest in the region as table 23 shows. There were more respondents with more than 5 years of experience (n= 54) than those with less than 5 years of experience (n=18) in the region. Similarly, the number of respondents with more than 5 years of experience from Central Anatolia (n=15) was slightly higher than the number of those with less than 5 years of experience (n=12). From the Mediterranean region, however, there was only one respondent, who had more than 5 years of EMI experience.

Based on the results reported in Table 18, the 6-month academic terms in which the PYP students were studying varied greatly from 1st to 5th. The number of the respondents who were in their 2nd term (n=46) was higher than those studying in their 1st, 3rd, 4th, or 5th term. The number of students who had just started their English PYP school was 31 while the number of those who had almost completed their PYP or who

were in their 4th or 5th terms was 14. Thus, the great majority of the PYP students who participated in the present study was either in their 1st or 2nd terms. The one respondent from the Mediterranean region was in his or her 1st term. Most of the students from Central Anatolia (n=17) were in their 1st terms while most of those from Marmara (n=42) were in their 2nd terms. The number of respondents in their 3rd, 4th or 5th academic terms ranged from 5 to 9.

The PYP students participated in the present study from various universities all over the country. As there were more participants from Marmara region, most of the institutions (n=72) were located there. Majority of the students were from University P (n=20), which is in Marmara, University R (n=20), which is in Central Anatolia, and University I (n=18), which is in Marmara region. The number of participants studying at the other universities ranged from 1 to 10.

The PYP students' departments varied greatly too. While there was only 1 student from such departments as architecture and psychology, there were 2 to 7 respondents from the other departments. Most of the students studying at English PYP schools were from department of Translation and Interpreting Studies (n=23), which was followed by International Relations (n=7), Molecular Biology and Genetics (n=7), Industrial Engineering (n=6), and Mechanical Engineering (n=6). In total, 33 departments were identified.

4.4.1.3. The EMI instructors' information The participants were 100 Turkish EMI instructors, aged between 29 and 77, who were giving the EMI courses in 36 different 100% EMI majors at 27 different Turkish universities, which are located in 5 different regions of the country. All the EMI instructors met the certain criteria for English proficiency needed to teach majors in Turkish universities. For instance, before getting employed, they received at least 60 out of 100 from national exams such as YDS and YÖKDİL foreign language exams. They were giving the EMI courses in the institutions they were working for at the time of the study. The relevant link for the EMI instructor questionnaire was sent to all Turkish universities and those EMI instructors who volunteered to share their responses answered the questionnaire.

The instructors' gender by the location of their universities is summarized on Table 19. According to the data, there were more male (n=58) than female participants (n=41), and only 1 participant decided not to specify the gender. As it was the case with the other types of respondents, there were more the EMI instructors participating in the present study from Marmara region (n=70) than those from the other 4 regions. In addition, most of the female (n=28) and male participants (n=41) were from Marmara region.

The number of the participants from Aegean region (n=15) could only be surpassed by the number of those participating from Marmara region. The number of female participants (n=8) was slightly higher than male participants (n=7).

The participants (n=10) from the Mediterranean, it was relatively lower while there were only 2 participants from Central Anatolia and 1 participant from Black Sea region. There were more male participants (n=6) from Marmara region, no female participants from Central Anatolia and Black Sea regions.

EMI experiences of the participants ranged from 1-2 years to more than 10 years. The EMI experiences of the EMI instructors were divided into eight different time spans: < 1 year, 1 to 2 years, 2 to 4 years, 4 to 6 years, 6 to 8 years, 8 to 10 years, and more than 10 years. Most of the participants (n=39) had more than 10-year EMI experience and majority of them were from Marmara region. There were 6 the EMI instructors from the Mediterranean region, 3 EMI instructors from Aegean region, and 1 EMI instructor from Black Sea region, who had more than 10-year EMI experience (see Table 18). A great large of the remaining participants had either less than 1 year EMI experience (n=16) or 2-4 year-EMI experience (n=14). The numbers of the EMI instructors with 4 to 6 year-EMI experience and 8 to 10-year EMI experience were equal (n=9). Additionally, there were only 2 participants with 1 to 2 year-EMI experience, who were both from Marmara region. The number of participants with any length of experience in the other regions ranged from 0 to 6.

Most of the participants (n=58) held Post Doc degree as far as their education levels are concerned (see Table 19). And the number of participants with PhD degree (n=36) followed those with Post Doc degree. As far as the regions are concerned, those

with the highest number of participants, which are Mediterranean, Aegean, and Marmara, included the highest number of the EMI instructors with Post Doc degree (n=8, n=11, n=37, respectively). And, as far as their EMI experiences are concerned, the EMI instructors with more than 10 years of experience held either Post Doc degree (n=30) or PhD degree (n=9). They were followed by the EMI instructors with less than 1 year of EMI experience, who held PhD degrees (n=8), and those with 2 to 4 years of EMI experience, who held Post Doc degrees (n=8).

Most of the participants in the study were working at University K (n=15) and University C (n=9) at the time of the study and both universities are located in Marmara region. They were followed by University F (n=7), University G (n=7), and University B (n=6). The number of participants from the other universities ranged from 1 to 5. Most of these universities were from either Mediterranean (n=10) or Aegean (n=15) regions.

As far as the majors the EMI instructors were teaching in are concerned, 35 different departments were identified. The number of participants working in each department varied a lot, ranging from 1 to 9. Most of the participants (n=9) were teaching in the department of Mechanical Engineering while there was only 1 participant from such departments as Advertisement, Basic Sciences, and History. 5 of the Mechanical Engineering departments belonged to universities in Marmara region while 3 of them belonged to universities in Mediterranean region and only one of them belonged to one in Aegean region. The numbers of participants teaching in the departments of Business Administration, Economics, and Medicine (n=6, for each) followed the number of those teaching in Mechanical Engineering departments. Most of these departments belonged to universities in Marmara region, too.

4.4.1.4. English PYP instructors' information Aged between 25 and 62, 100 instructors of Turkish origin who were working at 28 different Turkish universities participated in the present study. They all met the requirements for working at English PYP school units of foundation or state universities in Turkey. They were all teaching EFL to teenagers in their institutions at the time of study. The online link for the English PYP instructors' questionnaires were sent to every single Turkish university and the instructors who were volunteered shared their responses.

In Table 18, the instructors' demographic information was summarized. According to the Table 19, more female (n=53) than male (n=47) instructors participated in the study and there were participants from five different regions. The majority of the male (n=32) and female (n=38) participants were from Marmara region. The number of participants from the other four regions ranged from 3 to 8.

The instructors' experiences ranged from 2 to 4 years to more than 10 years. The instructors' teaching experience was divided into eight different time spans: < 1 year, > 5 years, 2 to 4 years, < 5 years, 4 to 6 years, 6 to 8 years, 8 to 10 years, and > 10 years. According to Table 27, majority of the instructors (n=33) had more than 10 years of teaching experience and most of them (n=17) were working at universities in Marmara region. And those with more than 5 years of teaching experience followed them (n=21), 16 of whom were working at universities in Marmara region. The participants with less than 5 years of teaching experience (n=13) and those with 8-to-10 years of teaching experience (n=10) followed them. Only 3 of the instructors had less than 1 year of teaching experience and the number of those with 4 to 6 years of experience was the same.

The majority of the instructors (n=62) had never taught through EMI before while some of them (n=38) had done so before.

Although the certificates which the instructors held varied a lot as shown in Table 28, most of the participants (n=35) had not received any. They were followed by those who held a CELTA (n=18), those who held both a CELTA and a Pedagogical Formation certificate (n=15), and those who held only a Pedagogical Formation certificate (n=14). The number of participants who held the other certificated ranged from 1 to 3.

The universities for which the instructors were working varied as much as the certificates held by them. The number of participants per institution ranged from 1 to 12. Majority of the participants were from University I (n=12) and University A (n=9). They were followed by University B (n=8) and University H (n=8). The number of participants from the other universities ranged from 1 to 6.

Table 17

Demographic Information for EMI and PYP Students

		EMI Students	PYP Students
Gender	Male	52	36
	Female	73	61
	Not specified	-	3
Region	Marmara	112	72
	Aegean	9	1
	Mediterranean	3	-
	Central Anatolia	1	27
EMI Experiences	Less than 5 years	58	30
	More than 5 years	67	70
School Year/Term	First year/term	33	31
	Second year/term	40	46
	Third year/term	30	9
	Fourth year/term	22	9
	Fifth term	-	5

Table 18

Demographic Information for EMI and PYP Instructors

		EMI Instructors	PYP Instructors
Gender	Male	58	53
	Female	41	47
	Not specified	1	-
Region	Marmara	70	70
	Black Sea	1	3
	Aegean	15	7
	Mediterranean	10	8
	Central Anatolia	-	8
	Eastern Anatolia	2	4
EMI Experiences	1 to 2 years	2	13
	2 to 4 years	14	9
	4 to 6 years	9	3
	6 to 8 years	7	8
	8 to 10 years	9	10
	Less than 1 year	16	3
	More than 10 years	39	33
	More than 5 years	4	21

Table 18 (cont.d)

	MA	6	-
Education	PHD	36	-
	Post Doc	58	-
	CELTA-P	-	1
	CELTA	-	18
	CELTA + DELTA	-	3
	CELTA + Pedagogical formation	-	15
	CELTA, PTC	-	1
	DELTA	-	2
	DELTA + Pedagogical formation	-	1
Language Certificates	ICELT + DELTA	-	2
	Pedagogical formation	-	14
	Pedagogical formation + ICELT	-	2
	Pedagogical formation + TEFL	-	1
	SIT + TESOL	-	1
	TESOL	-	4
	None	-	35

4.4.2. Perceptions of English as a medium of instruction

4.4.2.1. The EMI students' data The EMI students were asked to share perceptions of EMI by rating their responses on twelve statements on the scale specifically adapted for the present study and described in Chapter 3. The reliability analysis showed that although the *Cronbach's Alpha* value of the perception scale was initially 0.8, the value of *Corrected Item-Total Correlation* of the item *I have to spend more time preparing for EMI courses* was less than 0.3. This item did not correlate with the rest of the scale and was therefore deleted. Afterwards, the reliability of statistics for the remaining eleven items jumped to 0.83, interpreted as *Cronbach's Alpha* value, and *Corrected Item-Total Correlation* was at 0.3 or higher.

Table 19

Descriptive Statistics of the EMI Students' Perceptions of EMI

Items	M	SD
EMI courses help students learn foreign languages.	2.62	1.21
EMI courses help students learn the content area knowledge.	2.62	1.27
EMI courses prepare students for international workplaces.	2.90	1.29
I am satisfied with the EMI courses I have been attending.	2.37	1.55
EMI courses help me learn English.	2.54	1.35
EMI courses are useful to my future career.	3.06	1.30
EMI courses make me more confident in communication in English.	2.57	1.47
EMI courses help me understand the content of the subject.	2.56	1.45
English is the only language that should be used in the EMI courses.	2.14	1.19
EMI courses motivate me to study English.	2.01	1.46
Universities are the right places for preparing students for EMI courses.	1.99	1.42
Item M	2.49	
Item SD	1.36	
Total M	27.38	
Total SD	9.10	

Seven items had mean scores higher than the average, 2.49 and four items had lower mean scores than the overall mean. The findings revealed that the EMI students generally agreed with the statements. The item *the EMI courses are useful to my future career* had the highest mean score ($M=3.06$, $SD= 1.30$) while the item *Departments are the right places for preparing students for the EMI courses* had the lowest score ($M=1.99$, $SD=1.42$).

Further analysis was conducted by the researcher to find out whether the demographic factors gender, regions, EMI experience, school year, and university had an impact on Turkish the EMI students' perceptions of EMI.

An *Independent Sample t-test* was conducted to test the differences in the EMI students' perceptions according to their gender. According to the group statistics, overall mean scores of male and female the EMI students' perceptions of EMI were 26.75 and 27.82, respectively. As the numbers were similar, it was expected that there were no differences in the EMI students' perceptions of EMI according to gender $t(123) = -0.65, p > 0.05$.

Additional statistical results similarly indicated there were no differences in the EMI students' perceptions of EMI according to their universities, $p > 0.05$. Instead of *One-Way ANOVA*, non-parametric *Independent Sample Kruskal Wallis test* was conducted to test the EMI students' perceptions of EMI according to universities because there was no homogeneity of variances according to *Levene's Test*, $p < 0.05$. The overall mean score of the universities was 27.38 and the mean scores of the universities ranged between 22.64 and 42.00.

As for the locations of the universities, or the regions, the results from *One-Way ANOVA* test showed that there were not significant differences in the EMI students' perceptions of EMI according to regions, [$F(13,111) = 1.34, p > 0.05$]. The overall mean of the regions was 27.38 and the means of the regions ranged from 26 to 33.60.

Considering the EMI students' departments, there was no homogeneity of variances according to *Levene's Test* $p < 0.05$, so non-parametric *Independent Sample Kruskal Wallis test* was performed. According to the results, there were no differences in the EMI students' perceptions of EMI according to their departments, $p > 0.05$. The overall mean score of the departments was 27.38 and the mean scores of the departments ranged from 16.00 to 44.00.

When the school years were considered, the results from *One-Way ANOVA* showed that there were not significant differences in the EMI students' perceptions of EMI according to the school year they were studying in [$F(3, 121) = 0.23, p > 0.05$]. As for the overall mean score according to the school years, it was 27.38 and the mean scores ranged between 26.57 and 28.45.

Similarly, the *Independent Sample* t-test conducted to test the effect of EMI experiences of the EMI students on their perceptions of EMI showed that there were not significant differences in their perceptions $t(123) = -0.64, p > 0.05$. The overall mean score according to EMI experiences was 27.38 and the mean scores for *less than 5 years* and *more than 5 years* were 26.81 and 27.87, respectively.

4.4.2.2. The EMI instructors' data The EMI instructors responded fifteen items on their questionnaires and rated their responses according to their perceptions of EMI. Thirteen items were retained with different values of Corrected Item-Total Correlation were retained to improve the reliability of the scale. The items *the EMI courses focus only on language* and *English and Turkish can be used to deliver lectures in the EMI courses* were deleted. All the remaining thirteen items were also retained because the value of Cronbach Alpha (0.7) did not change if they were deleted. Table 20 shows the descriptive statistics of the scale for the EMI instructors' perceptions of EMI.

Table 20

Descriptive Statistics of EMI Instructors' Perceptions of EMI

Items	N	M	SD
Universities are the right place for EMI courses.	100	2.66	1.21
EMI courses help students learn English as a foreign language.	100	2.40	1.31
EMI courses help students learn the content area knowledge.	100	2.05	1.44
EMI courses prepare students for international workplaces.	100	2.92	1.21
EMI courses are useful for students' future career.	100	3.09	1.14
EMI in Turkey is a timely response to globalization and internationalization.	100	2.68	1.33
EMI courses require EMI instructors to spend more time preparing for lessons before class.	100	2.67	1.29
EMI instructors spend time improving their students' English.	100	2.48	1.28
EMI courses focus on English language teaching for specified needs of the learner or specified purposes.	100	2.17	1.43

Table 20 (cont.d)

EMI courses provide professional knowledge and new professional skills for students' acquisition.	100	2.37	1.33
EMI courses focus on both language and the subject-area content.	100	2.44	1.27
EMI courses focus only on subject-area content.	100	2.27	1.04
English is the only language used in EMI courses.	100	2.43	1.37
Item M	2.51		
Item SD	1.28		
Cronbach's Alpha	0.7		
Total M	32.63		
Total SD	7.77		

The EMI instructors felt least certain about how much the EMI courses help their students learn the content area knowledge ($M = 2.05$, $SD = 1.44$) and how much the EMI courses focus on English language teaching for specified needs and purposes ($M = 2.17$, $SD = 1.43$). They mostly thought that the EMI courses helped their students' future career ($M = 3.09$, $SD = 1.14$) and prepared them for international workplaces ($M = 2.92$, $SD = 1.21$). Similarly, they thought that universities are the right places for education through EMI ($M = 2.66$, $SD = 1.21$) and that EMI is a timely response for globalization and internationalization in their country ($M = 2.68$, $SD = 1.33$). And majority of the EMI instructors agreed that they must prepare more for the EMI courses ($M = 2.67$, $SD = 1.29$).

One-Way ANOVA test was conducted to test whether there were significant differences in the EMI instructors' perceptions according to their gender, education, region, EMI experiences, universities, and age. The findings showed that there were no significant differences [$F(2, 97) = 0.77$, $p > 0.05$] according to three different gender responses, male ($N=58$), female ($N=41$) and not specified ($N=1$). And the mean scores were 33.44, 31.51, and 31, respectively. Similarly, there were no significant differences according to education, PhD, MA, and Post Doc, the mean scores of which were 33.56, 33.67, and 31.95, respectively [$F(2, 97) = 0.53$, $p > 0.05$].

As for the regions the EMI instructors were working in, there were no significant differences in the participants' EMI [$F(5, 94) = 0.45, p > 0.05$]. The mean scores for Mediterranean, Eastern Anatolia, Aegean, Central Anatolia, Black Sea, and Marmara were 33.10, 37.00, 34.13, 28.00, 29.00, and 23.30, respectively. The overall mean score for the regions was 32.63.

However, considering the universities the EMI instructors were working at, there was a significant difference in their perceptions of EMI as shown in Table 21. EMI [$F(26, 73) = 2.49, p < 0.05$]. The mean scores from the universities ranged between 20.00 (University O) and 38.80 (University H). The overall mean score was 32.63.

Table 21

The Results of One Way ANOVA for the EMI Instructors' perceptions of EMI by universities

	Sum of Squares	df	M Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2812.096	26	108.158	2.499	0.01
Within Groups	3159.214	73	43.277		
Total	5971.310	99			

As for the departments of the EMI instructors, there was no homogeneity of variances according to *Levene's Test* $p < 0.05$, so non-parametric *Independent Sample Kruskal Wallis test* was performed. According to the results, there were no differences in the EMI instructors' perceptions of EMI according to their departments, $p > 0.05$. The overall mean score of the departments was 32.63 and the mean scores of the departments ranged between 20.00 and 47.00.

The EMI experiences and ages of the EMI instructors did not influence their perceptions of EMI significantly, either, according to the results of *One-Way ANOVA* tests [$F(7, 92) = 0.53, p < 0.05$], [$F(33, 36) = 1.31, p < 0.05$], respectively. The overall mean score of the eight spans of experience was 32.63 and the mean scores ranged between 29.85 and 34.00. The overall mean scores ranged between 16.00 and 45.33.

4.4.2.3. PYP students' data The PYP students answered twelve items and shared their responses regarding their perceptions of EMI. Eleven items with the value of

Corrected Item-Total Correlation at or more than 0.35 were retained to improve the reliability. The value of *Corrected Item-Total Correlation* of the item *Although I am receiving English PYP Education, I will have to spend more time preparing for EMI courses* was less than 0.35. After the item had been deleted, the Cronbach's Alpha value rose to 0.8. On Table 34, the description of the reliability analysis of the scale is presented.

The overall mean score of the ten items was 2.48 (see Table 22). The six of the items had mean score higher than 2.48. The findings indicated that the PYP students mostly agreed with the statements regarding the perceptions of EMI. The highest mean score belonged to the item *I am satisfied with my English PYP* ($M = 2.90$, $SD = 1.19$). The PYP students were also mostly of the opinion that *Thanks to the English preparatory education, the EMI courses will be useful to their future career* ($M = 2.78$, $SD = 1.23$). Similarly, most of them agreed with the statement that *English PYP helps Turkish students learn English for the EMI courses* ($M = 2.77$, $SD = 1.12$). The students also agreed with the statement that *English is the only language used in English PYP school* ($M = 2.68$, $SD = 1.04$). In addition, the statements *Thanks to English preparatory education, EMI prepares Turkish students for international workplaces* and *English PYP schools are the right places to prepare the students for the EMI courses* were among those the students mostly agreed with ($M = 2.54$, $SD = 1.37$, $M = 2.49$, $SD = 1.30$).

Table 22

Descriptive Statistics of the PYP Students' Perceptions of EMI

Items	M	SD
English PYP schools are the right places to prepare the students for EMI courses.	2.49	1.30
English PYP helps students learn English for EMI courses.	2.77	1.12
Thanks to English PYP, students are prepared for international workplaces.	2.54	1.37
I am satisfied with my English PYP.	2.90	1.19
English PYP helps me learn English for EMI courses.	2.46	1.31
English PYP will be useful to my future career.	2.78	1.23
English PYP makes me more confident in communicating in English related to my field (related to my major).	2.42	1.39
English PYP helps me understand the content knowledge more easily.	2.08	1.36
English is the only language that should be used in English PYP schools.	2.68	1.04
English PYP motivates me to study English for future EMI courses.	2.16	1.39
English PYP helps students learn content knowledge for future EMI courses.	2.04	1.22
Item M	2.48	
Item SD	1.25	
Cronbach's Alpha	0.8	
Total M	27.32	
Total SD	7.64	

One-Way ANOVA tests were conducted to test whether there were significant differences in the PYP students' perceptions according to gender, region, school term, and EMI experience. According to the statistical findings, there were not significant differences in the students' perceptions of EMI according to gender [$F(2, 97) = 1.65, p > 0.05$], school term [$F(4, 95) = 1.21, p > 0.05$], and EMI experiences [$F(1, 98) = 2.45, p > 0.05$]. The mean scores ranged between 25.67 and 31.67 for three types of gender, between 25.56 and 29.49 for five school terms. And the mean scores for more-than-5 years of EMI experience and less-than-5 years of EMI experience were 29.13 and 26.55, respectively.

However, according to region, there were significant differences in the students' perceptions of EMI as Table 23 shows [$F(2, 97) = 10.70, p < 0.05$]. The mean scores were 33.00, 32.48, and 25.31 for Mediterranean, Central Anatolia and Marmara, respectively.

Table 23

The Results of One-Way ANOVA for PYP Students' Perceptions of EMI by Region

	Sum of Squares	df	M Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1043.741	2	521.871	10.702	0.00
Within Groups	4730.019	97	48.763		
Total	5773.760	99			

Similarly, there were significant differences in the students' perceptions of EMI according to their universities and departments $p < 0.05$. However, there was no homogeneity of variances according to *Levene's Test* $p < 0.05$ for both conditions, so non-parametric *Independent Sample Kruskal Wallis test* was performed. The mean scores ranged between 17.25 (University O) and 44.00 (University U) for universities and between 14.00 (Physics) and 44.00 (Crew Services) for departments as Table 24 displays.

Table 24

The Results of Independent Samples Kruskal Wallis Test for PYP Students' Perceptions of EMI by Universities and Departments

Perceptions across Universities		Perceptions across Departments	
Total N	100	Total N	100
Test Statistic	34.259 ^a	Test Statistic	51.403 ^a
Degree Of Freedom	14	Degree Of Freedom	31
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	0.02	Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	0.01

4.4.2.4. PYP instructors' data The English PYP instructors who participated in the present study shared their perceptions of EMI by responding to fifteen items on the perception scale. According to the reliability analysis, the value of *Cronbach's Alpha* was 0.7 and as the two items *Despite English preparatory education, the EMI courses*

require students to spend more time preparing for lessons before class and English instructors giving English PYP have to spend more time preparing their students for the EMI courses did not correlate with the scale overall, they were removed. Their *Corrected Item-Total Correlation* was already below 0.35.

As it can be understood from Table 25, six items had a mean score higher than 2.75 and the other seven items had mean scores ranging at 2.75 or less. The findings showed that the instructors agreed with most of the statements of the scale. The item *English PYP school focuses on language* has the highest mean score ($M = 3.25$, $SD = 1.00$). In addition, most of the instructors are also of the opinion *Thanks to English preparatory education, EMI is useful for students' future career in their fields* ($M = 3.15$, $SD = 1.00$), *English PYP schools are the right place to prepare the students for the EMI courses* ($M = 2.97$, $SD = 1.24$), *Thanks to English preparatory education, EMI in Turkey is a good response to globalization and internationalization* ($M = 2.93$, $SD = 1.17$), *English PYP helps Turkish students learn English for the general purposes* ($M = 2.89$, $SD = 1.21$), *English PYP school focuses on both language and the subject-area content* ($M = 2.73$, $SD = 1.21$).

Table 25

Descriptive Statistics of PYP Instructors' Perceptions of EMI

Items	M	SD
English PYP schools are the right places to prepare the students for EMI courses.	2.97	1.24
English PYP helps students learn English for general purposes.	2.89	1.21
English PYP helps students learn content area knowledge in English.	2.35	1.44
English PYP prepares students for international workplaces.	2.61	1.23
English PYP is useful for students' future career in their fields.	3.15	1.00
English PYP is a good response to globalization and internationalization.	2.93	1.17
English PYP focuses on English language teaching for specified needs of the learner or specified purposes.	2.61	1.41
English PYP provides professional knowledge and new professional skills for students' acquisition.	2.43	1.37

Table 25 (cont.d)

English PYP focuses on both language and the subject-area content.	2.73	1.21
English PYP focuses on language.	3.25	1.00
English PYP focuses on subject-area content.	2.65	1.35
English and Turkish can be used to deliver courses in English PYP schools.	2.49	1.41
English is the only language used in English PYP.	2.66	1.31
Item M	2.75	
Item SD	1.31	
Cronbach's Alpha	0.7	
Total M	35.72	
Total SD	7.20	

The *One-Way ANOVA tests* were conducted to test whether there were any significant differences in the PYP instructors' perceptions of EMI according to their gender, certificates, EMI experiences, teaching experiences, and regions. The findings revealed that there were not significant differences in the perceptions of EMI according to gender [$F(2, 97) = 0.48, p < 0.05$], certificates [$F(14, 85) = 1.10, p < 0.05$], and EMI experiences [$F(1, 98) = 2.28, p < 0.05$]. The mean scores ranged between 35.13 and 39.00 for three types of answer for the gender, between 27.00 and 48.00 for certificates, and between 34.34 for *Yes* and 36.56 for *No* as far as the EMI experiences are concerned. However, the statistical results showed that there were significant differences in the PYP instructors' perceptions of EMI according to teaching experiences [$F(7, 92) = 2.64, p < 0.05$], and regions [$F(5, 94) = 2.53, p < 0.05$] as shown in Table 26 and Table 27. The mean scores ranged between 31.12 (6 to 8 years of experience) and 42.00 (less than 1 year of experience) for teaching experiences, and between 25.00 (Black Sea) and 40.50 (Eastern Anatolia) for regions.

Table 26

Results of One-Way ANOVA for PYP Instructors' Perceptions of EMI by Teaching Experiences

	Sum of Squares	df	M Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	856.328	7	122.333	2.636	0.02
Within Groups	4269.832	92	46.411		
Total	5126.160	99			

Table 27

Results of One-Way ANOVA for PYP Instructors' Perceptions of EMI by Regions

	Sum of Squares	df	M Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	617.014	5	123.403	2.573	0.03
Within Groups	4509.146	94	47.970		
Total	5126.160	99			

As there was no homogeneity of variances according to *Levene's Test* $p < 0.05$ for both age and university, non-parametric *Independent Sample Kruskal Wallis test* was performed. Accordingly, there were no significant differences in the PYP instructors' perceptions of EMI according to age $p > 0.05$. However, the instructors' perceptions of EMI differed significantly $p < 0.05$ as far as the institutions they were working at are concerned, as shown in Table 28. The mean scores ranged between 23.00 (University R2) and 45.00 (University I2, L2).

Table 28

The Results of Independent Samples Kruskal Wallis Test for PYP Instructors' Perceptions of EMI by Universities

Total N	100
Test Statistic	55.193 ^a
Degree Of Freedom	27
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	0.01

4.4.3. Drivers of EMI in Turkish universities

4.4.3.1. *The EMI students' data.* The EMI students shared their perceptions regarding the drivers of EMI in Turkish universities by responding to a 10-item scale. The value of *Cronbach's Alpha* reliability score was 0.7, with the values of Corrected Item-Total Correlation at or more than 0.3. Table 29 presents the statistics of the relevant scale.

Table 29

Descriptive Statistics of the EMI Students' Perceptions of the Drivers of EMI in Turkish Universities

Items	M	SD
Globalization and internationalization.	3.27	.93
Universities' policies of international student attraction.	2.23	1.40
Students' English language learning needs.	2.95	1.20
The needs to prepare students for international workplaces.	3.07	1.14
Employability for students after they graduate from the universities.	2.92	1.25
The government's and the Council of Higher Education (CoHE)'s current educational policies.	1.75	1.43
The country's cultural engagement in global age.	2.74	1.30
The success of EMI courses in many European and Asian countries.	2.48	1.47
Promotion of the university rankings.	2.16	1.48
Innovation in education.	2.54	1.34
Item M	3.16	
Item SD	1.34	
Cronbach's Alpha	0.7	
Total M	26.14	
Total SD	6.25	

Overall, the statistical findings show that the EMI students generally agreed the statements almost strongly ($M = 3.16$, $SD = 1.34$). *Globalization and internationalization* and *the needs to prepare students for international workplaces* are the two items that received the highest scores, ($M = 3.27$, $SD = 0.93$; $M = 3.07$, $SD = 1.14$, respectively). They are followed by *Employability for students after they graduate from the universities* ($M = 2.92$, $SD = 1.25$), and *the country's cultural*

engagement in global age ($M = 2.74, SD = 1.30$). In the meantime, the item that received the least strong agreement was *The Turkish government and the Council of Higher Education (CoHE)'s current educational policies* ($M = 1.75, SD = 1.43$).

To test whether there was a significant difference in the EMI students' perceptions of the drivers of EMI according to gender, an Independent-sample t-test was conducted. The results showed that there were not any significant differences between female ($M = 26.97, SD = 6.31$) and male ($M = 24.96, SD = 6.04$) participants $t(123) = -1.79, p > 0.05$.

Similarly, the results from One-way ANOVA tests performed showed that there were not any significant differences in the EMI students' perceptions of the drivers of EMI according to university [$F(13, 111) = 0.66, p > 0.05$], department [$F(42, 82) = 1.02, p > 0.05$], EMI experiences [$F(1, 123) = 2.80, p > 0.05$], region [$F(3, 121) = 0.25, p > 0.05$], and school year [$F(3, 121) = 0.74, p > 0.05$].

4.4.3.2. The EMI instructors' data The value of *Cronbach' Alpha* pertaining to the ten items used to investigate the EMI instructors' perceptions of the drivers of EMI at 0.8 indicates that the scale for the participants were also highly reliable as shown on Table 30.

Table 30

Descriptive Statistics of the EMI instructors' perceptions of the drivers of the adoption of EMI in Turkish Universities

Items	M	SD
Globalization and internationalization.	3.44	.50
Universities' policies of international student attraction.	3.20	.40
Students' English language learning needs.	3.38	.49
The needs to prepare students for international workplaces.	3.44	.50
Employability for students after they graduate from the universities.	3.42	.50
The government's and the Council of Higher Education (CoHE)'s current educational policies.	3.15	.36
The country's cultural engagement in global age.	3.33	.47

Table 30 (cont.d)

The success of EMI courses in many European and Asian countries.	3.26	.44
Innovation in education.	3.36	.48
Promotion of the university rankings.	3.35	.48
Item M	3.33	
Item SD	0.48	
Cronbach's Alpha	0.8	
Total M	33.33	
Total SD	2.25	

Overall, the EMI instructors were mostly in agreement with all of the items in the scale ($M = 3.33$, $SD = 0.48$). According to Table 40, the items *Globalization and internationalization* and *the needs to prepare students for international workplaces* have the highest scores ($M = 3.44$, $SD = 0.50$; $M = 3.44$, $SD = 0.50$). The items which have a relatively lower scores are *Employability for students after they graduate from the universities* ($M = 3.42$, $SD = 0.49$) and *Turkish students' English language learning needs* ($M = 3.38$; $SD = 0.49$). The item which has the lowest score is *The Turkish government and the Council of Higher Education (CoHE)'s current educational policies* ($M = 3.15$, $SD = 0.36$).

To compare the overall mean scores according to categorical variables, *One-Way ANOVA tests* were conducted. The results showed that there wasn't significant difference in the EMI instructors' perceptions of the drivers of EMI according to gender [$F(2, 97) = 0.82$, $p > 0.05$], education [$F(2, 97) = 1.30$, $p > 0.05$], and region [$F(5, 94) = 1.44$, $p > 0.05$].

In contrast, there was a significant difference in the participants' perceptions according to age [$F(33, 66) = 1.74$, $p < 0.05$] and university [$F(26, 73) = 1.92$, $p < 0.05$] as shown in Table 31 and Table 32. The mean scores for age ranged between 30.00 and 37.00 and those for universities ranged between 30.00 (University N2, R2, O) and 35.50 (University Y).

Table 31

The Results of One Way Anova for the EMI Instructors Perceptions of the drivers of EMI according to Age

	Sum of Squares	df	M Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	233.893	33	7.088	1.744	0.03
Within Groups	268.217	66	4.064		
Total	502.110	99			

Table 32

The Results of One Way Anova for the EMI Instructors Perceptions of the drivers of EMI according to university

	Sum of Squares	df	M Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	203.915	26	7.843	1.920	0.02
Within Groups	298.195	73	4.085		
Total	502.110	99			

As there was no homogeneity of variances according to *Levene's Test* $p < 0.05$ for department and EMI experiences for the EMI instructors, non-parametric *Independent Sample Kruskal Wallis tests* were performed. The results indicated that there was a significant difference in the EMI instructors' perceptions of the drivers of EMI according to EMI experience $p < 0.05$ as shown in Table 33, but not according to department $p > 0.05$. The mean scores ranged between 31.00 (1 to 2 years of EMI experience) and 34.56 (8 to 10 years of EMI experience).

Table 33

The Results of Independent Samples Kruskal Wallis Test for EMI Instructors' Perceptions of the drivers of EMI-by-EMI Experience

Total N	100
Test Statistic	18.910 ^a
Degree Of Freedom	7
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	0.01

4.4.3.3. PYP students' data The PYP students shared their perceptions of the drivers of EMI by responding to ten items in the relevant scale. The value of *Cronbach's Alpha* is 0.7 for the scale, which indicates there is a reliability. The value of *Corrected Item-Total Correlations* of these items was fixed at 0.3.

Table 34

Descriptive Statistics of the PYP Students' Perceptions of the Drivers of EMI in Turkish Universities

Items	M	SD
Globalization and internationalization.	3.08	1.12
Universities' policies of international student attraction.	2.36	1.37
Students' English language learning needs.	3.22	.927
The needs to prepare students for international workplaces.	3.41	.922
Employability for students after they graduate from the universities.	3.10	1.18
The government's and the Council of Higher Education (CoHE)'s current educational policies.	1.55	1.48
The country's cultural engagement in global age.	2.80	1.14
The success of EMI courses in many European and Asian countries.	3.04	1.09
Promotion of the university rankings.	2.01	1.48
Innovation in education.	2.53	1.47
Item M	2.71	
Item SD	1.29	
Cronbach's Alpha	0.7	

Table 34 (cont.d)

Total M	27.10
Total SD	5.67023

The PYP students agreed with more than half of the statements (see Table 34). The students thought that *the needs to prepare students for international workplaces* ($M = 3.41$, $SD = 0.92$) and *Turkish students' English language learning needs* ($M = 3.22$, $SD = 0.93$) are the most important drivers of the adoption of EMI in Turkish higher education. They are followed by *Employability for students after they graduate from the universities* ($M = 3.10$, $SD = 1.18$), *Globalization and internationalization* ($M = 3.08$, $SD = 1.12$), and *the success of EMI in many European and Asian countries* ($M = 3.04$, $SD = 1.09$). The item which received the lowest score is *The Turkish government and the Council of Higher Education (CoHE)'s current educational policies* ($M = 1.55$, $SD = 1.48$).

An *Independent Sample t-test* was performed to test the differences in the participants' perceptions of the drivers of EMI according to their EMI experiences. According to the statistical findings, overall mean scores of *less-than-five-years* of and *more-than-five-years* of EMI experiences were 27.10. Just because the numbers were the same, there were no differences in the EMI students' perceptions of EMI according to gender $t(109) = -0.23$, $p > 0.05$.

One-Way ANOVA Tests were conducted to compare the mean score of the relevant scale according to gender, school term, and regions. Accordingly, there were not significant differences according to gender [$F(2, 97) = 0.76$, $p > 0.05$], school term [$F(4, 95) = 0.91$, $p > 0.05$], and region [$F(2, 97) = 0.85$, $p > 0.05$].

Non-parametric *Independent Sample Kruskal Wallis tests* were performed to test whether there were any significant differences according to university and department because there was no homogeneity of variances according to *Levene's Test* $p < 0.05$. According to the results, there were significant differences $p < 0.05$ as shown on Tables 36 and 37. The overall mean scores for departments ranged between 35.00 (Mathematics) and 15.00 (Software Engineering) and those for universities ranged between 34.00 (University U, University S) and 16.00 (University Z).

Table 35

The Results of Independent Samples Kruskal Wallis Test for the PYP Students' Perceptions of Drivers of EMI by Universities

Total N	100
Test Statistic	29.791 ^a
Degree Of Freedom	14
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	0.01

Table 36

The Results of Independent Samples Kruskal Wallis Test for the PYP Students' Perceptions of Drivers of EMI by Departments

Total N	100
Test Statistic	46.086 ^a
Degree Of Freedom	31
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	0.01

4.4.3.4. PYP instructors' data The PYP instructors responded to the same number of items in order to share their perceptions of adoption of EMI. The value of *Cronbach's Alpha* was 0.8 and the *Corrected Item-Total Correlations* of the items of the scale was at least 0.3.

According to Table 37, the instructors mostly agreed with the statements regarding the drivers of EMI. They agreed that *Globalization and internationalization* ($M = 3.54$, $SD = 0.70$) and *Employability for students after they graduate from the universities* ($M = 3.54$, $SD = 0.78$) are the most important reasons for adopting EMI in Turkish universities. They are followed by *the needs to prepare students for international workplaces* ($M = 3.47$, $SD = 0.98$) and the country's cultural engagement in global age ($M = 3.05$, $SD = 1.32$). The lowest score belonged to the item *The success of EMI in many European and Asian countries* ($M = 2.41$, $SD = 1.64$).

Table 37

Descriptive Statistics of the PYP Instructors' Perceptions of the Drivers of EMI in Turkish Universities

Items	M	SD
Globalization and internationalization.	3.54	.70
Universities' policies of international student attraction.	2.62	1.37
students' English language learning needs.	3.20	1.12
The needs to prepare students for international workplaces.	3.47	.98
Employability for students after they graduate from the universities.	3.54	.78
The government 's and the Council of Higher Education (CoHE)'s current educational policies.	2.43	1.65
The country's cultural engagement in global age.	3.05	1.32
The success of EMI courses in many European and Asian countries.	2.41	1.64
Promotion of the university rankings.	2.75	1.41
Innovation in education.	2.75	1.49
Item M	2.30	
Item SD	1.43	
Cronbach's Alpha	0.8	
Total M	29.76	
Total SD	6.68	

To test whether there was any significant difference in the PYP instructors' perceptions of the drivers of EMI according to gender and EMI experiences, *Independent Samples t-tests* were performed. According to the results, there was no significant difference according to gender $t(226) = 0.75, p > 0.05$ and EMI experiences $t(347) = 0.67, p > 0.05$. The mean scores for male and female participants were 31.04 and 30.74, respectively, and the mean scores for *yes* and *no* variables of EMI experience were 30.47 and 29.32, respectively.

According to the *One-Way ANOVA tests* conducted to gauge the differences in the participants perceptions of the drivers of EMI, there were no differences according to age [$F(24, 75) = 1.66, p > 0.05$], certificates [$F(14, 85) = 0.92, p > 0.05$], teaching experiences [$F(7, 92) = 0.65, p > 0.05$], and region [$F(5, 94) = 1.10, p > 0.05$].

According to *Independent Sample Kruskal Wallis tests* performed because there was no homogeneity of variances according to *Levene's Test* $p < 0.05$, there was a significant difference in the instructors' perceptions of the drivers of EMI according to their universities $p > 0.05$ as shown in Table 39. The scores between universities ranged between 40.00 (University A2 and University F) and 22.00 (University O).

Table 38

The Results of Independent Samples Kruskal Wallis Test for the PYP Instructors' Perceptions of Drivers of EMI by Universities

Total N	100
Test Statistic	51.351 ^a
Degree Of Freedom	27
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	0.03

4.4.4. The satisfaction with overall language proficiency and language skills for (future) EMI courses

4.4.4.1. The EMI students' data All the participants shared their perceptions of their language proficiency before they or their students start/started their EMI courses by responding to one item *Do you think your' English language proficiency met English language requirements before you took the EMI courses?* from 1 (Not at all) to 5 (Considerably). And they also shared their perceptions of their or their students' language proficiency by responding to seven items related to each language skill on the same scale. The value of *Cronbach's Alpha* was 0.8 and the values of *Corrected Item-Total Correlations* ranged between 0.3 and 0.6.

As shown in Table 39, the overall mean for the first item ($M = 3.38$, $SD = 1.20$) shows that the EMI students were partially satisfied with the English language proficiency before they started their EMI courses. And the mean score of overall language proficiency, which is calculated by adding the scores of all skills, ($M = 19.50$, $SD = 5.24$) shows that the EMI students agreed that EMI had a positive impact on their language proficiency. They were mostly of the opinion that their general vocabulary ($M = 3.16$, $SD = 0.95$) and technical terminology ($M = 3.25$, $SD = 1.09$) improved most thanks to EMI. They are followed by reading skills ($M = 3.07$, $SD = 1.00$),

listening skills ($M = 2.96$, $SD = 1.14$), and writing skills ($M = 2.62$, $SD = 1.38$). The skill which has the lowest score is grammar ($M = 2.18$, $SD = 1.37$). Speaking skills has a bit higher score ($M = 2.26$, $SD = 1.32$).

Table 39

Descriptive Statistics of the EMI Students' Perceptions of the Impact of EMI on their Language Proficiency

	N	M	SD
Listening Skills	125	2.96	1.14
Reading Skills	125	3.07	1.00
Writing Skills	125	2.62	1.38
Speaking Skills	125	2.26	1.32
General Vocabulary	125	3.16	.95
Grammar	125	2.18	1.37
Technical Terminology	125	3.25	1.09
Item M		2.78	
Item SD		1.22	
Cronbach's Alpha		0.8	
Overall Language Proficiency M		19.50	
Overall Language Proficiency SD		5.24	

According to the *Independent Sample t-tests* performed to test whether there were not any significant differences in the EMI students' satisfaction with their language proficiency according to gender and EMI experiences, there were no significant differences $p > 0.05$.

As for the *One-Way ANOVA tests* conducted, there was a significant difference in the EMI students' satisfaction with their language proficiency according to their universities [$F(13, 111) = 2.04$, $p < 0.05$], departments [$F(42, 82) = 1.74$, $p < 0.05$] as shown in Tables 41 and 42, but not according to school year, [$F(3, 121) = 1.14$, $p > 0.05$], region [$F(3, 1221) = 0.47$, $p < 0.05$]. The highest mean score for universities was 28.00 (University M) and the lowest one was 13.20 (University H). And the

highest mean score for the departments was 28.00 (Pre-School Education, European Economy, Financial Economics) and the lowest score was 8.00 (Culinary).

Table 40

The Results of One-Way ANOVA for the EMI Students' Satisfaction with their Overall Language Proficiency according to universities

	Sum of Squares	df	M Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	655.438	13	50.418	2.040	0.02
Within Groups	2743.794	111	24.719		
Total	3399.232	124			

Table 41

The Results of One-Way ANOVA for the EMI Students' Satisfaction with their Overall Language Proficiency according to Departments

	Sum of Squares	df	M Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1602.565	42	38.156	1.741	0.02
Within Groups	1796.667	82	21.911		
Total	3399.232	124			

4.4.4.2. The EMI instructors' data The EMI instructors responded to the same amount of items to share their satisfaction with their students' language proficiency. The values of *Cronbach's Alpha* and *Corrected Item-Total Correlations* were the same as those in the EMI students' scale. According to the responses they gave to the question *Do you think your students' English language proficiency (level) met English language requirements before they took the EMI courses?* They generally held the view that their students' language proficiency level met their students' needs before they started the EMI courses ($M = 2.73, SD = 1.15$).

The EMI instructors were of the opinion that the EMI courses had a positive impact on their students' language skills, although not highly ($M = 2.68, SD = 1.15$) (see Table 42). The skills which they were most satisfied with thanks to the EMI

courses were technical terminology ($M = 3.33, SD = 1.02$) and general vocabulary ($M = 3.03, SD = 1.07$). They are followed by listening ($M = 2.92, SD = 1.01$) and reading skills ($M = 2.92, SD = 1.09$). There is a slight difference between the mean scores of writings ($M = 2.34, SD = 1.37$) and speaking skills ($M = 2.37, SD = 1.15$). The skill which has received the lowest mean score is grammar again ($M = 1.86, SD = 1.38$).

Table 42

Descriptive Statistics of the EMI Instructors' Perceptions of the Impact of EMI on their Students' Language Proficiency

	N	M	SD
Listening Skills	100	2.92	1.01
Reading Skills	100	2.92	1.09
Writing Skills	100	2.34	1.37
Speaking Skills	100	2.37	1.15
General Vocabulary	100	3.03	1.07
Grammar	100	1.86	1.38
Technical Terminology	100	3.33	1.02
Item M		2.68	
Item SD		1.15	
Cronbach's Alpha		0.8	
Overall Language Proficiency M		18.77	
Overall Language Proficiency SD		10.82	

According to the *One-Way ANOVA tests* conducted, there were not significant differences in the EMI instructors' satisfaction with their students' language proficiency according to gender [$F(3, 121) = 0.22, p > 0.05$], education [$F(2, 97) = 5.21, p > 0.05$], EMI experiences [$F(7, 92) = 1.02, p > 0.05$]. But there were significant differences according to their departments [$F(34, 65) = 1.74, p < 0.05$] (see Table 43). The highest score was 28.00 (Health Sciences) and the lowest one was 11.00 (Geometric Engineering).

To test whether there were differences according to the EMI instructors' ages, regions, and universities, *Independent Sample Kruskal Wallis tests* were performed because there was no homogeneity of variances according to *Levene's Test* $p < 0.05$. According to the findings, there was not any significant difference.

Table 43

The Results of One-Way ANOVA for the EMI Instructors' Perceptions of the Impact of EMI on their Students' Language Proficiency according to Departments

	Sum of Squares	df	M Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1097.220	34	32.271	1.74	.003
Within Groups	1202.490	65	18.500		
Total	2299.710	99			

4.4.4.3. PYP students' data Just as the EMI students and EMI instructors did, the PYP students responded to seven items to share their perceptions regarding their satisfaction with their language proficiency for future the EMI courses, and one item *Do you think your' English language proficiency (will) meet English language requirements before you take the EMI courses?* to share their views regarding their language proficiency before they start their departments. The PYP students strongly believed that their language proficiency levels met/would meet language requirements for the EMI courses ($M = 3.35$, $SD = 0.87$). The values of *Cronbach's Alpha* and *Corrected Item-Total Correlations* were 0.7, and between 0.3 and 0.6, respectively.

The students generally believed that English PYP could improve/had improved their overall language proficiency for future the EMI courses ($M = 17.51$, $SD = 4.78$) (see Table 44). However, they partially agreed with most of the items ($M = 2.50$, $SD = 1.28$). The students were more satisfied with their reading skills ($M = 2.97$, $SD = 1.00$), grammar ($M = 2.96$, $SD = 1.03$), and writing skills ($M = 2.89$, $SD = 1.19$) for future the EMI courses than the others thanks to the English PYP. They are followed by listening skills ($M = 2.57$, $SD = 1.33$) and general vocabulary ($M = 2.46$, $SD = 1.42$). The skills which had the lowest scores were speaking skills ($M = 2.06$, $SD = 1.56$) and technical terminology ($M = 1.60$, $SD = 1.18$).

Table 44

Descriptive Statistics of the PYP Students' Satisfaction with their Language Proficiency for future the EMI courses

	N	M	SD
Listening Skills	100	2.57	1.33
Reading Skills	100	2.97	1.00
Writing Skills	100	2.89	1.19
Speaking Skills	100	2.06	1.56
General Vocabulary	100	2.46	1.42
Grammar	100	2.96	1.03
Technical Terminology	100	1.60	1.18
Item M			2.50
Item SD			1.28
Cronbach's Alpha			0.7
Overall Language Proficiency M			17.51
Overall Language Proficiency SD			4.78

The results of the *One-Way ANOVA tests* conducted showed that there were not any significant differences in the PYP students' satisfaction with their overall language proficiency for future the EMI courses according to gender [$F(2, 97) = 1.80, p > 0.05$], PYP school term [$F(4, 95) = 2.12, p > 0.05$]. However, there were significant differences according to universities [$F(14, 85) = 3.26, p < 0.05$], as displayed in Table 45, departments [$F(31, 68) = 3.26, p < 0.05$], as displayed in Table 46, and regions [$F(2, 97) = 6.70, p < 0.05$], as displayed in Table 47. The overall mean scores for universities range between 9.00 (University S, University Y) and 19.95 (University R). And they range between 9.00 (Primary School Mathematics Education) and 24.00 (Nutrition and Dietetics, Primary School Education). As for the overall mean scores of the regions, they range between 9.00 (Mediterranean) and 19.93 (Central Anatolia).

The *Independent Samples t-tests* performed to test whether there were any differences according to EMI experiences, there were not any significant differences $t(371) = 0.35, p > 0.05$.

Table 45

The Results of One-Way ANOVA for the PYP Students' Satisfaction with their Language Proficiency for future EMI courses according to universities

	Sum of Squares	df	M Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	790.846	14	56.489	3.257	.000
Within Groups	1474.144	85	17.343		
Total	2264.990	99			

Table 46

The Results of One-Way ANOVA for the PYP Students' Satisfaction with their Language Proficiency for future the EMI courses according to Departments

	Sum of Squares	df	M Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1353.957	31	43.676	3.260	.000
Within Groups	911.033	68	13.398		
Total	2264.990	99			

Table 47

The Results of One-Way ANOVA for the PYP Students' Satisfaction with their Language Proficiency for future the EMI courses according to regions

	Sum of Squares	df	M Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	274.694	2	137.347	6.694	.002
Within Groups	1990.296	97	20.519		
Total	2264.990	99			

4.4.4.4. PYP instructors' data The analysis of the responses to the item "Do you think your students' English language proficiency meets/will meet English language requirements before they take the EMI courses?" revealed that PYP instructors believed that the English PYP was helping/would help their students meet their

language requirements for the future the EMI courses ($M = 3.20$, $SD = 0.99$). The value of Cronbach's Alpha was 0.7, and the value of Corrected Item-Total Correlations ranged between 0.3 and 0.5.

Most of the instructors were satisfied with their students' overall language proficiency for future the EMI courses ($M = 20.11$, $SD = 3.97$) (see Table 48). The skills which they believed improved/was improving better than the other skills were grammar ($M = 3.15$, $SD = 0.86$) and reading ($M = 3.13$, $SD = 0.70$). The speaking skill ($M = 3.00$, $SD = 0.92$), writing skill ($M = 2.98$, $SD = 1.03$), and general vocabulary ($M = 2.89$, $SD = 1.04$) follow them. The skills which have the lowest scores are speaking ($M = 2.33$, $SD = 1.46$) and technical vocabulary ($M = 2.63$, $SD = 1.43$).

Table 48

Descriptive Statistics of the PYP Instructors' Satisfaction with their Students' Language Proficiency for future the EMI courses

	N	M	SD
Listening Skill	100	3.00	0.92
Reading Skill	100	3.13	0.70
Writing Skill	100	2.98	1.03
Speaking Skill	100	2.33	1.46
General Vocabulary	100	2.89	1.04
Grammar	100	3.15	0.86
Technical Terminology	100	2.63	1.43
Item M			2.87
Item SD			1.24
Cronbach's Alpha			0.7
Overall Language Proficiency M			20.11
Overall Language Proficiency SD			3.97

An Independent Samples *t*-test was conducted to gauge whether there were any significant differences in the instructors' satisfaction with their students' language proficiency according to gender and EMI experience. The statistical findings showed no significant difference existed, $t(98) = 1.83$, $p > 0.05$, $t(59) = -1.08$, $p > 0.05$,

respectively. Similarly, the findings of the *One-WAY ANOVA test* show that there were no significant differences according to age [$F(24, 75) = 0.31, p < 0.05$].

To test whether there were any significant differences according to the certificates the instructors held, their universities, teaching experiences, and regions, *Independent Sample Kruskal Wallis tests* were performed because there was no homogeneity of variances according to *Levene's Test* $p < 0.05$. There were significant differences according to certificates and universities, $p < 0.05$. However, there were not significant differences in terms of teaching experience and regions $p > 0.05$. (See Table 49 and 50)

Table 49

The Results of Independent Samples Kruskal Wallis Test for the Instructors' Satisfaction with their Students' Language Proficiency for future the EMI courses according to Certificates

Total N	100
Test Statistic	23.867 ^a
Degree Of Freedom	14
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	0.04

Table 50

The Results of Independent Samples Kruskal Wallis Test for the Instructors' Satisfaction with their Students' Language Proficiency for future the EMI courses according to universities

Total N	100
Test Statistic	54.212 ^a
Degree Of Freedom	27
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	0.01

4.4.5. The perceived impact of EMI courses/ English PYP on language competence. All the participants shared their perceptions of the impact of EMI courses or English PYP on their own or their students' language competence through 17 items. The maximum score one participant could get out of the scale was 68 (17 x 4). The

scale had four subscales for each participant, which were related to listening competence (items 1 to 5), speaking competence (items 6 to 8), reading competence (items 9 to 12), and writing competence (items 13 to 17).

4.4.5.1. The EMI students' data That most of the EMI students agreed that the EMI courses improved their overall language competence ($M = 43.66$, $SD = 15.60$) (see Table 51). They thought the lessons could improve their reading competence ($M = 2.76$, $SD = 1.21$) more than their listening competence ($M = 2.57$, $SD = 1.32$), writing competence ($M = 2.54$, $SD = 1.36$), and speaking competence ($M = 2.37$, $SD = 1.36$). They were generally of the opinion that their speaking competence was improved the least by EMI courses.

The item *Understanding instructions and questions in reading tasks* received the highest score ($M = 2.86$, $SD = 1.14$), which is followed by *Reading and understanding the content of lectures in class* ($M = 2.79$, $SD = 1.19$), *Scanning and skimming skills to identify main ideas and specific information* ($M = 2.71$, $SD = 1.23$), and *Answering reading comprehension questions* ($M = 2.66$, $SD = 1.29$).

The EMI students believed that *Understanding EMI instructor's oral instructions* was the competence they thought had improved most thanks to the EMI courses ($M = 2.74$, $SD = 1.26$). It is closely followed by *Listening and understanding the content of lectures in class* ($M = 2.61$, $SD = 1.30$) and *Understanding discussions during the lesson* ($M = 2.59$, $SD = 1.31$), and *Understanding conversations outside the classroom* ($M = 2.51$, $SD = 1.28$). The students thought they could improve the competence of *Listening and taking notes during the lectures in class* least in EMI courses ($M = 2.38$, $SD = 1.43$).

Most of the students agreed that they could learn how to *Use appropriate academic style* and ($M = 2.66$, $SD = 1.38$) *Complete written course assignments* ($M = 2.65$, $SD = 1.27$) mainly because of EMI courses. Besides, they thought *Summarizing lectures* ($M = 2.51$, $SD = 1.32$) and *Summarizing subject-area knowledge* ($M = 2.49$, $SD = 1.45$) could improve during EMI courses. However, according to their perceptions, they could not improve their *Cohesion and coherence in writing* so well ($M = 2.37$, $SD = 1.38$).

The EMI students did not think that their speaking competence could improve as much as the other competences during EMI courses. They thought EMI could help them *Express ideas about lectures* ($M = 2.48, SD = 1.34$) more than *Oral presentation skills* ($M = 2.34, SD = 1.38$), and *discussing the subject-area knowledge in groups* ($M = 2.30, SD = 1.37$).

The *Independent-Samples t-tests* conducted to test whether there were any significant differences according to gender $t(123) = -0.06, p > 0.05$, and EMI experience $t(123) = -0.08, p > 0.05$ showed that they did not affect the students' perceptions.

The statistical findings of the *One-Way ANOVA tests* indicate that there were no significant differences according to universities [$F(13, 111) = 2.44, p > 0.05$], school years [$F(3, 121) = 0.23, p > 0.05$], and regions [$F(3, 121) = 0.63, p > 0.05$]. However, there were significant differences according to departments [$F(42, 82) = 1.81, p < 0.05$] as shown in Table 52.

Table 51

Descriptive Statistics of EMI Students' Perceptions of the Impact of EMI Courses on their Language Competences

	N	M	SD
Listening and understanding the content of courses.	125	2.61	1.30
Understanding discussions during the lesson.	125	2.59	1.31
Understanding conversations outside the classroom.	125	2.51	1.28
Understanding EMI instructor's oral instructions.	125	2.74	1.26
Listening and taking notes during the lectures in class.	125	2.38	1.43
Item M for Listening Competence	2.57		
Item SD For Listening Competence	1.32		
Cronbach's Alpha	0.8		
Oral presentation skills.	125	2.34	1.38
Discussing the subject-area knowledge in groups.	125	2.30	1.37
Expressing ideas about lectures.	125	2.48	1.34

Table 51 (cont.d)

Item M for Speaking Competence	2.37		
Item SD For Speaking Competence	1.36		
Cronbach's Alpha	0.8		
Reading and understanding the content of lessons in class.	125	2.79	1.19
Scanning and skimming skills to identify main ideas and specific information.	125	2.71	1.23
Understanding instructions and questions in reading tasks.	125	2.86	1.14
Answering reading comprehension questions.	125	2.66	1.29
Item M for Reading Competence	2.76		
Item SD for Reading Competence	1.21		
Cronbach's Alpha	0.8		
Summarizing lectures.	125	2.51	1.32
Completing written course assignments.	125	2.65	1.27
Using appropriate academic style.	125	2.66	1.38
Summarizing subject-area knowledge.	125	2.49	1.45
Cohesion and coherence in writing.	125	2.37	1.38
Item M for Writing Competence	2.54		
Item SD for Writing Competence	1.36		
Cronbach's Alpha	0.8		
Overall Competence M	43.66		
Overall Competence SD	15.60		

Table 52

The Results of One-Way ANOVA for the EMI Students' Perceptions of the Impact of EMI on their Language Competence according to Departments

	Sum of Squares	df	M Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	14520.902	42	345.736	1.8	0.01
Within Groups	15639.306	82	190.723	1	
Total	30160.208	124			

4.4.5.2. The EMI instructors' data The EMI instructors partially agreed that the EMI courses had a positive impact on their students' overall language competence (M

= 34.80, $SD = 15.00$) (see Table 53). The low item means for each skill indicates that they did not agree with all the statements. Accordingly, the competences on which the EMI courses had the most positive impact are reading ($M = 2.10$, $SD = 1.39$) and writing ($M = 2.10$, $SD = 1.26$). However, they did not think that EMI course could improve these competences profoundly and that the students could not improve their listening ($M = 2.07$, $SD = 1.31$) and speaking ($M = 1.83$, $SD = 1.36$) competences as much.

The EMI instructors were mostly of the opinion that their students could develop the competences of *Answering reading comprehension questions* ($M = 2.18$, $SD = 1.32$) and *Understanding instructions and questions in reading tasks* ($M = 2.15$, $SD = 1.48$) slightly more than the other competences, which are *Reading and understanding the content of lectures in class* ($M = 2.08$, $SD = 1.37$) and *Scanning and skimming skills to identify main ideas and specific information* ($M = 2.00$, $SD = 1.41$). Therefore, they partially agreed that their students had high reading competences.

The EMI instructors thought their students were moderately competent in *Completing written course assignments* ($M = 2.34$, $SD = 1.24$), *Using appropriate academic style* ($M = 2.33$, $SD = 1.11$), and *Summarizing subject-area knowledge* ($M = 2.07$, $SD = 1.30$), thanks to the EMI courses. However, they were mostly of the opinion that the students were not as competent in *Summarizing lectures* ($M = 1.91$, $SD = 1.31$) and achieving *Cohesion and coherence in writing* ($M = 1.87$, $SD = 1.32$).

The EMI instructors thought *Understanding EMI instructor's oral instructions* ($M = 2.27$, $SD = 1.28$) and *listening and taking notes during the lectures in class* ($M = 2.24$, $SD = 1.27$) were the listening competences their students could improve most. They are followed by *Listening and understanding the content of lectures in class* ($M = 2.17$, $SD = 1.26$) and *Understanding discussions during the lesson* ($M = 1.98$, $SD = 1.35$).

In contrast to the above competences, *Discussing the subject-area knowledge in groups* ($M = 1.74$, $SD = 1.31$) and *Expressing ideas about EMI instructors* ($M = 1.71$, $SD = 1.41$) could not be developed well enough in the EMI courses according to the

EMI instructors when speaking competences are considered. However, they thought the students were as good enough at *Oral presentation skills* ($M = 2.04$, $SD = 1.35$).

The findings of the *One-Way ANOVA* tests showed that there were not significant differences in the EMI instructors' perceptions of the impact of the EMI courses on their students' language competences according to gender [$F(2, 97) = 0.58$, $p > 0.05$], age [$F(33, 66) = 1.29$, $p > 0.05$], university [$F(26, 73) = 1.43$, $p > 0.05$], EMI experiences [$F(7, 92) = 1.03$, $p > 0.05$], and regions [$F(4, 94) = 0.94$, $p > 0.05$]. On the other hand, there was a significant difference according to education levels of the EMI instructors [$F(2, 97) = 6.27$, $p < 0.05$], (see Table 54).

To test the differences according to departments, an *Independent Sample Kruskal Wallis test* was performed because there was no homogeneity of variances according to *Levene's Test* $p < 0.05$. The findings showed that there was a significant difference according to department $p < 0.05$, as shown in Table 56.

Table 53

Descriptive Statistics of the EMI Instructors' Perceptions of the Impact of EMI Courses on their Students' Language Competences

	N	M	SD
Listening and understanding the content of courses.	100	2.17	1.26
Understanding discussions during the lesson.	100	1.98	1.35
Understanding conversations outside the classroom.	100	1.72	1.36
Understanding EMI instructor's oral instructions.	100	2.27	1.28
Listening and taking notes during the courses.	100	2.24	1.27
Item M for Listening Competence	2.07		
Item SD For Listening Competence	1.31		
Cronbach's Alpha	0.9		
Oral presentation skills.	100	2.04	1.35
Discussing the subject-area knowledge in groups.	100	1.74	1.31
Expressing ideas about lectures.	100	1.71	1.41
Item M for Speaking Competence	1.83		
Item SD For Speaking Competence	1.36		

Table 53 (cont.d)

Cronbach's Alpha	0.7		
Reading and understanding the content of courses in class.	100	2.08	1.37
Scanning and skimming skills to identify main ideas and specific information.	100	2.00	1.41
Understanding instructions and questions in reading tasks.	100	2.15	1.48
Answering reading comprehension questions.	100	2.18	1.32
Item M for Reading Competence	2.10		
Item SD for Reading Competence	1.39		
Cronbach's Alpha	0.8		
Summarizing courses.	100	1.91	1.31
Completing written course assignments.	100	2.34	1.24
Using appropriate academic style.	100	2.33	1.11
Summarizing subject-area knowledge.	100	2.07	1.30
Cohesion and coherence in writing.	100	1.87	1.32
Item M for Writing Competence	2.10		
Item SD for Writing Competence	1.26		
Cronbach's Alpha	0.7		
Overall Competence M	34.80		
Overall Competence SD	15.00		

Table 54

The Results of One-Way ANOVA for the EMI Instructors' Perceptions of the Impact of EMI on their Students' Language Competence according to Education Levels

	Sum of Squares	df	M Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2549.482	2	1274.741	6.266	0.01
Within Groups	19732.518	97	203.428		
Total	22282.000	99			

Table 55

The Results of Independent Samples Kruskal Wallis Test for the EMI Instructors' Perception of the Impact of the EMI courses on their Students' Language Competence according to Departments

Total N	100
Test Statistic	54.420 ^a
Degree Of Freedom	34
Asymptotic Sig. (2-sided test)	0.01

4.4.5.3. The PYP students' data The PYP students strongly agreed that the English PYP had a positive impact on their overall language competence ($M = 44.00$, $SD = 10.34$). The students held the view that they could improve their reading ($M = 2.83$, $SD = 1.05$) and listening ($M = 2.70$, $SD = 1.13$) competences more than speaking ($M = 2.45$, $SD = 1.22$) competences and writing ($M = 2.35$, $SD = 1.34$) (see Table 57).

The students believed that they were more competent in Reading and understanding the content of lectures in class ($M = 2.87$, $SD = 0.97$), Scanning and skimming skills to identify main ideas and specific information ($M = 2.84$, $SD = 0.94$) and Understanding instructions and questions in reading tasks ($M = 2.15$, $SD = 1.02$) than they were in Answering reading comprehension questions ($M = 2.77$, $SD = 1.07$).

The students considered Understanding discussions during the lesson ($M = 2.81$, $SD = 1.35$), Understanding conversations outside the classroom ($M = 2.75$, $SD = 1.36$), and listening and understanding the content of lectures in class ($M = 2.73$, $SD = 1.26$) to be the listening competences which they could develop most for their future the EMI courses thanks to English PYP. They agreed that the other competences, Understanding EMI instructor's oral instructions ($M = 2.60$, $SD = 1.28$) and Listening and taking notes during the lectures in class ($M = 2.60$, $SD = 1.27$) could be developed almost as well.

The students thought they were better at *Expressing ideas about lectures* ($M = 2.73$, $SD = 1.02$) than they were at *Oral presentation skills* ($M = 2.46$, $SD = 1.36$) and *Discussing the subject-area knowledge in groups* ($M = 2.17$, $SD = 1.27$). They thought their overall writing competence did not improve as much. In particular, they thought

they could not improve the competence of *Summarizing subject-area knowledge* ($M = 1.89, SD = 1.35$) as much. However, they thought they were better at *Completing written course assignments* ($M = 2.62, SD = 1.27$), achieving *Cohesion and coherence in writing* ($M = 2.50, SD = 1.32$), *Using appropriate academic style* ($M = 2.40, SD = 1.37$), and *Summarizing lectures* ($M = 2.34, SD = 1.36$).

The *One-Way ANOVA tests* conducted showed that there wasn't any significant difference in the PYP students' perceptions of the impact of the English PYP on their language competences for future the EMI courses according to gender [$F(2, 97) = 1.36, p > 0.05$], university [$F(14, 85) = 2.40, p > 0.05$], EMI experience [$F(1, 98) = 0.11, p > 0.05$], and region [$F(7, 97) = 2.71, p > 0.05$]. However, there was a significant difference according to school terms of the preparatory students [$F(4, 95) = 4.55, p < 0.05$], as shown in Table 58.

As there was no homogeneity of variances according to *Levene's Test* $p < 0.05$, an *Independent Sample Kruskal Wallis test* was performed, and the findings showed that there wasn't any significant difference according to department $p > 0.05$.

Table 56

Descriptive Statistics of the English PYP Students' Perceptions of the Impact of English PYP on their Language Competences for future the EMI courses

	N	M	SD
Listening and understanding the content of lessons.	100	2.73	1.26
Understanding discussions during the lesson.	100	2.81	1.35
Understanding conversations outside the classroom.	100	2.75	1.36
Understanding instructor's oral instructions.	100	2.60	1.28
Listening and taking notes during the lessons.	100	2.60	1.27
Item M for Listening Competence	2.70		
Item SD For Listening Competence	1.13		
Cronbach's Alpha	0.7		
Oral presentation skills.	100	2.46	1.36

Table 56 (cont.d)

Discussing the subject-area knowledge in groups.	100	2.17	1.27
Expressing ideas about lectures.	100	2.73	1.02
Item M for Speaking Competence	2.45		
Item SD For Speaking Competence	1.22		
Cronbach's Alpha	0.7		
Reading and understanding the content of lessons in class.	100	2.87	0.97
Scanning and skimming skills to identify main ideas and specific information.	100	2.84	0.94
Understanding instructions and questions in reading tasks.	100	2.84	1.02
Answering reading comprehension questions.	100	2.77	1.07
Item M for Reading Competence	2.83		
Item SD for Reading Competence	1.05		
Cronbach's Alpha	0.8		
Summarizing lessons.	100	2.34	1.36
Completing written course assignments.	100	2.62	1.27
Using appropriate academic style.	100	2.40	1.37
Summarizing subject-area knowledge.	100	1.89	1.35
Cohesion and coherence in writing.	100	2.50	1.32
Item M for Writing Competence	2.35		
Item SD for Writing Competence	1.34		
Cronbach's Alpha	0.7		
Overall Competence M	44.00		
Overall Competence SD	10.34		

Table 57

The Results of One-Way ANOVA for the English PYP Students' Perceptions of the Impact of EMI on their Language Competence for future the EMI courses according to School Terms

	Sum of Squares	df	M Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1703.695	4	425.924	4.553	0.02
Within Groups	8887.665	95	93.554		
Total	10591.360	99			

4.4.5.4. The PYP instructors' data The descriptive findings from the instructors' data show that they also almost strongly agree English PYP had a positive impact on their students' overall language competence for future the EMI courses ($M = 45.76$, $SD = 10.37$). The instructors thought their students' reading ($M = 3.02$, $SD = 1.07$) and listening ($M = 2.91$, $SD = 1.14$) competences could improve more than their speaking ($M = 2.45$, $SD = 1.22$) and writing competences ($M = 2.40$, $SD = 1.50$) thanks to English PYP, as shown in Table 58.

Understanding instructions and questions in reading tasks ($M = 3.15$, $SD = 1.08$) and *Answering reading comprehension questions* ($M = 3.15$, $SD = 1.07$) are the two reading competences which the instructors thought could develop most in PYP schools for future the EMI courses. They are closely followed by *Scanning and skimming skills to identify main ideas and specific information* ($M = 2.94$, $SD = 1.53$) and *Reading and understanding the content of lectures in class* ($M = 2.86$, $SD = 1.53$).

With regards to listening competences, the instructors held the view that their students could improve the competences, *Listening and understanding the content of lectures in class* ($M = 3.10$, $SD = 0.83$) and *Understanding EMI instructor's oral instructions* ($M = 3.04$, $SD = 1.12$) slightly more than *Listening and taking notes during the lectures in class* ($M = 2.94$, $SD = 1.01$). They thought the PYP students were also competent in *Understanding discussions during the lesson* ($M = 2.82$, $SD = 1.11$) and *Understanding conversations outside the classroom* ($M = 2.67$, $SD = 1.32$) for their future the EMI courses thanks to the PYP.

According to the instructors, their students were slightly better at *Oral presentation skills* ($M = 2.82, SD = 1.17$) than *Expressing ideas about lectures* ($M = 2.17, SD = 1.53$) and *Discussing the subject-area knowledge in groups* ($M = 2.12, SD = 1.53$) as far as speaking competence is concerned. And they believed that their students were ready for *Completing written course assignments* ($M = 3.14, SD = 1.27$) and *Summarizing lectures* ($M = 2.42, SD = 1.36$) for future the EMI courses although they reckoned the students were not as good enough at achieving *Cohesion and coherence in writing* ($M = 2.20, SD = 1.32$), *Using appropriate academic style* ($M = 2.18, SD = 1.37$), and *Summarizing subject-area knowledge* ($M = 2.04, SD = 1.35$).

The *One-Way ANOVA tests* conducted show that there wasn't any significant difference in the English preparatory instructors' perceptions of the impact of English PYP on their students' language proficiency for future the EMI courses according to gender [$F(2, 97) = 0.54, p > 0.05$], age [$F(24, 25) = 1.03, p > 0.05$], certificates they held [$F(14, 85) = 1.00, p > 0.05$], their EMI experiences [$F(1, 98) = 0.09, p > 0.05$].

As there was no homogeneity of variances according to *Levene's Test* $p < 0.05$, an *Independent Sample Kruskal Wallis test* was conducted to find whether there was any significant difference according to the universities which the instructors were working at and the results showed that there was $p < 0.05$, as shown in Table 59. However, other *Independent Sample Kruskal Wallis tests* conducted for the same reasons to check whether there was any significant difference according to teaching experiences and regions showed none, $p > 0.05$.

Table 58

Descriptive Statistics of the English PYP Instructors' Perceptions of the Impact of English PYP on their Students' Language Competences for future the EMI courses

	N	M	SD
Listening and understanding the content of lessons.	100	3.10	0.83
Understanding discussions during the lesson.	100	2.82	1.11
Understanding conversations outside the classroom.	100	2.67	1.32
Understanding EMI instructor's oral instructions.	100	3.04	1.12
Listening and taking notes during the lectures in class.	100	2.94	1.01
Item M for Listening Competence	2.91		
Item SD For Listening Competence	1.14		
Cronbach's Alpha	0.7		
Oral presentation skills.	100	2.82	1.17
Discussing the subject-area knowledge in groups.	100	2.12	1.53
Expressing ideas about lectures.	100	2.17	1.53
Item M for Speaking Competence	2.45		
Item SD For Speaking Competence	1.22		
Cronbach's Alpha	0.7		
Reading and understanding the content of lectures in class.	100	2.86	1.53
Scanning and skimming skills to identify main ideas and specific information.	100	2.94	1.53
Understanding instructions and questions in reading tasks.	100	3.15	1.08
Answering reading comprehension questions.	100	3.15	1.07
Item M for Reading Competence	3.02		
Item SD for Reading Competence	1.07		
Cronbach's Alpha	0.8		
Summarizing lectures.	100	2.42	1.36
Completing written course assignments.	100	3.14	1.27
Using appropriate academic style.	100	2.18	1.37
Summarizing subject-area knowledge.	100	2.04	1.35
Cohesion and coherence in writing.	100	2.20	1.32
Item M for Writing Competence	2.40		
Item SD for Writing Competence	1.50		

Table 58 (cont.d)

Cronbach's Alpha	0.8
Overall Competence M	45.76
Overall Competence SD	10.37

Table 59

The Results of Independent Samples Kruskal Wallis Test for the Instructors' Perception of the Impact of English PYP on their Students' Language Competence for future the EMI courses according to Universities

Total N	100
Test Statistic	52.922 ^a
Degree Of Freedom	27
Asymptotic Sig.(2-sided test)	0.02

4.4.6. Recommendations on improving the EMI courses and English PYP for the future EMI courses.

4.4.6.1. The EMI students and EMI instructors' data The EMI students' satisfaction ($M = 3.82$, $SD = 1.16$) and the EMI instructors' satisfaction ($M = 3.81$, $SD = 1.24$) with the EMI courses were above average. Figure 20 and 21 respectively summarizes the EMI students' and EMI instructors' responses in percentages.

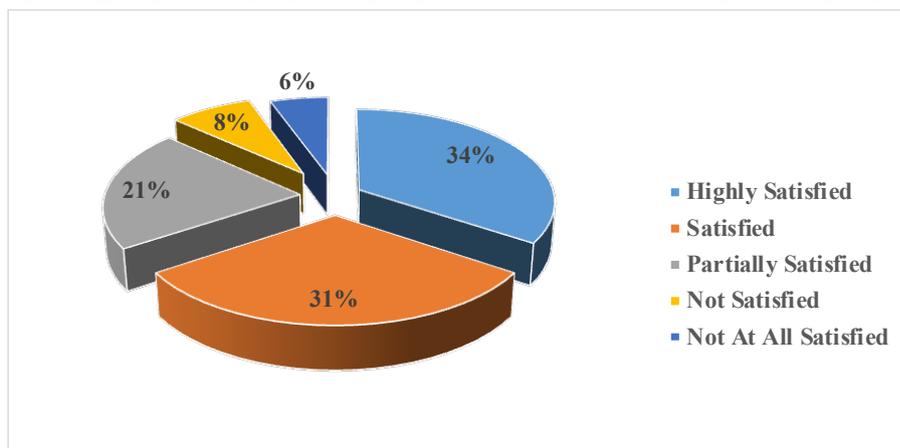


Figure 19. The EMI Instructors' Satisfaction with their Students' EMI Courses

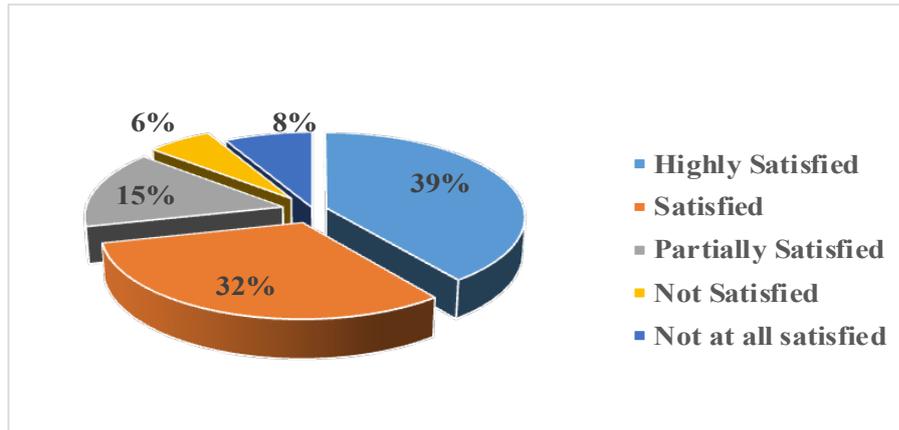


Figure 20. The EMI Students' Satisfaction with their EMI Courses

In addition, all the participants shared their recommendations on the EMI courses with a twenty-item scale. The items' individual and overall mean scores and standard deviations are displayed in Table 60 for both the EMI students and EMI instructors.

Both the students and EMI instructors agreed with most of the items presented by the scale, ($M = 2.57, SD = 1.33$) and ($M = 2.44, SD = 1.27$), respectively. As the findings show, the students agreed with the recommendations more than the EMI instructors did. Among all the items, the students agreed with *EMI Instructors should take English courses before they teach the EMI courses* ($M = 3.73, SD = 0.63$) the most strongly. It is preceded by *EMI Instructors should take EMI methodological courses* ($M = 3.30, SD = 1.16$), *Content should be tested in the final exams for the EMI courses* ($M = 2.98, SD = 1.16$), *Lectures should focus on the subject-area content during EMI courses* ($M = 2.95, SD = 1.23$), *The final exams for the EMI courses should be in English* ($M = 2.91, SD = 1.41$) and *EMI Instructors should adjust their teaching speed based on students' English levels* ($M = 2.90, SD = 1.23$). The students did not agree with the statements *The final exams for the EMI courses should be in Turkish* ($M = 1.58, SD = 1.17$), *the EMI courses should be taught by language instructors* ($M = 1.78, SD = 1.41$), *EMI Instructors should give more homework to students* ($M = 1.76, SD = 1.39$), *All four language skills should be tested in the final exams for the EMI courses* ($M = 2.10, SD = 1.28$), *EMI Instructors should focus on improving students' English abilities during EMI courses* ($M = 2.05, SD = 1.39$), and *English as a foreign language courses and the EMI courses should be scheduled in the same term for students* ($M = 2.02, SD = 1.41$).

According to the EMI instructors' recommendations, the item they most strongly agreed with is *The final exams for the EMI courses should be in English* ($M = 3.53$, $SD = 0.97$), which is closely followed by *the EMI courses should be taught by EMI instructors* ($M = 3.37$, $SD = 1.05$), and *Content should be tested in the final exams for the EMI courses* ($M = 3.31$, $SD = 0.86$). They also strongly recommended that *Lectures should focus on the subject-area content during EMI courses* ($M = 3.18$, $SD = 0.34$), *Learning materials should be designed by EMI instructors* ($M = 2.96$, $SD = 1.31$), *EMI Instructors should adjust their teaching speed based on students' English levels* ($M = 2.85$, $SD = 0.99$), and *EMI Instructors should take English courses before they teach the EMI courses* ($M = 2.84$, $SD = 1.33$). However, they did not recommend that *EMI Instructors should give more homework to students* ($M = 1.84$, $SD = 1.45$), *EMI Instructors should focus on improving students' English abilities during EMI courses* ($M = 1.79$, $SD = 1.12$), *All four language skills should be tested in the final exams for the EMI courses* ($M = 1.71$, $SD = 1.19$), *the EMI courses should be taught by language instructors* ($M = 1.57$, $SD = 0.92$), and *The final exams for the EMI courses should be in Turkish* ($M = 1.40$, $SD = 0.74$).

Table 60

Descriptive Statistics of the EMI Students' and EMI Instructors' Recommendations for Improving EMI Courses

Items	N	Students' M	Students' SD	N	EMI Instructors' M	EMI Instructors' SD
The duration of EMI courses should be longer.	125	2.54	1.36	100	2.25	1.31
English as a foreign language courses and EMI courses should be scheduled in the same term.	125	2.02	1.41	100	1.65	1.24
EMI instructors should take English language courses before they teach the EMI courses.	125	3.73	0.63	100	2.84	1.33
EMI instructors should take EMI methodological courses.	125	3.30	1.16	100	2.61	1.27
EMI instructors improving themselves on how to teach EMI courses should receive a bonus.	125	2.72	1.36	100	2.63	1.36
EMI courses should be	125	2.74	1.38	100	3.37	1.05

Table 60 (cont.d)

taught by EMI instructors.					
EMI courses should be taught by language instructors.	125	1.78	1.41	1001.57	0.92
There should be cooperation between EMI instructors and language instructors at PYP schools.	125	2.87	1.24	1002.60	1.25
EMI instructors should adjust their teaching speed based on students' English levels.	125	2.90	1.23	1002.85	0.99
EMI instructors should use both Turkish and English flexibly in EMI courses.	125	2.65	1.40	1002.06	1.40
Learning materials should be designed by EMI instructors.	125	2.82	1.35	1002.96	1.31
Learning materials should be selected among original textbooks for English native speakers.	125	2.41	1.49	1002.59	1.34
EMI instructors should give more	125	1.76	1.39	1001.84	1.45

Table 60 (cont.d)

homework to students.					
EMI instructors should focus on the subject-area content during EMI courses.	125	2.95	1.23	1003.18	0.94
EMI instructors should focus on improving students' English abilities during EMI courses.	125	2.05	1.39	1001.79	1.12
EMI courses should focus on both language and the subject-area content.	125	2.56	1.31	1002.03	1.21
All four language skills should be tested in the final exams for EMI courses.	125	2.10	1.28	1001.71	1.19
Content should be tested in the final exams for EMI courses.	125	2.98	1.27	1003.31	0.86
The final exams for EMI courses should be in Turkish.	125	1.58	1.17	1001.40	0.74
The final exams for EMI courses should be in English.	125	2.91	1.41	1003.53	0.97
Overall M		2.57		2.44	
Overall SD		1.33		1.27	

4.4.6.2. PYP students' and instructors' data The PYP students' ($M = 3.93$, $SD = 0.94$) and instructors' ($M = 4.53$, $SD = 0.84$) satisfaction with the English PYP for future the EMI courses were particularly higher than those of the EMI students and EMI instructors (see Figure 22 and 23).

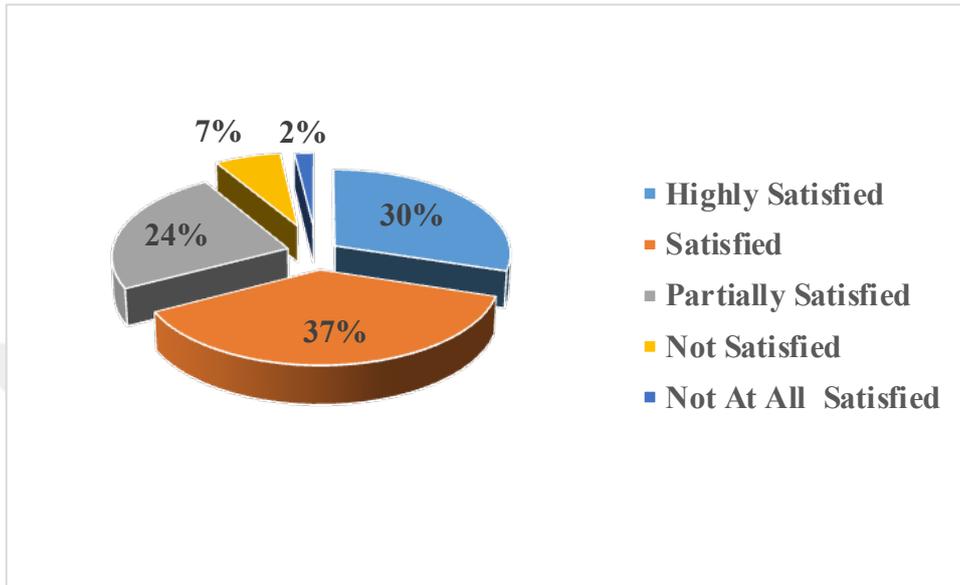


Figure 21. The PYP Students' Satisfaction with English PYP for Future EMI Courses

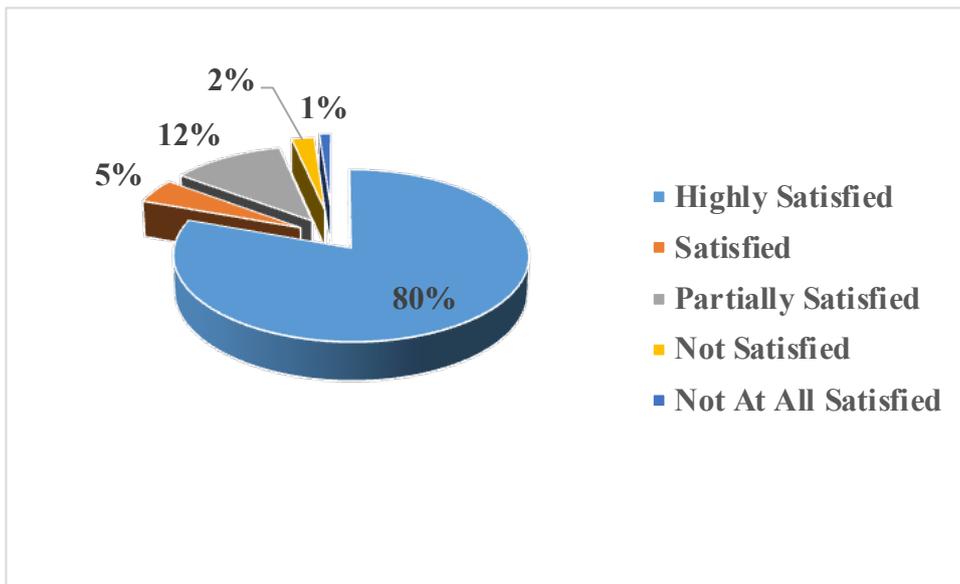


Figure 22. The PYP Instructors' Satisfaction with English PYP for their Students' Future EMI Courses

Table 61

Descriptive Statistics of the PYP Students' and Instructors' Recommendations for Improving English PYP for Future EMI Courses

Items	N	Students' M	Students' SE	Instructors' M	Instructors' S
The duration of lessons in English PYP schools should be longer.	100	2.48	1.34	3.06	1.18
English as a foreign language courses and EMI courses should be scheduled in the same term.	100	2.11	1.35	2.44	1.51
Instructors at English PYP Schools should be proficient in content knowledge in English (e.g. in law, medicine, engineering).	100	2.90	1.22	2.74	1.27
Instructors at English PYP schools should take EMI methodological courses.	100	2.86	1.16	3.05	1.23
Instructors at English PYP schools should receive a bonus if they are eager to improve themselves in EMI instruction.	100	2.81	1.27	3.03	1.11
Lessons at English PYP schools should be taught by EMI instructors (those at departments).	100	2.36	1.45	3.36	0.98
Lessons at English PYP schools should be taught by language instructors.	100	2.69	1.25	3.38	0.98
There should be a cooperation between EMI instructors and language instructors at English PYP schools.	100	3.22	0.84	2.90	1.16
Instructors at English PYP schools should adjust their teaching speed based on students' English levels.	100	3.15	1.01	2.51	1.43

Table 61 (cont.d)

Instructors at English PYP Schools should use both Turkish and English flexibly.	100	2.81	1.25	2.47	1.49
Learning materials (for English PYP Schools) should be designed by EMI instructors (those at the departments).	100	2.44	1.42	2.91	1.21
Learning materials for English PYP Schools should be selected among the original textbooks for English native speakers.	100	2.38	1.41	1.98	1.55
Instructors at English PYP schools should give more homework to students.	100	1.70	1.31	2.35	1.39
Instructors at English PYP schools should focus on the subject-area content.	100	2.48	1.31	2.79	1.25
English PYP should focus on both language and the subject-area content.	100	2.63	1.38	2.44	1.51
Content knowledge should be tested in the final exams for English PYP schools.	100	2.38	1.22	3.73	0.45
Four skills should be tested in the final exams for English PYP schools.	100	2.68	1.26	3.74	0.44
Instructors at English PYP schools should focus on improving students' English language skills.	100	3.25	0.83	2.57	1.47
Instructors at English PYP schools should receive education on how to teach English for EMI courses.	100	2.34	1.48	2.63	0.90
Overall M		2.61		2.85	
Overall SD		1.30		1.34	

English PYP students ($M = 2.61$, $SD = 1.30$) and instructors ($M = 2.82$, $SD = 1.31$) agreed with the recommendations more strongly than the EMI instructors and students did (see Table 61).

The PYP students agreed with the item Instructors at English PYP schools should focus on improving students' English language skills ($M = 3.25$, $SD = 0.83$). The following items are There should be a cooperation between EMI instructors and language instructors in the EMI courses ($M = 3.22$, $SD = 0.84$) and Instructors at English PYP Schools should adjust their teaching speed based on students' English levels ($M = 3.15$, $SD = 1.01$). They also strongly recommended that Instructors at English PYP Schools should be proficient in content knowledge in English. (e.g., in law, medicine, engineering) ($M = 2.90$, $SD = 1.22$) and that Instructors at English PYP schools should take EMI methodological courses ($M = 2.86$, $SD = 1.16$). Among their strong recommendations were also Instructors at English PYP school should receive a bonus if they are eager to improve themselves in EMI instruction ($M = 2.81$, $SD = 1.27$) and Instructors at English PYP Schools should use both Turkish and English flexibly in EMI courses ($M = 2.81$, $SD = 1.25$). However, they did not recommend that Instructors at English PYP schools should give more homework to students ($M = 1.70$, $SD = 1.31$) and that English as a foreign language courses and the EMI courses should be scheduled in the same term for students ($M = 2.11$, $SD = 1.35$). They did not strongly recommend that Lessons at English PYP School should be taught by EMI instructors (those at departments) ($M = 2.36$, $SD = 1.45$), either.

The instructors' strongest recommendations are that Language should be tested in the final exams for English PYP school ($M = 3.75$, $SD = 0.44$) and Content knowledge should be tested in the final exams for English PYP schools ($M = 3.73$, $SD = 0.45$). All the participants almost agreed with the items Lessons at English PYP School should be taught by language instructors ($M = 3.38$, $SD = 0.98$) and Lessons at English PYP School should be taught by EMI instructors (those at departments) ($M = 3.36$, $SD = 0.98$), too. Besides, they also strongly agree that English education tailored for the EMI courses should be allocated a longer time ($M = 3.06$, $SD = 1.18$), Instructors at English PYP schools should take EMI methodological courses ($M = 3.05$, $SD = 1.23$) and Instructors at English PYP school should receive a bonus if they are eager to improve themselves in EMI instruction ($M = 3.03$, $SD = 1.11$). Likewise,

they thought the items Learning materials (for English PYP School) should be designed by EMI instructors (those at the departments) ($M = 2.91$, $SD = 1.21$), There should be a cooperation between EMI instructors and language instructors in the EMI courses ($M = 2.90$, $SD = 1.16$), Instructors at English PYP schools should focus on the subject-area content during EMI courses ($M = 2.79$, $SD = 1.25$) and Instructors at English PYP Schools should be proficient in content knowledge in English (e.g. in law, medicine, engineering) ($M = 2.74$, $SD = 1.27$) represented their recommendations strongly enough. On the other hand, they did not recommend that Learning materials for English PYP School should be original textbooks for English native speakers ($M = 1.98$, $SD = 1.55$) and Instructors at English PYP schools should give more homework to students ($M = 2.35$, $SD = 1.39$), and that English as a foreign language courses and the EMI courses should be scheduled in the same term for students ($M = 2.44$, $SD = 1.51$).

4.5 Qualitative Findings

4.5.1. The EMI instructors' and English PYP instructors' interviews. This section treats of the findings from the qualitative data analysis conducted through in-depth semi-structured interviews with the EMI instructors and English PYP instructors. The interpretations of the qualitative data taken from both cohorts of participants were grouped under the same titles because the interview questions were designed similarly with the aim of reaching triangulation with the scales used in the quantitative phase of the study (See Chapter 3).

4.5.1.1. Demographic information There were 7 EMI instructors from 4 different universities and 6 instructors from 6 different universities who participated in the semi-structured interviews. All the participants gave their written consent for the online interview sessions to be recorded and the necessary permissions regarding the ethical approval were taken from the relevant universities. More male the EMI instructors ($n = 5$, 72%) were interviewed than female the EMI instructors ($n = 2$, 28%). However, more female English PYP instructors ($n = 5$, 83%) participated in the interviews than male instructors ($n = 1$, 17%). The departments and the certificates of the participants varied a lot. Two of the EMI instructors were from the department of medicine while all the others were lecturing at separate departments. As for the

instructors, one of them (17%) had PhD in English language teaching and one of them (17%) had PhD in English literature. Four instructors (67%) had MA in ELT while two (33%) had MA in English literature. Additionally, two of these instructors (33%) held TESOL and one (17%) held CELTA certificates (see Table 62).

As far as the experiences are concerned, most of the EMI instructors (n= 6, 86%) had more than 10 years of EMI experience while only one (14%) had 5 years of EMI experience. The majority of the PYP instructors (n=4, 67%) had more than 10 years of teaching experience while only two (33%) had 5 years of experience.



Table 62

Demographic Information of the EMI Instructors and English PYP Instructors who Participated in the Interviews

Codes	Gender	EMI/Teaching Experience	Expertise/Certificates	Universities	Region
EMI Instructors					
EL1	F	More than 10 years	Nursing Care	University S2	Marmara
EL2	M	More than 10 years	Advertising and Marketing	University K	Marmara
EL3	M	More than 5 years	Marine Engineering	University G	Aegean
EL4	M	More than 10 years	Finance	University K	Marmara
EL5	M	More than 10 years	Engineering Management	University K	Marmara
EL6	F	More than 10 years	Medicine	University G	Aegean
EL7	M	More than 10 years	Medicine – Military	University Z3	Central Anatolia
English PYP Instructors					
INS1	F	More than 10 years	MA in ELT	University A	Marmara
INS2	M	More than 5 years	MA in English Literature, TESOL	University I	Marmara
INS3	F	More than 10 years	MA in ELT, CELTA	University R	Central Anatolia
INS4	F	More than 10 years	MA and PhD in ELT	University C2	Marmara
INS5	F	More than 5 years	MA and PhD in English Literature	University H	Marmara
INS6	F	More than 10 years	MA in ELT, TESOL	University M2	Aegean

The themes created out of the EMI instructors' and instructors' interviews were analyzed under five themes and ten subthemes (see Table 63). The following section summarizes the findings in detail.

Table 63

Themes from the Analysis of EMI Instructors' and English PYP Instructors' Interviews

Themes	Subthemes
The importance of the EMI courses	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Opportunities for students' future career 2. Benefits for language proficiency 3. Improving educational standards
Students' language use and competence	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Students' lack of competence for the EMI courses 2. The need for cooperation between EMI departments and PYP schools
Classroom language, curriculum, and materials	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The necessity for English-only lessons 2. More field terminology lessons 3. The need to improve PYP
The drivers of EMI in Turkish context	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Globalization and internationalization 2. The need for a lingua franca.

4.5.1.2. The importance of the EMI courses While they were sharing their ideas regarding the necessity of EMI in Turkish tertiary EFL context, both the EMI instructors and instructors mentioned that they found it essential for higher education by elaborating their viewpoints and exemplifying the reasons. They were all of the opinion that the EMI in higher education was of avail to their students because it provides *opportunities for students' future career, benefits for language proficiency, and better educational standards.*

4.5.1.2.1. Opportunities for students' future career PYP instructors thought that the English lessons they were teaching are of significance for students' departmental studies because high level of academic English they would acquire as they study their majors will help them to be employed in other countries or international companies. Similarly, EMI instructors highlighted the importance of the EMI courses for better

job opportunities, and they further added that students studying in EMI departments were more qualified and had higher chances to find a more decent job.

I know the students cannot learn English terminology related to their major or read texts in different disciplines in English PYP schools. However, I believe they become competent enough to improve their language in any field when they finish their preparatory education. In the end, they will stand out among other candidates in their academic or corporate lives thanks to their English or just because they perform their jobs in English (INS3).

English PYP school is necessary for the EMI students because they learn how to use their language skills here. And, when they start their departments, they benefit from these skills for their academic achievements. They know how to become global citizens, understand global terms, and work overseas with better opportunities. In this way, they will have a more prestigious career when they graduate from their majors (INS2).

Students can already study these lessons in Turkish, after school. Or they can read the translated versions of the articles and come to the class. They can use any technological means. However, what is important for them is to tell or write what they understand in English without any hindrance. Global world and international companies are looking for presentable candidates who can communicate spontaneously in a global language. (EL2).

If students study these lessons only in their mother tongue, they may not produce texts or speeches in English because even machine translation or AI tools cannot express their feelings, ideas, academic knowledge in the way they want. All global positions need students or employees who have an excellent command of English or even another language (EL5).

It can be concluded here that the ability to use English for professional means is important for the students' future career in addition to basic English skills and content-area knowledge. As a matter of fact, EMI courses help the students to be more advantageous in professional area.

4.5.1.2.2. *Benefits for language proficiency* Both the instructors and EMI instructors emphasized the fact that EMI courses could help students learn how to use each language skill better while they study for the content. The EMI instructors thought that the students started their departments with a certain level of English, but they learnt how to use English in academic life thanks to EMI courses and they become more proficient as they graduate from their departments. Instructors also put forward that the ability to use English can be further improved through assignments and real lectures.

PYP is not enough for a proficient and competent level of English. EMI courses are necessary. As an English teacher, I achieved a native-like command of English while I was taking courses in my department, not at my PYP school (INS5).

Students need to read and listen to texts in their own fields. Otherwise, they may not be motivated. I think the EMI courses can motivate the students to improve their English after the PYP. In PYP schools, they study because they must. But they study because they want to once, they start their departments (INS1).

EMI courses are also indispensable for improving language proficiency. Yes, the students who start their departments have a high level of English, but they can practice their language and improve it as they read our books and assignments (EL3).

We can track the students' language proficiency from the first year to the last year of their education. Before they graduate, they can use their English much more professionally as they give presentations or write academic essays (EL1).

Overall, the above statements indicate that EMI courses are as indispensable a part of English education in Turkish higher education as PYP. In fact, they complement each other.

4.5.1.2.3. *Improving educational standards* The participants emphasized the point that EMI in Turkish higher education made the overall education more refined

for international standards. They mentioned that not all students had the opportunity to receive English medium of instruction at primary, secondary or high schools in Turkish education system. However, as medium of instruction in most Turkish universities is fully or partially English, they receive much better English education, tailored to international standards, as they study at a university. They even start to seek international career or education opportunities.

The medium of instruction is not fully EMI in my institution. However, students continue taking English courses even after voluntary PYP through internationalized materials (INS6).

EMI encourages us to follow the educational trends and developments in our majors in the international field. We can share the original or authentic materials with our students in English. So, EMI in universities help students access such materials (EL7).

I cannot think of any Turkish university without EMI because it is what helps science develop in our country and contributes to the international prestige of our education. Otherwise, we cannot compete in the international field (EL4).

The instructors and lectures mostly hold the view that EMI improves the whole Turkish education system as far as international standards are concerned. In other words, it renders the universities an essential component of the education system.

4.5.1.3. Students' language use and competence The instructors and EMI instructors underscored that their students were, as a matter of fact, deprived of opportunities to use their language competently enough for academic and/or communicative purposes although the EMI courses were intended to prepare them for international workplaces. When they were asked about their students' language proficiency, both cohorts of participants particularly complained about the *students' lack of competence and the need for the cooperation between PYP schools and EMI departments.*

4.5.1.3.1. *Students' lack of competence for the EMI courses* During the interviews, the EMI instructors stressed that their students found it very challenging to synthesize an academic text properly, listen to a lecture and take notes at the same time, present their thoughts clearly through academic terminology or write a well-built essay or a research paper on a content area. They added that they were mostly satisfied with their students' English levels as they could participate in any debate on a superficial level without any communication breakdowns. Similarly, the instructors told they could not rest assured that their students' English competence would suffice them to understand the text or speeches created in academic English when they started their departments.

The students can understand us and communicate with us very easily. They do not need Turkish. However, when I start presenting the content in English, I know they find it hard to comprehend. They do not even know where to note down (EL6).

We must all admit that students come with a proficient level of English. However, they cannot write essays or create academic presentations as they cannot understand our terminology. What's more, it takes months for them to adapt to our language and academic contexts (EL3).

Our students possess satisfactory grammar skills and a considerable amount of general vocabulary, at least to pass certain proficiency exams. However, we know that they cannot showcase their skills to full extent when they read texts heavy in content or listen to academic lectures (INS4).

Students make great efforts to take their English to the best level in English PYP schools. But we, as instructors, cannot help them to improve their language skills for academic contexts; their majors vary so much. The students have a huge language burden on their shoulders while they study in their departments (INS6).

According to the above statements, students needed further language support, especially for four skill competences, when they started studying in their departments.

The instructors suggested that English PYP schools were not completely enough for academic competences. And the EMI instructors were on the same page with them.

4.5.1.3.2. The need for cooperation between EMI departments and PYP schools

All the participants put forward that the students' lack of competence for the EMI courses was associated with the lack of alignment between the PYP schools' and the EMI departments' curricula. The instructors stated that they did not have the certain know-how to instill terminology in their students during PYP. Likewise, the EMI instructors mentioned they lacked the certain pedagogical knowledge or time to teach language to their students during EMI courses, which were already packed with academic content to teach. What's more, both the instructors and the EMI instructors admitted they were cognizant of what was taught in the academic English lessons given by the departments or English PYP schools. Similarly, the EMI instructors did admit that they did not know how language was taught in the English PYP schools. Both cohorts of the participants told they would like to cooperate with each other for a better EMI course.

It would be better if we could prepare our students for the academic English as well. At least we could teach the technical vocabulary. However, we must be in contact with their teachers all the time and make a connection with the PYP school curriculum (INS3).

We know the language education given in the PYP schools are not enough for students' future. We just improve their English, but we cannot help them further for academic English. We do not know how they use their English skills in their departments. We do not even know what they are taught in ESP lessons given by departments. Departments had better counsel and support us (INS6).

I cannot underestimate the quality of the PYP, but we as EMI instructors must continue supporting our students' language development until they graduate, which is obvious. We do not know how to teach a language, but we can get some support from their language teachers at PYP schools. I cannot teach English presentation skills, for instance (EL7).

We know that they get extra English lessons, given by the PYP school, once they start their departments, but we do not know the content of these lessons. EMI Instructors or professors from different fields can review their curricula to see they do not fit the students' academic language needs (EL4).

As it can be understood from the above statements, instructors and EMI instructors sought for a cooperation among each other mostly because they lacked information about the content of each other's lessons. And they were ready for improving their students' academic English through combined efforts.

4.5.1.4. Classroom language, curriculum, and materials

4.5.1.4.1. The necessity for English-only lessons The instructors as well as the EMI instructors believed no other medium of instruction than English could be used in higher education institutions where internationalized education was a must. They also added that, although their L1 was Turkish, they were doing their best to adapt the students to English-only medium of instruction in their academic studies. They said they never used Turkish for academic purposes although they must occasionally resort to it for counselling purposes. In addition, they mentioned that their students took some lessons from native speaker instructors or EMI instructors, who did not know any or much Turkish. They found this necessary as students must be exposed to different accents.

I think the students can improve their English for EMI courses only if we as their instructors get them to use just English at PYP schools. What is the reason why they are taking their lessons through EMI then? If they do not get used to English-only classes now, then when? (INS3).

We sometimes have to use Turkish to guide the students outside the classroom or even within the classroom to support their learning. However, it is wrong to use English for academic purposes. If we want our students to take internationalized education, we must use English from the beginning (INS5).

I think if we had to use Turkish instead of English in our lessons, we would have to translate everything at first. We even do not know the exact Turkish equivalents for some terms. Thus, it is impossible not to use English in EMI courses. Yes, we admit we use Turkish for other purposes; students need to get some support, but for lessons, no (EL4).

If we want to internationalize the education, English is a must. I cannot teach these lessons in Turkish now, anyway. Students take English lessons for 1-2 years at PYP schools. So, I do not think they have communication problems. They must continue learning in English and English itself if they want to address to the whole world. Besides, some of their instructors or EMI instructors are foreign, which is good. They must listen to different accents (EL5).

As the participants suggest, English was a necessity rather than a choice for both the EMI students and instructors/EMI instructors. For better EMI and internationalization of the higher education, they highlight that they cannot abstain from using the language.

4.5.1.4.2. More field terminology lessons Although the EMI instructors were mostly satisfied with the EMI courses in their institutions, they all mentioned that their curricula needed some advancements as far as use of academic English or ESP are concerned. They stated that they found it hard and time-wasting to teach certain terminology to their students especially just as they started their departments. All the EMI instructors who participated in the interview thought that a comprehensive terminology must be taught to students from the beginning of PYP onwards.

Students keep asking for the Turkish equivalents of some English terms in their first year. We cannot answer simply because we have never worked on the Turkish terms. Only when we gave the definitions by using simple words can they understand their meaning. But this takes so much of our time. I think terminology and definitions must be added to our syllabus (EL3).

[Students] jump start their departmental studies without taking any lessons in academic terminology. I can understand why they have some difficulty at the

beginning. I think PYP schools can work together with the departments and create terminologies and definitions for different departments (EL1)

the EMI students must start learning about their fields' terminology at PYP school and they must continue studying for it and, for example, read extra field related texts in their English lessons when they are studying at their departments (EL6).

It is apparent that the EMI instructors were satisfied with what they were teaching if their students were not familiar with the field terminology. The reason behind is that they suggested adapting their curriculum, getting some help from the PYP schools, and even spreading the terminology over the whole university education.

4.5.1.4.3. The need to improve PYP Even though the instructors were glad to teach English for general purposes at PYP schools, they felt this was not enough for their students' EMI courses at departments because they must improve their productive skills. They thought English PYP must be improved all over the country by integrating different English teaching approaches. They also thought that more authentic and academic materials must be added, and the instructors must be trained on EMI courses.

We merely teach English to our students. They mostly lack the opportunities to practice what they know. They just pass the exams and move on to the best level. After the proficiency exams, they start their departments simple because they know grammar and vocabulary (INS4).

I think we just apply what the books say. Of course, general English is essential, but our education must also have materials that can improve the students' academic English skills. Different methods and approaches are needed to make the PYP more appropriate for students (INS2).

I have been working at PYP schools for more than 10 years. Nothing has changed over the years. The students are exposed to huge amounts of input, but we do not have enough time to get them to be more productive. Our sources are limited (INS5).

We must use supplementary resources to prepare our students for EMI. What we are doing here is sufficient for general English knowledge, but students need more. They do not need most of the projects or tasks we ask them to do. They need more authentic things (INS3).

The instructors' statements indicate that the PYP system needs tailoring for better EMI courses and that it is merely good for improving the students' English vocabulary and grammar knowledge. The instructors feel the need to be able to improve their students writing and speaking skills.

4.5.1.5. The drivers of EMI in Turkish context The EMI instructors and instructors presented various but similar ideas regarding the interview questions *What factors have impacted the adoption of EMI in Turkish higher education?* and *What is the most important factor?* Both cohorts of the participants considered the students' and Turkish society's demands are among the important factors in addition to university rankings. They said most universities were increasing the number of EMI departments simple because they wanted to make their institutions more reputable in the international arena. Also, the strategies for making more academic developments were mentioned. Some instructors especially considered English PYP to be the rudimentary premises for taking the academic level of the students to the next level. However, some EMI instructors found the language level of the students and the academic staff not proficient enough to make the academic achievements seem more attractive, which is associated with the previous sub-section 4.5.1.4. However, the most important reasons for adopting EMI in Turkish higher education institutions, according to both the instructors and the EMI instructors, are *globalization and internationalization* and *the need for a lingua franca for global academic developments*.

4.5.1.5.1. Globalization and internationalization The participants were aware of the fact that the universities were providing EMI courses for globalized and internationalized education according to the tenets set forth by the CoHE. Both cohorts highlighted that their students must compete in an international arena to be the best in their careers and therefore they needed EMI not for their university education only. In

addition, they felt the universities must all follow the trend of internationalization if the whole world is to contribute to the academic world. Through EMI, the participants thought, the students could introduce the new academic and scientific trends present in the developed countries to Turkey and, therefore, internationalization could set perfect examples for the development of the country.

The reason behind a full-year PYP is to better equip our students with the means, which is English, to communicate with the global world. They have the right to receive education in international standards and become global citizens. They can broaden their horizons and become much better in their fields (INS2).

We need students who can understand the latest trends all over the world and introduce them to our country. Or they can create similar trends themselves by learning about the other countries. But, for this, they need to comprehend and produce texts in English, which is a global language. For the development of our country, we need EMI (INS5).

If I had not taken my education through EMI, I would not have been so successful because I had access to original learning materials and could communicate with the masterminds in my field freely. To be global and improve our country's academics and science, we need education in internationalized standards (EL7). Our students need to be global citizens, that's why. They must present themselves wherever they go. We should not just copy and paste what [other countries] do. We must communicate freely with them and build on what they have already produced in order to contribute to internationalization. That's why we need EMI (EL2).

As the above statements suggest, the instructors and EMI instructors thought Turkey had adopted EMI because the country wanted to raise students who could benefit from and contribute to the international developments. In addition, globalization was considered to be another reason for academic developments.

4.5.1.5.2. The need for a lingua franca The participants mentioned that the whole world required a common means of communication for mutual benefits in academics,

science, and technology. Most of the participants openly highlighted the need for a lingua franca and stated that EMI had been adopted because Turkey must teach the students how to communicate in language used commonly all over the world. Owing to this reason, the participants mostly thought that EMI was actually not a choice but a must.

People develop everything in English first because it is a lingua franca. I personally know that reading something in English teaches me better than in a translated language. Similarly, students must be able to use English for their studies (INS3).

All academic, technological, and scientific studies must be carried out in a common language for a globalized world. English has readily been used by all the world for such purposes for ages. So, our students must know it very well to reach the authentic sources and that's why they are taught through EMI (INS5).

In the past, Greek, and Latin were common languages all over the world. So, all everything was written, produced, and carried out in those languages. Now, English is the lingua franca; we need it. Therefore, it is actually a must for universities to give EMI courses to their students (EL2).

Even the coding language is based on English because most of the world citizens are familiar with its linguistics. Even if the students do not take EMI, they must be very proficient in English wherever they go. Turkey and other countries must adopt EMI simply because English is spoken widely in every country (EL5).

The participants believed the whole world needed English to understand global developments in different fields and, because of this, Turkey would have had no other choice but to adopt English as the other countries did.

4.5.1.6. The EMI instructors' and instructors' recommendations The EMI instructors and instructors made similar recommendations when they were asked about what must be done to make EMI courses better in Turkish higher education system. They all provided recommendations for students, EMI instructors and instructors,

institutions, and policy makers as shown in Table 64. For each group, three to four main themes emerged on MAXQDA software. The most important and relevant statements were shared for each theme emerged under each sub headline. The participants mostly stated that they were satisfied with the English PYP and/or the EMI courses but the system needed a change to address better to the students' needs on the whole.

Table 64

The EMI Instructors and Instructors' Recommendations for Improving EMI in Turkish Higher Education

	Recommendations	References
Students	Learning and studying English extensively	INS1, EL3
	Being inquisitive about their fields	EL4, EL5
	Following the global trends in their fields	INS5, EL1
EMI Instructors & Instructors	Improving themselves on EMI	EL2, INS3
	Improving their English	EL6, EL3
	Mediating the language for the EMI courses	INS4, EL1
Institutions	More cooperation between PYP school and EMI departments	INS4, INS6, EL4
	Concentrating more on competence	INS3, EL4, EL2
	Training for EMI instructors and instructors	EL3, INS2
	More EMI programs	EL4, INS1
Policy Makers	More appropriate language learning approaches	INS3, INS2, EL5
	Starting EMI earlier	INS5, EL3
	Making the instructors and EMI instructors aware of the national policies	EL1, EL4, INS2, INS4

4.5.1.6.1 *For students* Both the EMI instructors and the instructors thought that their students must not do with what was already taught in the PYP school and their departments.

Learning English, or any other language, is a life-time journey. The students must improve themselves outside the classroom by reading, doing research in English (INS1).

The students must prepare for their lessons by studying the lessons materials beforehand and doing something extra. Those who do extra-curricular activities in their field are always ahead of others. This is the case for English, too (EL3).

The participants also thought that the students must be eager to learn more about their own areas by using English resources as this is what undergraduate education mostly expects them to do.

All the materials provided by the departments and the lessons the students are taking are not enough for them to use their English in a proficient level. At university, EMI instructors guide the students and the students become more eager to learn. Otherwise, they cannot improve their language, either (EL4).

Our students must be more encouraged to learn about their fields, but our education system just test them through tests and exams. They are also not satisfied with this situation, but they can themselves create more opportunities to improve their language competence in this age of technology (EL5).

The EMI instructors and instructors also felt that students must be familiar with the developments in their fields through use of social media and other online resources. They stated that they had access to every possible means.

Students should never stop following what is currently happening in their fields just as we should. However, we cannot teach them everything here. They must be ready for the new world (INS5).

[The students] have the power of internet and social media. They must use it to their advantage as they learn more about their fields simply by following the names in their fields, such as Elon Musk. They do not need to study English or lessons to improve their language (EL1).

4.5.1.6.2 For EMI instructors and instructors The participants stated that EMI and its purposes had not been entirely understood by all the faculty members either in their institutions or all over the country. Therefore, they highlighted that they must themselves seek to learn why there was EMI in Turkish higher education system.

Many instructors or university EMI instructors teach English or [teach through EMI] simply because they wanted to keep up with their schedules. However, if we do not understand the reasons behind, we cannot teach properly. So, university staff and faculty members must train themselves on EMI (INS3).

Most of us know nothing about EMI or history of EMI in Turkish higher education. We must be knowledgeable about why these lessons are given merely in English. Then, I guess we can teach even better (EL2).

Not the instructors but the most EMI instructors were not satisfied with some faculty members' English level and the fact that they did nothing to improve them.

First of all, some of us really improve their English. Taking a satisfactory score out of a national exam is not sufficient. We must continue reading and producing in English. Some staff should even stop producing articles only in Turkish (EL6).

Some EMI instructors give EMI courses although they do not want to as they do not feel proficient enough in English. I think there is nothing our state could do to improve our English. We must do our best to take it to the next level by reading, doing research, and participating more in international conferences (EL3).

The participants also believed that the teaching staff must not only teach language or lessons to their students but also help them to understand why EMI was important and how they could be better equipped for the international arena.

I think we should explain why it is important to learn English or why English only lessons are going to be given. The students must be guided on EMI well and we should be able to help them with tips to be better in their future careers (INS4).

Mostly students do not entirely know why they are taking EMI courses or why it is important to think critically in English, etc. I think we should allocate some time to talk support about on they can be better in their fields (EL1).

4.5.1.6.3 For institutions Both the instructors and the EMI instructors suggested that there should be seamless cooperation or unity between the PYP schools and the EMI departments. The reasons they mostly put forward for such a collaboration was that there was not academic alignment, at least in higher-level English lessons and faculty lessons.

The departments should definitely help us to prepare some materials, especially for field terminology, at least for upper-intermediate level students (INS4).

Our students get difficulty for the first one to two year adapting to the English lessons although they were very successful in PYP school. Institutions must help us to work together [with the EMI instructors] to prepare our students earlier for academic English, at PYP schools (INS6).

Many universities must re-design the PYP school schedules by taking advice from the faculty members, EMI instructors, etc. Our students must be exposed to some terminology and academic language use much earlier (EL4).

The participants also suggested that the institutions must prepare schedules concentrated on competence along with grammar and basic vocabulary. They thought the students must be better at using four skills than grammar for the EMI courses.

Of course, we must teach basic English and vocabulary, but the schedules must also include authentic tasks for higher levels, suitable for their future studies. Student start to learn how to use four skills for EMI courses with us (INS3).

Universities must improve the PYP school programs by adding lessons concentrated more on notetaking, listening, writing a research paper, etc. Students have a wide range of basic vocabulary but cannot create academic presentations (EL4).

It is obvious that students are very good at grammar and general vocabulary, but this is not enough for the EMI courses. Our assessment criteria include presentations, academic research paper writing, reaction paper writing, reading articles etc. These should be heeded as the PYP is designed. ESP and EAP courses at departments are actually too-late reinforcements (EL2).

Another thing the participants recommend for institutions is training for both EMI instructors and instructors on EMI, how to teach content-based lessons, and improve students English for future the EMI courses.

All of us have certain certificates to teach English and even hold MA in English language teaching. However, I think, this is not enough if we do not know how to prepare our students for the EMI courses. Their departments vary a lot. They have different needs. I think there should be regular training sessions held by the institutions according to their students' needs (INS2).

I have been teaching through EMI for years. However, I have never received any training on how to teach by using English only. Perhaps we are doing things wrong. We all think that the students' English, or academic English, is good as ours. But, sometimes, there are communication breakdowns. We must be educated by the institution on what to do in such situations (EL3).

According to the participants, the number of EMI programs provided were not enough for the international reputation of their institutions. They also thought that more native and foreign staff must be recruited for the present or new departments.

Some universities in Turkey provide EMI for all their departments. However, my institution and many others do not have sufficient EMI programs, and therefore, enough foreign staff. This is important for globalization of the education. They must increase the number of EMI programs (INS1).

Although I am happy to teach [through EMI], my institution must work harder and provide [100% EMI] lessons for all the departments. In this way, more developments can be made for the sake of EMI. We can attract more foreign staff or renowned scientists (EL4).

4.5.1.6.4 *For policy makers* The participants stated that the approaches to teach English or teach courses through EMI need refining or redesigning as most staff felt the inefficiency of the current programmes, which have been designed in addressing to the EMI students' needs in the developing globalized world. They thought this could only be compensated by the government.

We teach English by using course books selected by our institution. And we must abide by the schedules presented. However, they must be changed or adapted according to academic English or EMI departments. If the government works to suggest a common and more EMI oriented language learning approach, all university students would be better at English for their departments (INS3).

There are better approaches to teach English for the EMI students than the ones we are currently using. And people in other countries are developing new ones almost every year. As a country, we must keep up with the current trends to prepare our students' English for the developed world (INS2).

I know that we can teach our content well enough. However, we are using another medium of communication, English. Some content teaching approaches

must be added by [CoHE] or taught to us for preparing our students much better in the long run (EL5).

The participants also suggested that all Turkish students must start taking EMI courses or be given the chance to start taking them much earlier, perhaps at primary school. They believed it was important to start to learn something in another language at a very young age.

The government should also design policies to get the students to learn their school subjects in English at younger ages. In this way, they would start their university education without any language barriers, and they would be far better at English as they would have been learning for long years (EL3).

In addition to learning general English, young students must start learning other school subjects in English as well. I am sure the students would not have any problems related to language competence at university if the government could devise such programmes because starting to use English at a young age is very important (INS5).

Most of the participants criticized the fact that they did not much about language policies or EMI policies of the government. They actually stated that they were unaware of the reasons why the current language policies were implemented or what kind of teaching approaches were recommended by the government for the EMI courses.

Although I know that each PYP school is free to design its own program, the government must seek for an alignment for all universities in the country because there is a common goal: to prepare the students for EMI courses. However, as instructors, we must also be taught about the government policies on EMI (INS2).

I never wondered about the reasons for the adoption of EMI in our country until I took part in this research. I knew instructors teaching ESP to the EMI students must work on Bologna accreditation. However, as English instructors, we must

learn the details of such processes and why we are teaching through EMI. The government must raise the awareness of English instructors (INS4).

I have learnt a lot about Bologna process and its requirements as I have been in close contact with the department directors. However, I know there are more to delve into, and EMI instructors must be knowledgeable about them to give better lessons to their students (EL1).

Most of us do not know why we are teaching through EMI in some departments or what is expected of the EMI instructors, both academically and professionally. If the government made us aware of their policies and the history of the whole process, we could perhaps be more motivated (EL4).

4.5.2. The EMI students' and PYP students' focus group interviews. This section presents the findings of the content analysis from six semi-structured focus group interviews conducted to gather the students' perceptions for triangulation. The focus group interviews were conducted with 12 PYP students and 12 the EMI students from 4 different universities. Conducted in Turkish, the focus groups produced the codes and themes, which were later translated into English by the researcher.

4.5.2.1. Demographic information The details of the student participants who participated in the focus group interviews are presented in Table 65.

Table 65

Demographic Information of the Students who Participated in Focus Group Interviews

Focus Groups	Students	Universities	Regions	Student Codes
PFA	PYP Students	University A, C, I, B	Marmara	from PFA1 to PFA4
PFB	PYP Students	University J, K2	Central Anatolia	from PFB1 to PFB4
EFA	EMI Students	University E, G, K	Marmara	from EFA1 to EFA4
EFB	EMI Students	University D, Z2, M2	Aegean	from EFB1 to EFB4

All of the EMI students were taking the EMI courses from the EMI instructors and all of the PYP students were taking English PYP at the time when the interview was conducted. The focus group interviews were conducted between June 2022 and February 2023.

The themes created subsequent to the content analysis of the students' focus group interviews were analyzed under four themes and eleven subthemes (see Table 66).

Table 66

The Themes and Subthemes from the Analysis of EMI Students' and PYP Students' Focus Group Interviews

Themes	Subthemes
The importance of the EMI courses	1. Studying and working international scale
	2. Accessing international academic studies
	3. Better cognitive and creative skills
Students' language use and competence	1. The need to improve competence
	2. The need for early access to field terminology
Classroom language, curriculum, and materials	1. Differences between English at PYP schools and in departments
	2. The language proficiency of the EMI instructors
	3. The focus of PYP and the EMI courses.
The drivers of EMI in Turkish context	1. Differences between English at PYP schools and in departments
	2. The language proficiency of the EMI instructors
	3. The focus of PYP and the EMI courses

4.5.2.2. The importance of the EMI courses Most of the student participants were of the opinion that it was essential for them to take EMI courses in their country for various reasons. The most salient ones were related to academic studies and job opportunities in international area, being able to access internationally renowned materials in their fields and gathering wider world knowledge regarding their academic studies.

4.5.2.2.1. Studying and working international scale The participants thought it was necessary to take the EMI courses because of the fact that it could provide them

better and decent job opportunities all over the world or help them develop themselves like international academic staff if they desire to continue doing academic research.

We all know that if we did not learn these lessons in English, we would not succeed in business life very much and we could not be hired for international firms. In addition, we have lots of opportunities as students like exchange programs (EFB3).

Thanks to English PYP school and our English lessons in the departments, we will be able to be recruited for international firms. And we will also be globally successful in academic life if we continue studying in our fields after university (PFB3).

4.5.2.2.2. *Accessing international academic studies* According to the students, it was a necessity for them to study their lessons in English because most of the academic papers, important research studies and conferences were conducted in English. In addition, they thought that they would not be catch up with the science so fast if they were learning the courses in their mother tongue.

If we were not taking the EMI courses, we would not understand international research papers. We can come up with better research ideas and produce better tasks thanks to learning everything in its original language (EFA1).

We definitely need EMI courses because the science and other fields develop all their products, texts, etc. in English. When we read or listen to something in English, this saves us a lot of time. (PFA2).

4.5.2.2.3. *Better cognitive and creative skills* Most of the students also believed that they would have a better and global view of the world thanks to reading everything in their original versions. In addition, they stated that they would have better critical thinking and creative skills as they studied everything in another tongue.

As we learn everything in another language, this improves our critical thinking ability. And I personally feel more developed in writing in both Turkish and English as I have studied “language” (EFA4).

I know most of us find it hard to learn English but once we learn it, we will all want to study everything in English only. We can speak and write well because we are studying academic English (PFA3).

4.5.2.3. Students’ language use and competence The students stated that they needed more work their L2 competence although they were taking intensive courses throughout their PYP. Besides, they were all of the opinion that they should have started studying vocabulary related to their own fields much earlier, at PYP school. In this way, they mentioned, they would have less difficulty adapting to the language at the beginning of their freshman years.

4.5.2.3.1. The need to improve competence Both the EMI and PYP students highlighted the fact that they could use English well enough while listening to a EMI instructor, taking down notes, writing an academic paper, at the beginning of their EMI courses even though they had proven through examinations that their English proficiency levels were high enough. They mostly added that they actually needed more time or an English-speaking country to start their education better.

I know my English is good enough as my scores were always high at English PYP school. But I still find it hard to produce something in English, speaking or writing, listen to my EMI instructor and take notes, for example. I am developing but it is not fast enough. We must write academic papers in this term. I think [students] must study these skills at PYP schools (EFB2).

I am nearly at the end of my English PYP, but I am still not good at reading fast, making academic sentences or sentence well enough to impress the EMI instructors in the departments. I think PYP school should be longer or more intensive and we should prepare for our [EMI courses]. Or, for instance, we can visit the EMI instructors or other universities in other countries to improve our use of English (PFB3).

4.5.2.3.2. *The need for early access to field terminology* Although the students were quite satisfied with learning basic and general English at PYP schools, they thought they were not prepared well for their departments as they lacked the necessary vocabulary knowledge for their studies. They thought if they were able to spare some time to learn academic vocabulary and field related vocabulary in PYP schools, they would not have that much difficulty in their departments and would become more motivated.

Of course, we should start learning basics first. However, this is vocabulary. It would not make us demotivated to start studying the terminology early at PYP schools. On the contrary, we would become more encouraged. We are here to use English in our own departments or fields (EFA3).

As PYP students, we would like to start reading texts and learning vocabulary related to our own fields. This would save us a lot of time. I know my friends are having so much difficulty learning some academic words at the beginning of their departmental education (PFB4).

4.5.2.4. Classroom language, curriculum, and materials Just like the EMI instructors and PYP instructors, the students touched upon some issues related to the alignment of the education at PYP schools and departments. For instance, many participants highlighted the differences between English they had learnt at the PYP schools, and they were exposed to in the departments. In addition, they mostly thought that the English level of their EMI instructors were not good enough and that PYP and the EMI courses should be aligned more both in content and language.

4.5.2.4.1. *Differences between English at PYP schools and in departments.* Far from being disillusioned, the EMI students mentioned being surprised due to the fact that the English they expected to see in the departments were much more different than the one they had learnt at English PYP schools. They mostly associated this dissimilarity with the textbooks and materials used at PYP schools. And the areas they mostly observed these differences were actually in the books and the language they were exposed to in their classes.

I was quite shocked in my first year because I understood almost nothing. It was English that the EMI instructors spoke, and the books told but it was actually a totally different language to me. I think this was because English PYP taught us general English. We must spend extra time developing our academic English ourselves (EFA1).

I must tell that I learnt English in the full sense of the word only after I had taken lessons in my first year. Of course, they taught us well at the PYP school, but English in our department is totally different. The course books are harder, and you must know technical English to understand them (EFB3).

What I remember most vividly is that I could not concentrate on the lessons at the beginning of my department for a full month simply because I could not understand the language. We were only used to the general English we learnt at the PYP school. The English here is much more... not difficult, but different (EFA3).

4.5.2.4.2. *The language proficiency of the EMI instructors* Regardless of the university they were studying at, most of the students also stated that they were learning much better in the lessons given by native speakers or foreign EMI instructors than in those given by the Turkish EMI instructors. They mostly missed the fluency and the proficiency of the PYP instructors as they had been adapted to them for quite a long time.

The language is very important, I think. Our EMI instructors are quite knowledgeable in their fields, but when it comes to English, we sometimes find some grammatical mistakes or pronunciation mistakes in their sentences. This actually breaks down the communication. Of course, I am not saying we are very good at English, but these are common mistakes, and we were taught a very good English at the PYP school (EFA3).

I enjoy native professors' lessons more as I lose track of time while I am listening to them. They are fluent and good at language just like the instructors at our

PYP school. Turkish EMI instructors sometimes even use Turkish for a long time in the class. We need more proficient EMI instructors (EFB2).

We sometimes have to read the textbook again and again to understand some EMI instructors' lessons better. Yes, they use the same language, and even sentences in the books, but they either speak too fast or too slowly and they lose their fluency. Of course, some Turkish EMI instructors are much better, especially those who have international papers (EFB4).

4.5.2.4.3. The focus of PYP and the EMI courses Both the PYP students and the EMI students indicated that there was a lack of alignment between the PYP and the EMI courses as far as the textbooks, reading passages, listening texts, and learning outcomes were concerned. Only a few students mentioned that their PYP schools were teaching English tailored to the needs of the students that would study at specific departments such as social sciences or physics. However, most of the students said the focus could be more academic in English PYP schools.

I think we have difficulty when we start our departments mostly because they do not teach English to us for our departments much. (PFA3).

Our lesson content is not adapted for academic studies, I think. Of course, we are learning basic English. But I do not think the texts and listening activities in the departments will be so easy (PFB2).

I am not sure whether I will be fully ready for academy when I learn all these stuff at English PYP school. I know from my sister and friends that the content there is much more difficult understand (PFA3).

As a student, we learnt academic as English studied for our exams in the first and second year. I think English PYP schools must focus on authentic texts more. We could have understood them in B1 level at PYP school (EFB2).

I think we lost some time in English PYP school. For instance, we do not have to study passive voice so many times. I learnt passive voice well enough when I

started reading our course books in the first year. PYP students can do this (EFA1).

The thing is we have been learning English for years since primary school. But we learn it well only when we start our departments. So, PYP schools' curriculum could be like the EMI courses (EFA3).

4.5.2.5. The drivers of EMI in Turkish context When asked about the reasons why EMI might have been adopted in Turkish higher education, the students have come up with various ideas. Just as their teachers thought, their perceptions were mostly associated with career opportunities, the necessity to keep up with globalism and raise students with better academic knowledge. Some students also mentioned some economic and political reasons. However, as such comments were less salient, they were not included in the findings.

4.5.2.5.1. The necessity to raise more student researchers The participants mostly highlighted the fact that EMI had been adopted in Turkey because universities needed more students with better academic knowledge and research skills in such fields as engineering, medicine, and psychology. They also stated that student researchers must be raised through EMI because global academic fields required researchers who could speak and write in English fluently. In this way, they put forward, Turkish researchers could make contributions to world science and other global fields.

I think our country needs students who could do research in international scale by using English because such students could introduce global academic trends to the country (EFA3).

Turkish universities are giving [EMI courses] because they want or need to have students who could make scientific contributions to different fields, such as medicine, automation, engineering (EFB2).

We are learning advanced English to take EMI courses without difficulty in our departments because our university, and all the other Turkish universities, must

have successful students who could compete with the other students in other countries especially in academic [research] studies (PFB2).

We must also introduce our science, our language, our culture, our developments, and our research studies to other countries. For instance, we made a breakthrough during COVID by developing vaccines thanks to some Turkish scientists. They all studied EMI, I know, I did some quick research on their career (PFA2).

4.5.2.5.2. *International job opportunities for youth* The students considered the adoption of EMI courses to be a mostly economic step taken to raise the country's rank in the international market by giving the students the chance to participate in international labor force. They thought the reason why EMI courses at universities was in such high demand was that international job opportunities would bring economic benefits to the country thanks to trading and information exchange.

When a country provides its students with career chances in more developed countries, this country can also develop too, both in an economic and political way, because it learns [the international trends] from the other countries. The students act like messengers. This is why there is EMI (EFB4).

As [EMI] students, we can contact foreign people or even work with them. Of course, this is to our advantage as they pay in dollars or euros. However, we should not look from a narrow perspective. Even if we work in other countries, we contribute to our country's economy. At least, we introduce our culture and lifestyle. I think this is why they adopted EMI in the past (EFA3).

It is true that I have selected this department because it will provide me with career chances in the world. I think our country encourages successful students to select [EMI] departments because successful people can survive in

international business life better. And they will preserve our international face (PFA1).

4.5.2.5.3. The requirements of the global age The majority of the students held the view that Turkey had adopted EMI because it was obliged to in addition to the benefits mentioned above. They emphasized that the country must compete well in the global age and so, it needed people with a global point of view.

Every firm and university have become global. They all used English as a medium of exchange. Thus, I think, Turkey had no other choice than start giving EMI courses (EFA1).

Student must think globally, and they must take global decisions to make Turkey a more global country. Global trends, global economy, politics, science, etc. ... they can only be taught through EMI as English itself is a global language. This was not a choice for any European or Asian country, I think (EFB4).

University, as the name suggests, connotes somewhere universal, where global research is conducted, where students learn global languages. I think a country cannot have universities without EMI. Thus, it is a necessity more than a choice (PFA2).

Our country needs students who can think globally. And these students can introduce the world to our country only through English. They must learn everything in English, ... and in other languages, too. So, we must teach and learn departmental lessons in English to become a global society (PFB4).

4.5.2.6. The students' recommendations According to their experiences as either L2 learners or the EMI students at the PYP schools or departments, the participants put forward some recommendations. Their recommendations, which were summarized in Table 67, were mostly for EMI instructors or instructors and institutions.

Table 67

The Students' Recommendations for Improving EMI in Turkish Higher Education

	Recommendations	References
EMI Instructors & PYP Instructors	Improving themselves on EMI	EFB2, EFA3, PFA2, PFB3
	Improving their English	EFA4, EFB1
Institutions	More cooperation between PYP school and EMI departments	PFB3, EFA1
	Concentrating more on competence	PFA3, EFB4
	Teaching terminology at PYP schools	PFB2, PFA3, EFA2, EFB3

4.5.2.6.1. *For EMI instructors and PYP instructors* The participants believed that the EMI instructors and instructors must have the certain pedagogical knowledge to teach through EMI. In particular, the PYP students thought their instructors must be more knowledgeable about teaching content or they must be equipped with different approaches to language teaching.

I am quite satisfied with my instructors. However, we are not learning English for basic purposes. We are going to use it in our future academic lives. So, our teachers must be trained to teach some scientific areas in English to help us (PFA2).

Our teachers do not know anything about what we are going to write, present, or listen to in our departments. Of course, every department has different expectations. But I think they must at least know how they can teach English for common disciplines like economy as well (PFB3).

I know all of the EMI instructors are very good at teaching content to us. But they do not know how to teach it in a foreign language. I think they must follow the trends and develop themselves better, in pedagogical sense (EFB2).

Our EMI instructors are fluent in English, but I think teaching something though another language requires other skills like communication, translation, etc. (EFA3).

Most the EMI students also recommended that Turkish EMI instructors improve their L2, especially to meet their students' communicative needs. They said they had difficulty communication with their EMI instructors due to wrong pronunciation, syntax, etc.

I miss my instructors' English at the PYP schools. I know some EMI instructors cannot pronounce some basic words accurately. They sometimes even switch to Turkish if they cannot remember the word. I think they really must improve their language skills and never stop studying, reading English (EFA4).

Some of our EMI instructors forget some linkers or conjunctions as they give their lectures orally. This really causes a conversation breakdown. If they have a presentation, this really helps us understand their points. My English is better than some EMI instructors' (EFB1).

4.5.2.6.2. *For institutions* The participants were mostly of the opinion that the PYP should be improved in a way that there could be an alignment between the EMI courses and basic English education. They thought their EMI instructors must coordinate with the instructors at the PYP schools for better curricula. And they also stated that they must focus more on academic skills than on grammar while learning English. In addition, they highlighted that they wanted to learn field terminology early at their PYP school.

The biggest problem is that the PYP school curriculum is stand-alone, not aligned with the topics or studies or texts in our departments. This is not our teachers' fault. Institutions must encourage them to work together (EFA1).

We sometimes visit and meet our friends in the departments and learn about the English they use there. It is totally different. Our instructors must talk to the EMI

instructors there to meet our demands, needs. Universities must introduce such a teaching approach (PFB3).

The participants also put forward that they could not improve their language use well enough to speak, write, and give presentations in the departments although they knew all the grammar rules and basic vocabulary by heart.

I know why some sentences are formed in a certain way. I know the rules; I can explain them. But the higher education system should give us more time to read in our fields, perhaps to do presentations and give academic EMI instructors at PYP schools (EFB4).

We keep taking these lessons. I started at primary school. But I cannot learn how to use English. I think Turkish [higher] education system should teach English in more realistic ways in our first years at universities. We still have difficulty writing, speaking, or making conversations (PFA3).

Among all the other recommendations, the introduction of field terminologies at PYP schools was the strongest one. The students said they needed to negotiate the vocabulary barrier before they started their departmental studies.

I think universities must work hand in hand and create terminologies for us to study at PYP schools. I had a lot of difficulty in my first year (EFB3).

The PYP schools must teach each student the specific terminologies for their departments. They would do it easily. Here is a university. If we learn to use and pronounce them earlier, it is to our advantage (EFA2).

We can learn all these words by watching films or reading books at home. Our books give detailed lists of vocabulary and grammar. What we want from our university are the vocabulary lists for our departments, such as medicine, dentistry, etc. My peers in the departments do not yet know the field terminology although they are sophomore students (PFA3).

We have selected our departments because we want to study them in English. Pure vocabulary and grammar do not develop us. The curriculum must encourage us to read and memorize vocabulary in our own fields. Otherwise, we lose our motivation to learn English (PFB2).

4.5.3. PYP school directors' views on perceptions and recommendations.

This section summarizes the qualitative findings from some PYP school directors' views on the recommendations and perceptions shared by the EMI instructors, instructors, and the students. The researcher held a one-to-one online interview with some of the participants and received some notes as emails from the others after the analysis of the first part of the research. Views from 5 different school directors were gathered between June 2022 and February 2023.

4.5.3.1. Demographic information All of the participants had been managing a PYP school in Turkey at the time of the study for more than 5 years. Their age ranged between 38 and 48. All of the directors held a master's degree in ELT while none possessed a PhD degree. Table 68 describes the details of the participants.

Table 68

Demographic Information of the PYP School Directors

Participants	Gender	University	Region	Codes
PYP School Director 1	Female	University I	Marmara	PSH1
PYP School Director 2	Male	University D2	Marmara	PSH2
PYP School Director 3	Female	University B3	Marmara	PSH3
PYP School Director 4	Female	University A	Aegean	PSH4
PYP School Director 5	Female	University R	Marmara	PSH5

The main themes created out of the transcribed texts of the interviews and the written notes were analysed under the following categories:

- The need for macro level changes
- The need for meso level changes

4.5.3.2. The need for macro level changes The school directors stated that some changes could be possibly made on macro level through teacher training programs, cooperation between PYP schools and departments and by aligning the curricula for all the institutions in the country. Although they all agreed with the students' and the instructors'/EMI instructors' perceptions and recommendations, they highlighted the fact that macro level changes were far-fetched in the long run because they required across-the-board changes by the state and combined effort of the institutions.

4.5.3.2.1. Teacher training programs All the participants stated that most of the recommendations shared could be realized only through nation-wide teacher training programs for both the instructors and the EMI instructors.

I agree with the ideas. But we would need teacher education programs for instructors. As all universities are autonomous, they would have to work years to change the system. However, if they [CoHE] do change some regulations, I mean the macro-ones, and make everything aligned, the goals would be achieved faster..[...] (PSH3).

I am sure we are all on the same page with your participants. However, we cannot put their ideas into practice in a very short time on our own. There are some nation-wide regulations. But perhaps CoHE could do something to train the teachers in [EMI] (PSH2).

4.5.3.2.2. Aligning the curricula for institutions The directors also held the belief that EMI instructors and students were not equally satisfied because each university had its own way of teaching content even though CoHe had published clear statements and policies regarding how the education should be conducted. They

thought the EMI courses would be more controlled if all the universities aligned their curricula to a common one, which might be suggested by the authorities.

The higher education system could be more aligned among institutions like primary and secondary school education system. In this way, the needs and deficiencies could be discovered more quickly. Then, perhaps we could teach English for EMI departments and train our staff better (PSH1).

I reckon every EMI student should take the same EMI courses wherever they go in the country because, as we see, their recommendations and perceptions vary so much. Board of directors in universities may come together and work with CoHe to create common curricula for PYP schools and perhaps for departments as well (PSH4).

4.5.3.2.3. *Cooperation between PYP schools and departments* The directors also agreed with the teachers and the students in that PYP schools and EMI departments should work together to come up with solutions or design L2 programs for various fields of study available at universities.

We would have to prepare English programs for each field of study. It is not hard to achieve but it requires a [macro] level change. We would need teachers and curriculum developers proficient in EMI. We would need teacher training programs and cooperate with the departments Yes; it is something achievable, but it requires time and effort (PSH4).

To address such recommendations and meet the students' and staff's needs, new policies which require collaboration and coordination between PYP schools and departments should be designed by CoHe. National workshops or studies of need analysis should be encouraged (PSH2).

4.5.3.3. The need for meso level changes According to the school directors, the instructors, EMI instructors, and the students were also right in demanding institution-based changes to improve EMI and they were quite satisfied with their perceptions. All of them took down some ideas to apply in their institutions. They all held the

opinion that meso level changes were more applicable than macro level ones as they required less time. However, they also suggested that the staff at PYP schools be more trained in EMI. They thought that meso level changes would be more possible by focusing student outcomes more on language competence and selecting materials for EAP and EGAP.

4.5.3.3.1. Student outcomes directed towards language competence After the directors listened to the perceptions and the recommendations briefly, they came up with the idea that the PYP school curricula must focus more on gaining language competences such as listening to academic lectures, writing more academic essays, and reading more authentic and academic articles.

As institutions, we may create curricula by considering student outcomes more thanks to these findings. The objectives of our lessons can be more directed towards gaining sub-skills in reading, writing, speaking, and listening, which the students will need more in their academic studies (PSH2).

As a matter of fact, our students touch upon the same issues and needs. I think PYP schools all around the country must redesign their curricula by rethinking about lessons objectives. At the end of the preparatory education, student should be equipped with competences needed for their academic lives (PSH1).

We do not have enough time helping our students hone their skills better as we mostly concentrate on basic vocabulary and grammar. However, we can change. We can try new methods. Students can learn basic things at home and study authentic materials with their teachers here (PSH5).

4.5.3.3.2. More EAP and EGAP courses All the school directors also shared their ideas about the courses being given at the PYP schools at the time of the study. As there were some economic and institutional restrictions, they said, they could not have a wider range of options as far as English courses were concerned. They also highlighted that even if they had the necessary staff and enough time to prepare extra materials, they did not have enough time to cover them in the classroom due to the comprehensive main course books. They suggested that institutions themselves create

budget and time to add EAP and EGAP courses at PYP schools so that the students could concentrate more on academic English.

The students, EMI instructors, and instructors are not satisfied because we mostly teach grammar and basic vocabulary at PYP schools. Our institution also prepares extra materials on different scientific topics in English, but I think this is not enough. We must start teaching academic English early at PYP schools (PSH3).

Students already take extra [EAP] courses as they study at their departments, but apparently this is not enough. One suggestion is that we may prepare extra materials and help them study academic English at PYP schools. However, the thing is our curriculum is very tight and we do not have enough resources, so we can change the courses into EAP or EGAP courses (PSH2).

I think institutions might collaborate with departments while choosing or designing the course materials. In addition to the main courses and skill lessons, we should give content-based courses as EAP or EGAP. I think CoHE would allow us, would not it? (PSH4)

Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusions

5.1 Discussion of Findings for Research Questions

The present chapter involves detailed discussions of key findings regarding the macro and meso policies and practices of EMI in Turkish tertiary EFL context by concentrating upon each research question formulated. The detailed findings of the study are presented in Chapter 4. The chapter also associates the knowledge gathered out of the key findings with the existing findings in the relevant literature to contribute to the understanding of EMI in Turkish tertiary EFL context. The macro and meso policies as well as the related practices in the relevant context will be explored in the light of the main findings to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent are EMI addressed in current macro policies of the government and meso policies of English PYP schools within Turkish tertiary EFL contexts?
2. What are EMI students' and instructors' perceptions of EMI in Turkish tertiary EFL contexts?
 - 2a. Are there any significant differences in EMI students' perceptions according to gender, university, department, and school year?
 - 2b. Are there any significant differences in EMI instructors' perceptions according to gender, university, department, and education level?
3. What are PYP students' and instructors' perceptions of English PYP in terms of EMI in Turkish tertiary EFL contexts?
 - 3a. Are there any significant differences in PYP students' perceptions according to gender, university, department, and the time spent at PYP schools?
 - 3b. Are there any significant differences in PYP instructors' perceptions according to gender, university, years of experience, and certification or education in English language teaching?
4. What is the perceived impact of EMI on English language proficiency for EMI courses (according to EMI students and instructors)?

- 4a. Are there any significant differences in EMI students' perceptions according to gender, university, department, and school year?
- 4b. Are there any significant differences in EMI instructors' perceptions according to gender, university, department, and education level?
5. What is the perceived impact of English PYP on English language proficiency for future EMI courses (according to English PYP students and instructors)?
 - 5a. Are there any significant differences in PYP students' perceptions according to gender, university, department, and the time spent at PYP schools?
 - 5b. Are there any significant differences in PYP instructors' perceptions according to gender, university, years of experience, and certification or education in English language teaching?
6. What are the EMI students' and EMI instructors' recommendations on how to improve EMI courses?
7. What are English PYP students' and instructors' recommendations on how to improve English PYP for future EMI courses?
8. What are English PYP school directors' views on the recommendations and perceptions shared in regard to EMI courses and English PYP for future EMI courses?

5.1.2. RQ1 – Macro and meso policies in Turkish tertiary EFL context. In most countries, globalization and internationalization have been adopted as the main drivers for EMI at universities simply because tertiary level students are believed to be able to increase their content-area knowledge and hone their language skills (Airey, 2016; Cots, 2013; Seitzhanova et al., 2015). However, the implementation of EMI differs from context to context although it is a global concept (Goodman, 2014). Similarly, the findings of the present study show that internationalization and globalization has been chosen as direct drivers of EMI in Turkish macro policies. As a matter of fact, the detailed analysis of the macro policies has shown that EMI is regarded as a way to mostly gain economic and educational goals and the term has been explicitly represented in most of the major macro policies of the government through the use of the terms, 'global', 'globalization' and 'internationalization'. However, as far as meso policy documents are concerned, EFL education has been more implicitly represented through terms 'foreign language', 'foreign language

education’, and ‘foreign language PYP schools. The novel approaches in education and especially the adoption of EMI has been in use since the early 1990s in Turkish higher education (see Chapter 1 and 2). And, indeed, the importance attached to developments in the light of EMI has increased. In a similar vein, many countries have been attaching more importance to EMI for the last 20 years as the findings of the study by Dearden (2014) suggest. The participants from 55 different countries all agreed that EMI was a key to overseas and it opens ways for modern and prosperous lives. Similar studies within the context of the present study have also come up with the same findings. Kırkgöz (2017), for instance, highlighted that the most important reforms, especially EMI, has been adopted due to the increasing needs for globalization and internationalization. The macro and meso policy analyses showed that there is an alignment between the expectations of the government and institutions and the participants’ perceptions of EMI, which are discussed further in Section 5.2.

All the macro and meso documents underline the fact that English has been an indispensable means to teach content area in Turkish higher education. Although the language has been referred to much more implicitly at macro and meso levels, the roles, and objectives of the teaching through a ‘foreign language’ has been referred to more explicitly as far as globalization and internationalization are concerned. The main references to internationalization in the documents are mostly concentrated on international education by ‘attracting international students’ and ‘promoting staff and student exchange’. Therefore, it can be inferred here that economic drivers are intertwined with educational drivers as found by Kırkgöz (2017).

In addition, in macro level policies, objectives are highlighted more explicitly as ‘to make the country more attractive and to increase institutional capacity in international level’. Thus, Turkish government has adopted EMI to raise students who are equipped with basic language skills and can therefore contribute to the working force in the global age. Even though the importance of EMI is expressed so widely in macro policy documents, there are no policies devised or approaches created to conduct EMI in Turkish universities. The government merely supports the institutions financially and administratively and the institutions develop their own respective ways of teaching through EMI. Therefore, as the further analysis of macro policy documents showed, instructors and EMI instructors play a big role in implementing EMI because

they are held responsible for training themselves according to certain requirements and meeting their students' needs (Government, 2021a).

Many European countries, including Turkey, have adopted English as their medium of instruction to achieve the goals of the Bologna Declaration or to promote the European way of higher education (Westerheijden et al. 2010). Stipulated by the relevant policy (Government 2016a), the language must be English for international higher education all around Turkey. Therefore, English is considered the first global language for higher education in Turkey both in macro and meso documents. Since the country became a member of the Bologna Declaration, the government has been expecting that English or EMI can bring international perspectives to the country in economics and education, as evidenced by the analysis of the major macro policy documents (see Chapter 4). Although the EMI courses are not compulsory for higher education institutions, most of the renowned universities have adopted 100% or 30% EMI for all their departments whether they are state or foundation universities (see Chapters 2 and 4). According to the national macro policy documents, such universities must develop their own curriculum, build their own organizational structure, and recruit their personnel according to the standards set by CoHE. Like in most of the countries where EMI is implemented, the Turkish government gives the universities the freedom to apply EMI in their respective ways in order to fit their own institutional conditions by complying with the macro and meso documents as stipulated by CoHE. However, as the analysis of the meso documents of the universities suggested, this causes huge variations both in departmental studies and in English PYP schools. In departments, the variations are caused by the content of EAP/EGAP/EGP/ESP courses, which are given for different purposes and in different ways across the country.

In addition, the percentage of EMI instruction, according to meso policy documents, differs a lot across departments in the same institution and across all the institutions in the country. What's more, the number of the departments in which medium of instruction is English is not constant across regions, cities let alone the whole country (see Chapter 4). As stated by Sahan (2021), this inevitably causes huge gaps between macro and meso documents across all the institutions in the country. The situation is the same in different countries as many other relevant studies have suggested (e.g., Barnard, 2014; Bradford, 2013; Cammarata, 2009; Coleman, 2006).

In addition, according to the findings of the present study, the most common EMI department in Turkish higher education is computer engineering. This can be associated with the globalization and internationalization as the drivers of the adoption of EMI in macro policy documents. Computer engineering seems to be the most preferred international job all over the world and it is also regarded as the department for better and more decent international opportunities (Collins, 2010; Coleman, 2006; Costa & Coleman, 2013).

In English PYP school policies, there were more explicit references such as ‘globalization’ and ‘internationalization’ than implicit ones are used. The reasons behind this are that foreign language policies mention explicit references less than macro policy documents and that references to English have been made much more implicitly through ‘foreign language’ (see Chapter 4).

Just as most of the major macro policy documents indicated, meso policy documents of the PYP school mention EMI and internationalization as the primary forces encouraging their institutions to start teaching the subjects through English. This is one of the major and significant findings of the present study because all the relevant studies in the literature just focused on the drives of EMI as mentioned in Turkish macro policy documents. However, findings are mostly in line. For instance, Sahan (2021) states that there is not alignment in practices and policies as far as EMI is concerned. Similarly, Sariçoban (2012) stated that the classroom practices did not reflect the foreign language teaching and learning approaches in the classrooms and Kırkgöz (2017) stated that policy makers should visit the schools, institutions, and perhaps the school administrations to adapt their policies according to the needs of the students and instructors because there is a huge gap in between. Although all the PYP schools have used almost the same regulations and policies to describe their foreign language education systems (see Chapter 4, p.149 and 150), it is worth highlighting that the methods and approaches are not the same when it comes to practice in the classroom, which contributes to the complexity and variation in English PYP across Turkey as roughly stated in the previous studies (Kırkgöz, 2017; Sahan, 2021; Ozer, 2020). To prove such variations and the lack of alignment between both meso and macro policies and classroom practices and foreign language policies, the present

study aimed to investigate the curricula of English PYP schools (see Chapter 4, p. 154).

Accordingly, PYP schools of 25 universities differ so much in terms of module duration, definitions of the English proficiency levels, types of courses, assessment, and EAP/ESP/EGP/EGAP courses given for the departments that it is hard to define a pattern in any of these curriculum items. This actually proves the lack of alignment among schools across the country. In addition, those findings are also of significance because they are robust evidence for the lack of cooperation between departments and English PYP schools or EMI instructors and instructors, which are sought by all cohorts of the participants. In Turkey, any EMI department, for instance, computer engineering, collaborates with the faculty members of the other universities to create a similar curriculum and the outcomes, assessment components, course books of their syllabi are almost the same if not different (Government, 2016b; Macaro & Akıncıoğlu, 2018). So, all the departments are teaching through EMI by using the same methods. And the students to study in these departments all have to take a PYP, which, however, completely differs from university to university. Some universities differentiate their instruction according to the departments while others conduct a one-size-fits-all approach (see Chapter 4, p. 158). Thus, the needs of the students at PYP school may not be met well for their departments in all universities and the departments' academic achievements and goals are not defined according to their students' language needs as indicated by Erden et al. (2017).

To be more specific about the variations, the week and module duration of most PYP schools is 14 weeks, which is most probably because the departments are composed of two semesters with each lasting for 14 weeks. Other schools prefer 7-week period with 4 modules concentrating on more intensive education. This might be to align the length of education with that of the EMI departments. However, as the participants of the present study mention and as the other studies in the same context show (Kamasak & Sahan, 2023; Sahan, 2021), this does not make it easy for the institutions to help the PYP instructors cooperate with the EMI instructors.

Considering the definitions of the levels, schools do not stick with a certain pattern here, either. Although all the PYP schools mention in their policy documents that they comply with CEFR, they assign their own definitions for each level. This

might be associated with the course books they are using because course books define the level themselves or with the levels of the students enrolling in their departments as each institution accepts students with different scores from national university entrance examinations (Macaro & Akıncioğlu, 2018). The course most frequently given at English PYP schools is integrated skills, which indicates that the students are expected to improve their English at a basic level before they can concentrate on each skill or competence (Altay et al., 2022). However, all the other skill courses differ so much both in their content and purposes (see Chapter 4, p. 163, 164). Some universities prefer giving some courses such as stand-alone reading simply because they have a special material development department while others are content with the integrated skill courses. And the variations in courses, levels, and course durations necessarily lead to variations in assessment components. In addition to stand-alone midterm and final exams, which are stipulated by CoHE, PYP schools design their extra assessment components to make English learning more challenging and attractive as described in handbooks of most schools. It is clear here that English PYP schools are much more autonomous in designing their own assessment components than EMI departments are. This autonomy is actually given by Regulation No. 29662 (Government, 2016a).

The further analysis of the meso documents showed that most of the English PYP schools are also responsible for designing EAP/ESP/EGP/EGAP courses for the EMI and TMI departments. These courses also differ a lot both in number and content, which might be associated with the EMI departments available in the universities, the percentage of EMI instruction, the number of available instructors at the schools. Despite the variation, existence of such courses also prove that globalization and internationalization are the main drivers of EMI in Turkish universities and foreign language education is essential for students' future career and academic studies (Ağçam & Babaoğlu, 2019; Başıbek et al. 2014). It is also important to note here that some of the universities have the faculty EMI instructors to give such courses instead of English PYP instructors. Although this does not imply a cooperation between the departments and PYP schools, it can be associated with the fact that some EMI instructors improve their pedagogical knowledge to teach academic English in their departments. And, as far as the content of the courses given by such EMI instructors is concerned, they are tailored to the needs of the EMI students and include studies of field terminology and more academic texts (Chapter 4, p. 173).

As illustrated in Figure 24 and Figure 25, there are also variations in terms of the purposes and the frequencies of the courses given by English PYP schools although the most frequent one is EAP. Such variations might also be associated with the type and the number of EMI departments provided at universities although some courses must be given to TMI departments, too. However, as indicated by the participants of the present study and the other similar studies (Ekoç, 2020; Ege et al., 2022), the courses given by English PYP schools merely aim to develop integrated skills and therefore described as English main courses.

5.1.3. RQ2 and RQ3 – Perceptions of EMI and English preparatory education. According to the quantitative findings of the present study, the participants' perceptions of EMI in Turkish tertiary context were in tune with the findings from the macro and meso policy analysis. The EMI instructors and students think that the adoption of EMI is largely due to globalization and internationalization. Similarly, English PYP instructors and students are of the same opinion. In particular, the instructors believe that EMI is a good response to internationalization and globalization. As it could be understood from the findings of the policy analyses, globalization and internationalization have been mostly favored for more qualified workforce, especially in the international arena, and strategic steps have been taken for national educational plans and foreign language policies, in particular. Correspondingly, the meso policies which are followed by the English PYP schools consider their students' language needs and try to conform to CoHE's international development strategies. In addition, Turkish government is interested in attracting foreign teaching staff from European countries through different international programs (see Chapter 1 and 2) and in developing the country's economic state through more qualified workforce. Thus, the findings from the quantitative data and the document analyses suggest that EMI is an approach adopted to internationalize Turkish higher education system and train students for global integration, national economy, better political relationships, and stronger stances in academic fields. Similarly, the studies conducted in the other parts of the world found that internationalization and globalization were driving forces behind the countries' higher education (e.g., Smith & Nguyen, 2010, Dearden & Macaro, 2016; Tran & Nguyen, 2018).

Another alignment with the findings from macro and meso policy documents is that all groups of the participants believe EMI is useful for students' future career and employment. The highest mean scores are observed on the items *the EMI courses are useful to my (students') future career*, and *Thanks to the English preparatory education, the EMI courses will be useful to my (students') future career* (see Tables 29, 30, 32, and 35). As stated in the previous section, the Turkish government adopted EMI for similar reasons, which are better workforce and international workplaces. In addition, in a similar vein, the EMI instructors and students think that EMI courses are useful for international workplaces. From a different perspective, PYP instructors and students are mostly of the opinion that students can learn English for EMI at PYP schools, and these schools are the right places for EMI. Thus, these specific results show that English PYP and EMI courses in the departments are complementary, and they are implemented just as macro and meso policies stipulate. Similarly, in the relevant context, Ekoç (2020) found that the EMI students considered EMI beneficial for their international work life and academic studies and Macaro and Akıncıoğlu (2018) found that university students chose EMI departments largely for working and studying abroad and gaining better employability.

When asked to elaborate further on the relevant issues, participants from both EMI departments and English PYP schools highlighted that EMI courses are essential for students' future career, improving international standards of the education, and conducting international academic studies. Almost all the participants also explicitly mentioned that EMI courses have been adopted for internationalization and globalization in Turkish tertiary context. The participants thought that students would be able to gain better job opportunities thanks to the qualifications they would be equipped with through EMI courses. They also mentioned that EMI was beneficial for the economic development of the country and following the latest trends in academic research studies whatever the fields are. These findings align with the findings from some previous research studies (Dearden & Macaro, 2016; Ekoç, 2020; Lei & Hu, 2014; Macaro & Akıncıoğlu, 2018; Tran & Nguyen, 2018). Out of the interviews they conducted with their participants, all of these studies found that students and EMI instructors thought EMI was selected for a country mostly for internationalization

and/or globalization and students must develop their English for better job opportunities in their own context.

Another reason identified most by the EMI instructors, the EMI students, English PYP students, but not by instructors, for the adoption of EMI in Turkish higher education system is students' English learning needs (see Tables 29, 30, and 32). This means majority of the participants believed that EMI had been adopted primarily to help students develop their English through content learning, which is in line with the findings from macro and meso policy analyses, too (see Chapter 4.). During the interviews, the same participants also asserted that EMI is implemented in Turkey because they need academic researchers or students who are very proficient in English. Similarly, the analysis of the findings from the surveys showed that the participants are of the opinion that EMI has been adopted to raise students for international workplaces. The results from analysis of the qualitative data also indicated that the teachers would like to raise students for international companies and the students similarly put forward that they would like to be qualified enough for international institutions. All of the participants thought that this was only possible through EMI, and this is why EMI has been adopted by Turkish government.

Different from the quantitative findings, the qualitative data showed that instructors and EMI instructors have all been of the view that EMI has been adopted because there is a need for lingua franca all over the world especially for academic studies. It shows that the participants are quite knowledgeable about the linguistic aspect of the EMI courses that has been brought forward in the academic studies. To the knowledge of the researcher, no other studies have come up with such a finding. Thus, the present study is unique because it has found that Turkish EMI instructors and instructors know there is a need for a common tongue to conduct academic research studies.

The below sections will briefly discuss the major findings regarding the overall satisfaction levels, the significant group differences in the perceptions of EMI or English PYP, and the drivers of EMI.

5.1.3.1. The EMI students In Turkish higher education system, the EMI students have an essential role in helping the tertiary level education to go according to the macro and meso policies defined. All the students who participated in this study meet the language requirements stipulated by the macro and meso documents as they have completed their English PYP. The participants in the quantitative and the qualitative phases of the present study are diverse as far as their EMI experience, departments, regions, and universities are concerned (see Chapter 4). However, as mentioned in Chapter 2 and Chapter 4, each institution has formulated their own language requirements and, thus, students who are starting their EMI courses must meet different language requirements before they can start their departmental studies. This may lead to some problems regarding the heterogeneity in students' language levels across the country, which has actually been proven by the meso document analysis (see Chapter 4). The institutional documents show that the definitions of the language levels differ a lot from university to university.

The analysis of the macro policy documents showed that EMI courses was not compulsory in Turkish higher education system, but it was prestigious because the students must get a very high score out of the university entrance examinations to be accepted for an EMI department at any university in the country. The fact that the EMI courses is found prestigious by the students has been proven by the present study as well because the students mostly prefer it for better job opportunities after their undergraduate education and in order to study at a reputable university. The finding is tune with the studies by Dearden and Macaro (2016) and Kırkgöz (2009).

Although the EMI students who participated in the present study differ a lot as far as different variables such as EMI experience, department, region, and university are concerned, no significant differences have been found by the study among such variables. The reason for lack differences can be associated with the fact that most of the departments across Turkey conduct similar syllabi as stipulated by CoHE in major macro policy documents (Government, 1981; Government, 1983, Government, 2017). Just like the students who participated in the study by Macaro and Akıncioğlu (2018), most of the EMI students in the present study indicate both through the survey and during the interviews that they are mostly satisfied with the EMI courses in Turkish tertiary level context. The high rate of satisfaction might be associated with the fact

that there is an alignment among the syllabi of most the EMI departments across the country although their materials differ a lot.

5.1.3.2. The EMI instructors EMI instructors play a huge role in the success of EMI in Turkish higher education system as indicated by macro policies. The Turkish government highlights the requirements for recruiting academic staff with a certain level of foreign language and content knowledge. In addition, the analysis of the macro policy documents shows that the government supports the EMI instructors both financially and academically (Government, 2014). Most of the EMI instructors (N = 58) who have participated in this study hold Post Doc degree in Turkey and many other countries, which shows that Turkish the EMI instructors mind self-development and considers it beneficial for the EMI courses in the country.

The obtained findings of the present study revealed that the EMI instructors are mostly satisfied with EMI courses in Turkish higher education system (see Figure 24), which indicates that EMI instructors have positive attitude towards EMI and their own occupations. This result concurred well with the findings from the studies by Dearden and Macaro (2016), Kırkgöz (2009), Macaro and Akıncıoğlu (2018), and Ozer (2020). The findings of the present study also showed that the EMI instructors' perceptions of EMI differ significantly according to university they are teaching at. It can be implied here that institutional circumstances influence the EMI instructors' views. This finding is also in line with one of the major findings of the analysis of the macro and meso policy documents: there is no alignment in the language teaching approaches and EMI courses across different institutions. Even within the same region, possible significant differences may be observed simply because not all English PYP students are exposed to same type of language education, which in turn causes them to be taught through different EMI when they start their departments. Similar findings were put forward by the studies in the same context (Kırkgöz, 2017; Macaro & Akıncıoğlu, 2018). However, the result is in conflict with the results of the study by Ağçam and Babanoğlu (2019), which has found there are significant differences in the EMI instructors' perceptions according to such variables as teaching experience but not according to university.

Considering the drivers of the adoption of EMI by the Turkish government, the EMI instructors' perceptions differed significantly according to their age, university, and the length of EMI experiences (see Chapter 4). The reason why age is a significant variable might be associated with the changes in the implementation of EMI and the language learning policies over the years. As the participants' ages change between 29 and 77, their sense and understanding of language policies might be affected by the education or developments in the country. As summarized in Chapter 1 and 2, the education in higher education institutions in the country has been subject to groundbreaking changes in the country. This significance can be proven by the findings of the analysis of the recent macro policies, which have been updated a lot over the last 20 years, and the findings of a similar study by Kırkgöz (2017). The significant change according to university might be associated with the institutional circumstances because some universities might be conducting EMI on such a partial scale that the EMI instructors might not be knowledgeable about the drivers of EMI as stated by the macro policy documents. Such variations in the percentages of EMI were explained in the meso policy analysis of the present study (see Chapter 4) and mentioned by other studies in the same and different contexts (e.g., Köksal & Şahin, 2012; Macaro & Akıncıoğlu, 2018; Soruç & Griffs, 2017; Tran, 2020). As for the significant difference according to EMI experiences, it is fathomable to observe such differences in the perception of the drivers of EMI as the EMI instructors' age (see Chapter 4) because EMI instructors can start questioning the rationale behind any educational approach more as they gather more experiences in their fields. This was another unique finding of the study because no other similar study had come up with the same finding in the literature so far to the knowledge of the researcher. The analysis of the interviews with the EMI instructors also proved such differences in perceptions because the participants put forward different factors as the drivers of the EMI in Turkish higher education system although the most common ones were internationalization and globalization. For instance, some of them stated that Turkey did not actually need EMI or English PYP schools because primary and secondary education already taught EFL to students.

It is also important to note here that the EMI instructors do not consider it to be their role to develop their students' language learning as the means were not significant in the relevant items (see Table 30). This must be associated with the fact that they

were trained to teach content through English, and they assumed it is their mere role. However, this does conflict with the government's macro policies and the institutions' meso policies because, in both types of documents, EMI courses are claimed to be implemented for language development in addition to improving content knowledge. It seems here that EMI instructors depend on the language instructors for their students' language development. In most of the recent similar studies conducted in the very same context, it is easy to observe the findings (e.g., Başibek et al., 2014; Sahan, 2021). In another contexts, such as China (Jiang et al., 2019), where EMI instructors consider themselves to be EMI instructors only, similar results can be obtained too.

5.1.3.3. English PYP students Different from almost all of the other EMI courses systems all over the world (e.g., Coleman, 2006; Costa & Coleman, 2013; Cots, 2013), Turkish higher education system considers the students at English PYP schools as one of the key actors in EMI courses. In addition to coming from different backgrounds, the participants of the present study came with different language needs (see Chapter 2 and Chapter 4) and their language needs were met differently simply because English PYP is not aligned across the country as the meso policy analysis, and the institutional documents have shown. Although there were significant differences according to region, university, and department in terms of the perceptions of EMI courses and according to university and department in terms of the drivers of EMI, most of the students at English PYP schools seemed to be satisfied with the English language education and they thought they were able to learn English for EMI. This must be associated with the fact that Turkish tertiary level the EMI students start their undergraduate education with a very low level of English and take such an intensive English course for the first time in their student lives although they have received so many courses of English at primary and secondary levels (Kırkgöz, 2009; Kırkgöz 2017; İnal et al., 2017). Because most of them had never been exposed to so much input either in public or private schools before, they felt they were learning the language better than ever. However, as the next section will indicate, they lost their satisfaction as they approached the end of the PYP or at EMI departments, especially with some of the basic skills for EMI. The similar results were also found by some studies within the same context (e.g., Civan & Coşkun, 2016; Kamasak & Sahan, 2023).

There were significant differences according to region, university, and department in terms of the perceptions of EMI courses, which can only be explained by the language education policies which English PYP schools have adopted autonomously, without attempting to comply with a standard program. In other words, their language needs were met through different approaches in different universities (see Chapter 4), and they needed different English terminology and academic languages for their departmental studies. Correspondingly, since the EMI percentage varies a lot across universities and even within the same departments, it is quite explicable that the students' perceptions of the drivers of EMI significantly differed according to the department and/or university they had chosen. A student studying a department through 30% EMI may possess more different beliefs and goals than a student studying the same department through 100% EMI. This finding has also been proven by the previous research studies (Jiang et al., 2019; Kırkgöz, 2009; Macaro & Akıncıoğlu, 2018). The findings from the focus group interviews with the students also proved these significant differences as well. While 3 students found it necessary to learn English thoroughly before starting their departmental studies in science, literature, medicine, etc., 3 others found it unnecessary to delve into the details of the language so much because they thought they would not need such an advance level of the language in their departmental studies. And 2 of the participants in the interview stated that their university was giving a much more intensive course of English and it was essential for them as they would be taught every lesson by foreign instructors while 3 others thought that they needed a course more focused on speaking and writing as they were social science students. These findings are in tune with the findings from other studies (Altay et al., 2022; Özer, 2020) and they imply that differentiated instruction could be given to tertiary level students in English PYP students, although few schools apply such an instruction (see Appendix C2).

5.1.3.4. English PYP instructors English PYP instructors' role in the implementation of EMI in Turkish tertiary level context is at least as essential as the EMI instructors' roles especially when it is considered that EMI instructors depend a lot on language instructors for their students' language needs (Başıbek et al., 2014; Sahan, 2021). Just as the EMI instructors do, English language instructors must meet certain requirements before they can start teaching, and most of the participants of the present study hold extra certificates and attend education trainings (see Table 28) in

addition to meeting the requirements set forth by the government (Government, 2016b). According to the analyses of the quantitative findings from the present study, although the instructors found EMI useful for their students' future career, their schools were the right places for EMI, and they believed they needed to prepare their students for international workplaces, the item that received the highest mean score in their survey was *English PYP must focus on language* ($M = 3,25$). This high score could be associated with the fact that the EMI students, no matter how successful they were in secondary level of education or in the university entrance examinations, lack basic language skills as they start their undergraduate education at their universities (Macaro & Akıncıoğlu, 2018; Özer, 2020). Thus, the findings suggest that the English PYP instructors believed their students must gain some basic skills before they could learn their subjects through English regardless of the percentage of EMI in their departments. However, according to the analysis of the qualitative data, the instructors also believed that English PYP must be improved in a way that the students language needs for EMI can be heeded, and educational standards must be developed in a way that all students can receive education according to their own needs and departmental studies.

PYP instructors' perceptions of EMI differed significantly according to teaching experiences, regions, and institutions. As instructors gained more experience or teach more at PYP schools, they learnt more about the EMI courses in Turkey perhaps by coordinating with the department or by giving other courses in departments. Thus, the significant difference in teaching experiences might be associated with the years spent teaching at PYP schools. As for the significant differences according to the other variables, they proved the findings from the analysis of the meso policy documents and institutional documents, and they can be explained only through the variations in the implementation of English PYP across the country (see Chapter 4).

Similarly, the instructors' perceptions of the drivers of EMI differed significantly according to university and department, which can be associated and explained by the above reasons. These findings were also proven through the views shared by the instructors participating in the interviews. They all agreed that each university must follow a common language education policy, but this policy must be adapted in intensity according to the departments and the EMI percentages of the

universities. To the knowledge of the researcher, no studies have been conducted to gather the perceptions of the language instructors for EMI courses so far. These findings are noteworthy for the relevant literature and context. However, it is worth highlighting by referring to the relevant literature here that language instructors cannot form an instrumental link between the language education they are teaching, and the EMI courses the students are receiving at the departments even though they implicitly and explicitly express the need for such a link in their interviews. This can be associated with the fact that there is a lack of cooperation between the EMI instructors and the instructors at universities (Kong, 2014; Sahan, 2021; Özer, 2020).

5.1.4. RQ4 and RQ5 - The perceived impact of EMI courses/English PYP on English language proficiency for the EMI courses. In the relevant literature, there is a controversy about whether EMI is beneficial for students' language proficiency, language skills, or language competence. Some studies (Cots, 2013; Yeh, 2014; Yılmaz-Virlan & Demirbulak, 2020) have found that EMI can really develop students' language proficiency in the long run while some others confirm that it does not have any positive impact on students' language skills (Başıbek et al., 2014; Ekoç, 2020; Soruç & Griffs, 2017).

The quantitative findings of this study revealed that the EMI students and PYP students are satisfied with some of their language skills and competences. For instance, the EMI students were mostly satisfied with their technical terminology, general vocabulary, and reading skills while PYP students are mostly satisfied with their reading, writing, and grammar. Similarly, the EMI instructors were satisfied with their students' technical terminology, general vocabulary, and listening and reading skills. As for the PYP instructors, they are satisfied with their students' reading, grammar, and listening. As it can be understood from the findings, the students' satisfaction with their language proficiency were consolidated in their teachers' responses although there are some nuances. The results also indicated that the students and their teachers feel more satisfied with their receptive skills (reading and listening) than productive skills. This shows that most of the students are still in the first two stages of foreign language development and have not started to embark on the third stage, which involves benefitting from the productive skills (speaking and writing) (Davies, 1976).

Thus, it can be concluded here that English PYP and EMI courses might not be effective for productive skills as the participants hold negative views about them. This finding is in line with the EMI instructors' and instructors' common view that the students must improve their English proficiency, especially speaking and writing before starting their EMI courses.

Another important finding is that the EMI students and the EMI instructors were satisfied with the technical terminology and vocabulary while PYP students and instructors are more satisfied with grammar skills. These findings showed that the student outcomes defined in major macro policy documents and meso policy documents had been achieved well by the EMI departments and PYP schools in the country. In EMI courses, the aim is to increase the students' content knowledge while it is to develop students' basic foreign language skills at PYP schools (Government 2016a; Government 2016b). This alignment seems to highlight the emphasis on receptive skills, grammar, and vocabulary in foreign language education in Turkey (Kırkgöz, 2009; 2014; 2017; Kınısız & Aydın, 2008; Macaro & Akıncıoğlu, 2018; Sahan, 2021; Wilkinson, 2012).

Additionally, no matter how satisfied the students were with their language skills and the EMI instructors and instructors were with their students' skills, all groups of participants mentioned in the interviews that there was a need to improve the competence of all skills for the EMI courses both at PYP schools and in the EMI courses. This shows a contradiction between the quantitative and qualitative findings of the present study. The reason why the participants responded positively to the items in the questionnaire might be associated with the fact that they evaluated EMI courses and PYP. However, when asked further about the skills and the competence that should be developed for a better EMI course in Turkish tertiary level context, they gave more specific answers, which is truly associated with the benefits of in-depth interviews and focus-group discussions (Litchman, 2010). As a matter of fact, similar discrepancies have been presented in the same context (e.g., Başıbek et al., 2013; Ozer, 2020; Coşgun, 2020).

Another contradiction between qualitative and quantitative findings was that the students from both cohorts mention in the interviews they needed earlier access to field

terminology in their education, perhaps at PYP. However, the findings from the analyses of the students' questionnaires revealed that the EMI students were particularly satisfied with their vocabulary and terminology. This might be related with the fact that the students would like to learn about or study on vocabulary regarding their content areas much earlier through EAP lessons at English PYP schools. However, the same cohort of students also mentioned in the interviews that EMI was important for them because it helped them develop their cognitive and creative skills, which also include field terminology and vocabulary knowledge. As mentioned earlier, the participants must have answered the questionnaire simply by thinking about the policies present in the education, but when they delve further into their classroom practices, they realized that there was a mismatch between policies and educational practices, which was proven by the document analysis conducted by the present study. And other studies conducted within Turkish tertiary level context have also proven this conflict (Köksal & Şahin, 2012; Sahan, 2021; Sariçoban, 2012; Westerheijden et al., 2010).

The below sections will briefly discuss the major findings regarding the significant group differences in the satisfaction with language proficiency levels and sub-skills.

5.1.4.1. The EMI students The significant differences in the EMI students' satisfaction with their language proficiencies and language skills according to university and department showed that there was not an alignment among meso policy documents and major foreign language policy documents in Turkish tertiary level context. And it is essential to highlight here that students' perception of satisfaction with their language proficiency differs according to the departments they are studying at and the EMI courses they are receiving (Altay et al., 2022; Macaro & Akıncioğlu, 2018).

For reading skills, the students believed that they could read and understand the content of EMI instructors in class and understand instructions and questions in reading tasks. As this is a receptive skill, it is understandable that students feel more capable of such subskills more than others (Davies, 1976). For speaking and writing skills, however, students did not believe so much that they could discuss the subject-

area in groups or reach cohesion and coherence in writing. Thus, the foreign language education system could be adapted more for productive skills at later stages of the students' education periods. This finding is in line with one of qualitative findings gathered from student interviews: the students mentioned that the focus of PYP should be shifted towards improving productive skills. And they also held the belief that there was not an alignment between PYP and EMI courses at the departments for this particular reason.

5.1.4.2. The EMI instructors The quantitative findings also showed that the EMI instructors were not so satisfied with their students' language proficiency and competence as the students are with their own proficiency and competence. The item means of the EMI instructors' survey range between 1.83 and 2.10 while those of the students' range between 2.37 and 2.76. This discrepancy shows that EMI instructors desire to teach content in English to students with higher language proficiency and they are challenged by their students' low language competences as the studies conducted domestically and internationally show (Ağçam & Babanoğlu, 2019; Başıbek et al., 2014; Goodman, 2014; Othman & Saat, 2009). This result was confirmed by the EMI instructors during the interviews too. They EMI instructors explicitly stated that students lacked competence for the EMI courses, especially at the beginning of their departmental education. They also added that the quality of EMI courses in Turkey is badly influenced by the students' lack of competence and certain level of English as they start their EMI courses.

For reading skills, the EMI instructors thought that their students could answer comprehension questions and understand instructions and questions in reading tasks slightly better than any other reading subskills. It is important to note here that the EMI instructors believe their students' writing subskills are as good thanks to EMI as their reading skills as both major skills possess the same item mean, which is 2.10. EMI Instructors believed that their students could complete written course assignments and use appropriate academic style while writing. Even though these means were lower than the means of the other subskills in the surveys of the students and instructors, the EMI instructors independently thought that their students writing skills were also good. This might be associated with the fact that most of the assignments given in EMI departments are in written, not oral forms. Most of the time, the EMI instructors assign

reading and writing tasks together for reaction papers, reflective thinking, etc. These findings align with the findings from the study by Ağçam and Babanoğlu (2019), which revealed that the EMI instructors thought there was a positive relationship between reading and writing skills.

From another perspective, the EMI instructors also stated that students were good at receptive skills, but they must improve them for better productive skills. This finding aligns with the findings from the study by Ağçam and Babanoğlu (2019), which has revealed that reading and listening skills can improve writing and speaking skills.

According to the ANOVA results, the EMI instructors differed significantly in terms of their perceptions of the students' language competence according to their departments and education levels. This finding showed that different departments needed different EMI courses methods for their students, which is significant because other similar studies in the same context did not come up with the same conclusions. Ağçam and Babanoğlu (2019), for instance, found that the EMI instructors' perceptions of their students' language competences differed a lot according to the training taken abroad, teaching experiences gained abroad, and the number of academic publications only. The significant difference according to the education levels of the EMI instructors indicates that experience in EMI courses affects the perception of student language proficiency and competence, and more trained the EMI instructors can detect students' language problems and deficiencies in their competences better than less trained ones. Thus, this finding is also in line with the findings of the study by Ağçam and Babanoğlu (2019).

5.1.4.3. English PYP students The lack of significant differences in English preparatory students' perceptions of their language proficiency and competence according to department, university, and region conflicts with the findings from macro and meso policy analyses, and all the other quantitative and qualitative findings. This result might be associated with the fact that PYP students evaluate their education on the basis of foreign language education, without considering future EMI courses because they will have to pass a difficult language exam at the end of their PYP to embark on their departmental studies. So, although there are a lot of variations in the

meso policies, institutional documents, and language teaching approaches, PYP students seem to have the same views regarding their foreign language education for their future the EMI courses. However, they differ a lot according to the school term they are learning English in, which suggests that the students' views regarding EMI change as they go further in their PYP school. This finding is in line with the views gathered from the students interviews because the students who were almost finishing their PYP think they need to focus more on some competences. In the relevant literature, similar suggestions were made for the English PYP by Ozkanal and Hakan (2010); however, there isn't any more recent study to the knowledge of the researcher.

For listening, the PYP students mostly thought that they could understand discussions during the lessons and conversations outside the classroom. This means Turkish tertiary level students can develop listening skills for authentic purposes at English PYP schools, especially for EMI purposes just as it is suggested by Wilson (2016). In addition, students also believed that they were able to develop all the sub-skills required for reading as a major receptive skill. This might be associated with the fact that all PYP schools attach much more importance to reading and reading questions in their end-of-year tests (see Appendix C2). It is worth highlighting here that the EMI students' and PYP students' item means for sub-skills vary, which proves that students' views regarding their language proficiency differ as they continue their academic studies as well, just as they differ in differ PYP school term.

5.1.4.4. English PYP instructors Different from the analyses of the students, the analyses of the instructors' survey proved the findings from macro and meso policy documents because their perceptions of their students' language proficiency and competences differed significantly according to universities. In other words, instructors had different views regarding their students' English levels and skills simply because their institutions had different approaches and curricula for teaching the foreign language. Some studies in the literature have come up with similar findings and suggestions for English PYP schools (e.g., Kırkgöz, 2009; Kamaşak & Sahan; 2023; Sahan, 2021).

Just as the students were, the instructors were mostly satisfied with their students' listening and reading skills. However, instructors were more positive about

listening skills as far as the future EMI courses is concerned. For instance, they believed that their students could listen to and understand the content of the lectures in their EMI courses and understand the EMI instructors' oral instructions thanks to the PYP ($M = 3.04$). This might be associated with the fact that listening is a skill most frequently assessed by English PYP schools across the country after reading (see Appendix C2). For reading, they totally agreed with their students and think that they could improve all their sub-skills for reading activities in their future the EMI courses. Most of the previous studies also found that the EMI instructors and students are mostly content with reading and listening skills through questionnaires and interviews (e.g., Ağçam & Babanoğlu, 2019; Macaro & Akıncıoğlu, 2018).

However, although they are satisfied with their students' language proficiency for the EMI courses, the 4 of the instructors put forward during the interviews that English PYP must be improved for better EMI courses in Turkey. As a matter of fact, this finding explains why all cohorts of the participants are not satisfied with the writing and speaking. They also agree with the EMI instructors and students in that more field terminology studies should be given in English PYP schools. Most of the major studies conducted to explore the perceptions of the EMI instructors and students within the same and other contexts produced similar findings as indicated in the literature review (e.g., Dearden & Macaro, 2016; Jiang et al., 2019; Kırkgöz, 2014; Kırkgöz & Yaşar, 2014; Ozer, 2020).

5.1.5. RQ6 and RQ7 – Recommendations on How to Improve EMI. The recommendations are discussed in two subsections as the relevant groups of participants responded to the same items in their surveys.

5.1.5.1. The EMI instructors' and students' recommendations Both the EMI instructors' and students' recommendations are in line with the findings from the perceptions of language proficiency and competences discussed in the previous sections. And they also prove that the lack of alignment among the institutions and proper EMI teaching approaches, which have been found by the present study through the analyses of macro and meso policies, hinder EMI courses in Turkish tertiary level context.

In the first place, both the teachers and students are mostly of the opinion that the EMI instructors should take English courses and methodological courses before teaching through EMI (see Table 70). In the interviews, the EMI instructors also mentioned that the lessons are not totally conducted in English simply because they cannot communicate in English perfectly from time to time and the students also highlighted that the language proficiency of some EMI instructors are not high enough for them to teach every aspect of their fields well enough. All of the participants also strongly believe that EMI instructors should adjust their teaching speed according to their students' language needs. This is clearly associated with the fact that EMI instructors lack the certain teaching methodology. Although the lectures believed that pedagogical skills were of vital importance for EMI courses according to the findings of the qualitative research, they said they could not develop themselves well due to a lack of approaches for EMI teaching methodology both in macro and meso documents. As Bank (2018) pointed out in his study, EMI training has a huge impact on how EMI instructors deliver content, and it also fosters the engagement of the students and role of content teaching. In addition, according to Dearden (2014), most of the participants, who were the EMI instructors, in her research lacked guidelines on how to teach content through English. In a similar vein, Vinke et al. (1998) found that the EMI instructors did not teach by using interactions in the classroom and they lacked linguistic abilities.

In the Turkish higher education context, Başıbek et al. (2014) found through the analysis of survey data that the EMI instructors lacked certain language skills and they must take language courses adapted according to EMI courses before their careers. The quantitative study by Ağçam and Babanoğlu (2019) also suggested that the EMI instructors be involved in international projects and improve their academic language skills by producing academic papers. Correspondingly, the EMI instructors who participated in the study by Özer (2020) pinpointed that they needed language and pedagogical in-service training because they are having difficulties addressing to the different language needs of the students. Analogously, Erkoç (2020) found that the EMI students suggest that some the EMI instructors should take courses on language skills and how to teach EAP and Soruç and Griffs (2017) implied that the EMI instructors should take courses on how to teach content by considering their students' language needs. Thus, EMI instructors' lack of language proficiency is a common

problem in the context of the present study, too. Besides, the qualitative findings of the present study have also revealed that some the EMI instructors are found boring by some students and the students think most of the EMI courses lack interaction. Over the last ten years, many researchers (e.g., Cots, 2013; Dafouz, 2011; Wilkinson, 2012) have highlighted that EMI instructors are not trained to teach but to contribute to the research field(s) of their own disciplines. So, the lack of Turkish EMI instructors' pedagogical knowledge might be associated with this fact.

Both the EMI instructors and students also suggested strongly that EMI courses should focus on subject-area content and learning materials should be designed by the EMI instructors. Correspondingly, the EMI instructors recommended that the EMI courses be taught by EMI instructors and the final exams be in English. These findings are all in line with the findings from macro and meso analysis because there are actually the terms in Turkish higher education. However, it is noteworthy here that the EMI students did not share the same suggestions. Rather, they mostly believed that there should be a cooperation between language instructors and the EMI instructors. Students shared similar recommendations in their interviews by stating that there is no alignment between the language taught at PYP schools and the language given as input in the departments. Although quantitative and qualitative findings are aligned for the EMI students, they are not for the EMI instructors because 5 of the participants also underscored the need for collaboration between instructors and EMI instructors for better English during the interviews. This lack of coordination in Turkish higher education context is in conflict with the EMI courses in other countries. For instance, Davison (2006) mentioned that there was a co-teaching and collaboration between language teachers and instructors in Australia and Canada in order to improve linguistic skills of the EMI instructors and students. The study by Wilkinson (2012) pointed out in his study that EMI instructors were monitored by language teachers Maastricht University in Netherlands. However, like in Turkish context, Kong (2014) showed that there was no collaboration in Hong Kong context. Students' and EMI instructors' suggestions for such a collaboration are evidenced by the findings from the study conducted by Kamaşak and Sahan (2023), who implied that language challenges could be negotiated through collaborations at universities. Similarly, the EMI instructors from engineering departments who participated in the study by Sahan

(2021) agreed that there was a need for cooperation for better language and content teaching.

Just as Curle et al. (2020) suggested, all the EMI instructors highlighted the need for field terminology classes in English PYP because they lose a considerable amount of time teaching some basic field terminology to first-year students. The need to include vocabulary lessons at PYP schools can also be evidenced in the study by Soruç and Griffs (2017), in which the student participants identified many problems related to vocabulary and they had to solve them on their own.

From a different perspective, when asked about the use of Turkish in EMI courses during the interviews, both the students and EMI instructors expressed the need for occasional use of L1 for expressing some very technical terms, clarifying the complicated instructions, and mediating the language for the lessons to address the students' language needs better. Some major studies within the relevant context also came up with similar suggestions and implications regarding the use of Turkish in EMI courses. Kırkgöz et al., (2023) found that translanguaging was needed to address to the students' specific disciplinary needs, understanding the content, and controlling the student understanding. Similarly, Coşgun (2020) suggested that tertiary-level students must benefit from translanguaging until they felt proficient in English. The EMI instructors who participated in the study by Karakaş (2016) also suggested that English was just a tool to learn the content and Turkish could be used to facilitate learning content knowledge. From a different perspective, Altay et al. (2022) revealed that students from different departments might even need TMI from time to time as Turkish instruction could predict the achievement levels in the EMI courses.

5.1.5.2. English PYP students' and instructors' recommendations The PYP students' and instructors' recommendations analyzed and gathered from both the surveys and the interviews almost resonated with the EMI students' and EMI instructors' recommendations. As detailed references to the relevant literature have been made in the above section and no studies have so far explored the English PYP instructors' and students' perceptions of the language education for EMI purposes, the present section only presented the additional major findings.

Just like the EMI students and EMI instructors, the PYP students and instructors recommended that instructors be trained in EMI methodology, which shows that the participants also believe PYP schools can give English courses focused on content. The suggestion for content based English courses was evidenced by the instructors' recommendation that more time be allocated for English courses tailored for the EMI courses and by the students' recommendation that instructors be trained in teaching content knowledge in English. During the interviews, the instructors particularly told that they were eager to learn how to teach content and how to prepare their students better for the EMI courses, but they criticized that there was not any course or methodological or pedagogical guidelines.

It is also noteworthy to emphasize that the students seemed not to be totally satisfied with their education because they suggested their teachers adjust their teaching level according to their linguistic needs ($M = 3.15$). These findings were evidenced with the suggestions provide by the students and instructors during the interviews. The students recommended that the focus of the PYP be adapted according to the EMI courses and the instructors recommend that PYP be improved by considering content-based teaching approaches and differentiated instruction. However, according to the quantitative findings, the students were mostly of the opinion that instructors must focus more on their foreign language skills than content ($M = 3.25$). This might be associated with the fact that students start their tertiary-level education with a low language proficiency.

The PYP students also recommended that both Turkish and English be used flexibly in EMI courses. Thus, they agree with the EMI students and EMI instructors in the use of Turkish during the language lessons. And, during the interviews, both the students and the instructors also highlight the fact that Turkish is needed for better classroom management and understanding instructions and some content-based vocabulary items.

The findings also revealed that the instructors agreed with the terms stated in macro and meso policy documents because they recommend that lessons be taught by English instructors and language be tested in the final exams at PYP schools. However, they also suggested that EMI instructors teach language lessons, and they prepare

learning materials for PYP schools. These suggestions must be associated with the fact that the instructors, just like the students, strongly believe EMI instructors and instructors cooperate for better EMI courses. As a matter of fact, all of the instructors said they need help from the EMI instructors at the departments for a better content-based teaching. They even suggested that both instructors and EMI instructors be trained for EMI pedagogy.

5.1.6. RQ8 - English PYP school directors' views on the recommendations and perceptions. The English PYP school directors are responsible for ensuring the foreign language education in their schools is maintained according to the macro and meso policy documents (Altay et al. 2022). Thus, the findings from the present study are *sui generis* in that it provides the opinions of the PYP school directors regarding the perceptions of the EMI instructors, students, PYP instructors and students and the applicability and feasibility of their recommendations.

According to the qualitative analysis of the data from school directors' interview, all the directors reckoned that major changes should be made both in macro and meso policy documents if EMI policies and classroom practices are to complement each other. Hence, they all agreed that there was contradiction between classroom practices and macro and meso policies in Turkish tertiary level education just as Altay et al. (2022), Başıbek et al. (2014), Kırkgöz (2017), and Sahan (2021) confirmed within the same context. However, the directors did not draw such a conclusion after they had read and listened to the recommendations and perceptions, but they rather stated that they were already aware of the huge gaps between the policies and practices, especially in their own schools. They all associated this lack of alignment with the fact that each university has students with different language needs as they provide different EMI programs, which has already been in discussion for years in the relevant literature (Baldauf & Kaplan, 2005; Hans & Philip, 2021; Köksal & Şahin, 2012; Sahan, 2021). Thus, it can be concluded here that the school directors also confirmed the findings from the document analysis, quantitative and qualitative analyses of the present study. During the interviews, they commented on the findings by referring to macro and meso changes needed, which were actually discussed in the literature before.

For macro changes, just as the findings from the studies by Ağçam and Babanoğlu (2019), Dearden (2018), Kamaşak and Sahan (2023), and Özer (2020) revealed, the school directors suggested that teacher training programs for EMI methodology and pedagogy be designed and provided by the government for both language instructors and the EMI instructors. However, they all stated that this was something they had been proposing since English PYP started in Turkey and that some European and American universities could be taken as epitomes. Thus, the school directors were aware of their staff's methodological and pedagogical needs.

The directors also stressed the necessity for aligning the English language curricula for all institutions across Turkey, just as the Turkish primary and secondary school language education is aligned. They associated the significant differences from the quantitative findings according to departments, years of education, universities, etc. with the lack of such an alignment in the curricula. Therefore, they could evidence the quantitative findings once more. Such a necessity for alignment was not explicitly suggested but implied by few studies (Civan & Coşgun, 2016; Lei & Hu, 2014; Wilson, 2016).

In addition, all the directors put forward the belief that such macro changes were difficult to apply in a short time and arduous arrangements and intensive need analyses must be conducted before the system could be changed. Besides, they added that diplomacy is required to negotiate certain difficulties in every single step, which is major policy makers' responsibility. The feasibility of changes in the macro policies were also questioned in the relevant literature. For instance, Sahan (2021) implied that it would take effort and years to align the practices with the macro policies or vice versa. Correspondingly, Kırkgöz (2017), despite not underestimating the role of institutions, government, EMI instructors, and instructors in facilitating the reforms in EMI courses, implied that such changes took long years. However, the directors also suggested that such an infeasibility could be compensated through cooperation between language instructors and the EMI instructors. They thought that macro policy could necessitate this collaboration through terms and the institutions could take their own initiatives in realizing them, which would take less time. The directors also emphasized the fact that they had been seeking for such a collaboration for years. Thus, they also agreed with the participants' strong recommendations for collaboration,

which is resonated in the relevant literature (e.g., Davison, 2006; Kamaşak & Sahan, 2023).

As for meso level changes, the directors found them more applicable and feasible than the macro level suggestions for changes put forward by the participants. For instance, they stated that they could direct student outcomes towards micro skills and integrate more EAP or EGAP courses into their curricula so as to improve students' competences for the EMI courses by drawing conclusions from the findings of the present study. Although they are not policy makers, they believe they can address to their students' needs more by taking institutional steps thanks to academic studies in EMI courses. Their relevant ideas are actually in line with the implications from some studies, which suggest that institutions can take meso steps in foreign language policy changes (Jian et al., 2019; Sariçoban, 2012; Spolsky, 2004, Tran, 2020).

In brief, the school directors feel less powerful in making macro level changes because a lot of criteria must be met, which is time consuming, and chief actors participate in decision-making processes. However, they believe they can adapt their foreign language education systems according to the needs of the EMI students, instructors, and EMI instructors by exploring what academic studies suggest. It is worth noting here that academic research studies in the field of EMI can raise institutional decision makers' consciousness about how to improve EMI courses in any context, as suggested by other studies (Cots, 2013; Doiz et al., 2019; Macaro & Akıncioğlu, 2018; Tran & Nguyen, 2018).

5.2 Pedagogical Implications

This section will highlight the implications for the practice of EMI in Turkish tertiary level context by concentrating on students, EMI instructors and language instructors, universities.

5.2.1. Implications for students. Students are the implementers of EMI courses, and they are sole reasons why EMI courses have been adopted for. The success of EMI courses depends not only on their university achievements but also on how successful

they are in their careers after graduating from their departments. For these particular reasons, the students must be made aware of the implementation of EMI courses, and what they must meet as criteria for their lessons, what the EMI courses can offer them throughout their education and after they finish their academic studies. In this way, the students can learn which language skills they must be equipped for EMI courses.

In addition, the students must be prepared well for language competences, especially for how to use their English skills for content courses. More EAP, ESP, EGP, or EAP courses must be provided in each institution by heeding the specific needs of the students or may be through differentiated instructions. In English preparatory programs, the students' English levels must be tested through common or aligned examinations to mitigate the varying levels of English across the country or within the same EMI departments at different universities.

As for the interaction between EMI instructors/instructors and students, they should be increased more. The students must be able to counsel their teachers for better EMI skills or how to engage in extensive activities after the lessons. Students must be more knowledgeable about exchange or Erasmus programs. They should also be given more opportunities for productive skills at PYP schools and departments as they are not very satisfied with them.

5.2.2. Implications for EMI instructors/instructors. As the EMI student participants of the present study are not satisfied with their EMI instructors' English levels, their language proficiency should be evaluated through standardized examinations that test four main skills. Particularly for communicative skills, the EMI instructors should be trained more. In addition, they should be given training on EMI pedagogy and their teaching should be observed by teacher trainers regularly because the students' interest in the lessons and their departments is strongly influenced by the teaching approaches adopted by their EMI instructors. Similarly, English language instructors should be given courses on teaching EMI or intensive academic courses. And, different from the EMI instructors, they should improve their academic vocabulary and terminology in different fields, perhaps by coordinating with the EMI instructors. Both instructors and EMI instructors should be awarded international certificates on EMI pedagogy and linguistic skills in order to encourage them to improve themselves more.

Furthermore, the EMI instructors and instructors should be trained or develop themselves on how to know their students' academic, cultural, and linguistic background better to address to their needs for language and content learning. The rationale behind such an implication is that most of the students mentioned they could not form a rapport with their EMI instructors and instructors especially when they would like to contact them to take advice on their academic studies.

Just as all the participants of the study including the school directors have suggested, there should be a collaboration between language instructors and the EMI instructors so that they can gain mutual benefits as far as their teaching approaches are concerned. For example, instructors can observe EMI instructors' lessons to test their linguistic skills during EMI courses and EMI instructors can teach instructors or provide them with some materials on field terminology. In this way, both cohorts of teachers can get better ideas about their strengths and weaknesses. EAP lessons in the departments should also be given by the EMI instructors, not by language instructors. The instructors and EMI instructors may co-teach such lessons or some of the content lessons in the departments or at English PYP schools. In this way, EMI instructors can learn how to develop their students' content knowledge and language competence and instructors can learn how to integrate content and terminology into their lessons (Airey, 2016).

As the present study has found significant differences according to departments, universities, and the school terms of the PYP students, EMI instructors and instructors should collaborate with the other EMI instructors or instructors in the other universities or departments. Institutions might organize conferences where they can reflect on their difficulties and teaching methods, for instance. In this way, they can conduct reflective practices and share constructive feedback.

5.2.3. Implications for institutions. The best implications for the institutions would be to suggest them to provide EMI methodology and pedagogy trainings or workshops for both instructors and EMI instructors. However, it would be better if instructors and EMI instructors could participate in these trainings together. Thus, the institutions should adapt their infrastructure and financial resources accordingly in

order to improve their EMI courses and meet their teachers' and students' needs. Besides, each department has its own characteristics, in addition to providing common criteria for teaching through EMI and how to teach English for future the EMI courses, the universities should also organize trainings for EMI instructors from individual departments. And the language instructors should be given training on how to teach English to students from different EMI departments because each student has different language needs as proven by Altay et al. (2022), in which social science students were found to be learn better through EMI. Thus, the development of the PYP school curriculum and EMI departments should be maintained through the integration of differentiated instruction. For instance, the students should be placed in classes according to their departments and they should take language courses by reading texts or writing essays relevant to their fields.

In addition, the universities should try to allow the teachers and students to use Turkish for teaching advanced terminology because the same study also found that the students from mathematical, physical and life sciences could learn the content better if the teaching could be mediated through L1.

As far as language skills are concerned, the PYP schools should give the students more opportunities to hone their productive skills and the EMI instructors should be trained to develop their students' writing and speaking skills. As the participants of the present study suggested, they focus more on reading and listening skills because their examinations include more reading and listening questions. Thus, the curriculum of the PYP schools and EMI departments should be adapted in a way that more writing and speaking practices can be implemented. However, while the curricula are being designed, EMI instructors from the departments and language instructors should come together and collaborate on student outcomes after taking the necessary in-service or outside training on EMI methodology and pedagogy.

Besides writing and speaking skills, the universities should ensure that their students can develop their intercultural communication because all the participants are of the opinion that EMI has been adopted for globalization and internationalization, which requires intercultural communication. According to the results of the present study and many other studies in the same context (Kırkgöz, 2017; Macaro & Akıncıoğlu, 2018; Ozer, 2020), the EMI students must develop their intercultural

communicative competence as well as their linguistic competence because they are expected to read and duplicate research studies performed in other countries and produce research studies which have global applicability in their fields of study. And they should always be ready for cultural exchange with EMI instructors and students from different countries.

5.2.4. Implications for policy makers. As the findings from the macro and meso policy analyses suggest, universities implement EMI programs in various ways and the PYP schools design language policies on their own due to lack of common guidelines on foreign language education and how to conduct EMI programs. First, readiness levels of the universities, EMI instructors, instructors, and students should be gauged through academic studies and their needs should be thoroughly analysed by the governmental organizations such as YOK. According to the findings, EMI programs and language education policies should be designed and aligned in a way that all the needs of the students, EMI instructors and institutions can be met. As for student learning outcomes, the policy makers must integrate intercultural competences, communicative competences, and academic writing both in universal language learning programs and EMI programs designed to be used by all the universities in the country.

However, of course, the instruction should be differentiated for specific departments. For instance, engineering and social science students should be exposed to respective language learning instructions and EMI programs. In order to achieve such goals, policy makers should work in collaboration with the EMI instructors from each department of each university and with foreign language instructors from each PYP school because, as the findings reveal, instructions and curricula vary a lot from region to region, department to department, and university and university. And this, unfortunately, influences the students' language development and perceptions of EMI courses badly.

Additionally, some of the participants suggest that they and their students are not aware of the EMI and language education policies of the country and, therefore, they are not effective in addressing their students' needs according to the written policies. This has also been confirmed by the PYP school directors. Therefore, policy makers should design conferences on EMI and language learning policies they have

adopted or shared leaflets with the universities or language school regularly. The participants do not even know how to access them on the government's website. Perhaps this might be added as a component to teacher training programs, too.

To summarize, macro and meso policies for EMI courses in Turkish higher education system causes a lack of alignment in the implementation of the approach and language teaching policies because the universities are autonomous in applying their own approaches. Such a deficiency has been proven by the quantitative and qualitative findings of the present study, too. Besides, the participants suggested that they are not satisfied with this lack of alignment because it causes variations in the language proficiency levels, content knowledge of the students, and the quality of the education provided by the same departments in different universities. In conclusion, the policy makers should design policies that can align the language learning and teaching methods and EMI programs across the country by considering the views of each stakeholder, and key factors and people in the higher education system.

5.3 Conclusions

The findings of the present study revealed that EMI was an essential part of Turkish higher education system for more than twenty years and has been adopted for globalization and internationalization. All macro policies suggested that the implementation of EMI was expected to raise the students' content knowledge and English competence and all meso policies suggested that the language learning approaches were expected to raise students for their EMI courses. In addition, the PYP and EMI were designed to attract foreign students and staff to Turkish universities from European countries and to develop Turkish politics and economy. However, not all Turkish universities adopted 100% EMI for all their departments and some still conducted TMI according to the institutional documents analyzed. Nevertheless, the number of departments where EMI was implemented in various percentages was so high that it could be concluded that EMI was a replacement for TMI. Indeed, Turkish students who were most successful opt for 100% EMI programs because they were offered by most prestigious universities, which means that they can be recruited in the international workplaces upon graduation.

However, the findings reported that there had been a mismatch between policies and practices largely due to varying language proficiency levels of the students and EMI instructors, non-aligned language teaching and EMI programs, lack of cooperation between the EMI instructors and language instructors at universities. The macro and meso policies also illustrated that Turkish universities were autonomous in designing, assessing, managing, and evaluating their own PYP curricula and EMI programs because specific details regarding the implementation of EMI and language teaching and learning were not given by the government. Such legitimate autonomy led to the wide variations in the implementation of foreign language education at PYP schools and content knowledge education in the departments.

The analyses of the findings from the EMI students' and PYP students' survey divulged that their perceptions of EMI and their language proficiency differed significantly according to such variables as university, department, region, and school term. Similarly, the analyses from the EMI instructors' and PYP instructors' surveys interviews revealed that their perceptions differ as significantly according to age, university, EMI experiences, departments, and education. These significant differences provided further evidence for lack of alignment in the curricula and teaching programs of PYP schools and EMI departments.

The quantitative findings were reinforced by the findings from the EMI instructors' and instructors' semi-structured interviews, and the students' focus group interviews. The participants' statements also revealed that they were not satisfied with the lack of alignment especially in EMI departments. And they also strongly agreed that there should be a cooperation between language instructors and the EMI instructors for a more effective implementation of EMI.

Even though all the participants were mostly satisfied with the existence of EMI in Turkish universities, they disagree with the fact that it can improve all four skills. They mostly thought that EMI and PYP could develop grammar, vocabulary, listening and reading skills of the students but not the productive skills of writing and speaking, especially communicative and academic paper writing skills. This can be attributed to the fact that the exams at PYP schools mostly test grammar, reading, and vocabulary.

Although all the participants thought that the students' technical vocabulary could develop through EMI courses, they explicitly suggested that they should start learning technical terminology earlier in their careers, perhaps at English PYP schools. For such an integration, the EMI instructors, and instructors, in particular, suggested that they should collaborate with each other to address the students' academic and linguistic needs more.

Referring to their individual experiences in Turkish tertiary-level context, the students, the EMI instructors, and the instructors provided some major recommendations to improve EMI courses through surveys and during the interviews. According to all the participants, EMI instructors should be responsible only for content-teaching, and the instructors should be responsible only for language teaching.

Considering the EMI methodology and pedagogy training courses, both the students and teachers thought that EMI instructors and instructors should take training on how to teach through EMI and cooperate with each other for more effective EMI and PYP school lessons. As far as the language proficiency courses are concerned, the EMI students thought that some of their EMI instructors must develop their linguistic and communicative skills in addition to pedagogical and methodological training on EMI.

All the above major findings were shared with five PYP school directors at the end of the study. The participants in the interview agreed with the perceptions and recommendations shared and, indeed, they stated that they admired them because most of them were among the changes they would like to bring to their own schools. Although the directors acknowledged that it is rather difficult to apply the changes at macro level due to diplomatic restrictions and lack of time allowances, they suggested that they could try realizing some of these recommendations and considering the participants' receptions at least at meso level. The majority of the findings from document analysis, participants' receptions and recommendations were approved by the school directors and they mentioned already thinking that there was a lack of alignment between policies and practices and that there should be a cooperation between PYP schools and EMI departments. In particular, they highlighted the

participants' perceptions related to the language competence and emphasized that they would take actions to improve their students' language skills for EMI courses.



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