Channing: Journal of English Language Education and Literature Vol. 11, No. 2, Halaman: 117-125, October 2026

English Language Use in University Classrooms: A Comparative Study of Higher Education in Indonesia and Malaysia

Hastuti Retno Kuspiyah[1*], Zulaikah[2], Ainur Rohmah[3], Serafin Wisni Septiarti[4]
[1,2,3,4]Doctoral Program of Educational Sciences, Graduate School, Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta, Yogyakarta, Indonesia

[*]Corresponding author: *hastutiretno.2026@student.uny.ac.id

Abstract

This study compares the use of English as a medium of instruction in university classrooms in Indonesia and Malaysia. A qualitative comparative design was employed, combining document analysis of national language and higher education legislation, secondary analysis of the 2025 EF English Proficiency Index (EF EPI), and a structured synthesis of 14 empirical studies published mainly in nationally accredited and internationally indexed journals. Data were analysed through description, interpretation, juxtaposition, and comparison. Both countries designate the national language as the main medium of instruction while allowing English, but Indonesia regulates this permissively without a specific English-medium instruction (EMI) policy, whereas Malaysia institutionalises English through ministerial exemptions, private-university practice, and the Malaysian University English Test (MUET) as an entry requirement for public universities. On the EF EPI 2025, Malaysia scored 581 and Indonesia 471 overall; among self-selected test takers identifying as students, the scores were 586 and 443, and the largest skill gap was in listening (122 points). These indicators are not representative of the student population. The studies reviewed indicate that classrooms are multilingual in both countries, although classroom-level evidence is thinner for Malaysia. Indonesia could adapt Malaysian practices selectively, prioritising language support and lecturer development over gatekeeping.

Keywords: *Comparative education, English-medium instruction, Higher education, Indonesia, Language policy, Malaysia*.

INTRODUCTION

The internationalisation of higher education has changed the position of English in many countries where it is not the first language. English is no longer taught only as a foreign language; it is increasingly used to teach academic subjects such as engineering, economics, and medicine. This practice, commonly termed English-medium instruction (EMI), refers to the use of English to teach academic subjects other than English itself in jurisdictions where the first language of the majority is not English (Macaro et al., 2018). In a systematic review of 83 studies, Macaro et al. (2018) concluded that stakeholders express serious concerns about EMI even while regarding it as inevitable, and that the evidence is still insufficient to claim that EMI improves English proficiency or that it clearly harms content learning. The decision to teach through English is therefore a policy choice that requires contextual evidence rather than a purely technical decision.

In Southeast Asia, the choice of a medium of instruction is closely tied to nation-building, national identity, and access to social and economic opportunities. Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat (2017) showed that language education policies in the region must balance the promotion of English, the consolidation of national languages, and the maintenance of local languages, noting that more than 700 languages are spoken in Indonesia alone. Zein et al. (2020) similarly described Indonesia as a highly complex sociolinguistic setting in which English competes with Bahasa Indonesia and hundreds of regional languages for space in education.

Indonesia and Malaysia form a particularly informative pair for comparison. Both are multilingual and multi-ethnic neighbours whose national languages share Malay roots, and both designate the national language as the main medium of instruction. Yet their colonial histories differ, and their populations display very different levels of English proficiency. In the 2025 EF English Proficiency Index,

Malaysia ranked 24th globally with a score of 581, whereas Indonesia ranked 80th with a score of 471 (EF Education First, 2025a, 2025b). Malaysia also experienced repeated shifts in its medium-of-instruction policy, from English to Malay after independence and partially back to English for science and technology in the early 2000s (Gill, 2006), a trajectory that Ali (2013) described as a changing paradigm in language planning.

Simbolon (2021) surveyed Indonesian universities and found that EMI was adopted mainly to compete with global universities, while documentation of EMI arrangements was largely absent. Muttaqin and Chuang (2022) reported that students from mainstream classes faced far greater challenges than those with bilingual or international-class backgrounds. Santoso and Kinasih (2022) found that lecturers linked EMI to internationalisation and academic reputation and used Indonesian to support understanding. More recent studies have documented students' perceptions in regional universities (Rahman et al., 2024) and the multilingual realities of EMI classrooms for international students (Salihu et al., 2026). Studies of Malaysia have examined institutional ideologies (Rahman & Singh, 2022) and lecturers' readiness for EMI (Lo & Othman, 2023).

Despite this growing literature, most studies examine a single institution or a single country. Comparative work across the two countries has mostly focused on English curricula rather than on English as the language of the classroom (Nuraeni et al., 2024), and few studies connect national regulation, institutional practice, and classroom language use within one analytical frame. This study addresses that gap. Its novelty lies in (a) a three-level (macro–meso–micro) comparison of EMI in Indonesia and Malaysia, (b) the integration of legal documents, recent proficiency indicators, and empirical classroom evidence, and (c) an assessment of which Malaysian practices are transferable to Indonesia. The study is guided by three questions: (1) How do national regulations frame the use of English as a medium of instruction in Indonesian and Malaysian universities? (2) What do proficiency indicators and empirical studies reveal about English use in university classrooms in the two countries? (3) What similarities and differences emerge, and what lessons can Indonesia draw from Malaysia?

METHODOLOGY

This study used a qualitative comparative design within the tradition of comparative education. Following the four-stage comparative procedure of description, interpretation, juxtaposition, and comparison (Bereday, 1964), each country was first described and interpreted in its own context, after which the data were placed side by side and compared. The criterion of comparability (tertium comparationis) was how each system frames and organises English as a language of university teaching. Interpretation drew on language-policy perspectives that distinguish language management, beliefs, and practices (Spolsky, 2009), which are broadly reflected in the macro, meso, and micro levels used below. Three types of data were collected.

The first data set consisted of primary legal and policy documents: Law No. 24 of 2009 on the National Flag, Language, Emblem, and Anthem, Law No. 12 of 2012 on Higher Education, and Presidential Regulation No. 63 of 2019 on the Use of Bahasa Indonesia for Indonesia; and the Education Act 1996 (Act 550), the Private Higher Educational Institutions Act 1996 (Act 555), the Malaysia Education Blueprint 2015–2025 (Higher Education), and official information on the Malaysian University English Test (MUET) for Malaysia. The articles governing the medium of instruction were extracted verbatim and coded for status of the national language, room for English, decision-making authority, and proficiency requirements.

The second data set comprised secondary quantitative indicators from the official EF EPI 2025 country fact sheets for Indonesia and Malaysia (EF Education First, 2025a, 2025b). The index is based on test data from 2.2 million adults in 123 countries and regions. Overall scores, skill scores (reading, listening, writing, speaking), job-function scores for students and teachers, and regional scores were extracted. Differences between the two countries and the range of regional scores within each country were calculated by the author. Because the index reflects self-selected test takers rather than representative samples, it was treated as an indicator of relative proficiency rather than a population

estimate.

The third data set was a structured synthesis of empirical studies. Studies were identified through Google Scholar, Garuda, DOAJ, and publisher databases using the terms "*English-medium instruction*", "*English as a medium of instruction*", "*medium of instruction*", "*higher education*", "*Indonesia*", and "*Malaysia*". Inclusion criteria were: (a) empirical or policy-analytic focus on English use in university teaching; (b) setting in Indonesia or Malaysia; (c) publication between 2017 and 2026, with priority given to journals accredited at SINTA levels 2–4 by the Indonesian Ministry of Higher Education and to internationally indexed journals; and (d) full-text accessibility through a DOI or a stable URL. Two earlier Malaysian policy studies (Ali, 2013; Gill, 2006) were retained because they document the policy shift that frames current Malaysian practice. The accreditation level of each Indonesian journal was checked on the journal's own website. Because these sources and English-only search terms may under-identify Malaysian studies, supplementary targeted searches were made for Malaysian studies of students' and lecturers' experience of EMI in indexed journals. Fourteen studies met the criteria (Table 3); one of them (Nuraeni et al., 2024) is a cross-national curriculum comparison, retained for its Indonesia–Malaysia contrast and treated as contextual rather than classroom evidence. For each study, the setting, design, participants, and main findings were recorded in an extraction matrix.

The data were analysed thematically using a three-level framework: macro (national regulation), meso (institutional arrangements and gatekeeping), and micro (classroom language practices and user readiness). Trustworthiness was established through source triangulation, that is, by checking claims, wherever possible, against at least two types of evidence (legal text, quantitative indicators, or empirical studies), and by verifying all bibliographic data and legal provisions against the original documents.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

RESULTS

Regulatory frameworks. Table 1 summarises the legal provisions governing the medium of instruction in both countries. In Indonesia, Article 29 of Law No. 24 of 2009 makes Bahasa Indonesia compulsory as the medium of instruction in national education, but allows a foreign language to be used "for purposes that support students' foreign language ability", and exempts foreign educational units and units serving foreign citizens. Article 37 of Law No. 12 of 2012 restates that Bahasa Indonesia must be the medium of instruction in higher education and adds that a foreign language "may be used" as a medium of instruction. Presidential Regulation No. 63 of 2019 (Arts. 23–24) restates this general rule, but it contains no EMI-specific provisions. Neither law specifies which programmes, which proficiency standards, or which support arrangements apply.

In Malaysia, Section 17(1) of the Education Act 1996 makes the national language the main medium of instruction in all institutions of the national education system, except national-type schools and "any other educational institution exempted by the Minister"; where another language is used, the national language must be taught as a compulsory subject. Section 41 of Act 555 requires private higher education courses to be conducted in the national language unless the Minister approves otherwise. Public universities additionally require MUET results for entry into bachelor's programmes, subject to the requirements of each university's senate.

Table 1. Legal and policy provisions on the medium of instruction

Dimension	Indonesia	Malaysia
Status of national language	Compulsory medium of instruction (Law 24/2009, Art. 29(1); Law 12/2012, Art. 37(1); Perpres 63/2019, Art. 23)	Main medium of instruction (Education Act 1996, s. 17(1))
Room for English	Foreign language "may be used" (Law 12/2012, Art. 37(3); Perpres 63/2019, Art. 24)	Ministerial exemption (s. 17(1)); ministerial approval for private institutions (Act 555, s. 41)
Decision locus	Individual universities	Ministry, then universities
Specific EMI policy	No EMI-specific rules; general rule restated in Perpres 63/2019, Arts. 23–24	No single EMI policy; exemption mechanism
Entry proficiency test	Set by each institution	MUET required for public bachelor's programmes
Strategic target	Not specified in law	Language proficiency as a graduate attribute (MEB-HE 2015–2025)

Institutional arrangements. At the institutional level, the two systems differ mainly in how English-medium provision is organised and who gains access to it. In Indonesia, the surveyed universities organised EMI in two forms, bilingual classes and international classes, and adopted them chiefly to compete with other universities internationally (Simbolon, 2021). Because the law leaves the matter to institutions, entry requirements, the share of English in each course, and the support offered to students differed from one university to another, and respondents reported only a limited understanding of what EMI implies for student and lecturer support (Simbolon, 2021). In Malaysia, English-medium provision was found in both sectors: private universities generally adopted English as the medium of instruction, while public universities used EMI for selected programmes (Rahman & Singh, 2022). Admission to public bachelor's programmes requires a MUET result, reported on a scale from Band 1.0 to Band 5+, with the minimum band set by each university's senate. The Malaysia Education Blueprint 2015–2025 (Higher Education) further names language proficiency in Bahasa Malaysia and English as an attribute expected of graduates (Ministry of Education Malaysia, 2015). Thus, Malaysia has a national screening instrument and a strategic proficiency target, while Indonesia has neither at the national level.

Proficiency indicators. Table 2 and Figure 1 present the EF EPI 2025 indicators. Malaysia outperformed Indonesia on every indicator. The overall gap was 110 points (581 vs. 471). Indonesia's overall score fell below the global average of 488, whereas Malaysia's exceeded it by 93 points. Across skills, the largest gap was in listening (122 points) and the smallest in speaking (87 points), but speaking was the weakest skill in both countries (447 and 534). The indicator most relevant to university classrooms, the score for students, showed the widest gap of all (143 points): Indonesian students scored 443, below Indonesia's own national average, whereas Malaysian students scored 586, above Malaysia's national average. Teachers showed a gap of 113 points (479 vs. 592).

Table 2. English proficiency indicators, EF EPI 2025

Indicator	Indonesia	Malaysia	Gap
Global rank (of 123)	80	24	56 ranks
Overall score	471	581	110
Proficiency band	Low	High	–
Reading	491	596	105
Listening	454	576	122
Writing	479	584	105
Speaking	447	534	87
Students	443	586	143
Teachers	479	592	113
Regional range	416–493 (77)	561–589 (28)	–

Note. Global average = 488. Gaps and ranges calculated by the author from EF Education First (2025a, 2025b).

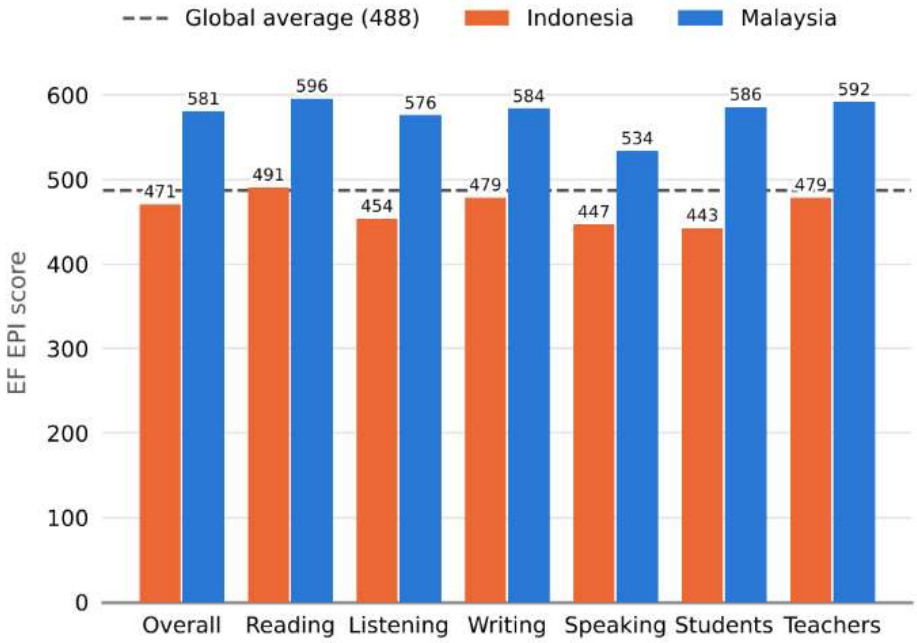


Figure 1. EF EPI 2025 scores for Indonesia and Malaysia by overall score, skill, and job function

Regional variation was also sharper in Indonesia. Scores ranged from 416 in Maluku to 493 in Java, a spread of 77 points, while Malaysian state scores ranged from 561 in Johor and Sabah to 589 in Pulau Pinang, a spread of 28 points. Only Java exceeded the global average in Indonesia, whereas every Malaysian state did so.

Empirical classroom evidence. Table 3 summarises the 12 studies included in the synthesis. Eight focused on Indonesia and four on Malaysia; seven of the Indonesian studies were published in SINTA-accredited journals (levels 2–4).

Table 3. Empirical studies on English use in university classrooms

Study (journal rank)	Context and design	Main finding
Simbolon (2021) (SINTA 2)	ID; survey of universities (15 of 30 responded)	EMI adopted to compete globally; bilingual and international classes; limited support
Muttaqin & Chuang (2022) (SINTA 2)	ID; questionnaires, focus group, documents	Mainstream-class students struggled most with proficiency and disciplinary terms
Santoso & Kinasih (2022) (SINTA 2)	ID; interviews, 9 lecturers	EMI tied to internationalisation; Indonesian used to aid understanding
Simbolon (2023) (SINTA 3)	ID; survey, 41 vocational lecturers	Agreement on EMI; uncertainty about language use and assessment
Rahman et al. (2024) (SINTA 3)	ID; mixed methods, 25 students	Positive perceptions (mean 71.38) alongside comprehension challenges
Salihu et al. (2026) (SINTA 2)	ID; interviews, 9 international students	Code-switching and mixed-language materials created micro-exclusion
Nuraeni et al. (2024) (SINTA 4)	ID, MY and others; curriculum comparison	English curricula implemented differently across ASEAN countries
Bolton et al. (2023) (Scopus)	ID; survey and interviews, 17 educators	Students at a Jakarta private university coped well; picture varied across institutions
Rahman & Singh (2022) (Scopus)	MY; case study, lecturers and documents	Agreement on EMI at meso and micro levels despite no defined national policy
Lo & Othman (2023) (Scopus)	MY; survey, 227 lecturers	Skills readiness only moderate (M = 2.458); 70.04% had no EMI training
Ali (2013) (Scopus)	MY; policy case study	Shift in tertiary language planning towards EMI
Gill (2006) (Scopus)	MY; policy implementation study	Gap between ministry directives and university realities

Note. ID = Indonesia; MY = Malaysia. SINTA ranks as stated on each journal's website.

Three patterns emerged from the synthesis. First, in both countries, the rationale for EMI was internationalisation and competitiveness (Rahman & Singh, 2022; Santoso & Kinasih, 2022; Simbolon, 2021). Second, classroom practice was multilingual rather than English-only. Indonesian lecturers used Bahasa Indonesia to support content understanding (Santoso & Kinasih, 2022), and international students in an Indonesian university reported frequent code-switching, mixed-language slides, and group work conducted in Indonesian, which sometimes excluded them (Salihu et al., 2026). Third, readiness was uneven. In Indonesia, the greatest difficulties were found among students from mainstream classes (Muttaqin & Chuang, 2022) and among lecturers who were unsure of the pedagogical implications of EMI (Simbolon, 2023). In Malaysia, lecturers held positive attitudes toward EMI (M = 3.002) but only moderate skills (M = 2.458), and 70.04% of 227 lecturers had never attended EMI training (Lo & Othman, 2023).

Table 4. Cross-national comparison of English use in university classrooms

Level	Similarities	Differences
Macro (policy)	National language is the main medium; room for English	Indonesia permissive and unspecified; Malaysia explicit ministerial exemption
Meso (institution)	EMI driven by internationalisation; concentrated in international and selected programmes	Malaysia: MUET at entry and English-medium private sector; Indonesia: institution-specific rules
Micro (classroom)	Code-switching and multilingual practice; lecturer training gaps	Indonesian students start from a much lower proficiency base (443 vs. 586)
Outcomes	Proficiency concerns in both	Larger regional disparity in Indonesia (77 vs. 28 points)

DISCUSSION

The first research question concerned the regulatory framing of English in university classrooms. Both countries protect the national language while leaving room for English, but they do so differently. Indonesia's framework is permissive yet unspecified: English "may be used", but the conditions are left to institutions. This finding is consistent with Simbolon (2021), who observed that EMI arrangements in Indonesian universities were largely undocumented, and with Dewi and Indrayani (2017), who noted the absence of a specific EMI policy despite years of international classes. Malaysia's framework is more explicit: the national language is entrenched, but the law provides a formal exemption and approval mechanism. This explains why EMI in Malaysia is more institutionalised even though, as Rahman and Singh (2022) found, there is still no single defined national EMI policy. The two cases illustrate that the existence of an exemption mechanism, rather than the strength of protection for the national language, is what most shapes how widely English is used in classrooms.

The second question concerned what proficiency indicators and empirical studies reveal about classroom practice. The 143-point gap in the student score is the most consequential result. EMI assumes that students can follow lectures and discussions in English, yet Indonesian students scored below their own national average, while Malaysian students scored above theirs. The weakest Indonesian skills, listening (454) and speaking (447), are precisely those that lectures and discussions demand. This helps explain why Indonesian studies repeatedly report difficulties in following lectures and understanding disciplinary terms (Muttaqin & Chuang, 2022; Rahman et al., 2024). It also helps explain why Bolton et al. (2023) found that students at a selective private university in Jakarta coped well: EMI succeeds where students enter with high proficiency, which is not the national norm. In Malaysia, MUET acts as a filter at entry, so classroom difficulties are less frequently reported for students than for lecturers' pedagogical readiness (Lo & Othman, 2023).

The multilingual nature of EMI classrooms in both countries supports the view that EMI should not be understood as English-only instruction. Code-switching served as a resource for content understanding (Santoso & Kinasih, 2022), but it also created exclusion for students who did not share the local language (Salihu et al., 2026). The implication is that institutions need explicit guidance on when and how other languages are used, rather than either banning them or leaving their use

unplanned. This aligns with Simbolon's (2023) recommendation to accommodate code-switching while building collaboration between content lecturers and English lecturers.

The third question concerned similarities, differences, and lessons. The findings partly support and partly extend earlier work. They support Kirkpatrick and Liddicoat (2017) in showing that national-language protection and English promotion coexist in tension in both countries. They extend Nuraeni et al. (2024), whose comparison of English curricula across ASEAN countries did not address English as the language of the content classroom, by showing that the decisive differences between Indonesia and Malaysia lie in gatekeeping mechanisms and the proficiency base of students. Malaysia's colonial history gave English an established place in law, medicine, and engineering, and its relatively homogeneous regional proficiency (28-point range) provides a more even foundation for EMI. Indonesia's 77-point regional range means that expanding EMI without support risks favouring students from Java and from well-resourced schools.

Consequently, Indonesia should learn from Malaysia selectively. An explicit national or institutional guideline on English-medium programmes, compatible with Law No. 24 of 2009 and Law No. 12 of 2012, would reduce the current ambiguity. A diagnostic proficiency test at entry would be useful, but it should be used for placement in academic English support rather than as a barrier that excludes students from regions with lower scores. Lecturer development deserves priority in both countries, since only 29.96% of Malaysian lecturers in Lo and Othman's (2023) sample had attended EMI training, and Indonesian lecturers reported uncertainty about language use and assessment (Simbolon, 2023). For English language education, the results position English lecturers as key partners in EMI through English for academic and specific purposes courses that are aligned with content courses.

These findings also have direct implications for English language education. In both countries, English courses at university are usually general courses that run separately from content courses taught in English. The evidence reviewed here suggests that English courses should instead prepare students for the specific listening, speaking, and reading demands of their EMI courses, including disciplinary vocabulary and lecture comprehension, which were the areas of greatest difficulty reported by Indonesian students (Muttaqin & Chuang, 2022; Rahman et al., 2024). Because Indonesian students begin with a lower and more uneven proficiency base, such support is also likely to affect their confidence and motivation to participate in EMI classes, an issue that has received little systematic attention in either country and that merits further investigation.

This study has limitations. The EF EPI reflects voluntary test takers, so its figures indicate relative rather than representative proficiency. Several empirical studies were single-institution case studies with small samples, and fewer Malaysian studies met the inclusion criteria. Future research should collect parallel classroom data in both countries, for example through classroom discourse analysis and content and language achievement measures.

CONCLUSION

This study concludes that Indonesia and Malaysia share a common structure, a protected national language with room for English, but differ in how that room is regulated and used. Indonesia permits English without specifying conditions, so EMI depends on institutional initiative, whereas Malaysia provides an explicit exemption mechanism, uses MUET to screen entrants to public universities, and benefits from a stronger and more even proficiency base, with Malaysian students scoring 143 points higher than Indonesian students. In both countries, university classrooms that use English are in practice multilingual, and lecturers' pedagogical readiness lags behind their positive attitudes. Policymakers in Indonesia are advised to issue clear guidelines for English-medium programmes that remain consistent with national language law; university leaders are advised to provide diagnostic placement, academic English support, and EMI pedagogy training; and English

language educators are advised to design discipline-specific English courses in collaboration with content lecturers. Future comparative research should collect classroom-level data in both countries to examine the effects of EMI on content learning, language development, and equity of access.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author thanks the lecturers of the Comparative Education course in the Doctoral Program of Educational Sciences, Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta, for their guidance.

REFERENCES

Ali, N. L. (2013). A changing paradigm in language planning: English-medium instruction policy at the tertiary level in Malaysia. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, *14*(1), 73–92. https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2013.775543

Bereday, G. Z. F. (1964). *Comparative method in education*. Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Bolton, K., Hill, C., Bacon-Shone, J., & Peyronnin, K. (2023). EMI (English-medium instruction) in Indonesian higher education. *World Englishes*, *42*, 424–446. https://doi.org/10.1111/weng.12622

Dewi, A. U., & Indrayani, L. M. (2017). Assessing English medium instruction policy in internationalization of Indonesian higher education: Possibility and reality. In *Proceedings of the Tenth Conference on Applied Linguistics and the Second English Language Teaching and Technology Conference (CONAPLIN and ICOLLITE)* (Vol. 1, pp. 441–445). SCITEPRESS. https://doi.org/10.5220/0007168804410445

EF Education First. (2025a). *EF EPI 2025 fact sheet: Malaysia*. https://www.ef.com/assetscdn/WIBIwq6RdJvcD9bc8RMd/cefcom-epi-site/fact-sheets/2025/ef-epi-fact-sheet-malaysia-english.pdf

EF Education First. (2025b). *EF EPI 2025 fact sheet: Indonesia*. https://www.ef.com/assetscdn/WIBIwq6RdJvcD9bc8RMd/cefcom-epi-site/fact-sheets/2025/ef-epi-fact-sheet-indonesia-english.pdf

Gill, S. K. (2006). Change in language policy in Malaysia: The reality of implementation in public universities. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, *7*(1), 82–94. https://doi.org/10.2167/cilp083.0

Kirkpatrick, A., & Liddicoat, A. J. (2017). Language education policy and practice in East and Southeast Asia. *Language Teaching*, *50*(2), 155–188. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444817000027

Laws of Malaysia. (1996a). *Education Act 1996 (Act 550)*. https://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/sites/default/files/ressources/malaysia_education_act_1996.pdf

Laws of Malaysia. (1996b). *Private Higher Educational Institutions Act 1996 (Act 555)*. https://prophe.org/en/download/private-higher-educational-institutions-act-1996

Lo, Y. Y., & Othman, J. (2023). Lecturers' readiness for EMI in Malaysia higher education. *PLOS ONE*, *18*(7), Article e0284491. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0284491

Macaro, E., Curle, S., Pun, J., An, J., & Dearden, J. (2018). A systematic review of English medium instruction in higher education. *Language Teaching*, *51*(1), 36–76. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444817000350

Ministry of Education Malaysia. (2015). *Malaysia Education Blueprint 2015–2025 (Higher Education)*. https://www.um.edu.my/docs/um-magazine/3-malaysia-education-blueprint-2015-2025-(higher-education).pdf

Muttaqin, S., & Chuang, H.-H. (2022). Learning expectations, challenges, and strategies of university students on English-medium instruction. *Journal on English as a Foreign Language*, *12*(2), 272–294. https://doi.org/10.23971/jefl.v12i2.4041

Nuraeni, C., Priadi, A., & Lengkanawati, N. S. (2024). English curricula in ASEAN selected countries: A comparative study. *Scope: Journal of English Language Teaching*, *8*(2), 323–334.

https://doi.org/10.30998/scope.v8i2.18038

Official Portal of the Government of Malaysia. (n.d.). *Malaysian University English Test (MUET)*. Retrieved October 12, 2026, from https://www.malaysia.gov.my/en/categories/school--education/higher-education-/malaysian-university-english-test-muet

Rahman, A., Arifin, M. B., & Ping, M. T. (2024). Exploring the multifaceted landscape of English-medium instruction: Students' perspectives and challenges at the University of Kutai Kartanegara. *Borneo Educational Journal (Borju)*, *6*(2), 262–272. https://doi.org/10.24903/bej.v6i2.1718

Rahman, M. M., & Singh, M. K. M. (2022). The ideology towards English as a medium of instruction (EMI) adoption in higher education in Malaysia: A case study. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature*, *28*(2). https://doi.org/10.17576/3L-2022-2802-08

Republic of Indonesia. (2009). *Law No. 24 of 2009 on the National Flag, Language, Emblem, and Anthem*. https://peraturan.bpk.go.id/Details/38661

Republic of Indonesia. (2012). *Law No. 12 of 2012 on Higher Education*. https://id.wikisource.org/wiki/Halaman:Undang-Undang_Republik_Indonesia_Nomor_12_Tahun_2012.pdf/29

Republic of Indonesia. (2019). *Presidential Regulation No. 63 of 2019 on the Use of Bahasa Indonesia*. https://peraturan.bpk.go.id/Details/121661

Salihu, S., Rohmah, Z., Muttaqin, S., & Damio, S. M. (2026). English-medium instruction and multilingual realities: International students' voices from EMI classrooms in Indonesia. *IJEE (Indonesian Journal of English Education)*, *13*(1). https://doi.org/10.15408/ijee.v13i1.50706

Santoso, W., & Kinasih, P. R. (2022). Understanding university teachers' perspectives of English medium instruction in Indonesia. *ELSYA: Journal of English Language Studies*, *4*(3), 197–213. https://doi.org/10.31849/elsya.v4i3.11031

Simbolon, N. E. (2021). English medium instruction (EMI) practice: Higher education internationalization in Indonesia. *Englisia: Journal of Language, Education, and Humanities*, *8*(2), 72–83. https://doi.org/10.22373/ej.v8i2.8961

Simbolon, N. E. (2023). English medium instruction (EMI) in higher education: Insights from Indonesian vocational lecturers. *Utamax: Journal of Ultimate Research and Trends in Education*, *5*(1), 12–21. https://doi.org/10.31849/utamax.v5i1.9973

Spolsky, B. (2009). *Language management*. Cambridge University Press.

Zein, S., Sukyadi, D., Hamied, F. A., & Lengkanawati, N. S. (2020). English language education in Indonesia: A review of research (2011–2019). *Language Teaching*, *53*(4), 491–523. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444820000208