

# Similarities and Differences Between EMI Students' Experiences in Japan and Sweden

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This paper examines student experiences of English Medium Instruction (EMI) in two distinct geographic and sociolinguistic contexts: Japan and Sweden. Interviews with 24 EMI students in both countries were conducted to better understand how sociolinguistic factors within each environment may impact student learning. These factors included the role of English in the surrounding society, national-level policies, second language English proficiency level, and views on the use of English in the EMI classroom. Student voices from both contexts articulated similar as well as divergent experiences. Despite clear socio-educational distinctions, students in both contexts had similar emotional responses and observations during their EMI experiences. However, they displayed different purposes for enrolling in EMI programs and distinctive attitudes toward the use of their first language. They also provided insights into EMI's role in relation to broader internationalization efforts. On the basis of the interview analysis, the paper closes with a discussion of EMI implementation in Japan in terms of insights from a Swedish-based model at micro and macro levels.

本論では、日本とスウェーデンという地理的、社会言語的に異なるコンテキストにおいて、非英語圏での英語による専門科目 (EMI) を学生がどのように経験しているのかを比較し検証する。24名の大学生へのインタビューを実施し、それぞれの環境における社会言語学的要因が学習にどのような影響を与えるかを調査した。これらの要因には、社会における英語の役割、国家レベルの政策、第二言語である英語の習熟度、EMI授業内での英語使用に対する見解などが含まれていた。両方のコンテキストからの学生の声には類似した経験だけでなく、異なる経験もはっきりと表れていた。社会教育上の明確な違いがあるにも関わらず、両国の学生のEMIに対する感情的な反応や受け取り方には共通点が見られた。一方、EMIプログラムで学ぶ目的やEMIにおける母語の使用に対する見解には相違がみられた。またEMIがより広い意味での国際化への取り組みに果たす役割についての意見も得られた。さらに、インタビューデータの分析に基づき、ミクロ (授業) およびマクロ (政策) レベルにおいて、スウェーデンのEMIのモデルから、日本におけるEMIの実施にどのような示唆が得られるのかを論ずる。

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**A**s evidenced by recent publications describing policies and practices in various countries on multiple continents (e.g., Dearden, 2014; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2021), English Medium Instruction (EMI) takes place in many geographic areas. EMI is commonly understood to be the use of English to teach academic content (apart from English itself) in places where the majority population's first language (L1) is not English (e.g., Galloway, 2021). Because language plays an indispensable role in the delivery and learning of content, educational developments such as transitioning from instruction in a national language to EMI take significant time and effort. This paper focuses on such transitions that are and have been taking place in Japan and Sweden.

According to Kennedy (2013), curricular and educational change comprises multiple layers, from large-scale national policies decreed by centralized authorities to more decentralized individual and emic models in which individuals (e.g., students and teachers) strive to progress in specific classroom contexts. Similarly, Markee (2013) highlighted the multitude of contextual layers (e.g., cultural, administrative, institutional, and classroom) through which changes must pass to be effective. EMI is no exception, and with a sudden insertion of English into university education, its effects in national contexts are likely to be seen at these multiple levels, in areas ranging from broad national policies to materials selection and assessment to classroom teaching and student learning.

Many previous studies on EMI have been situated in their respective national contexts (e.g., Aizawa & Rose, 2019; Kumazawa & Brewster, 2021), yet few have attempted to examine EMI from a cross-contextual perspective. This type of examination can yield benefits not only for the respective national contexts and particular institutions involved but also for the fields of education and applied linguistics, which endeavor to document, describe, inform, and improve what Kuteeva (2020) calls an “expanding phenomenon” (p. 287). Some published works include multiple chapters and case studies describing certain EMI contexts in a somewhat isolated fashion (e.g., Dafouz & Smit, 2020, 2023; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2021). While these works provide glimpses into the vari-

ous states and receptions of EMI around the world, their findings are rarely integrated into comparative efforts to determine similarities and distinctions in EMI implementation.

As EMI continues its maturation at higher education institutions (HEIs) in Japan, comparisons with other contexts can help serve as barometers for understanding its development and examining its policies, institutions, programs, teacher perspectives, and student experiences. As Aizawa and Rose (2019) observed, EMI in the Japanese context “marks a significant departure from earlier forms of EMI in Europe” (p. 1141), and research explorations beyond single, isolated locations can be valuable to the global EMI community. For the purpose of our comparison, we choose Sweden because of its markedly different sociolinguistic context, educational culture, and EMI implementation.

Even though both countries have prioritized university instruction in English, the two start from very different foundations, and key differences in socio-educational factors make Japan and Sweden interesting national contexts to consider. The former has a largely homogeneous population (e.g., Ruegg, 2021), while the latter is more multicultural. Whereas Japanese universities may provide English for Academic Purposes (EAP) preparation courses and/or “sheltered EMI” courses to support students in learning through English (e.g., Ruegg, 2021), students in Sweden are largely expected to study in English with no explicit support. Furthermore, Japanese universities may use EMI to bolster numbers of international students and diversify the student population, often for financial reasons, a move which Hino (2017) calls “a lingering social problem” (p. 117). To aid in recruiting students and to expand internationalization, the Japanese government allocates special funding (e.g., Top Global University Project); however, Swedish universities do not have such explicit, publicly funded initiatives. In addition, Japan and Sweden are very disparate in terms of nationwide second language (L2) English proficiency: Japan is listed as “low” (#87/113) and Sweden “very high” (#6/113) by Education First’s 2023 English Proficiency Index (Education First, n.d.). Given these socio-educational differences, we aim to examine how students operating within EMI programs set in these national contexts view their EMI experiences.

This paper adopts a comparative perspective between the Japanese and Swedish EMI contexts in order to consider whether the challenges of transitioning from instruction in a national language to English are similar and whether any relevant strategies used in Sweden would be appropriate

for EMI in Japan. According to Aizawa and Rose (2019), Japan exhibits gaps between EMI policy and practice; however, whether such gaps exist in other contexts and how they might compare has yet to be explored. Furthermore, Ruegg (2021) points out the challenges Japanese EMI students face and gives suggestions for future growth in the field. Such growth can be informed by experiences from actors in other EMI contexts. Ruegg also mentions potential variables among EMI students in different international contexts, including educational background, admissions requirements, intentions for enrolling in EMI, and the effort required to study content in a second language. However, the views students have on these topics have not been examined from a cross-contextual perspective, let alone through student experiences in countries with such distinct socio-educational circumstances.

### Contextual Background

In the Swedish context specifically and in Europe more generally, there is a long and established history of EMI in higher education, starting with the Bologna Declaration of 1999, which prioritized staff and student mobility within Europe and led English to become the *de facto* lingua franca on the continent. The widespread use of English in higher education throughout Europe has facilitated student and faculty exchange. In Sweden, EMI is relatively well established in higher education, as is evidenced by the growing use of English in teaching and on course reading lists. Malmström and Pecorari (2022) found that around two thirds of the more than 1,700 courses they surveyed assigned at least some reading in English and that certain majors (e.g., engineering and technology) required no reading in Swedish.

Students in Sweden begin formal English courses as early as primary school, and a passing grade (equivalent to CEFR B2) is required in the final obligatory English class in upper secondary school, a fact which demonstrates that English as an L2 is now well established in Swedish education (see, e.g., Björkman, 2014; Hult, 2012). In 2009, in response to the growing influence of English, the Swedish government passed the “Swedish Language Act” to protect, promote, and maintain the Swedish language (Björkman, 2014). Because English-related expectations already exist in Swedish higher education, the notion of attracting domestic students with EMI (Hashimoto, 2018; Kumazawa & Brewster, 2021) is less relevant in Sweden than it is in Japan. Many students in Sweden may enter university with at least some expectation of learning via English at some point.

In Japan, implementation of EMI in university courses may be regarded as a more recent phenomenon. It was initially started in the 2000s, under the Japanese government's national investment initiatives to selected universities. As of 2020, over 40% of 795 universities in Japan offered EMI courses, and 86 departments in 43 universities had fully English-taught programs (ETPs) (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology–Japan [MEXT], 2023). EMI in Japan was promoted initially as a part of the national policies to further globalization of the economy and education (Bradford & Brown, 2018; Hashimoto, 2018; Rose & McKinley, 2018). Since 2008, in accordance with the initial statement in the Global 30, which aimed to increase the number of international students to 300,000, the Japanese government has encouraged the spread of EMI courses to internationalize university campuses by providing governmental grants exclusively to selected universities. The push for internationalization has now gone beyond these “top” universities to other “non-selected” universities, for which securing target student enrollment numbers is pressing matter as Japan's university-age population is rapidly decreasing. These universities use EMI as a dual marketing strategy, whereby they use the brand image of an international university to attract international students with limited Japanese language proficiency as well as domestic students (Hashimoto, 2018).

## Research Method

### Research Goals

The ways in which EMI has been initiated and implemented can be viewed from different perspectives. Among them are comparisons of EMI policies and experiences of students in programs that those policies are meant to guide. The purpose of this paper is to address these two levels of inquiry, namely the formal policies and the individual student experience, by comparing the relatively young EMI environment of Japan with that of Sweden through the lens of the following research question: How are student perspectives of EMI in Japan and Sweden similar and distinct? The answer to this question, we believe, will yield insights for better EMI implementation in Japan.

After consultation with university research offices and reference to regulations at the Swedish university, ethical approval was not deemed relevant to the study. All participants signed consent forms prior to the interviews. The researchers in Japan obtained permission from the research ethics committee of one of the two universities where data

was collected and followed the ethical guidelines throughout the research.

### Participants

A convenience sample totaling 24 students participated in the study (see Table 1). In the Japanese context, students from two different HEIs were invited to participate ( $n = 13$ ), one being a “selected university,” with the governmental grant to promote EMI ( $n = 2$ ), and the other being a “non-selected” university ( $n = 11$ ). The former was a mid-sized private urban university, the latter a smaller, private suburban institution. In the Swedish context, all interviewed students attended the same large public urban institution ( $n = 11$ ). Table 1 outlines the details of the student participants.

**Table 1**  
*Participants*

	Japan	Sweden
Number of subjects	13	11
Gender	7 female / 6 male	10 female / 1 male
Self-reported L1	12 Japanese; 1 Chinese	Swedish (6); Italian (3); Persian (1); Russian (1)
Selection	From previous classes taught by the researchers	Open call; subjects previously unknown to researchers
Compensation	1000 JPY payment	100 SEK e-gift card (worth around 1000 JPY)

Two important distinctions between the two participant groups were L1 and cultural background. While nearly all the Japanese participants had Japanese as their L1 and had been raised in Japan (with two exceptions: one international student and one returnee student), the students in Sweden had a variety of L1s (see Table 1) and had spent varying amounts of time living in Sweden and within the Swedish school system. The researchers believe that the selection of these students largely represents the EMI student populations in both research contexts (cf. Bardel et al., 2023; Ruegg, 2021), as immigration numbers are higher in Sweden than Japan, thereby leading to a more culturally diverse and multilingual society.

It is also important to note a major difference in the participants' prior L2 English education. In some Japanese EMI programs, like those in which our participants studied, a period of pre-EMI study at university focuses on language proficiency so that students achieve a CEFR B1/B2 level in English. In Sweden, this benchmark is expected upon graduation from upper secondary school (i.e., high school). As such, first-year students at Swedish universities may enter EMI without any special linguistic support.

### Data Collection and Analysis

In order to address the stated research question and acknowledge the individual perceptions, attitudes, and experiences of a small number of participants, a qualitative approach was used. When examining the interview transcripts, open-coding (see Straus & Corbin, 1998) and thematic qualitative text analysis (see Kuckartz, 2014) were used. All participants were interviewed using a set of questions that were independently created to suit the interests of the researchers in Japan and those in Sweden (see Appendix).

During collaborative meetings (both on Zoom and in person), the researchers built awareness of both distinct and mutual areas of interest. This collaboration meant that several of the questions used in interviews in both contexts overlapped to allow for comparisons of the two EMI contexts. These questions covered areas including language background, general impressions of EMI, comparisons between learning in L1 and in English, preparedness for EMI, and teacher support. However, in each context, some context-specific questions were also asked; for example, one research objective for the Japanese members of the research team focused on university advertising in relation to EMI (see Kumazawa & Brewster, 2021), a topic less relevant to the Swedish researchers. The Swedish team was interested in student perceptions of online EMI in comparison to EMI in person (see Siegel, 2023), a topic not covered in the Japanese interviews.

Participants were given a choice regarding the interview language (either L2 English or L1 Japanese / L1 Swedish, respectively). In addition, some Swedish participants joined group interviews to facilitate scheduling. Interviews were held and recorded via Zoom and were later transcribed. Researchers in each context then examined the transcripts for relevant themes, drawing on procedures for thematic qualitative text analysis outlined by Kuckartz (2014). These themes were then gathered, presented, and discussed in joint data analysis sessions involving

researchers from both contexts. Table 2 provides a summary overview of themes that emerged from this data collection and analysis.

**Table 2**

#### Data Collection Summary

Details of interviews	Japan	Sweden
Interview style and language	11 individual interviews in Japanese; 2 individual interviews in Japanese and English	3 group interviews in English; 2 individual interviews in English; 2 individual interviews in Swedish
Data	625 minutes of transcribed audio	315 minutes of transcribed audio

### Results

The point of asking similar questions about EMI to both participant groups was to provide a genuine comparison of the emerging issues in both contexts. These expressions should be viewed with various contextual concessions in mind; for example, the general emphasis placed on English in schools and in society at large is often greater in Sweden than in Japan; the general English proficiency level of students entering university is lower in Japan than in Sweden; and EMI student groups in Sweden are more likely to be multicultural and multilingual than are those in Japanese universities. These claims are certainly not absolutes but are relevant factors when interpreting the findings from this cross-contextual study.

### Similar Themes

Based on the interview findings, some similar themes emerged from both participant groups, mostly related to student emotions. Students in both Japan and Sweden reported feelings of nervousness, particularly at the initial stages of EMI courses. For example, a student in Japan reported her initial shock at the challenge of EMI, saying, "At first, I was very enthusiastic and wanted to do my best, but when I actually took the class...there was a gap between my ideal and the reality...and I felt I was being driven by anxiety" (translated from Japanese). The "reality" in this quote apparently refers to the situation in which her current English proficiency did not meet the high expectations



required in that EMI class, and for her, the gap was so overwhelming that it changed her initial enthusiasm into anxiety. Likewise, one student in Sweden noted that “it is always a little scary to study a subject at university level in a language you have not mastered 100%” (translated from Swedish) (see Siegel, 2023, for additional examples and discussion), underscoring the high-stakes nature of higher education, presumably in comparison to compulsory schooling, where more teacher support and lower L2 English expectations may be present.

Despite initial nervousness and trepidation, however, students in both contexts also reported feelings of motivation, pride, and accomplishment. It seems many were able to overcome initial feelings of intimidation by learning content via L2 English. They likely developed strategies and took advantage of various support systems (e.g., institutional support, such as writing centers; socio-affective support systems, like classmates; and independent strategies, including the use of translation software or allocation of additional time to processing and reviewing EMI course material). As noted by Kumazawa and Brewster (2021), students in such situations often “demonstrate some sense of resilience in the highly challenging [EMI] environment” (p. 35).

These similar findings related to student emotions demonstrated consistency in relation to initial feelings of hesitation and anxiety. This finding is interesting because students in Sweden are often confident in their general English skills and have attained (at least according to Ministry of Education steering documents) a CEFR level of B2 or higher before entering university. At the same time, Swedish universities do not offer “bridge” courses or much support for those studying in L2 English. The assumption is that students entering Swedish universities have already acquired the requisite English abilities to learn and succeed in EMI, although recent studies highlight struggles that Swedish university students have with, for example, academic English reading (e.g., Eriksson, 2023). In particular, students with an L1 other than Swedish often struggle the most. Most Japanese students, by contrast, may enter such courses with less exposure to English (in both general and academic terms) and possibly less confidence and proficiency. Thus, nervous feelings on their part would seem quite logical. This data comparison, however, suggests that regardless of proficiency, initial experiences in EMI may still cause anxiety. Instructors on such courses may wish to factor these emotions into early planning and delivery of material as well as into expectations placed on students. They could also emphasize the need for resilience and point out success strategies in EMI.

## Distinctions

Our analysis also revealed several distinctions between the two participant groups, some of which were not unexpected. One major difference was the view expressed by Japanese participants that their purposes for enrolling in EMI programs were twofold: L2 English development and content knowledge learning. This perspective positions the Japanese participants as “language learners” alongside their intention to learn the subject matter. In contrast, the Swedish group already viewed themselves as English “users,” and while they mentioned some implicit improvements in English proficiency, especially in academic genres, their main collective intention was to learn the content. These findings show a second major distinction: how EMI students in these different contexts view themselves.

The student groups also had varying perspectives on using L1 in EMI courses. These distinct views are likely partly related to the more homogeneous nature of EMI in Japan, where student groups most often have a common L1, whereas university groups in Sweden frequently comprise members with different L1s and perhaps even varying proficiency in Swedish. While an EMI teacher in Japan may have the option of translanguaging to benefit content learning, teachers in Sweden may need to adhere to English as the only shared language. Some in the Japanese student group preferred “total EMI,” where the class uses English only and L1 use is seen as detrimental to the language development aspect of the course. Others appreciated the use of L1 for specific purposes, such as to avoid miscommunication and to provide further depth to the content of their discussion. This observation calls for more research and support of the issue of teachers’ English proficiency (cf., e.g., Galloway & Ruegg, 2022). In contrast, the Swedish participants expressed more tolerance for multilingual language use, including L1 Swedish where appropriate, to facilitate and solidify content learning. In other words, they prioritized content learning and did not focus on English language learning opportunities in the way that the Japanese participants did.

Another notable difference between the groups was in the perceived benefit of EMI and connections to international experiences. In Japan, some universities promote their EMI programs and courses as opportunities for domestic students to learn together and interact with international students. According to Japanese students’ views, this ideal situation highlighting internationalization via EMI did not always come to fruition, often because of discrepancies in English ability and/or low recruitment of foreign-born students

to Japanese universities. In Sweden, the international, multilingual nature of student groups was often praised by interviewees, who highlighted the democratic and accessible nature of EMI in Sweden. They noted that because of shared English proficiency, students and teachers from various L1 backgrounds and cultures could meet, interact, and learn in diverse classrooms.

### Discussion

This comparison of student experiences in distinct EMI contexts illustrates the effects of centralized EMI initiatives and the efforts of individual institutions and departments to implement those mandates. Given the range of national and institutional contexts in which EMI takes place, implementational variation, flexibility, and adaptation will always be necessary. In other words, no single EMI model will work in all contexts. At the same time, cross-contextual investigations like this one can help augment the collective knowledge base about EMI and expand the range of strategies and support for its implementation.

Despite the aforementioned contextual differences between Japan and Sweden (e.g., general L2 proficiency level, the role of English in society), student interviews revealed some similarities. Interestingly, these shared perspectives were typically related to student emotions. As described earlier, students in both groups expressed some initial reservations about EMI. Dewaele et al. (2018) found that high levels of foreign language classroom anxiety negatively affected attitudes toward the foreign language, which in turn would likely affect learning through that language. Findings in our study indicated that learners with limited proficiency or confidence in their language of learning experienced anxiety, at least early on. This finding suggests that instructors on such courses should, from the start, factor learner anxiety into their planning, teaching, and learner expectations. Teachers may, for example, consider ensuring that the first lessons cover only “low-stakes” material; that students have a chance to become accustomed to their voice and teaching style; and that pair work is included at times so that students can support each other. A second similarity concerned another emotion: motivation. Students from both groups emphasized that taking EMI courses was an enticement and challenge in the positive sense. This finding suggests that EMI provides developmental and autonomous opportunities that may be distinct from circumstances involving courses taught in the L1.

One key difference between these groups was the participants’ reasons for enrolling in EMI and their related goals. The study participants in Japan seemed to view EMI as a twofold benefit, where they not only gain content knowledge but also develop their English skills. The participants in Sweden, however, seldom mentioned language-development objectives; instead, the main focus for these students was the content. These distinct viewpoints likely reflect two broad purposes for EMI worldwide: one that explicitly acknowledges L2 development *and* content and another that emphasizes content *through* an L2 (cf. Galloway, 2021; Richards & Pun, 2022). Which of these viewpoints is adopted may depend largely on students’ entry-level L2 proficiency, pre-university L2 training, and teachers’ L2 abilities (e.g., Ruegg, 2021). (This ongoing joint research project will next focus on teacher views in the two contexts). At a national policy level, it could also be argued that these perspectives reflect the socio-economic agenda of these two countries, which affected their language policies related to EMI. Japanese students, in particular, seemed to believe that attaining higher English proficiency through EMI would provide them with better employment opportunities, consistent with the government’s intention to use EMI as a tool for achieving economic globalization (Bradford & Brown, 2018; Hashimoto, 2018; Rose & McKinley, 2018).

In light of the aforementioned differences between the Japanese and Swedish contexts, we might ask whether Japan should rather seek to develop its own unique EMI model or whether it could adopt certain aspects of the Swedish model. The study and implementation of EMI should take into account the sociolinguistic realities of the geographical context. Some important parameters to consider are the general level of learner language proficiency, methods of language instruction in earlier education, and the typological distance between English and the local language.

On a micro level, given the universal nature of the qualities required for a good EMI teacher (e.g., sufficient English language proficiency, the ability to account for varying student English proficiency, planning appropriately for EMI), classroom teaching techniques should be to some degree transferable. The classroom experience and tips for effective learning can be shared and learnt by both sides, although in the exchange of teaching ideas, the difference in the general English proficiency in these two contexts must also be considered (Ruegg, 2021).

On a macro level, we might say that Japan should seek an EMI model different to that of Sweden, at

least in the short term, because of the fundamental socio-educational differences between these two countries. First, our study corroborated previous findings that an important agenda of EMI for Japanese students is to raise their English proficiency for enhanced employability. In terms of the internationalization of university campuses, the two Japanese university EMI courses included in this study were far less internationalized and multicultural than their Swedish counterpart. These differences suggest that Japan still needs to work on some basic premises for EMI, such as ensuring students' preparedness in terms of proficiency and literacy in English, further diversifying the student body and faculty to make English a true academic lingua franca, and filling the gaps between the promise made (Bradford, 2023) and the reality of EMI. In light of Japan's slow rate of change in its educational culture and practice, this development will probably take a long time and require a much more honest approach and concerted efforts, such as early-years and secondary education language teaching and smaller, more focused programs in HEIs, mirroring the smaller numbers who need/could benefit from EMI.

Nevertheless, the findings from the Swedish example still presents a number of issues that the government and HEIs in Japan should prepare to address in their long-term EMI design. Although most objections to EMI in Japanese HEIs at the moment may focus on the learning deficit for linguistically unprepared students or the unpreparedness of many teachers in these classes (see, e.g., Bradford et al., 2022; Ruegg, 2021), there may eventually come a point where issues such as those felt in Sweden—namely encroachment of English on more and more teaching domains and becoming a perceived threat to the national language—become more apparent. Ideally, these issues should be taken into consideration as the government and HEIs in Japan design their long-term plans.

As EMI is highly context specific in nature (Dafouz & Smit, 2020), the comparison between Japan and Sweden not only sheds light on issues in each context but also contributes to a more shared ontology of EMI as a global phenomenon. In the future, additional EMI research involving contextual comparisons with countries with similar socio-educational contexts vis-à-vis EMI and those with greater distinctions, such as those presented in this paper, will help inform evolving EMI implementation. If future research purposefully integrates experiences, practices, and observations from various EMI contexts, we can begin to establish conditions related to EMI universally and ones that are context specific.

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## Appendix

The following are English versions of the interview questions used in Japan and Sweden, respectively.

### Interview items used in the Japanese context

#### *Background*

- Tell us about yourself as an English learner/user.
- Why do you study English? What is your goal?
- How do you study and use English?

#### *Recent EMI experience*

- How many EMI classes have you taken so far?
- What is your general impression of EMI classes?
- How would you describe the classes?
- How would you describe your experiences?
- What parts of the classes have been (most) challenging for you?
- What parts of the classes have been most valu-

able for you?

- What advantages do you think EMI classes have in general compared with content classes offered in your first language?
- What disadvantages do you think EMI classes may have in general compared with content classes offered in your first language?

### Interview items used in the Swedish context

#### *Background*

- Would you prefer the interview in Swedish or English?
- How many languages do you speak?
- What do you consider your strongest language? Swedish, English or other?
- How would you describe your English proficiency level?
- Have you had previous schooling in English?
- How much experience have you had studying with EMI?
- What subject(s) have you studied through EMI?
- What were your reasons for enrolling in an EMI program?
- Did you have choice to study the subject in your LI?
- In Sweden, which English courses did you take in upper secondary school? (English 5, 6 and/or 7?)

#### *Recent EMI experience*

- What is your general impression of EMI classes?
- What is your general impression of EMI course literature?
- How does learning a subject in EMI compare to learning that subject in your first language? (hypothetical/ideological responses are okay)
- How would you describe the classes/your experience in EMI?
- How would you describe your comfort level in EMI lectures (i.e., more teacher-fronted sessions)?
- How would you describe your comfort level in EMI classes/seminars (i.e., more interactive sessions where students actively contribute)?
- How would you describe your comfort level with course literature in English?
- Do you supplement EMI course literature with books, articles or other resources in another language?

- Do you think your English ability has changed during your EMI studies? [which skills?]

### In person / Online

- Could you comment on EMI online compared to in person?
- Do you prefer one to the other? Why?
- Does the mode of instruction (in-person or online) affect your comprehension of the course content?
- What amount of content do you understand in EMI lectures (online / in person)? (prompt, if necessary with: all, most, some, a little, none)
- Does the mode of instruction (in-person or online) affect your examinations and grades?

### Teachers

- Could you comment on the support you get from teachers in-person EMI?
- Is there anything you'd like your teachers to do to support your learning in in-person EMI?
- Could you comment on the support you get from teachers in online EMI?
- Is there anything you'd like your teachers to do to support your learning in online EMI?

### Preparation

- Do you feel you were prepared to study in these EMI classes? In what ways?
- Do you wish you had prepared or had been prepared differently?

## Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT)

### A nonprofit organization

The Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) is a nonprofit professional organization dedicated to the improvement of language teaching and learning in Japan. It provides a forum for the exchange of new ideas and techniques and a means of keeping informed about developments in the rapidly changing field of second and foreign language education.

### Contact

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