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University of Southampton

Faculty of Arts and Humanities

**English-Medium Instruction (EMI) in Higher Education:
A Case Study of an EMI Programme in Vietnam**

by

Phuong Le Hoang Ngo

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

October 2019

University of Southampton

Abstract

Faculty of Arts and Humanities

School of Modern Languages and Linguistics

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Our time of globalisation has led to a number of significant changes in various aspects of education, including a phenomenon called internationalisation of Higher Education. Universities around the world have a wide range of internationalisation strategies, one of which is the introduction of English-Medium Instruction (EMI) programmes. During the last few decades, there has been a striking increase in the number of EMI programmes (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2013c). In Vietnam, EMI is strongly supported by key governmental policies such as the Higher Education Reform Agenda and the National Foreign Languages 2020 Project. While more and more programmes are implemented, EMI is still an under-researched area in this context. The limited number of existing studies mainly address challenges of implementation from the perspectives of stakeholders, with data collected from interviews and focus groups (e.g. Nguyen, Walkinshaw, & Pham, 2017; Vu & Burns, 2014).

Against that backdrop, this PhD research aims to examine EMI classroom practices in an undergraduate programme and explore the ‘ways of doing’ and ‘ways of thinking’ of lecturers and students. The project is developed based on the ROADMAPPING framework proposed by Dafouz and Smit (2016), trying to offer a holistic description of EMI implementation in a Vietnamese university. It employs an ethnographic case study design, with data collected during an academic semester via three main instruments: classroom observations, interviews and focus groups. In addition, research diary, site documents and archives of informal communications function as supplementary tools to explore the case. Both thematic analysis and discourse analysis are used.

Key findings highlight the roles of lecturers and students as policy makers and policy actors in the implementation and negotiation of EMI policy at classroom level. Additionally, both English and Vietnamese play important roles in the knowledge construction process, underlining the

necessity of translanguaging pedagogy in EMI settings. The study also underscores the importance of pedagogical practices for EMI lecturers when teaching content subjects in a second language. These findings are hoped to offer insights into what actually takes place inside an EMI classroom, especially when both lecturers and students speak the same mother tongue. Based on these results, a number of implications are suggested for policymakers, teacher trainers, lecturers, and researchers.

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Research Thesis: Declaration of Authorship

Print name: PHUONG LE HOANG NGO

Title of thesis: English-Medium Instruction (EMI) in Higher Education: A Case Study of an EMI
Programme in Vietnam

I declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

I confirm that:

1. This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;
2. Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;
3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;
4. Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;
5. I have acknowledged all main sources of help;
6. Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;
7. None of this work has been published before submission

Signature:

Date:

For my daughter

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Abbreviations

- AC The Anonymous College
- ASEAN Association of South East Asian Nations
- AUN ASEAN University Network
- CEFR The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
- CLIL Content and Language Integrated
- DA Discourse Analysis
- DoS The Department of Study
- EAP English for Academic Purposes
- ELF English as a Lingua Franca
- ELP English Language Proficiency
- EMEMUS English-Medium Education in Multilingual University Settings
- EMI English-Medium Instruction
- ESP English for Specific Purposes
- GE General English
- HE Higher Education
- HEI Higher Education institution
- HERA Higher Education Reform Agenda
- ICLHE Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education
- IELTS the International English Language Testing System
- L1 First Language
- L2 Second Language
- LP Language Policy
- MOET (Vietnamese) Ministry of Education and Training
- MoI Medium of Instruction
- NES Native English Speaker
- NFL2020 National Foreign Languages 2020 Project
- NNES Non-Native English Speaker
- PTE the Pearson Test of English
- RQ Research Question
- TA Thematic Analysis
- TGUP Top Global University Project

- TOEFL Test of English as a Foreign Language
- TOEIC Test of English for International Communication
- VMI Vietnamese-Medium Instruction
- ZPD Zone of Proximal Development

1 Introduction

1.1. Rationale

About ten years ago, a friend of my father called him and proudly said, “You know what, my son has passed the Vietnamese national university entrance exam and he is selected to be in an English-Medium Instruction (EMI) programme”. We were extremely excited for him, as only a small number of students with the highest scores were allowed in that named “Advanced” programme, taught and learnt completely in English. Compared to students enrolled in Vietnamese-Medium Instruction (VMI) degrees, those in EMI programmes were seen as academic elites: more capable, intelligent and likely to succeed in their future.

Since then, more and more EMI programmes have been established in the country, and the number is increasing every year (see section 3.3). However, questions about these programmes have baffled me since I started my MA study in an EMI degree in the UK. Although I was well prepared to pursue my postgraduate study in an Anglophone country, knowing that I would need to comprehend lectures and read English materials, there were always times when I got lost due to the language barriers as well as challenging content knowledge. My average IELTS score was 8.0, with 9.0 in Reading and 8.0 in Listening, yet I still had to struggle to understand my modules. As a result, I could not help but question if students with a language proficiency level of 500 in TOEIC score - which is the English entry requirement in some EMI programmes (e.g. Nguyen, Walkinshaw, & Pham, 2017) - could manage to achieve expected learning outcomes. Additionally, in an educational context where both lecturers and students are Vietnamese-native speakers, I wondered if they would stick to the English policy, or flexibly switch between their mother tongue and English during lectures.

Additionally, I used to work as a private EAP tutor for students who needed to prepare for EMI courses either in Vietnam or abroad, and during those days I heard so many complaints and moans of pressure from learners. There were cases when students decided to drop out after one or two semesters due to a heavy workload and unbearable experiences. Similarly, my colleagues working in EMI programmes occasionally shared their disappointment, their lack of career motivation, and the burden they had to deal with teaching content subjects in English. Personally speaking, those informal chats have gradually turned out to be an inspiring inquiry topic.

As a language lecturer and researcher, I have had a chance to witness the increasingly important role of English in Vietnamese Higher Education (HE) through governmental and institutional policies as well as the bottom-up initiatives, and EMI implementation is a typical example of that role. Furthermore, the reflection on my own experience as a previous EMI learner

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in an Anglophone setting leads me to enquire into the way that stakeholders conceptualise and realise EMI implementation in different contexts where English is either a first language (L1), a second language (L2), or a foreign language.

EMI has gained much research attention (for example see review by Macaro, Curle, Pun, An, & Dearden, 2018), yet most studies have focused on Europe rather than Anglophone or Asian-Pacific countries (Baker & Hüttner, 2017; Walkinshaw, Fenton-Smith, & Humphreys, 2017). This leaves a considerable gap to address, especially if we take the blossoming of EMI programmes in Asian-Pacific tertiary education into consideration. In addition, a substantial body of literature has focused on stakeholders' beliefs about EMI (e.g. Aguilar, 2017; Basibek et al., 2014; Byun et al., 2011; Dearden & Macaro, 2016; Karakaş, 2016; Yeh, 2014), whereas what actually takes place inside EMI classrooms is under-researched, and therefore classroom practices "are still relatively unknown" (Cots, 2013, p. 110). This gap is even more remarkable in the context of Vietnam where empirical research exploring the use of English as a medium of instruction (MoI) in HE is very scarce. Besides, to the best of my knowledge, no existing study investigating EMI in Vietnamese HE has ever employed an ethnographic lens, and naturally occurring data collected via classroom observation is rare to be found.

All the aforementioned gaps justify my choice to situate this research in the context of Vietnamese HE. More specifically, this study seeks to address EMI at a micro level by looking at a specific EMI programme through an ethnographic approach. This is in line with the recommendation of Doiz, Lasagabaster, and Sierra (2013b) that empirical studies rooted in each specific EMI setting are needed to address many unanswered questions of EMI all over the world.

1.2. Conceptualising EMI

As this project revolves around EMI policy, it is necessary to clarify what I mean by this terminology. Generally understood from its name, the label EMI refers to a classroom environment where English is used as a language of teaching and learning for lecturers and students, who may or may not share the same mother tongue. In this meaning, English can be the first, the second, or the foreign language of instructors and learners. A high volume of research so far has paid much attention to EMI contexts where English is used as a language of instruction in international settings among speakers of other languages (Baker & Hüttner, 2017, 2018; Doiz et al., 2013c; Jenkins, 2014; Andy Kirkpatrick, 2014a; Smit, 2010).

Notwithstanding, simply defining EMI at tertiary level as the delivery of content subjects through English is problematic since, as Smit (2018) points out, HE surely is not “a monolithic and potentially homogeneous phenomenon” (p. 387). Instead, each institution has its own cultural, political, structural and economic characteristics, based on which its EMI policy is constructed. That is to say, the use of English in EMI policy is strongly linked to a nexus of patterns creating a HE entity, such as disciplinary areas (e.g. social sciences vs natural sciences), educational level (e.g. undergraduate vs graduate), nature of programme (e.g. domestic vs cooperative) or students and staff (e.g. local vs international). Accordingly, what may be considered as a typical EMI programme in one educational setting may not in another educational environment. For example, EMI is defined by Dearden (2014) as “the use of English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English” (p.2). This definition yet excludes the Anglophone settings. Meanwhile, Murata and Iino (2018, p. 404) conceptualise EMI contexts as settings where “English is used as a lingua franca for content-learning/teaching among students and teachers from different linguacultural backgrounds”, hence including Kachru’s (1992) inner-circle countries. Nonetheless, I argue that this conceptualisation fails to address the existence of EMI programmes in which lecturers and students share the same L1. Another conception of EMI is offered in Dafouz & Smit’s (2016) English-Medium Education in Multilingual University Settings (EMEMUS). This label recognises the particular role that English plays in academic contexts, while at the same time, acknowledges the multilingual nature of HE and therefore, is not limited to “any particular pedagogical approach or research agenda” (*ibid.*, p. 399). This will be discussed further in Chapter 2.

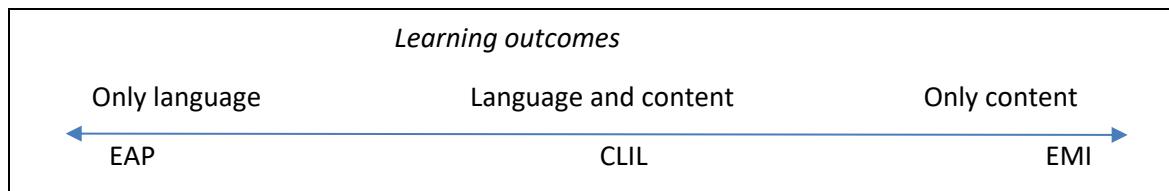
In other words, the phenomenon of EMI and its definitions are “inconsistent and problematic” (Macaro et al., 2018, p. 46) in existing literature. Even the naming of EMI has witnessed variations, such as “English as a medium of instruction” (Belhiah & Elhami, 2014) or “English as the medium of instruction” (Vinke, 1995). Other terms have also been mentioned to refer to the use of English as the MoI, such as “English-taught programmes” (Wachter & Maiworm, 2008, 2014), “English as an academic language” (Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012), or most popularly, “Content and Language integrated learning” (CLIL) (Dafouz, Núñez, & Sancho, 2007) and “Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education (ICLHE) (Costa & Coleman, 2013).

There have been opposing viewpoints surrounding the two terminologies CLIL and EMI in existing literature. On the one hand, it is assumed that EMI and CLIL - in those cases where the target language is English - are just different labels of the same thing. In her study, Floris (2014) simply refers to EMI as a locally known educational approach of CLIL in Indonesian setting, and therefore, uses these two terms interchangeably. Besides, as CLIL has been prominently employed and investigated in secondary contexts (Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Wannagat, 2007), the

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term is often associated with this educational level. Meanwhile, CLIL at HE institutions (HEIs) is preferably called EMI or ICLHE (Costa & Coleman, 2013). On the contrary, Baird (2013) argues that the purpose of using English as means of communication between lecturers and learners dictates different directions for CLIL/ICLHE and EMI. As explicitly stated in its name, English in CLIL approach is used for practicing and improving students' linguistic proficiency alongside the subject knowledge. Students on CLIL courses, therefore, may always receive language support and explicit language instruction from teachers. This is in line with what Dafouz (2017) states, that studies around ICLHE are often those addressing language as a key component in the knowledge construction process between teachers and students, no matter whether language is explicitly stated as the programme focus or not. Yet in EMI, the content focus outweighs the language focus, with the assumption that students need to deal with an academic programme in English other than in their L1 (Baird, 2013). The linguistic improvement, hence, is not the main goal of EMI. This is congruent with the language/content continuum proposed by Airey (2016) (Figure 1.1). In his viewpoint, EAP, CLIL and EMI are distinguished depending on learning outcomes. While language simply works as a tool for teaching in EMI, it is the expected learning outcomes in EAP and is as essential as content in CLIL. This "analytical division", however, "is purely artificial" since content and language are "inextricably entwined" (ibid, p.73).

Figure 1.1. The language/content continuum (Airey, 2016, p. 73)



To conclude, generalising EMI is quite challenging since its interpretation varies from context to context and observer to observer (Airey, 2016, p. 94), or EMI is "not monolithic but heavily context-dependent" (Humphreys, 2017, p. 94). The actual policies that shape local practice of EMI provision "ha[ve] been less consistently well-articulated" (Ryan, 2018, p. 17); therefore, local assumption about what EMI should be like in practice, for example in terms of pedagogy, assessment, or even what languages are/ are not allowed, remains popular in reality. Consequently, the conceptualisation of EMI in this research reflects the current situation in many Vietnamese universities where EMI is introduced among domestic students and staff. Linguistic homogeneity among students and lecturers, accordingly, affects how the language policy is utilised in real practice. Hence for this study, a programme is defined as EMI if English is [among]

the language[s] of: 1) classroom interaction between lecturers and students, 2) teaching and learning materials, and 3) assessment.

1.3. Research aims and questions

The ultimate goal of this PhD project is to explore how the policy of EMI is perceived and enacted in the Department of Study (DoS), focusing on lecturers' and students' classroom practices. Specifically, the research aims to:

- critically explore the implementation of EMI policy in a specific programme in Vietnam by looking at the ways it is conceptualised and realised under the agency of lecturers and students in their classroom practices,
- locate the roles of English, in comparison with Vietnamese, as a MoI in Vietnam, where English is a foreign language,
- gain an understanding of lecturers' and students' challenges in teaching and learning via English and how they deal with those,
- and finally, broaden the currently limited knowledge of EMI policy in Vietnam.

With the above research aims, the current study is structured around the following research questions (RQs):

1. How is the EMI policy implemented in the Department of Study?
 - a. What is the policy?
 - b. What are the roles of lecturers and students in the implementation?
2. How is knowledge co-constructed between lecturers and students in the investigated EMI programme?
 - a. How are classroom's language resources utilised to support students' learning?
 - b. To what extent do different pedagogical practices influence students' learning in the observed classes?

In order to provide a detailed discussion of answers to the above RQs, this study employs an ethnographic case study design, with data collected from classroom observations, interviews, and focus groups. Supplementary tools include research diary, site documents and other records of online communication with participants. The triangulation of data sources within qualitative methods (Patton, 1990, p. 467) helps to enhance the trustworthiness of the current study. From its findings, this thesis expects to offer an insight into the EMI policy in Vietnam as well as contribute to the limited EMI literature in the country and Asian context. Furthermore, it is hoped

that this study will be used as a reference for Higher Education institutions (HEIs) when designing their own internationalisation strategy through EMI adoption.

1.4. Structure of the thesis

This study is developed based on Dafouz & Smit's (2016) conceptual framework of ROADMAPPING, which is a six-component framework including: **RO**les of English (RO), **A**cademic **D**isciplines (AD), (language) **M**anagement (M), **A**gents (A), **P**ractices and **P**rocesses (PP), and **I**nternationalisation and **G**localisation (ING). Therefore, chapter 2 will first offer an overview of this framework, then present a detailed synthesis of existing literature in four dimensions: Roles of English, (language) Management, Agents, and Practices and Processes. Following on that, chapter 3 sketches the current situation of EMI in Vietnamese HE around the ROADMAPPING components, underlining the literature gap in this research context.

Chapter 4 deals with methodological aspects, including the research approach and design. It also introduces data collection and analysis tools, followed by a brief discussion of trustworthiness and my roles as a researcher. The chapter ends with ethical considerations during the conduct of this project. Chapter 5 focuses on the setting and participants of this study. Additionally, in order to prepare for a better understanding of the data presented in the later chapters, it presents lecturers' and students' backgrounds, motivations and attitudes towards EMI.

Chapter 6, 7, and 8 present the main findings around three themes: language policy, language use, and pedagogical practices. They are then synthesized and discussed in chapter 9, where the two RQs are answered. Chapter 10 summarises the main findings, contributions, and limitations of the study. Then, implications for involved agents are proposed. The thesis ends with my personal reflections on the whole process of this project.

2 Conceptual framework

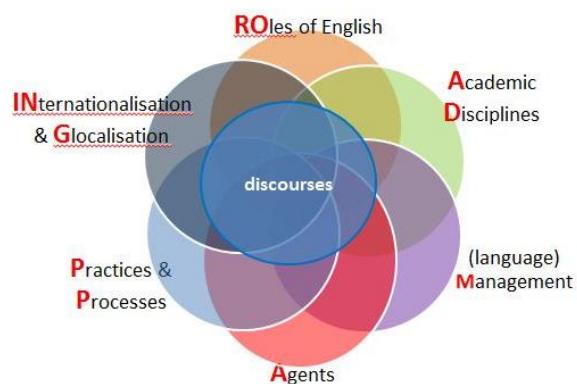
2.1. Introduction

This chapter offers a comprehensive overview of the conceptual basis via the holistic framework of ROADMAPPING (Dafouz & Smit, 2016). A brief introduction of the framework will first be presented, followed by an explanation for the choice of ROADMAPPING as the conceptual foundation for this study. Then, the four components which are directly related to this project will be elaborated through a synthesis of existing studies conducted under the EMI umbrella.

2.2. The ROADMAPPING framework

Although there has been a growing number of applied linguistic research regarding the implementation of EMI in various settings, “a lack of consensus in their theoretical orientations” results in the challenges for contrasting and drawing conclusions within and across contexts (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p.398). This, therefore, leads to the need for a shared conceptualisation of EMI study, which Dafouz and Smit address by introducing their framework named ROADMAPPING. As a theoretically grounded and holistic framework (Figure 2.1), it is composed of six interrelated dimensions, including: ROles of English in relation to other languages (RO), Academic Disciplines (AD), (language) Management (M), Agents (A), Practices and Processes (PP), and INternationalisation and Glocalisation (ING).

Figure 2.1. The ROADMAPPING framework (Dafouz & Smit, 2016)



These core areas are developed based on recent theoretical orientations in sociolinguistics, ecology of language and expanded language policy (e.g. Blommaert, 2010; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997; Shohamy, 2006; Spolsky, 2004). They all intertwine and interact dynamically with each other in “English-medium education in multilingual university settings” (EMEMUS), that is to say, HE sites “where bilingual or multilingual education, whether official or unofficial, partial or comprehensive, pedagogically explicit or implicit, may be presented” (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 399). In analysing an EMEMUS site, this framework identifies discourse as a central and methodological point of access where all six dimensions can be examined (see Figure 2.1). Discourses are viewed as “a locus of co-construction” (Hüttner, Dalton-Puffer, & Smit, 2013, p. 4), via which social practices are shaped and built. Therefore, access to a specific EMI multilingual university is granted through various forms of discourses, including classroom discourses, interviews, discussions, policy documents, and notes, just to name a few.

The first dimension, *RO – Roles of English* - is derived from the ecological perspective that considers different functions of English in relation to other existing languages within a specific HE setting. English can undertake various functions in EMI, such as a language of teaching and learning, a gatekeeping tool for student intake and staff recruitment, or a lingua franca among students and staff from different L1s. The dimension of *AD – Academic Disciplines* – focuses on the fact that individual disciplines have their own characteristics regarding teaching and learning principles, curricular designs or assessment methods. Each discipline possesses distinctive academic and discursive conventions that are developed based on its respective epistemologies. The third dimension, *M – (language) Management* – addresses language policy statements and declarations that come in various forms, namely written, spoken, or Internet-based, and operate at different socio-political levels. Dimension four, *A – Agents* – encompasses all the social players engaging in EMI settings, ranging from individual (teachers, students, administrators, or researchers) to collective entities (faculty, student unions, etc.). Yet these roles are multifaceted and dynamic, and therefore, the agents’ beliefs and actions are not a fixed entity but fluid and dictated by their roles, their concerns and their disciplinary backgrounds. The next dimension, *PP – Practices and Processes* – refers to the actual teaching and learning activities that construct and are constructed by a specific EMI entity. With this component, the EMI classroom is zoomed in through the investigation of “ways of doing” and “ways of thinking” (Leung & Street, 2012) of relevant agents, from a process rather than a product viewpoint. The last dimension of ROADMAPPING is *ING – Internationalisation and Glocalisation* – encapsulating a variety of international, global, national and local forces and interests that universities need to address. In a

multilingual HE setting, these drivers at macro and micro level interact complicatedly among themselves and hence may come into conflict.

The ROADMAPPING framework has been selected as the main conceptual framework of this project for several reasons. Firstly, this framework is proposed for conceptualising EMEMUS practices within and across contexts. The setting of this PhD project is a tertiary department in Vietnam where students have bilingual education in Vietnamese and English via unofficial policy. Thus it has the features to be defined as an EMEMUS site (see 5.2). Second, as defined in 1.2, EMI is a complex, dynamic and fluid reality which operates based on a nexus of policies and practices of agencies at various hierarchical levels. Therefore, this framework's ability to offer multi-perspectives of an EMI context allows me to have an in-depth description and analysis of the DoS, taking the holistic nature that “the whole is more than the sum of its parts” into consideration (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p.411). While acknowledging the overlapping and intersections among the six dimensions, the framework still permits me to foreground one or more dimensions. In Dafouz and Smit's words, ROADMAPPING “offers a blueprint for outlining an “object of analysis” that is intrinsically dynamic and potentially elusive” (p. 412). Finally, as a newly developed conceptual framework, its applicability clearly needs to be tested in different EMEMUS settings. While a few previous studies have applied ROADMAPPING in European contexts, Vietnam in particular and Asia in general are still unexplored (but see Baker & Hüttner, 2017; 2018). The framework is therefore employed for this study.

Based on the specific focus of two RQs (see 1.3), the current project identifies the component of *Practices and Processes* as the point of entry to the DoS, accessed through the discourses of classroom interaction, teacher interviews, student focus groups and other sources like site documents or research diary. Situated within the lectures' and students' ways of doing and ways of thinking, the EMI policy in the DoS is explored (*Language Management*), from which the roles of individual agents – lecturers and students – are recognised (*Agents*). These areas also link to the functions of English compared to Vietnamese (*Roles of English*). It should be noted that these foci do not exclude the overlap of the other two ROADMAPPING components: *Academic Disciplines* and *Internationalisation and Glocalisation* in the investigated site. Notwithstanding, discussing all these dimensions in details go beyond the scope of this chapter and this research. Therefore, only these four dimensions: RO – A – M - PP are going to be elaborated in the next sections.

2.3. The Roles of English

2.3.1. English and HE internationalisation

The implementation of EMI policy has led to a paradigm shift in the way English is perceived in HEIs: from a foreign language to be taught and learned in language lessons to a lingua franca to be used for pedagogical and social purposes (Dafouz, 2017). The concept of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) – defined as any use of English among speakers of different L1s (Seidlhofer, 2001) - has been considerably developed since the beginning of this millennium with the publication by two lead researchers: Jenkins (2000) and Seidlhofer (2001)¹. From an ELF perspective, when non-native speakers of English “use the language for a wide range of public and personal needs” (Brumfit, 2001, p. 116), they should not be considered as “failed native speakers” who have to conform to the normative tenets of Standard English. Instead, they are the “highly skilled communicators” making use of their linguistic repertoires for the sake of their interactions (Jenkins, Cogo, & Dewey, 2011). Therefore, in academic settings, lecturers’ and students’ use of English as a tool for teaching and learning non-language subjects entitle them as legitimate users of the language.

About twenty years ago, it was predicted by Graddol (1997) that teaching in English would be one of the most significant educational trends worldwide (p.45). The prediction has been truly reflected in different parts of the world, with a sharp rise in the number of EMI programmes implemented during the last two decades (Doiz et al., 2013c; Fenton-Smith, Humphreys, & Walkinshaw, 2017; Jenkins, 2014; Kirkpatrick, 2014a; Smit, 2010; Wachter & Maiworm, 2014). The spread of English as an academic lingua franca in EMI has enabled universities to recruit international students and staff, hence announcing themselves as internationalised institutions. According to OECD (2016), about 1.3 million postgraduate students studied abroad in 2014, and universities in Kachru’s (1992) inner-circle countries - where English is in most cases the educational language by default - have been the main destinations for the largest influx of these foreign students (Wingate, 2018). Besides, EMI programmes are no longer limited to HEIs in these countries. It is estimated that there are more than 8000 courses being delivered in English at top universities in non-Anglophone countries (Mitchell, 2016). For instance, in mainland Europe, while there were only 700 English-taught undergraduate and MA programmes in 2002, the figure went up sharply to approximately 2400 programmes provided by over 400 HEIs in 2007, a remarkable

¹ But recently, Jenkins (2015) proposes the concept of English as a Multilingual Franca, which “is a view of ELF that positions it within multilingualism” (p.73).

increase of 340% (Wachter & Maiworm, 2008). Additionally, international students occupy 65% of the total student population in these courses, with a remarkable 46% of students are from Asia and Africa. The figure has recently climbed up to more than 8000 EMI programmes in 27 European member states (Wachter & Maiworm, 2014). Similarly, research has reported that Asian HEIs are now having more diverse student bodies with members coming from various cultural and linguistic backgrounds. An example is China, which has recruited more than 260,000 international students, declaring itself as the biggest destination in Asia (Hou, Morse, Chiang, & Chen, 2013). Japan obtains the second place in the list, with 138,000 students, followed by Singapore, Japan and Malaysia, with 90,000, 78,000 and 60,000 foreign students respectively. Meanwhile, Taiwan has launched two national policies with a view to promoting its international capacity and getting up to 120,000 international students enrolled by 2020 (Hou et al., 2013; Welch, 2012). Clearly, not all international students pursue their degrees via English in the listed countries, but the number of international students may probably be proportional to the number of EMI programmes offered and vice versa. That is, more international student enrolment may lead to a higher demand for EMI courses, and a large quantity of EMI courses may be one of the reasons for a rise in the number of foreign students.

The diversity in student and staff body mentioned above highlights the central position of English in HE internationalisation, with it becoming a shared academic language to construct knowledge as well as a joint language of communication for students and staff from different L1s (Dafouz & Smit, 2016). However, in addition to international HEIs, EMI is introduced widely for “internationalisation at home” (Crowther et al., 2000) – which entails situations where often teachers and students share the same linguacultural backgrounds (Murata & Iino, 2018). Yet in whatever situation, when analysing the functional breadth of English, it is essential to consider the linguistic ecology of a specific HE reality, acknowledging the co-existences of other languages (Dafouz & Smit, 2016). In other words, the roles of English are not monolithic but decided based on the relation to other languages in a given context (Dafouz, 2017). On such a backdrop, the complexity and variety related to the multifunctional roles of English and other languages – which can be foreign, national, regional, minority or migrant languages (ibid.) – have been a topic of research on EMI in HE. This, however, is strongly linked to HE language policies and will be revisited in the component of (language) Management (see 2.4.2).

In the next section, the functional breadth of English in HEIs where EMI is implemented will be discussed. There is a certain extent of overlapping in the discussion here with other components, but that reflects how ROADMAPPING describes the interrelations and dynamics of different components in an EMI setting.

2.3.2. The functional breadth of English in internationalised HE settings

Although English employs a variety of functions in internationalised HE settings, the discussion below focuses on three main aspects that are mostly related to the scope of this study: 1) English as a gatekeeper, 2) English as an outcome criterion, and 3) English as a medium in classroom practices. Other functions of English, while acknowledged, are not included herein.

2.3.2.1. English as a gatekeeper

Dafouz and Smit (2016) argue that the implementation of EMI programmes empowers English with a wide range of functions in HE. Firstly, it is employed as a gatekeeper regulating student intake. One entry requirement for the majority of EMI programmes, either in Anglophone or non-Anglophone countries, is the proof of English proficiency, which is often demonstrated in international English tests such as IELTS, TOEFL or PTE Academic or equivalent local/ institutional tests. Wächter & Maiworm (2014) report that among the criteria given by HEIs in 28 European countries that use selection criteria, proficiency in English is the second most important one, only preceded by the academic/intellectual/artistic potential of the applicants. Although the minimum score for admission varies across majors and institutions, the score reported in previous EMI studies often falls within the range from IELTS 5.5 to 6.5, equivalent to B2 CEFR level (e.g. Arkin & Osam, 2015; Humphreys, 2017; Saarinen & Nikula, 2013; Vu & Burns, 2014).

Remarkably, while HEIs often market themselves as internationally oriented universities, the frequent use of tests like TOEFL or IELTS, which are closely linked to a particular standard and native-like English, implies their tendency to stick to a national variety of English (Jenkins, 2011). The association of international programmes with a particular kind of English, regarding language requirements, can be illustrated in the multisite study of EMI at three universities in Austria, Thailand, and the UK (Baker & Hüttner, 2017). Thai university students are required to “conform to international standards of writing” (p.506), but those international standards are illustrated through three text books on writing published in the USA. Meanwhile, international students from the UK university were told that pre-sessional or in-sessional English language courses may be beneficial.

Another issue with English entry requirement is the categorisation of non-native-English speaker (NNES)/ international students and native-English speaker (NES)/home students. It goes without saying that in almost every case, only NNES students are required to demonstrate their English proficiency via the tests above, while NES students are generally assumed to be proficient in academic English (Jenkins, 2014). Nonetheless, the assumption that NNES students’ English competence is “per se inferior” to that of NES students, which underpins university admission, is

problematic (Wingate, 2018, p. 429). A number of home students, classified as native English speakers, actually come from ethnic minority backgrounds and thus speak English as an additional language. Therefore, that no entry test is required upon them may be more of a disadvantage since they may have “a false security” about academic language and literacy, with unfamiliar discourses and genres they are likely to face in their study (*ibid.*).

The function of English as a gatekeeper in HEIs is not just limited to student admissions but in some situations can apply to instructor and staff recruitment. The staff selection policies have been considered to be adjusted “to take account of language competence” (Marschan-Piekkari, Welch, & Welch, 1999, p. 382). For instance, in a large scale survey in Europe, two thirds of participating EMI programmes from Denmark, Turkey and Belgium are stated to have English as a selection criterion for new staff recruitment (Wächter & Maiworm, 2014). Entrance requirements for staff English Language Proficiency (ELP) have also been formalised and incorporated as one of the criteria at Delft University of Technology (Klaassen & Bos, 2010) and at many Korean universities (Byun et al., 2011). Likewise, Karakaş (2016) mentions that staff ELP is underlined in one of his investigated universities in Turkey. While there was no reference to language requirements for international candidates, proof of English ability was “overtly imposed” for Turkish candidates (*ibid.*, p.114). Furthermore, the teaching staff were oriented to teach and use native-like English. Meanwhile, in Perrin’s (2017) study in a Chinese HEI, while EMI teaching staff are not tested for language, their experience of working in an English-speaking environment is expected, and their job interviews take place in English.

For current staff, screening tests of ELP have been conducted in HEIs as well. This type of ELP measurement was conducted at Delft University of Technology in the Netherlands (Klaassen & Bos, 2010) and at Copenhagen University in Denmark (Cancino, 2011). Institutional proficiency tests have been developed, such as TOPTULTE - the Test of Performance for Teaching at University Level through the Medium of English - developed by Ball and Lindsay (2005; 2013) at the University of the Basque Country. Yet according to Unterberger (2012, p. 97), the use of ELP tests for teaching staff should be given caution because “questioning the teachers’ language competence would also mean challenging their professional knowledge”.

Additionally, the ability to use English for teaching content subjects may be awarded through incentive schemes developed by individual university. These incentives can take the form of “favourable formula workload calculation, material rewards, and symbolic distinction” (Hu, Li, & Lei, 2014), or extra salary compared to a counterpart course in the local language (Duong & Chua, 2016; Hu & Lei, 2014). While these motivation strategies for instructors may encourage lecturers to improve their English proficiency to teach EMI courses, they at the same time can cause certain issues. Hu (2007, p. 114) is concerned that English proficiency has become “a legitimate and prestigious form of symbolic capital” which creates a gap among academic staff.

Furthermore, English knowledge in hiring policy, if not carefully dealt with, may lead to the division of candidates into those who are proficient in English and those who are not (Margić & Vodopija-Krstanovic, 2017). If that happens, then preferences are often given to either NES candidates, or local staff with qualifications from abroad, especially from English-speaking countries (*ibid.*). Additionally, a candidate's English proficiency may take precedence over their disciplinary expertise, hence creating a question of effective teaching (Byun et al., 2011).

2.3.2.2. English as an outcome criterion

While English can function as a gatekeeping tool at the entrance level, it can also play the role of an outcome criterion in EMI programmes (Dafouz & Smit, 2016). Investigations of stakeholders' beliefs in EMI settings have provided contradictory students' self-assessment of their English progress during the course, with both positive attitudes (Byun et al., 2011; Margić & Vodopija-Krstanovic, 2017; Yeh, 2014) and negative evaluation (Bozdoğan & Karlıdağ, 2013). Similarly, instructors' perceptions of language and content vary across studies. For instance, the survey by Wu et al. (2010, cited in Zhao & Dixon, 2017) reveals that 70.6% of their Chinese participant lecturers consider the main objective of EMI to be improving students' ELP, whereas for the Taiwanese lecturers in Chen (2017), content knowledge is their main goal of EMI teaching. This is also related to lecturers' agency, discussed in 2.5.1.

Regarding EMI programmes in Anglophone countries, Humphreys (2017) states that there are two main issues with English as an outcome criterion. First, while it is expected that international students studying in Anglophone HEIs will be immersed in an English-speaking environment and hence can improve their ELP, the truth is often the opposite. A large number of international students sharing the same L1 are distributed among a small number of degree programmes, which means that they can live, study, and work with others who speak their mother tongue even when they are in an English-speaking country (Gribble, 2015). With such a backdrop, limited interaction between international students, domestic students and the broader community in Anglophone countries has been mentioned as "a thorn in the side" for HEIs (*ibid.*, p.11). Advancing international students' ELP during their EMI study, therefore, is not as simple as anticipated. Secondly, there has been an assumption in Australia and other Anglophone countries that there will certainly be a strong outcome of ELP for international students upon graduation (Humphreys, 2017). This disbelief has a close connection with the requirement of English proficiency in student admission (see 2.3.2.1), and also with the delivery of course content in English by either NES staff or those highly proficient in English. ELP, therefore, is among the

educational aims strongly linked to graduate employability. For example, the Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (DEEWR, 2009) of Australia even issued a set of ten Good Practice Principles which outlined the necessity for HEIs to ensure international students' ELP from enrolment to graduation. Similarly, the Australian Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency (TEQSA, 2013, p.22, cited in Humphreys, 2017, p. 100) requires universities to "demonstrate that students who complete the course have developed an appropriate level of English language proficiency through their studies". Yet as Humphreys (2017) reviews, existing empirical evidence of international students' ELP outcomes in Australian universities have challenged the relationship between ELP improvement and EMI graduation.

For EMI programmes in non-Anglophone countries, a similar controversy can be found when considering whether to include English in the course or degree objectives or not. For example, Baker & Hüttner (2017) found that, both lecturers and students seemed to agree that English was the target in the Thai context of study, while the case at the Austrian site was different. Furthermore, it is not clear if learning in English does really have an impact on students' ELP, since previous studies have reported contradictory findings. Lei and Hu (2014) conducted a direct comparison group study between EMI and non-EMI students. The impact of EMI on English learning was measured against 64 EMI students, compared to that of 72 Chinese-medium-instruction students in parallel programmes, through two national standardized English proficiency tests. They found that studying in EMI did not have any effect on students' English proficiency and their English learning and use. On the other hand, Yang (2015) investigated the improvement of the learners' performance in an EMI programme in Taiwan by looking at their proficiency when they just entered the programme and after two years studying. The results showed that they had made significant improvement in their receptive skills, and their productive linguistic performance in a national-scale English proficient test was better than other university students. Meanwhile, Rogier (2012) longitudinally explored the EMI impact through a retrospective panel study using a test/retest method with a group of undergraduates in the UAE. A statistically significant score gain of IELTS exam in all four skills was found, remarkably in the area of speaking, followed by reading, writing and then listening. Nonetheless, the questionnaire and interview data with students and teachers in the same study revealed contradictory perceptions. While the students self-assessed their four skills as good to excellent, the teachers felt that they had to adapt the course content and assessment criteria due to students' low language level. This implies the necessity to set clear instructions for language development if English is included in the educational goals as an outcome criterion.

To summarise, whatever context it is, the function of English as an outcome criterion entails the issue of selecting the testing instrument for measuring ELP. In the studies above, both

national and international standardised testing instruments are employed. Yet what kind of English to be assessed as an outcome of EMI and how to assess it remain problematic.

2.3.2.3. English as a medium in classroom practices

As a means of teaching and learning in content subjects, the roles of English vary according to the amount of English use, which can be classified into three types (Alexander, 2008, p. 82). The first one is *replacement programmes*, where English replaces the local language(s) and functions as the only medium of teaching from beginning to end. Thus, staff and students are assumed to possess an adequate level of English proficiency for pursuing content courses in this language. The second one is *cumulative programmes*, referring to situations where the amount of English use increases as the English proficiency improves. Finally, *the additional type* applies to situations where English is used as an additional language to facilitate international students' transition to classes in the local language of the host institutions. It can be seen that in the second and third type, English obviously shares its grounds with other language(s). Yet in the first one, the "English-only" zone appears to make the roles of other languages more implicit and unofficial, although the bi/multilingual reality of a specific EMI entity – if there is – will still exist no matter what the official linguistic setting is (see 2.4.2).

It is worth noting that the classification above does not manage to reflect all the EMI situations occurring in reality. As discussed in 1.2, individual differences exist among EMI programmes or universities – or even within the same departments. Therefore, the use of English in classroom practices, compared to that of other languages in the linguistic ecology, varies across disciplines/subjects, level of education, or level of proficiency. For example, Lee (2010) reported that most of her engineering student participants favoured the mixed use of Korean and English in different ratios depending on their years of study, with 20% English vs. 80% Korean in the second year, and 50:50 by the fourth year. Also in a Korean setting, Kang and Park (2005) found that English was mainly used for instruction and presentations, while Korean was used for discussion and group activities. Similarly, findings from a study in Norwegian universities (Ljosland, 2011) classified situations of language use into four groups. While oral and formal situations often took place in English, oral and informal situations occurred in other languages. Both English and Norwegian were employed in writing discourses of various levels of formality, with the former language dominating in formal situations. Meanwhile, in Swedish HE, the undergraduate

programme in physics are often composed with lectures in Swedish with course texts in English (Airey & Linder, 2006).

The use of English vs. other languages, especially students' L1, in classroom practices has received conflicting views (see for example Barnard, 2014; Ferguson, 2003). These views may vary depending on an individual's experience of internationalisation (Dafouz, Hüttner, & Smit, 2016). For example, institutions or individuals with short internationalisation experience are more likely to see the use of languages other than English in classroom as deficiencies – such as teachers' and students' low language proficiency, lack of materials, or interferences with the L1 – or even more negatively as 'failure'. On the contrary, those teachers who have been familiar working with multilingual groups tend to recognise the value of diverse language resources in the teaching and learning process (*ibid.*). Teachers' and students' multilingual practices in the classroom – where their linguistic repertoires are employed as an integrated system for the construction of knowledge – have been discussed in the literature under the term of "translanguaging as a pedagogy" or "pedagogic translanguaging" (e.g. García & Wei, 2014; Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012a). As this is strongly connected to teaching and learning activities, it will be fully discussed in the component of Practices and Processes (see 2.6.1).

2.4. (Language) Management

(Language) Management, the third dimension of ROADMAPPING, refers to "L[anguage] P[olicy] statements and declarations [...] issued by social agents representing collectives at various socio-political and hierarchical levels" (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p.406). Since the concept of language policy is quite complex, it is necessary to have a brief explanation of how it is conceptualised related to education in this study.

2.4.1. Conceptualising language policy

A number of definitions and discussions of the term language policy (LP) can be found in the existing literature, and there does not seem to exist an imminent prospect for a unified theory (Ricento & Hornberger, 1996). Johnson (2013) argues that policy is traditionally viewed as "something that some governing entity or polity enacts" (p.7), hence the association between policy with governmental or authoritative bodies. An example is the definition of LP as "ideas, laws, regulations, rules and practices intended to achieve the planned language change in the societies, group or system" (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997, p. xi). This definition, however, leaves out bottom-up movements and the *de facto* practices of LP. Another highly influential definition of LP,

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offered by Spolsky (2004), states that the LP of a speech community has three components: language practices, language beliefs or ideology, and language management. The first component refers to “the observable behaviours and choices – what people actually do” (Spolsky, 2009, p. 4), while the second, beliefs, concerns “the values or statuses assigned to named languages, varieties, and features” (ibid.). These two components can be planned or unplanned, intentional or unintentional, while the third component – language management – references the traditional view of policy mentioned above as it is “the explicit and observable effort by someone or some group that has or claims to have authority over the participants in the domain to modify their practices or beliefs” (ibid.). The most obvious form of language management, as Spolsky (2009) identifies, is a law issued by authorized polities. Similarly, Shohamy (2006) argues that in understanding LP, a broader perspective encapsulating “mechanisms, policies, and practices as well as the set of negotiations, conversations and battles that take place among them” should be taken into consideration (p. xv). Rules and regulations, driven by powerful individuals or organisations, are only “declared policies”, but whether and to what extent they will be applied and implemented in “de facto language practices” is not guaranteed (Shohamy, 2006, p.68).

Johnson (2013) argues that a critical conceptualisation of policy should include a balance between structure and agency, between policy as “a mechanism of power” and “the power of language policy agents” (p. 8). He offers a comprehensive conceptualisation of language policy that encompasses the diversity of policy mechanisms and the multiple layers of LP, including both “official regulations” and “unofficial, covert, de facto, and implicit mechanisms, connected to language beliefs and practices” (Johnson, 2013, p.9). Also, language policies should not be seen as only products but also as processes driven by agents of various layers. Finally, LP includes “policy texts and discourses across multiple contexts and layers of policy activity” (ibid.). Johnson also offers four criteria to divide language policies into sets of dichotomies (Table 2.1, p. 19). In educational contexts, the multi-layered nature described by Johnson can remind us of the metaphorical image of an “onion” (Ricento & Hornberger, 1996, p.419) with layers ordered from the periphery to the centre: legislation and political processes, then states and supranational agencies, institutions, and finally classroom practitioners. At each layer of that whole system, language policies are “interpreted, negotiated, and ultimately (re)constructed in the process of implementation” by the corresponding agents at each level of the educational system (Menken & García, 2010b, p. 1)

This abovementioned way of conceptualising language policies from multiple perspectives and acknowledging their various forms is in line with how Dafouz & Smit (2016) define the

component of (language) Management. It also acknowledges the interrelation and dynamics between LP and other ROADMAPPING dimensions, especially Agents and Practices and Processes. Therefore, for the purpose of this research, I will follow this way of conceptualisation.

Table 2.1. Types of language policies (Johnson, 2013, p.10)

Genesis	Top down Macro-level policy developed by some governing or authoritative body or person	Bottom up Micro-level or grassroots generated policy for and by the community that it impacts
Means and goals	Overt Overtly expressed in written or spoken policy texts	Covert Intentionally concealed at the macro level (collusive) or at the micro level (subversive)
Documentation	Explicit Officially documented in written or spoken policy texts	Implicit Occurring without or in spite of official policy texts
In law	De jure Policy “in law”; officially documented in writing	De facto Policy “in practice”; refers to both locally produced policies that arise without or in spite of de jure policies and local language practices that differ from de jure policies; de facto practices can reflect (or not) de facto policies

2.4.2. Language policy for HE: EMI, monolingualism vs. multilingualism, and the roles of English

Risager (2012) states that language policies in HE can be divided into three main types: 1) a monolingual policy of using English more or less exclusively; 2) a bilingual policy where English is used together with the local or national language; and 3) a trilingual policy where English is used with the national, regional, or local languages. These three types show that the main changes in LP in HEIs have been around “giving English a more central position” (Smit, 2018, p. 394). They also show how the roles of English are related to those of other languages in a language ecology of a given university, as discussed earlier in 2.3.1.

With respect to monolingualism of English-only in HEIs, findings from studies exploring institutions with this LP policy have shown the mismatch between “the monolingual ethos and the ideology of English-medium tertiary education and the needs, identities, and resources of multilingual students” (Preece & Martin, 2010, p. 3). For example, Jenkins’ (2014) exploration of websites from 60 universities that teach partly or entirely in English medium recognises a monolingual orientation towards standard native English in both Anglophone and non-

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Anglophone settings. Meanwhile, the prospective contribution of students' linguistic repertoires was not given any indicated value except for the vague notion of "diversity" on campus. More recently, Baker & Hüttner (2017) report the dominant monolingualism of English-only in the institutional documented policies. English is officially recognised as the sole language of instruction and assessment, and this monolingual role is strongly adhered to teaching. Among the three settings of Thailand, Austria, and UK, English is mainly referred to as discipline-specific language use. However, students also made some use of other languages in class. Also, for outside class communication, there are still spaces for other languages to be recognised as a secondary lingua franca, hence multilingualism is prevalent in all settings. Their later study of the same settings (Baker & Hüttner, 2018, p. 15) reports a significant

move from a standard English language monolingual ideology in management policy, to more flexible beliefs about English language use from lecturers and students, to considerable complexity, variation and multilingualism in linguistic practices

A similar discrepancy between the officially documented policy and teachers' and students' practices and perceptions can be found in Botha's (2013) study of the status and functions of English at Macau University of Science and Technology. He reported that on one hand, English was linked to the concept of internationalisation and hence used by the university for marketing purposes when recruiting students. On the other hand, the roles of English were realised differently across the university faculties. While students perceived English to be significant, complete exposure to this language is not the norm in this institution since Putonghua and Cantonese were also present on campus. Especially, Putonghua was found to be popular, with about 70% of students reporting that all or most of their language exposure was to Putonghua in typical EMI classes. The situation is a bit different in Saarinen & Nikula's (2013) study, who found that English was given a self-evident role in the linguistic landscape of academia through the analysis of national and institutional policy of four Finnish HEIs, supplemented by teachers' interviews and a student's narrative. Not only was English the language of instruction and the shared lingua franca among students and teachers with diverse linguistic backgrounds, it was also a gatekeeper regulating student intake. That dominant role yet downplayed the potential of multilingualism as a resource for teaching and learning in international study programmes. These examples underline that English-only policies as an internationalisation strategy at university fail to acknowledge the actual language diversity both in their own institutions and globally (Risager, 2012).

The bilingual policy where English is used together with the local/ national language is said to be a widely growing form of officially regulated multilingualism in HEIs (Nordic Council of

Ministers, 2007, p.93, cited in Smit, 2018). One of the forms of this LP orientation is the policy of parallel language use. To preserve and promote the Nordic languages in HE, in 2006, the Nordic Council of Ministers recommended the adoption of parallel language use in which “none of the languages abolishes or replaces the other” (Nordic Council of Ministers, 2007, p.93 cited in Airey, Lauridsen, Räsänen, Salo, & Schwach, 2017). This was seen as a pragmatic solution that aimed to balance the status of English with Nordic languages in EMI tertiary education. Yet at a practical level, this policy appeared to be problematic. Airey and Linder (2008) argue that it is dangerous to plan courses and have a parallel language requirement in HE without considering the language-specific disciplinary skills that graduates are expected to attain. Similarly, Kuteeva and Airey (2014) contest that the parallel language use policy fails to address the fundamental disciplinary differences and their possible impact on language use, and therefore remains as an “unoperationalised political slogan” (p. 536). In other words, on regulating the roles of English and other languages in HEIs, a policy should not only encapsulate general features of language use but also characteristics of various academic disciplines.

In EMI settings where most students and staff speak the same L1, the role of other language(s) seems to be acknowledged on an ad hoc basis in teaching and learning. Bradford and Brown (2018), in providing a general overview of EMI in Japan, stated that English does not have a wide variety of functions in Japanese HE, although the nation is experiencing a rapid growth of EMI in its tertiary education. The majority of EMI courses take place between domestic teachers and students, among whom English mainly functions as an academic language. In such a context, the switch to English for communicating content may be resisted by instructors if the efficacy of teaching in a foreign language is questioned. This statement can be exemplified through empirical studies in Japan. For instance, Aizawa and Rose (2018) underscored the significant gap between the meso and micro levels regarding the role of English and Japanese in EMI implementation. Instead of an “English-only” environment regulated in institutional policies, data collected from interviews with teachers and students report a mixed-language instruction practice where the MoL was flexibly set across the range of English vs. Japanese proportion in classrooms. Similar situations – where most teachers and students speak the same L1, and hence use it alongside English in EMI programmes – are found in China (Jiang, Zhang, & May, 2019), Korea (Kim, Kweon, & Kim, 2017; Kim, 2011) or Turkey (Karabinar, 2008). Nevertheless, it should be noted that there are EMI settings where the L1, or a local/national language, is still used in class-related settings with the presence of international students. In her longitudinal study of an EMI programme in Austria, Smit (2010) reports a change in international students’ attitudes towards the use of German in on-topic talks within four semesters. These non-native speakers of German showed a strong objection to its use during the first semester, but gradually changed their negative evaluation once their proficiency improved as the course went by.

The third type, trilingualism, is where English accompanies the regional language and the national language as the Mols. This is a particular phenomenon in many modern European universities which face two challenges: paying attention to regional multilingualism while concurrently aiming for HE internationalisation through widely used world languages (Lindström, 2012). Such a case is the University of Lleida, where Catalan is the unmarked linguistic choice as a symbol of identity for Catalonia (Cots, Lasagabaster, & Garrett, 2012). The sociolinguistic situation in the university recognises two official languages: Catalan and Spanish, to which English (and other languages) should be added as a step towards an institutional multilingualism (*ibid.*). Similarly, the University of the Basque Country has Spanish and Basque as two official languages in education, with the latter being a regional minority language (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2013a). The introduction of EMI programmes in this context makes English become the third language on campus, which receives opposite attitudes by local and international students. Especially, while international students do not see any negative impact of English on Basque, local students – particularly those whose mother tongue is Basque – are quite concerned. Nonetheless, it should be noted that this situation, in which more than one language is officially regulated as the Mol, is not rare in HEIs across Europe. As Dafouz (2017) emphasises, while sharing the ground with two official languages, the roles and status of English should be “spelt out explicitly” (p.175) because speakers of minority languages may develop their “bunker attitude” (C. Baker, 1992, p. 136) when they perceive English to have a “predator power” on their own language and identity (Cots, 2013, p. 124).

To sum up, though not sketching the whole, highly diverse picture of HEIs, different HE settings with various orientations towards monolingualism or multilingualism highlight the bilingual or multilingual nature that students and staff create in a huge number of EMI programmes, either in Anglophone or non-Anglophone countries. It can be seen that a large part of (language) Management overlaps with the component of Roles of English, and HE internationalisation appears to be identified with Englishization (Dafouz, 2017; Smit, 2018). In other words, English, as the academia lingua franca, has been given a central position in HE language policies targeting the global “educational market” (Smit, 2018, p. 396). Yet, while English encompasses a range of functions and status, it is worth repeating that those roles “must be considered in relation to the complete linguistic repertoire” of a given context (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 403).

2.5. Agents

The Agents dimension has a close link to the previous dimension of (language) Management, as it refers to all the agents taking part “in the planning, implementation, and assessment of language policies” in HEIs (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 406). These agents can either be collective entities or individual participants whose roles, identified as having a “multifaceted and dynamic nature” (ibid. p. 407), contribute to the shaping of an EMI entity at macro-, meso-, and micro- levels. This study focuses on lecturers and students in EMI implementation at classroom level, but it acknowledges the power of different agents as regards language management policies. Accordingly, before discussing these agents in details, a brief explanation and discussion of agents at macro- and meso- level will be provided below.

At the macro level, Dafouz (2017, p.178) states that there has been “a set of new agents known under the labels of strategic partnerships and networks” fostered by internationalisation and university rankings. An example is the Bologna Process for European universities, which is regarded as a response to the international marketization of tertiary education (Coleman, 2006). Aiming at creating a borderless and democratic European Higher Education Area, the Bologna Process enables staff and students to move between universities in 46 countries that have signed in the agreement. In so doing, universities across Europe need to standardise their degree offerings to allow for such free academic movement, and the adoption of EMI is one of their strategies to achieve that purpose. Another example of international network is AUN – Asean University Network – established in 1995 as a respond to the call for South-East Asian member countries to “further strengthen the existing network of leading universities and institutions of higher learning in the region” (ASEAN, 1992).

At the national level, the government and related ministries are the key actors in EMI developments. In Asian contexts, for example, the increasing popularity of EMI can be attributed to many governmental initiatives. For example, the Chinese Ministry of Education stated as early as 2001 that all universities “were instructed to use English as the main teaching language” in a wide range of disciplines: “information technology, biotechnology, new-material technology, finance, foreign trade, economics, and the law” (Nunan, 2003, pp. 595-596). Meanwhile, the best universities in Japan are now parts of the Global 30 Project that was first launched in 2009 by the government to offer degree programs in English. Member universities get the governmental financial support to develop their internationalisation strategies, one among which is the introduction of EMI degree programs (Shimomura, 2013). In a similar attempt, South Korean government released a comprehensive plan named the “Study Korea Project” in 2004 and then provided funding to universities implementing EMI courses. This movement, as Byun et al. (2011)

claim, has turned EMI into a “prerequisite” for any Korean universities to be considered for governmental financial support (p. 435), and therefore noticeably raised the number of EMI universities in the country. Other less developed Asian countries also remarkably stress on EMI implementation in order not to fall behind in the internationalisation competition. Similarly, Malaysian government has encouraged a growing number of private universities to implement EMI programs (Tham & Kam, 2008), while required public sectors to use English in Science and related subjects (Mohini, 2008). In addition to the government and related authoritative bodies, Bradford & Brown (2018) argue that agents at the national level can form a business community. For instance, in Japanese context, the Japan Business Federation has influentially called for Japanese universities to offer more opportunities to study abroad, better international education and EMI programmes.

At the institutional level, universities approach EMI in different ways. To some extent, their EMI implementation may be seen as an individual response to the initiatives promoted by agents higher up in hierarchical levels. For example, under the same Top Global University Project (TGUP) initiated by Japan’s Ministry of Education to boost HE internationalisation, varieties of EMI approach can be found in participant universities. Aizawa & Rose (2018) find that students across different disciplines are required to take at least nine units of EMI courses as a part of their graduation requirement. Meanwhile, McKinley’s (2018) study of Sophia University, another university of the TGUP project, reports variability between EMI within the same university. Ryan’s (2018) study with Asian universities highlights the transitional phases in which HEIs start with a small range of elective courses in English, followed by a more comprehensive embrace of EMI; or they may initially offer dual-language modes of delivery before moving to English exclusive programmes. Furthermore, the agency of HEIs can be seen through their attempts to establish international cooperation with foreign partners to introduce EMI and create student and staff exchange opportunities. This can be seen through later examples of Vietnamese universities offering EMI degrees (see 3.3).

At the micro level, lecturers and students are the two key individual agents who face EMI “with very different needs, expectations, and objectives in mind” (Dafouz, 2017, p.178). As the foci of this study, their agencies are discussed elaborately below.

2.5.1. Lecturers

Firstly, when discussing lecturers’ agency, it is worth mentioning their roles in implementing policy as active policy makers. As can be seen in section 2.4.1, language policy is conceptualised as

a multi-layered construct, in which agents at different levels interact with each other in a multiple and complex ways (Johnson, 2013). Traditional research on language policy mainly conceptualises policy as a top-down process, simply portraying local agents as powerless implementers of a policy over which they have no control. This, however, has received criticism for its lack of recognising the central role of classroom practitioners (Johnson, 2013). For example, Ricento & Hornberger argue that teachers should be placed “at the heart of language policy”, or metaphorically “at the center of the onion” (1996, p. 417). That is because, based on their own understanding of their practice context, e.g. students’ needs and abilities, materials available, language use in the wider community, teachers may develop their own classroom approaches and make certain language choices which may not adhere to the official policy (Cincotta-Segi, 2011). Instead of uncritically and passively following the set of regulations imposed by the government or other higher agents, they enact their agency to “resist and contest” the already-decided policy if it is not suitable for their practical teaching (Mohanty, Panda, & Pal, 2010, p. 228). In other words, teachers are also policy makers at classroom level (Hult, 2018; Menken & García, 2010a). Accordingly, they can either exercise their power through pedagogically-informed language choices in their class, allowing for multilingual learning spaces; or they can decide not to incorporate students’ L1 and hence closing potential learning space (Ricento & Hornberger, 1996). These choices may be constrained by language policies which regulate what is and what is not allowed in teaching and learning activities, but concurrently, negotiation of the policies occurring at each educational level creates the space of reinterpretation and policy manipulation (Hornberger & Johnson, 2007). That is to say, teachers’ enacted agency in the classrooms “makes them the final arbiter of the language education policy and its implementation” (Mohanty et al., 2010).

Existing studies have shown that lecturers may engage in EMI programmes for several main motivations, which may or may not be in line with the administrators’ motivations for implementing the policy. They may teach EMI as a result of the top-down policy, even when they are not really prepared for teaching in a foreign language (Cho, 2012; Coleman, 2013; Costa & Coleman, 2013). On the contrary, they may have “personally studied in English”, knowing EMI advantages and thus teaching in English is their personal choice (Gürtler & Kronewald, 2015, p. 102). They also may believe that teaching in English is the default option and EMI makes their programmes international (Werther, Denver, Jensen, & Mees, 2014). Besides, lecturers’ engagement in EMI may come from their perception of English as the international language of science and technology (Zare-ee & Gholami, 2013). Thus via EMI, they believe that students can have a better understanding of internationally published books and articles as well as avoid the risk of losing meaning and content through the use of translated scientific content (*ibid.*). The

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availability of teaching and learning resources in English is another motivation for teachers to take up EMI (Basibek et al., 2014; Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2011; Hamid, Jahan, & Islam, 2013). As regards language, EMI can offer lecturers a chance to polish their language proficiency (Floris, 2014). EMI can also bring values such as social mobility and career prospects to their students and to themselves (Botha, 2013; Dearden & Macaro, 2016; Hu et al., 2014; Pulcini & Campagna, 2015).

There have been mixed attitudes of lecturers towards EMI implementation. Most lecturers in Smit's study (2010) felt linguistically equipped and enjoyed teaching in English for it being rewarding. Werther et al. (2014) found that 75% of their Danish lecturer participants did not find teaching through English problematic. Similar results were found in a survey with Swedish lecturers by Bolton and Kuteeva (2012) where only a minority had significant difficulties in using English for their classes. Interestingly, 44% of Science lecturers claimed that they felt more able to discuss their work in English than in Swedish. Similar positive self-assessment of ELP is seen in Karakas' (2016) study with Turkish lecturers. However, more studies noted negative lecturers' feelings about EMI than those that did not. The main reason for NNES lecturers' negative attitudes is their proficiency, which is perceived as inadequate and as a major impediment to effective teaching in EMI. Some of these include the concerns of pronunciation, the lack of vocabulary to give detailed explanations, the difficulty to use English in a spontaneous and interactive manner compared to teaching in L1, the lack of confidence, the increase of pressure (Aguilar & Rodriguez, 2012; Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Hellekjær, 2010; Hu & Lei, 2014; Klaassen & Bos, 2010; Oh & Lee, 2010; Pulcini & Campagna, 2015). Similar concerns towards lecturers' inadequate language ability have been expressed by students in different contexts (Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012; Byun et al., 2011; Chang, 2010). In addition to ELP-related issues, teaching in EMI settings increases the preparation time and workload for lecturers (Dafouz et al., 2016; Hellekjær, 2010; Hu et al., 2014).

Lecturers' agency is also seen through their expertise identity. When language and content are integrated in EMI courses, the expectation is often that the content staff can speak and write English well enough to help students develop their language ability (Wilkinson, 2013). However, in many EMI studies, lecturers identify themselves as content experts whose job is stimulating students to learn subject knowledge other than dealing with foreign language matters. For example, Dafouz's (2011) lecturer participants strictly divided language and content issues, with the latter being their teaching target. Similar priority for subject content has been found in other studies (Chen, 2017; Dearden, 2018; Doiz et al., 2013b; Jiang et al., 2019). Nevertheless, as Baker & Hüttner (2017) argue, there may be a "blurring of the borders between

language and content instruction" (p. 509). In other words, it is quite complicated to clearly separate content knowledge from the linguistic practices in which it is embedded (ibid.).

Pedagogical issues are another aspect of lecturers' agency in EMI teaching, because "teaching through a foreign language involves much more than a mere change in the language of instruction" (Dafouz & Núñez, 2009, p. 103). By supporting students' learning of content knowledge in an L2 setting, lecturers construct their agency via their EMI teaching practices (Dafouz et al., 2016). These practices, however, are different in L1 and L2, hence there should be a greater focus on methodology (Ball & Lindsay, 2013). Dearden (2014) underlines the necessity for EMI teachers to be trained with specialised pedagogical skills that enable them to modify their input, ensure students' comprehension, and create space for learning. Similarly, Cots (2013) states that a methodology shift is essential and should involve "a process of de-centering of the focus of pedagogic action from the instructor to the students, giving the latter a much more predominant space during the class" (p.117). Furthermore, empirical evidence has shown that lecturers may exaggerate linguistic problems in EMI without giving proper attention to their pedagogies (Bradford & Brown, 2018), while lecturers with appropriate pedagogical skills can support their students to overcome their insufficient language proficiency (Bradford, 2018; Doiz et al., 2013b). EMI teaching methodologies, however, need to be developed through informative guidance or proper professional development trainings, which is a key concern in many previous studies (Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Fenton-Smith, Stillwell, & Dupuy, 2017; Hou et al., 2013; Vu & Burns, 2014). Although research have reported unwilling attitudes towards EMI teacher training courses (Aguilar & Rodriguez, 2012; Dafouz, 2011), the necessity of such professional development activities cannot be denied. As Coleman (2013) stresses, lecturers still find themselves "relying on intuition rather than training" when delivering courses in an L2 (p.xiii). Unfortunately, professional development is still missing in many EMI contexts (Dearden, 2014), leaving the lecturers baffled with what they should do for effective teaching practices. Even the question of whether EMI should be an "English-only" zone, and whether students' L1 can be legally used in their class, remain unguided for lecturers (ibid), while in fact, pedagogic use of L1 is highly recommended in bilingual/multilingual settings (see 2.6.1). I strongly believe that this lack of training, together with the shortage of support from administrators, exerts a negative influence on their agency in EMI settings and hence should be addressed properly.

2.5.2. Students

Students often appear as the focus for the development of EMI policies. Universities usually locate students in the centre of their EMI policies or marketing strategies, which propose various benefits if students attend EMI. These include helping students to prepare for their future careers with higher levels of internationally-oriented skills and knowledge, or allowing for student mobility when students can pursue an international degree or attend an exchange programme via English (Byun et al., 2011; Coleman & Costa, 2013; Hu & Lei, 2014; Tsou & Kao, 2017; Wachter & Maiworm, 2008; Wilkinson, 2013).

Meanwhile, students themselves may engage in EMI programmes for various reasons. In a few situations, students have no choice but EMI, as it is the school policy to take a certain number of EMI modules as a graduation requirement (Aiwaza & Rose, 2018; Kim et al., 2017).

Alternatively, their favourite courses may not be offered in any other languages but English (Kang & Park, 2005), or they select a specific EMI module because of the lecturers' expertise or teaching style (Yeh, 2014). Yet in most cases, students choose EMI for the potential benefits it may offer. Employability, or competitiveness in the future job markets, has been cited as one main reason for EMI selection in a number of studies across contexts (Hu & Lei, 2014; Kim, 2011; Kirkgöz, 2005; Lueg & Lueg, 2015; Smit, 2010). Improving English proficiency is another frequently-mentioned objective for students in attending EMI, either explicitly or implicitly (Chappel, 2015; Chang, 2010; Ljosland, 2011; Macaro & Akincioglu, 2018; Smit, 2010; Yeh, 2014). Moreover, students perceive that EMI may help them to have a chance to study/work abroad (Kirkgöz, 2005; Macaro & Akincioglu, 2018).

While students expect various positive outcomes for their EMI engagement, at the same time, they face considerable challenges. The bulk of EMI studies has mentioned students' language proficiency as the biggest obstacle for this policy effectiveness at classroom level. In many EMI programmes, undergraduates and postgraduates are well aware of their low linguistic proficiency. For instance, Korean students in Cho's (2012) and Kim's (2011) studies complained of their language skills, especially of their limited listening skills. Some students could comprehend only 60% of their lectures. Khan's (2013) Pakistani postgraduates struggled with speaking English in classrooms, understanding lectures, interpreting reading texts, and writing academically. Also, students found it challenging due to the lack of academic English and discipline-specific language (Chang, 2010; Evans & Morrison, 2011; Hu & Lei, 2014; Lee & Lee, 2018; Tsou, 2017). Notwithstanding, according to Aizawa & Rose (2018), regardless of their English proficiency, students face linguistic challenges in EMI courses. Whereas their higher-proficiency student

participants experienced more specific academic literacy challenges like essay organisation skills or technical vocabulary, their lower-proficiency students mentioned more fundamental language-related challenges such as taking notes, comprehending grammar structures or understanding lecturers. These aforementioned difficulties reported by students are in line with lecturers' concerns. Complaints have been made across contexts with respect to students' ability to survive or benefit when taught in English, such as in Turkey (Basibek et al., 2014; Macaro et al., 2016), Spain (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2011), the UAE (Rogier, 2012), Sweden (Airey, 2011a), Indonesia (Floris, 2014) or Korea (Choi, 2013).

One possible reason for students' inadequate ELP, related to the role of English as a gate keeper (see 2.3.2.1), is the absence of screening tests in many EMI programmes. Doiz et al. (2013b) are concerned that "an entry test is not always legally feasible", citing the Dutch context where no additional entrance test can be demanded on students with a secondary school diploma (p.216). Additionally, the design of such a screening test may involve controversial questions about what to be tested: general or academic English? Furthermore, whereas many HEIs require proof of English proficiency through recognised tests, the accepted minimum scores are quite low for effective academic study. An example is given in Hu & Lei (2014), where students were required to score a minimum of 120 out of 150 in the China's National Matriculation English test, which is far below Band 6.5. In some other cases, the situation is even worse when students are not asked to meet any English-proficiency requirements (Chen, 2017; Truong, 2017), leaving instructors dealing with students of mixed levels.

Doiz et al. (2011) propose that students' language challenges can be compensated by their motivation to make the extra effort required. Student agency in their EMI engagement, therefore, can be seen through a number of strategies they adopt for learning in English, such as asking questions after the lecture, reading before class, or seeking peer support (Airey & Linder, 2006; Chang, 2010; Evans & Morrison, 2011). To improve their technical vocabulary bank, students have revealed to record new words or analyse affixes and roots through "a relentless diet of disciplinary reading and listening" (Evans & Morrison, 2011, p. 203). Especially, they can use L1 as a compensatory learning strategy, such as referring to reading materials in L1 to make sense of their English lectures or textbooks, looking up unknown English vocabulary before class, or translating content from English to L1 (Hu & Lei, 2014). Students can also employ their L1 in classroom interactions with lecturers or friends for meaning making and to construct the knowledge. This practice highlights their agency in language policy implementation at classroom level, which is not often recognised in existing literature. In other words, while the aforementioned studies end the process of policy implementation at the teacher level, I would argue that students should be regarded as active agents in the process as well. For instance, when

teachers incorporate students' L1 into their classroom practices, it can be because students resist the official language policy imposed on them. In addition, as Johnson (2013) argues, when classroom interaction incorporates students' languages, not only the teachers but also students are making the policy. That is to say, together with teachers, students' L1 use contribute to generate grassroots policy for the classroom community, which may or may not adhere to the top-down policy. They take care of their own learning by making use of their language repertoires, as explained in detail of translanguaging in section 2.6.1 below. This is also related to my research project which focuses on the roles of lecturers and students in implementing an EMI policy in their classes.

2.6. Practices and Processes

This ROADMAPPING component focuses on "the teaching and learning activities that construct and are constructed by specific EMEMUS realities", taking "a process rather than a product view" (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 407). As mentioned earlier (2.2), in this study, Practices and Processes functions as the entrance to the investigated site of study, through which other dimensions of Roles of English, Agents, and (language) Management are explored as well.

To begin with, this dimension is discussed under the influence of social constructivist understanding of learning – generally attributed to Vygotsky (1978) - which emphasises that a learner's thinking and meaning-making is socially constructed and developed via their interactions with people in his/her surrounding environment. Vygotsky proposed the influential notion of the "zone of proximal development" (ZPD), referring to "the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in cooperation with more capable peers" (1978, p. 86). The ZPD definition underlines that learners can bridge the gap between their current and their future state of knowledge with the support from more competent people. Based on that understanding of learning, constructivist pedagogy "involves shifts between periods of teacher presentation and exposition, and periods when students engage with a range of individual and particularly group-work" (Taber, 2011, p. 57). Effective teaching under constructivism highlights both student-centred and teacher-directed episodes, while considering teachers' monitoring and supporting during the student-centred periods as essential for students' learning (ibid.). With this backdrop, knowledge construction from a constructivist view is comprehended as a process where classroom participants, either between

lecturers and students or among students themselves, jointly negotiate the meaning of the interaction, with meaning being “not a fixed concept but something which is developed in co-operation locally by drawing on the available resources” (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p. 68). Meaning making, therefore, is constructed through the social activities that students are engaged in and through collaboration with others (Gibbons, 2003, p. 268).

One of the teaching approaches associated with constructivist pedagogy is “scaffolding”, originally coined by Wood, Bruner, & Ross (1976). Scaffolding, strongly linked to Vygotsky’s ZPD, is defined as a process “that enables a child or novice to solve a task or achieve a goal that would be beyond his unassisted efforts” (p. 90). To put it simply, teachers are recommended to assign learners tasks beyond their level but within the ZPD. On completing those tasks, students are provided such support as modelling, guidance, hints, either by teachers or their peers (Taber, 2011). Kaufman (2004, p. 304) divides scaffolding activities into external and internal types, with the former supporting learners through “breaking down tasks into comprehensible components, modelling, coaching, providing feedback, and appropriating responsibility for learning to learners”, whereas the latter helps learners to engage in reflection and self-monitoring to enhance their concept acquisition.

From this standpoint, the discussion of Practices and Processes is going to synthesise previous studies looking at knowledge construction in EMI settings through discursive practices at classroom level. Those practices, according to Dafouz & Smit (2016), include the views and beliefs the agents have regarding the teaching and learning processes (the ways of thinking), and how those views are connected to the actual classroom practices (the ways of doing), including the way policies are implemented at classroom level. There are two points I need to clarify here. First, as can be seen below, this component is organised into two parts: language practices and other pedagogical practices. While language practices may appear to be included under the term of pedagogy, since teachers’ language choice in EMI settings may have certain pedagogical meanings, their importance and connection with other components of ROADMAPPING imply that language practices should be discussed separately from other pedagogies. Secondly, while I acknowledge the importance of assessment practices in this dimension (Dafouz, 2017), they are beyond the scope of this study and therefore not included here.

2.6.1. Language practices in EMI classrooms: developing conceptualisations

In sections 2.3.2.3 and 2.5, it has been repeatedly mentioned that lecturers and students often use different languages, highlighting the ecological perspective of the roles of English compared to other languages in EMI settings. The employment of a speaker’s linguistic repertoire

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for meaning making and knowledge construction, either in a planned or spontaneous manner, significantly construct EMI teaching and learning activities. Therefore, exploring language practices is necessary in the discussion of Practices and Processes. It is worth noting that the conceptualisation of key terms here applies to general bilingual/multilingual education other than limiting to the scope of EMI.

Lewis, Jones, and Baker (2012a, 2012b) offer a comprehensive overview of the conceptualisation development related to bilingualism and bilingual education, in which they distinguish between codeswitching and translanguaging. While the language practices of agents in this current study are best captured by translanguaging, codeswitching is used alongside in the data analysis. Therefore, I would like to clarify what these two terms mean in this research.

Traditionally, bilingual education has “insisted on the separation of the two languages” to help learners acquire a new linguistic system easier (Jacobson & Faltis, 1990, p. 4). In that meaning, the two languages are supposed to be kept strictly separate. Cummins (2005, p. 588) refers to this as “two solitudes”, while a multilingual/bilingual student/teacher is compared as “two monolinguals in one body” (Gravelle, 1996, p. 11). Against this backdrop, teachers’ use of another language alongside the official MoI, often known as codeswitching, used to be “frowned upon” in bilingual classrooms (Creese & Blackledge, 2010, p. 105). Codeswitching is defined as “the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems” (Gumperz, 1982, p. 59). It could be simply understood as the phenomenon when speakers go back and forth from one language to the other. Codeswitching can occur at an intrasentential level – within the boundaries of a clause or sentence – or intersentential level – at the boundaries of clauses or sentences (Martinez, 2006).

While teachers codeswitch for a wide range of reasons, they often perceive this practice negatively. Kirkpatrick (2014c) calls for attention to the fact that many teachers feel uncomfortable or guilty when they codeswitch, in spite of the pedagogical functions those switches carry with them in teaching (see for example Barnard & McLellan, 2014). This corroborates the claim by Ferguson (2003) that the official attitudes towards codeswitching still “remain so stubbornly negative” (p. 8), while on the contrary, it significantly supports students, especially those with limited proficiency in the official MoI. By reviewing a body of codeswitching literature, he offers a framework of codeswitching pedagogical functions, including 1) codeswitching for curriculum access, 2) codeswitching for classroom management discourse, and 3) codeswitching for interpersonal relations. The values of codeswitching in classroom has also been empirically implied in different contexts and levels of educations (e.g. Cahyani, de Courcy, &

Barnett, 2018; Gwee & Saravanan, 2018; Kim et al., 2017; Lo, 2015; Tavares, 2015). Wei (2011, p. 374) attests that codeswitching is “not simply a combination and mixture of two languages but creative strategies by the language user”. However, codeswitching is still absent as a legitimate practice in teacher education programmes (Ferguson, 2003; Gwee & Saravanan, 2018).

Similar to codeswitching, the newer field of translanguaging is related to the use of different languages in bilingual/multilingual contexts. Since first coined by Welsh researchers in the 1980s, this term has been increasingly employed to capture the complexity of linguistic practices for a variety of purposes, especially in education² (see reviews by Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012b; Otheguy, García, & Reid, 2015). The rising popularity of translanguaging in educational context can be seen as “emancipation from many negative ideas about bilinguals and bilingualism” (Lewis et al., 2012b). That is to say, the separation of languages in classrooms has gradually been replaced by the recognition of students’ linguistic repertoires as valuable resources for learning, with a number of studies investigating the concept of translanguaging and its pedagogical values (Blackledge & Creese, 2010; García, 2009; García & Wei, 2014; Lewis et al., 2012b). Generally defined, translanguaging is “the deployment of a speaker’s full linguistic repertoire without regard for watchful adherence to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named (and usually national and state) languages” (Otheguy et al., 2015, p. 283). Multilingual/bilingual speakers can “shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system” (Canagarajah, 2011, p. 401). In other words, a translanguaging approach recognises the dynamics and functional integration of languages in the mental processes of understanding, speaking, literacy, and learning (Lewis et al., 2012b, p. 652).

Translanguaging has been recognised as having special values in bilingual/multilingual pedagogy. This is because, as Hornberger (2005) states,

bi/multilinguals’ learning is maximized when [students] are allowed and enabled to draw from across all their existing language skills (in two+ languages), rather than being constrained and inhibited from doing so by monolingual instructional assumptions and practices (p.607)

Accordingly, instead of avoiding L1 use, teachers should be guided to involve the L1 as a rich resource for their teaching through translanguaging practices. García (2009) regards translanguaging as “a powerful mechanism to construct understandings, to include others, and to mediate understanding across language groups” (p.307-308). Therefore, she argues that teachers should be aware of its value instead of believing that “only monolingual ways of speaking are

² Li Wei (2017) argues that translanguaging offers a practical theory of language in the linguistic realities of the 21st century. This way of conceptualisation is not included herein as it is not especially relevant to the scope of this current study.

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“good” and valuable” (ibid., p.308). Baker (2011, p. 290) similarly underscores educational advantages of translanguaging as a pedagogical practice, suggesting that in a bilingual classroom

the teacher can allow a student to use both languages, but in a planned, developmental and strategic manner, to maximize a student’s linguistic and cognitive capability, and to reflect that language is sociocultural both in content and process

Likewise, García and Li Wei (2014) refer to “translanguaging as pedagogy”, where translanguaging is strategically used by teachers “as a scaffolding approach” to facilitate and support their bilingual/multilingual students in accessing content and constructing new knowledge (p.92).

Teachers can employ a wide range of strategies, corresponding to three categories: 1) attentiveness to meaning-making, 2) use and design of classroom resources for translanguaging, and 3) design of curriculum and classroom structures for translanguaging (ibid., p121-122). These strategies enable them to achieve seven pedagogical goals, namely:

- 1) to differentiate among students’ levels and adapt instruction,
- 2) to build background knowledge,
- 3) to deepen understandings and socio-political engagement,
- 4) for cross-linguistic metalinguistic awareness
- 5) for cross-linguistic flexibility,
- 6) to identify investment and positionality, and
- 7) to interrogate linguistic inequality and disrupt linguistic hierarchies and social structures (ibid., p.121)

While teacher-led translanguaging is conducted in a planned and structured manner, it can also be independently led by students in a more natural way for their learning (Lewis et al., 2012a). García (2009) posits that “children translanguange constantly to co-construct leaning, to include others, and to mediate understandings” (p.304). This statement refers specifically to children at kindergarten, yet its value is applicable to bilingual learners of different ages. Garcia & Li Wei (2014) dedicate one chapter in their book to discuss students’ translanguaging to learn, with empirical evidence to support that students translanguange in writing, or in combination of reading and writing. Additionally, they report that students who are still in the beginning process of acquiring the additional language tend to use translanguage to support and expand their existing knowledge, whereas more experienced students do it for their knowledge enhancement (p.86). Translanguaging, consequently, can empower students, and “move[s] the teacher and the learner toward a more “dynamic and participatory engagement” in knowledge construction” (Garcia & Wei, 2014, p. 112).

It can be seen from the brief discussion above that as a concept, translanguaging share overlapping features with codeswitching, but they are sufficiently different (Lewis et al., 2012a). Garcia (2009) attests that translanguaging “goes beyond what has been termed codeswitching [...] although it includes it, as well as other kinds of bilingual language use and bilingual contact” (p.45). This is also the stance taken for this current study, in which translanguaging is used as a general term referring to all the classroom practices where students and teachers make use of their linguistic repertoires for meaning making and knowledge construction. Those practices are not limited to classroom talks but also involve other classroom resources, such as multimodalities. They also go beyond the space of a physical classroom settings to reach virtual learning platforms. Meanwhile, codeswitching, conceptualised within translanguaging, is specifically employed in this study for the analysis of teacher talks, when the focus is mainly on the functions of each language compared to the other. Besides, I would like to clarify that the emphasis lies on the dynamics of lecturers’ and students’ language practices in meaning making and knowledge construction, other than on distinguishing codeswitching and translanguaging. As related to the Roles of English (2.3.2.3), the pedagogical use of any other languages alongside English underlines the language ecology of an EMI setting and should be recognised for its potentials in classroom practices.

2.6.2. Other pedagogical practices in EMI settings

Section 2.6.1 has briefly mentioned the importance of pedagogical practices in EMI contexts, underlining that switching to English as MoI is much more complicated than just a matter of language. In addition to translanguaging pedagogies in the previous section, this part focuses on other potential EMI teaching techniques and strategies. It aims to address the concern that many EMI classes are neither interactive nor effectively organised, which is mainly caused by lecturers’ and students’ insufficient English ability (Kim, 2017; Shohamy, 2013; Tsou, 2017). This section supports the argument that much academic content could be delivered more successfully if appropriate concern is given to pedagogical aspects, instead of just revolving around English proficiency (Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Bradford, 2018; Dafouz, 2018).

First, instead of following traditional lectures, a student-centred approach has been recommended for EMI practices. For example, Pulcini and Campagna (2015) found out that lectures plus group work were the most popular type of teaching in their Italian university. Wilkinson (2013) described the case of Maastricht University where student-centred learning was applied in the form of problem-based learning, requiring students to be in charge of their own learning while they tried to explore the knowledge to solve the problems given. Similarly, in

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Dafouz and Camacho-Miñano's (2016) study of Spanish context, their accounting students were assessed for their active participation in classroom discussions (10%) and seminars (20%). In the latter, a low teacher-student ratio was ensured, and the seminars were designed as problem-based learning sessions with case studies, real company situations, and software and videos from working professionals. In an Italian university, Guarda and Helm (2017) found out that their lecturer participants structured their courses "in a less monologic way" and assign students a more active role during their lessons (p.904). Students were assigned to read and discuss in groups or conduct collaborative research in class, through which they could take more responsibility for constructing and sharing knowledge, and hence empowering themselves with their active engagement. Likewise, student-centred approach has recently become more common in EMI classes in Japanese universities as a result of both lecturers' and international students' initiatives (Bradford & Brown, 2018). As one lecturer shared, he centred his lessons around international-student-led, small-group discussions to make up for his own English deficiency, while at the same time, this class organisation fitted his international students' push for transparent and interactive classrooms. All of these changes from only lectures to the adding of group works are also what Ball & Lindsay (2013) mention among the ways of stimulating students' participation. They can also feel less threatened (Airey & Linder, 2006), while working with friends enables them to make up for their language insufficiency (Lo & Macaro, 2015). Moreover, that student-centred approach does not limit to tertiary level but has been found in other educational levels – where English is used as the MoI. Tavares (2015), for instance, offers a case study of a Maths class taught in English at a Hong Kong secondary school. The teacher employed a strategy of "Think-Pair-Share", where students engaged in peer interaction to collaboratively work out a solution or come up with a response. This also constructed a supportive classroom atmosphere, where students felt safe and empowered.

Lecturer-student interaction through questions and answers is also a topic of research in EMI practices. In general language classes, questions have been known for their crucial roles in classroom discourse (Tsui, Marton, Mok, & Dorothy, 2004; Walsh, 2011). In EMI contexts, Cots (2013, p. 120) suggests that using questions can help reduce the burden on lecturers to deliver long, monologic presentation in English, especially when they are not confident in their proficiency. Questions can be used to introduce a new topic/ activity, to elicit students' previous knowledge, to prepare them for the new knowledge, or to ensure that students' construction of new knowledge is accurate (*ibid.*)³. Yet students' insufficient language level may potentially cause

³ Also see Chapter 5 in Dalton-Puffer's (2007) study for a detailed discussion of question typologies in CLIL classes.

them to be reluctant in responding in English other than in their mother tongue (Airey & Linder, 2006; Dalton-Puffer, 2007). Consequently, it is essential that lecturers should learn to use questions appropriately so that they can encourage students to speak in class and engage in deeper learning (Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Tsou, 2017). To illustrate, Lo & Macaro (2015) observed different questioning techniques in eliciting responses when students could not give appropriate answers to the original questions. The data show that with strategies like paraphrasing, expanding questions to provide more information or clues, or making questions more specific, teachers can assist students in arriving at conceptual understanding in English. Although this study was conducted at CLIL secondary schools, it still offers valuable insights into EMI practices at university level. In another study in Taiwan, Sykes and Wu (2017) found that their lecturer had two sets of questions in his class: some were prepared beforehand to set the context for the class discussion and help students to focus on key concepts, while the others were spontaneously developed based on students' contribution to lead students through their discussion. Nonetheless, to have interactive lessons, not only lectures but also students should be equipped with questioning skills. This was implied from Tsou's (2017) study, in which students from four EMI mechanical engineering courses in Taiwan blamed their lack of skills in asking and answering questions for their classroom reticence, while most confidently believed that their general English skill was good enough. Besides, Walsh (2011) underlines other points for language teachers to consider when using questions in classroom interaction. One of them is waiting time, which allows students to think, formulate and give a response. Also, how lecturers shape students' contributions by scaffolding, seeking clarification, paraphrasing, reiterating, or repairing should be noted as well. While these points have received much research attention in foreign language teaching and learning, it is still under-researched in EMI settings.

Regarding lecture comprehension, different instructional scaffolding techniques have been recommended in existing EMI literature. Through his study of Norwegian and German students' difficulties in EMI learning, Hellekjær (2010) suggests that lectures should be "clearly and predictably structured" with the use of signposting devices (p. 24). Likewise, by looking at metadiscursive devices in university lectures in Spanish and English, Dafouz and Perucha (2010) underline their values in supporting lecture comprehension, especially in an L2 setting. Their comprehensive proposal of the types of metadiscourse categories identified for each phase of a lecture (*ibid.*, p.220) is a useful reference for EMI lecturers to structure their own lessons. Similarly, signposting devices make up a significant part in Chen's (2017, p. 68-69) general framework for EMI instructional language use in Taiwanese EMI classrooms. The roles of discourse markers are also what lecturers perceive to be key foci in their EMI professional development training course (Ball & Lindsay, 2013). Additionally, lecturers can scaffold their

students' learning in English by an extensive use of multimedia and semiotic resources as teaching aids. The use of Powerpoint slides has been popularly observed or recommended as the main supporting tool alongside lectures in many EMI studies (Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Chang, 2017; Hellekjær, 2010; Hu & Lei, 2014; Kling, 2015; Margić & Vodopija-Krstanovic, 2017; Tong & Tang, 2017). Meanwhile, Pulcini and Campagna's (2015) lecturers include a wide range of modes in their teaching: PowerPoint slides, lecture notes, textbooks (in both English and Italian) and articles, videos, chalk and blackboard. Similarly, the lecturers in Guarda and Helm's (2017) study use video clips and other communication technologies to stimuli students' learning and help transmit their message to students in a comprehensible way. In most cases, the adoption of these aids, functioned as extensive scaffolding tools for students' knowledge construction in English, are positively evaluated by students (Hellekjær, 2010; Yeh, 2014).

To sum up, the synthesis of previous empirical studies in this section 2.6 Practices and Processes highlights the necessity to change the mindset of lecturers - and anyone involved in EMI implementation - when thinking about the causes of classroom problems. Instead of merely perceiving them as language-proficiency-related issues, they should also reconsider their own pedagogical practices. However, as Dafouz (2017) comments, this dimension is probably less developed than other ROADMAPPING components, and there is still a considerable gap in studies of what actually happens inside EMI classrooms (Cots, 2013). Attempts have been made, looking at classroom practices from multiple perspectives and contexts (e.g. Hüttner & Smit, 2018; Tsou & Kao, 2017; Zhao & Dixon, 2017), but more research is still needed.

2.7. Concluding remark

This chapter has sketched a broad picture of EMI by using ROADMAPPING as a framework. The discussion here underlines the following key points related to this study:

- English plays a crucial role in HE internationalisation, with more and more EMI programmes being implemented. However, in a specific EMI entity, the roles of English should be explored in relation to those of other co-existing language(s).
- While adopting English as the MoI, HEIs develop their language policies with various orientations towards monolingualism or multilingualism. These policies should be examined from different perspectives and levels, in terms of management, practices and perceptions of people involved.

- Lecturers and students are active social players in EMI implementations. Their perceptions and practices at classroom level influence the success or failure of an EMI programme, and therefore they should be located at the centre of this policy.
- EMI is not just about language proficiency. Lecturers should be aware of their pedagogy to support students' learning in English.

Following on this discussion, the next chapter will zoom in the context of EMI in Vietnamese HE to provide the background for this study.

3 ROADMAPPING English-Medium Instruction in Vietnamese Higher Education

3.1. Introduction

From the previous description of ROADMAPPING framework, this chapter is going to describe the current state of EMI in Vietnamese HE based on the four components: Roles of English, (language) Management, Agents, and Practices and Processes. This part is relatively shorter than other chapters due to the lack of EMI studies in Vietnam, and hence underlining the necessity for more research in the country. Additionally, the discussion of Agents and Practices and Processes are combined together, since there is a scarcity of literature in the latter dimension.

3.2. The roles of English: English as the most popular foreign language in the education

This study is located in the context of Vietnam, a multilingual country of almost 96 million people and 54 ethnic groups, of which the largest group is the Kinh – accounting for 87% of the national population (CEMA, 2019). While there are eight language systems used by ethnic minority communities, Vietnamese (Quốc Ngữ) is the official language and the dominant medium of communication in the country (Tran & Nguyen, 2018). Nonetheless, the ethnic minority languages are preserved and supported alongside Vietnamese through various governmental policies (*ibid.*).

Vietnam has a complex history with the rise and fall of different foreign languages. Denham (1992, p. 61) states that “Vietnam’s linguistic history reflects its political history”. First, Chinese with its Han script was used as the official language during Chinese domination for centuries (Pham, 1991). Then, in the 13th century, Chữ Nôm (a native adaptation of the Chinese characters) was developed as a symbol of national identity (Do, 2006). In the 17th century, this was replaced by Quốc Ngữ (Pham, 1991), which was improvised based on Roman characters by European missionaries and has been developed into the current Vietnamese language. After France began their colonialism, Vietnam witnessed the co-existence of French, Franco-Vietnamese, and Confucianist feudalist schools, while French was stated as the official language.

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In 1945, Vietnam won its independence and Vietnamese was recognised as the national and official language. However, during the Vietnam war against the US, the country was divided into the North and the South, with the former endorsing Russian and Chinese and the latter orienting towards English and French as the main foreign languages in the educational system. In 1975, the war ended with national reunification and during the following decade, the country strongly promoted its relationship with socialist countries, marking the dominance of Russian as the main foreign language while English was generally downplayed (Do, 2006; Le, 2007).

Things changed in the late 1980s when the government launched the 1986 “Đổi Mới” (Reform), which aimed at economic and political reforms. Then, English regained its status and the country began to connect with the broader world and establish relationships with different political systems (Dang, Nguyen, & Le, 2013; Ngo, 2012; World Bank, 2017). The national policy of market-oriented economy, instead of state socialism (London, 2006), led to a sharp rise in foreign investment (Vu & Burns, 2014) and enabled English to gain popularity over other foreign languages. This dominant status was markedly realised through top-down policies as well as bottom-up initiatives (Ngo, 2012). In other words, on those early days, Vietnamese people were aware of the necessity of English, not only for their country's development and integration, but also for their own benefits. The demand for English surged in the early 1990s, with 85% of foreign language learners in Vietnam choosing English as their subject at school (MOET, 1993, cited in Do, 2006). In 1994, the Prime Minister signed an order which required all government officers to study and know a foreign language, favourably English. This policy officially acknowledged the role of English in the country, and was regarded as one of the strongest governmental decisions with respect to foreign language policy and planning in Vietnam (Do, 2006).

English continued to spread in Vietnam at a striking pace thanks to the country becoming the official member of the Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN) in 1995 and then the World Trade Organisation (WTO) in 2006. These landmarks have increased the flow of foreign investment (Ton & Pham, 2010) and in such an integration process, Vietnamese people perceive English as “an unquestionable asset” (Le, 2007, p. 172). “English language fever” (*ibid.*), or to put it simply, the explosive growth of English in Vietnam, has received massive support from the governmental authorities to normal people. For example, English began to be taught as an elective subject from Grade 3 in some sufficiently-resourced provinces, with two 40-minute periods per week (Nguyen, 2011). The programme received such a strong advocacy from parents and schools that in 2010-2011, a pilot primary English programme was launched with English now becoming a compulsory subject (*ibid.*), taught in four 40-minute periods weekly. In addition, it is

required that high school students need to take English as a must in their graduation examination (Hoang, 2014). Then, in tertiary education framework, English-major students are supposed to have at least 1,200 hours of English, while non-major students have to deal with 200 hours of the subject in four years (Ton & Pham, 2010). On the other hand, it is observed that private and public English language centered “have mushroomed” all over the country (Nguyen & Nguyen, 2007, p. 163), catering for all purposes of English learning. Do (2006) reported that only in Ho Chi Minh City, the largest city in Vietnam, there were around 300 language centers with the teacher population of ten thousand and over 900,000 learners in 2006.

The figure above must have certainly rocketed since then thanks to recent foreign language policies enforced by the very top level of administration (Nguyen, 2010). The most influential and large-scale initiative is the Prime Ministerial Decision number 1400/QĐ-TTg (30 September 2008), which launched a national scheme on foreign language teaching and learning from 2008 to 2020. This is often known as “National Foreign Languages 2020 Project” (NFL2020) under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) (Vietnamese Government, 2008a). Generally described, this scheme aims to enhance foreign language proficiency, particularly English, among Vietnamese people. The goal of using English as a MoI in Vietnamese education is stated, either explicitly or implicitly under the term of “bilingual programs” or “foreign language”, in the aforementioned Decision 1400/ QĐ-TTg as follows:

“.. encourage education institutions to become more proactive in **constructing and implementing bilingual programs** which aim to enhance their own training capacity..”
(p.2)

“..**construct and implement other teaching and learning programs in English** for Mathematics and other subjects that are suitable for high schools.” (p.3)

“..**construct and implement teaching program in foreign language** for some subjects at basic and major levels within college and university systems; and also select some key sectors at senior college level to **apply teaching program in foreign language.**”
(p.3)

(Vietnamese Government, 2008a)

While the NFL2020 policy generally addresses different education levels, the Higher Education Reform Agenda (HERA), issued in 2005, is specifically directed at HEIs in constructing a more capable educational system beyond the national border. Both of these government documents highlight the key roles of English in the development of Vietnamese HE in the present world. For universities, the use of English is seen as a marketing strategy to attract not only

international but also domestic students (Do, 2018). English is also a language to benchmark their curricular against international standard (Duong & Chua, 2016) or a tool to establish collaboration with foreign partners and enhance student and teacher mobility (Nguyen, 2009; Nguyen et al., 2017). For lecturers, English as a language of teaching may be compared as a two-bladed knife. For those who are highly proficient, teaching in EMI offers higher payment than in the counterpart VMI programmes (Duong & Chua, 2016). On the contrary, those with insufficient English proficiency may suffer from anxiety and the lack of confidence in their teaching practices (Dang et al., 2013). Additionally, the spread of English in tertiary education may be a threat to the value of Vietnamese. This is strongly linked to the EMI policy and therefore will be discussed in detail in (language) Management (see 3.3).

To sum up, English enjoys a popular status in HE as well as in the general education of Vietnam. Other foreign languages, some of which are increasingly popular such as Korean or Japanese, are mainly taught and learned as language subjects other than being used as a MoI. Therefore, the roles of English in EMI programmes in Vietnam is mainly investigated in relation to Vietnamese, as most EMI programmes cater for domestic students.

3.3. (language) Management: EMI policy in Vietnamese HE

Internationalisation has been located as a strategic approach to support the development and reform of Vietnamese HE system (Tran & Nguyen, 2018). The key agenda of internationalisation is the promotion of EMI, as a modality to internationalise the curriculum, enhance international collaboration, strengthen staff and student mobility, and improve institutional ranking and reputation (ibid., p. 94). Against this backdrop, EMI has received governmental support through some key top-down policies.

The history of EMI in Vietnamese HE can be traced back to as early as the 1990s, with the introduction of joint degree training programmes between Vietnamese and their foreign partner HEIs. Although Nguyen et al. (2017) state that the first EMI programme, offering an M.A. degree in Business Administration, was started in 1992 by Hanoi National Economics University and some universities in France (ibid.), the first one officially archived by MOET was in 1998 (VIED, 2017). Since then, EMI was introduced to undergraduate education, and it has strikingly expanded to various disciplines in a number of universities. For example, there were 27 foreign EMI programmes in 15 Vietnamese HEIs in 2001 (Thanh Nien, 2001). Notwithstanding, by the

beginning of 2017, this figure has remarkably increased to 299 foreign programmes in 84 HEIs at BA, MA and PhD levels (VIED, 2017). Although not all these programmes are currently in active status, such a high number can still prove how popular EMI is in Vietnamese HE.

EMI is increasingly implemented in Vietnam thanks to the support of the 2005 HERA which generally aims to construct a higher education system that is highly competitive by international standards by 2020. On the one hand, under the influence of globalisation, developing countries like Vietnam are predicted to “experience the bulk of higher education expansion” (Altbach, 2004, p. 3), and therefore, HERA can be seen as a national initiative to respond to such a global influence. On the other hand, since its enactment, HERA has functioned as an open door for domestic universities to seek and establish cooperation with partners overseas. As Nguyen et al. (2017) report, Vietnamese universities have developed their collaboration with HEIs in either English-speaking countries, such as Australia, the UK and the US, or European countries where English is popularly and favourably used as an established lingua franca. However, according to the most recent report of Vietnam International Education Development, the cooperation network has spread to other Southeast Asian countries, such as Thailand or Singapore (VIED, 2017). In such collaboration, EMI programmes are introduced as a strategy for development and internationalisation of Vietnamese HE. In other words, the implementation of EMI programmes in Vietnam can be linked to a strategy of “internationalisation at home” (Crowther et al., 2000; Foskett, 2010). That is, instead of students going out to the international world, they can still stay at their home country but study with an internationalised curriculum and an internationalised teaching and learning style among their monolingual groups of friends (Dippold, 2015; Nilsson, 2000).

It can be said that HERA and NFL2020 are two key governmental policies that have encouragingly promoted the expansion of EMI among HEIs. Currently, EMI programmes in Vietnam can be broadly classified into two main groups: foreign and domestic programmes as described in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1. The classification of EMI programmes in Vietnamese HE (Nguyen et al., 2017, p.40)

Types of EMI programs	Program nature	Degree conferred	Program nomenclatures in Vietnamese HE
Foreign programs	Offshore	Foreign degree	Joint programs
	Franchising	Local degree	Advanced programs
Domestic programs	Locally-developed with reference to foreign programs	Local degree	High quality programs

This classification, to the best of my knowledge, has been so far the most comprehensive and inclusive in Vietnamese context. It offers a general understanding of the natural characteristics of EMI programmes currently delivered in Vietnamese HEIs. Foreign programmes (*Chương trình đào tạo nước ngoài* – in Vietnamese) is composed of Joint Programmes and Advanced Programmes (Nguyen et al., 2017). They are developed based on the intellectual cooperation between Vietnamese universities and foreign partners to offer academic resources and activities onshore, which range from teaching and learning materials, curricula, assessments to degree programmes. However, while the Joint Programmes (*Chương trình liên kết* – in Vietnamese) are naturally offshoring, the Advanced Programmes (*Chương trình tiên tiến* – in Vietnamese) are franchising. That is to say, the former is founded on the partnerships between local and overseas tertiary institutions. The whole degree programme is designed, developed and accredited by overseas universities, but instead of students travelling abroad to do the programme, they can stay on Vietnamese campuses during the whole course (*ibid.*). The most important point is that, they are awarded with overseas qualifications upon graduation.

Advanced Programmes, on the other hand, refer to those programmes that are locally constructed and modified depending on the original programmes in overseas institutions. They are supported by MOET project for capacity building in HEIs, aiming that by 2020 a Vietnamese university will be ranked among the top 200 world universities (Marginson, Kaur, & Sawir, 2011). Remarkably, the modified version must include compulsory subjects regulated by MOET, such as Marxism or The history of Vietnamese Communist Party – which are taught in Vietnamese (Vietnamese Government, 2008b). Upon completion, students are awarded qualifications, either by local universities, or by both local and overseas institutions (*ibid.*). Notwithstanding, the exact number of Advanced Programmes currently offered in Vietnamese HEIs is not officially recorded. Although Nguyen et al. (2017) claim that there are about 27 Advanced Programmes delivered, this figure may not be completely updated, because just a quick search through the webpages of some key national and regional universities has resulted in a higher figure than that.

Contrary to foreign programmes, domestic programmes are completely developed, administered, and delivered by Vietnamese universities (Nguyen et al., 2017). These programmes, however, are only officially recognised by MOET recently, and often termed as High Quality Programmes (*Chương trình Đào tạo Chất lượng cao* – in Vietnamese) (MOET, 2014). Although the programmes are built with reference to correlative overseas programmes, they totally comply with the educational objectives and training structures of MOET's university curriculum framework. Upon graduation, their students are expected to achieve higher professional and

linguistic competence compared to students of Vietnamese-medium instruction programmes. In addition, this type of EMI programmes brings HEIs prestige and also, more tuition fees from students. Especially, unlike foreign programmes which need the license issued by MOET, domestic programmes allow universities to enjoy a certain degree of their institutional autonomy (Nguyen et al., 2017; MOET, 2014). It is estimated that about 142 High Quality Programmes were implemented in 39 Vietnamese universities from 2005 to 2016 (Dan Tri, 2016).

In conclusion, the implementation of EMI programmes in Vietnam HE has received considerable support from the government as well as the universities themselves. The numbers of both foreign and domestic EMI programmes have increased strikingly in the country during the last two decades, and the figure reported may not be updated enough to reflect the reality. This is because universities can exert their institutional autonomy in offering domestic EMI programmes, and they may not report their pilot programmes until the official introduction. Besides, while these programmes mentioned above are mainly products of top-down policy developed either by the government or institution administrators, there are also grassroots initiatives where the lecturers themselves decide to use English in their content classes. Although it is impossible to keep record of these bottom-up programmes, acknowledging their existence is necessary for a comprehensive picture of EMI in Vietnamese HEIs.

However, there are certain issues related to EMI planning and policy in Vietnamese context. Similar to other Asian countries, while the Vietnamese government acknowledges the necessity to internationalise HEIs through EMI, their correlative policies do not go “hand in hand” (Walkinshaw et al., 2017, p.4) with such a vision. The most typical example is the lack of official governmental documents to regulate the High Quality Programmes. Although the programme was started long ago, it was in 2011 that MOET issued an overall guideline for tuition fees. The most recent document (MOET, 2014), in spite of being more comprehensive and inclusive, still contains so many guidelines that are “too general to lead to informed practices” (Nguyen et al., 2017, p. 42). Undeniably, the High Quality Programmes are developed thanks to the support of HERA, which grants more institutional autonomy to HEIs, and therefore, each tertiary institution can make their own decision on their financial strategy. Yet the shortage of a top-down regulation on an important element like tuition fee may lead to educational and social issues.

Certainly, for a macro-level policy to be successfully implemented at a micro level, administrators and policymakers should take a number of factors into consideration. As mentioned in the language-in-education policy framework proposed by Kaplan and Baldauf (1997), one of these factors is the community policy, or to put it simply, the possible impacts of such a policy on the society. Le (2012) argues that EMI in Vietnamese HEIs may cause social

inequality because it appears to serve a minor group of rich students. These young people are financially supported to attend private English classes from an early age, and are able to meet the entry requirement to EMI programmes. More importantly, they are capable of paying high tuition fees of such degrees. Conversely, a high number of Vietnamese students come from rural areas, which means that they do not have chances either to go to expensive extra English classes, or to pay for EMI degrees. Le (ibid.) states that by enrolling in Vietnamese-medium instruction (henceforth VMI) programmes, these students are automatically disadvantaged compared to their EMI peers. That is to say, EMI programmes are believed to equip their learners with updated knowledge, English proficiency and social skills, which enable their graduates with employment prospects, especially the opportunity for career development in inter- and transnational corporations. Undeniably, people may dispute that, with such a huge amount of money invested in EMI programmes, it is beyond doubt that EMI students should receive better educational quality. Nonetheless, the danger of class discrimination arising from such a language-in-education policy should be addressed; otherwise, it may entail socioeconomic and political consequences (ibid.). This concern is similar to that raised in other countries (Neke, 2005; Wilkinson, 2013). Besides, domestic EMI programmes are referred as High Quality Programmes, and foreign EMI programmes are termed Advanced Programmes and Joint Programmes. Meanwhile, VMI programmes are named as Mass Education Programmes (MOET, 2014). This way of nomenclature, undeniably, raises the issue of social discrimination among young people, and VMI students are prone to be stigmatised and feel inferior to their EMI peers (Nguyen et al., 2017). Yet noticeably, most of the data for these above arguments mainly come from reviews and mass media sources other than empirical studies, which, once again, illustrates the significant gap for researchers to address.

3.4. Agents and Practices and Processes: the participation of Vietnamese lecturers and students in EMI practices

Like many other EMI contexts, the question of lecturers' capability is considered as a big obstacle in the employment of EMI in Vietnam. In Vu and Burns' (2014) report, their lecturer participants experienced difficulty in using English to explain things and answer questions, and some even found it challenging when their pronunciations and accents could not meet students' expectation of nativelike competence. The finding is in line with Le's (2012) concern about Vietnamese academics' ability to deliver lectures in English. By the word "ability", he refers to the

level of proficiency, the ability to convey the content comprehensively and intelligibly, the way of expressing ideas, and the interactions with students (p. 112). Similar problems have been recently reported in the comprehensive study of Nguyen et al. (2017), in which the researchers investigated four foreign and four domestic EMI programmes in a prestigious university. In spite of working in this leading HEI, the staff still shared their apprehension about language use and their teaching methodologies in EMI class. This is because, while the university required their EMI lecturers to at least obtain their post-graduate qualifications from English-speaking countries, this criterion of staff selection did not guarantee the teaching quality (Shohamy, 2013; Wilkinson, 2013). Therefore, these EMI lecturers often found themselves trapped in the middle of content and language knowledge, as they wanted to focus on the delivery of disciplinary knowledge, while the expectation might also include improving students' ELP. Moreover, EMI teaching methodologies posed a considerable challenge for them, as they could not use similar techniques as in VMI classes. How to define a term, how to clarify meaning, or how to enhance students' understanding of the lesson, all those pedagogical issues created remarkable amount of anxiety for teachers (*ibid.*). More recently, Tran & Nguyen (2018) raise the same issue through their interview data with 26 lecturers from an established EMI university in Vietnam. However, while EMI lecturers are concerned about their teaching practices, there is a lack of professional development activities or trainings. These problems are generally faced by EMI lecturers around the world (see 2.5.1), or as Williams (2015, p. 7) claims, "globally the majority of instructors feel pressured in having to teach EMI".

On the other hand, there have been numerous complaints about students' inadequate ELP and their inability to follow EMI lessons. Low entry requirements are among the reasons for this insufficiency. Nguyen, Hamid, & Moni (2016), for example, mention the case of a Vietnamese HEI whose scanning test for EMI programmes is actually a modified version of the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC). Those who score 500 out of 950 can gain their entry to the programme. However, given the fact that TOEIC is designed for business English other than academic skills, there is no warranty that students achieving high score in this test can successfully pursue an EMI degree. More importantly, the score of 500 is lower than the B1/CEFR level. While the B1 level means an ability to use English for day-to-day but academic purposes, the score of 500 is equal to the lack of students' preparedness in attending EMI courses. In another case, Tran & Nguyen (2018) point out that many Vietnamese universities do not often adhere to the official language requirement, which is often level B2/CEFR for students. Instead, they may lower this to allow for more enrolment. Likewise, Truong (2017) investigated an EMI physics programme where the administrators abolished the screening test in the hope of attracting more students. All of these examples indicate an alarming signal that a number of Vietnamese

universities are now driven by economic motivations – since high enrolment means more income than by educational quality. Additionally, it can be easily predicted from such a low English entry requirement that students in many EMI programmes have to struggle with lectures, reading materials, assignments or in-class discussions (Nguyen et al., 2017). Therefore, compared to their friends in a parallel VMI programmes, they need to deal with more workload, such as looking up new words, or reading and translating necessary key points before and after class. Certainly, there are always excellent students with fully operational command of English. Yet this creates another challenge because a great diversity of students' linguistic backgrounds indicates that the choice of a single "threshold to teach" is out of question for lecturers (Vu & Burns, 2014, p. 16). What have been summarised here correspond with the previous discussion of students' agency in section 2.5.2, underlining that students' ELP is surely among the greatest challenges of EMI implementation in Vietnam. This issue needs to be seriously addressed, particularly when more and more universities are trying to exercise their autonomy in offering EMI degrees (Nguyen et al., 2016). In so doing, they sometimes create "a collusion of mediocrity based on immediacy, hedonism, and financial return" (Gibbs, 2010, p.251 cited in Jenkins, 2014, p.5).

3.5. Concluding remark

This chapter suggests that multiple factors should be carefully considered if Vietnamese HEIs do not want to face serious failures of EMI introduction, which causes "detrimental effects on the stability and development of the country politically, socio-linguistically and economically" (Le, 2012, p.97). The discussion here highlights the following key points that serve as the background for this current study:

- English is perceived to be of paramount importance in the development of Vietnam and its people. The spread of English, therefore, has been supported by top-down policies and bottom-up initiatives. The use of English as the MoI is suggested as one key strategy for HE reform in Vietnam.
- EMI programmes in Vietnam can be classified into foreign and domestic programmes. Yet in addition to these officially recorded programmes, EMI can be unofficially implemented by lecturers. This PhD thesis focuses on such an EMI grassroot initiative.
- While the number of EMI programmes is increasing in Vietnam, it is still an under-researched area. Most of the existing literature deal with challenges perceived by

lecturers and students, but hardly any research has looked at classroom practices.

The picture of EMI in Vietnamese HE, therefore, is still an incomplete puzzle.

In short, more research is needed to provide references for HEI administrators and policymakers before they decide to take any EMI initiatives. My study hence addresses this gap by trying to explore a particular EMI programme in Vietnam through the thorough analysis of different data sources. A qualitative approach, therefore, is adopted for this research and will be explained in the next chapter.

4 Research Methodology

4.1. Introduction

This chapter begins with a brief presentation of the research orientation, approach and design. Then, I describe different data collection and analysis instruments. The final part deals with the trustworthiness of this research, my role as the sole researcher, and ethical considerations. It is worth noting that the description of the DoS and its lecturers and students is not located in this Methodology chapter but in chapter 5, which is dedicated to 'a thick description' of the study context and its participants.

4.2. Methodological considerations: research paradigm, approach and design

4.2.1. Research paradigm and approach

The selection of a research approach is based on a research paradigm, which is "a comprehensive belief system, worldview, or framework that guides research and practice in a field" (Willis, 2007, p. 8). Creswell (2014) emphasizes that when conducting a study, it is significant that researchers think through the worldview assumptions of the study because they influence the research practice. In the area of education and applied linguistics research, there are several competing paradigms, such as positivism or constructivism, and generally they shape three main approaches: quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-method. This study employs a qualitative approach, oriented by the research paradigm of constructivism⁴.

According to Guba and Lincoln (1994, p. 109), constructivism is relativist, transactional, and subjective. Constructivists hold the assumption that realities exist

in the form of multiple, intangible mental construction, socially and experientially based, local and specific in nature [...], and dependent for their form and content on the individual persons or groups holding the construction (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 110-111).

⁴ Constructivism and interpretivism are related concepts and often combined with each other (Creswell, 2014, p.8). In this project, I adopt the term of constructivism.

In other words, there is no existence of a single objective truth apart from our perceptions. Instead, there are multiple socially constructed realities, developed subjectively by individuals to reflect their understanding of the world they live in. Therefore, researchers should “look for the complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas” (Creswell, 2014, p.8). Additionally, as these subjective meanings are “negotiated socially and historically” through interaction among individuals (*ibid.*), constructivist researchers take these interaction processes into consideration. Researchers are also “interactively linked” to their objects of investigation (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 111) by, for example, visiting the context of study to understand the historical and cultural settings of the participants, or asking open-ended questions to participants to gather information personally. Moreover, their interpretation of the collected data is shaped by their own experiences and backgrounds, and therefore their effect on the research itself must be acknowledged (Creswell, 2014; Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Applied to my own study, the constructivist worldview has shaped my choice of a qualitative approach in different ways. First, doing my research qualitatively offers me the chance to study my participants in their natural settings of EMI classrooms, where I can “capture a sufficient level of detail [...] without any attempts to manipulate the situation under study” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 38). Additionally, as EMI is a relatively new academic ‘phenomenon’ in Vietnamese HE and little is known in this context, the exploratory nature of qualitative research is an effective way to offer an in-depth study of an EMI entity (Creswell, 2014). The multi-layered and complex details offered by a wide range of data enable me to build rich understandings of the life experiences of lecturers and students, exploring their perspectives and the meanings that underpin their actions. I am also able to engage with their classroom cultures, develop and establish a rapport with the participants and thus explore the EMI phenomenon from the perspectives of the ‘insiders’ (Dörnyei, 2007). Furthermore, as my fieldwork is conducted within an educational institution, there are always rooms for unexpected events and interruptions to deal with, and a qualitative approach allows me the necessary flexibility to accommodate those changes (*ibid.*). Based on this qualitative approach to address the complexity of phenomenon under study, I decided to design this project as an ethnographic case study, as defined next.

4.2.2. Research design: an ethnographic case study

This study employs a case study design, with an ethnographically-informed data collection process. Case study research has been defined and employed in various disciplines, but most

definitions share the key recurring principles, including “boundedness or singularity, in-depth study, multiple perspectives or triangulation, particularity, contextualization, and interpretation” (Duff, 2008, p. 23). For example, Creswell (1998, p. 61) defines case study as

an exploration of a “bounded system” or a case (or multiple cases) over time through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information rich in context.

Meanwhile, for Merriam (1998), a qualitative case study is

an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single entity, phenomenon, or social unit. Case studies are particularistic, descriptive, and heuristic and rely heavily on inductive reasoning in handling multiple data sources (p.16)

Yin (2009) underscores that in case study research, “the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context” (p. 2). This is shared by Gall, Gall, and Borg (2003, p. 436) who define case study research as “the in-depth study of instances of a phenomenon in its natural context and from the perspective of the participants involved in the phenomenon”. It is the last definition that is adopted in this research, where instances of EMI implementation are investigated in-depth in the DoS from the standpoints of lecturers and students who are involved in the EMI programme. Additionally, as Duff (2008) explains, some sub-cases may exist within one large case, and this happens in the present study that include three levels of cases: the DoS (the whole department which implements EMI policy as the largest case) involved four modules observed (the second, lower level) with students and lecturers of those four modules (the third level).

There are several reasons for the selection of case study research in this study. First, Yin (2009) states that case study design enables investigators to answer a “how” and “why” question while the studied events are not under their control. As can be seen in 1.3, the two RQs in the current project are mainly about the ways in which Vietnamese lecturers and students implement and negotiate the EMI policy and what actually happens inside an EMI classroom. All of these classroom practices occur naturally without any intervention from me. The case study, therefore, is “an excellent method for obtaining a thick description” of how complex the policy implementation and negotiation takes places inside classrooms (Dörnyei, 2007, p.155). By concentrating on the DoS with a small number of individual lecturers and students involved, the case study design allows me to “conduct a very thorough analysis” of the case, with the triangulation of perspectives from lecturers and students and their behaviours in classroom observations (Duff, 2008, p. 43). Furthermore, this research aspires to investigate a particular

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programme in a specific context, in this case Vietnamese HE, rather than fulfil the ambition to generalise the phenomenon across different contexts. However, as Gall et al. (2003) argue, the thorough exploration of the EMI policy in the DoS with a thick description of its participants and settings allows readers to “determine the generalizability of findings to their particular situation or to other situations” (p.466). Or, in the words of Lincoln and Guba (1985), the focus on a specific case offers valuable implications for other research in terms of transferability, which will be discussed later in section 4.6.

Furthermore, in order to engage deeply with the RQs and gain a thick description of the DoS, this case study is oriented by an ethnographic design. Green and Bloome (2004, p.183) propose that there are three approaches to ethnography in educational research, namely: 1) *doing ethnography*, 2) *adopting an ethnographic perspective*, and 3) *using ethnographic tools*. What they mean by *doing ethnography* is “the framing, conceptualizing, conducting, interpreting, writing, and reporting associated with a broad, in-depth, and long-term study” of the subjects (ibid.). All of these activities need to meet the criteria for doing ethnography set specifically for each discipline. Compared to the first approach, a research *adopting an ethnographic perspective* aims to study specific aspects in daily life and cultural practices of a social group, and hence is conducted with a more focused approach. Theories of culture and inquiry practices derived from anthropology or sociology are employed to guide these kinds of research (ibid.). Finally, researches *using ethnographic tools* are those with “the use of methods and techniques usually associated with fieldwork. These methods may or may not be guided by cultural theories or questions about the social life of group members” (ibid., p.183)

Among the three above-mentioned approaches (Green & Bloome, 2004, p.183), this study employs the second approach by *adopting an ethnographic perspective* because it matches the research aims of this current project. This approach would allow me to “explore the observable and learned patterns of behaviour, customs, and ways of life of a culture-sharing group” (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006, p. 31), with a focus on the “ways of doing” and “ways of thinking” of the DoS members when the EMI policy was implemented in the department. Spending a whole semester with my lecturer and student participants – I was able to build a rapport with the community and take part in a variety of activities in the DoS, ranging from academic lessons to extracurricular activities. Furthermore, by being immersed in their day-to-day lives in the DoS, I was able to observe the naturally occurring EMI lessons and understand the behaviour in context - with a minimum amount of interference caused by my presence. My research practice was structured by a combination of data collection tools, including participant observations, interviews, focus

groups, research diary, site documents, and records of online communication. Accordingly, I was able to describe the complex reality of the DoS holistically from a nexus of perspectives and sources (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006).

To make it clearer, the next section will discuss in detail how data was collected during fieldwork.

4.3. Data collection instruments

As discussed in 4.2, this study aims to provide a rich and intensive description of the specific community of the DoS via the design of an ethnographic case study research. Accordingly, the EMI phenomenon of the DoS is not only studied thoroughly in its natural contexts, but also from the perspectives of those involved (Gall et al., 2003). In so doing, the data was collected through multiple collection techniques including one-to-one interviews with lecturers, focus groups with students, and classroom observations. Additionally, site documents, research diary, and records of online communication were gathered in order to describe the case more comprehensively. The use of different data sources to “corroborate each other” (Mason, 1996, p. 25) as a form of methodological triangulation allows the researcher to “validate and cross-check finding” (Patton, 1990, p. 244). All of these are visualised in Figure 4.1, which shows the connection between the research questions and instruments employed in the study. I also want to add that there was a certain fluidity during the fieldwork, due to both objective and subjective causes. That the city was flooded, I was hospitalised, or sometimes, the participants did not turn up for the interviews, created unexpected incidents, but thanks to the planned allowance of extra time for data collection, sufficient amount of data could be collected as anticipated. It should be also mentioned that the researcher had a variety of chances to participate in extracurricular activities in the DoS and the university during fieldwork. The information gathered was kept in the research diary.

4.3.1. Classroom observations

The use of observation as a research tool has been long recommended in case study research for the values it can bring. According to Patton (1990), observations enable the researcher to explore various aspects of the studied objects that cannot be found in other tools such as interviews or focus groups. These aspects can include sensitive topics or things that routinely take place and hence, cannot be recognised by the research participants. Furthermore, the weaving of a “firsthand encounter” in observations and a “secondhand account of the world”

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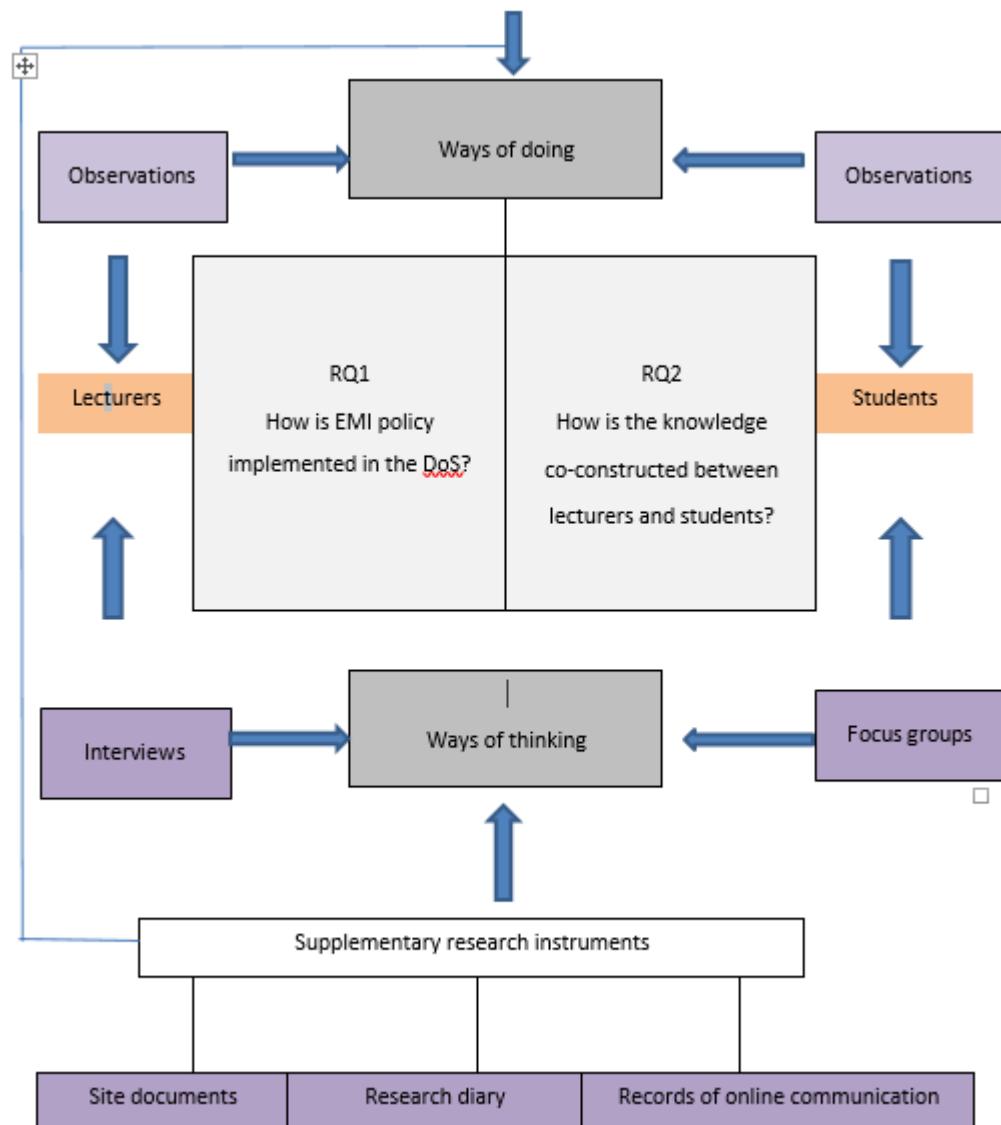
in interviews permits the researcher to comprehend the phenomenon more descriptively and thoroughly (Merriam, 1998, p. 94).

Given these advantages above and the main focus of this PhD study on EMI practice, classroom observations were selected among the key research instruments. 24 recorded classroom observations were made with four lecturers: Hannah, Helen, Nina, and Tiffany, producing more than 33 hours of data. However, the real number of classroom observations was higher than that, since I was able to attend four modules for 11 weeks out of a 15-week semester (see 5.3.3). This included one week for piloting, two weeks for rapport-building to make participants familiar with my presence in their classes, six weeks for recording, and two final weeks for backing-up, or collecting extra data if necessary. There were some sessions of Helen and Hannah when they told me not to come because they had mid-term tests, showed movies, or cancelled the class due to unexpected incidents. To make sure that I got enough data, I had to video record their classes in the back-up weeks. The timeline of classroom observations is presented as Table 4.1.

Table 4.1. Classroom observation timetable

Week	MONDAY	TUESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
1	Introduction			
2	Piloting			
3	The researcher was hospitalised			
4&5	Ice-breaking			
6	CR.TIF.01	CR.NIN.01	CR.HEL.01	CR.HAN.01
7	No class recording for personal reasons			
8	CR.TIF.02	CR.NIN.02	CR.HEL.02	CR.HAN.02
9	CR.TIF.03	CR.NIN.03	CR.HEL.03	Movie time – no recording
10	CR.TIF.04	CR.NIN.04	CR.HEL.04	CR.HAN.03
11	CR.TIF.05	CR.NIN.05	CR.HEL.05	CR.HAN.04
12	CR.TIF.06	CR.NIN.06	No class	Midterm quiz –no recording
13	Extra data	Extra data	CR.HEL.06	CR.HAN.05
14	Extra data	Extra data	Extra data	CR.HAN.06
15	Finished	Finished	Finished	No class – Flood in the city

Figure 4.1. Research instruments



Each class observation was video-recorded with two cameras set at the front and the back, and audio-recorded with a device laid near the lecturer. The main employment of video recording, however, was not to provide data related to facial expressions or body gestures. Instead, filming data was expected to allow the researcher to keep track of the class details, referring to specific speakers in every interactional pattern between the lecturer and student participants, or comprehending specific teaching situations. Each classroom observation, which is actually a collection of video and audio files, is named after its lecturer to make it recognisable and manageable for the researcher during the process of transcribing and analysing. During the classroom observation, I sat in the back of the class, took note of remarkable events and worked as a researcher participant, the one "who participates in a social situation but is personally only partially involved, so that he can function as a researcher" (Gans, 1982, p. 54). The lecturers occasionally referred to me during their classes, either asked for my opinion of some contents, or

explained some specific knowledge that had already been shared among the students and the lecturers during their previous courses. Other than that, I tried to minimize my participation in the class to let it happen as much naturally as possible.

4.3.2. One-to-one interviews

Interviews, “a conversation with a purpose” (Dexter, 1970, p. 136), can be considered as the most common instrument in qualitative research (Dörnyei, 2007; Merriam, 1998). The special kind of information obtained through interviews helps to disclose what is “in and on someone else’s mind”, which cannot be directly observed (Patton, 1990, p. 278). In other words, interviews enable the researcher to elicit participants’ attitudes, perception, feelings, thoughts, or even past events (Patton, 1990; Richards, 2003). As a result, interviews were adopted as a tool for data collection in this PhD research, because it aims to explore not only the classroom practice in an EMI programme, but also the perspectives of the people involved in those interactions, as seen in Figure 4.1 (p. 59).

Polkinghorne (2005) questions the coverage ability of one-shot interviews, and hence recommends that a sequence of three interviews with the same participant should be organised for an adequate amount of deep and wide information. Nonetheless, there were only seven one-shot interviews with seven lecturer participants in this study for some reasons. First of all, there had been a lot of emails, Facebook messages, and informal meetings before the interviews were actually carried out. Although these exchanges cannot be seen as official interviews, they still helped the researcher to break the ice and develop rapport with the participants. Furthermore, they revealed a wide range of helpful information. Secondly, in spite of the initial plan for a follow-up interview at the end of the semester, their tight schedules, accompanied by the Lunar New Year Holiday that came right after the final examination, did not allow enough time for all the participants to have a second one. To make up for this shortage, the researcher had many chances to chat with these lecturers when participating in various activities of the department, which to some extent could supplement the data collected from the one-time interviews.

All the interviews were carried out face-to-face and audio-recorded. While the participants could choose to use either English or Vietnamese, they preferred their mother tongue for freedom of expression. Yet there were occasions when the interviewees switched to English - for

example when they referred to disciplinary terminologies. Each individual interview lasted from 20 to 35 minutes.

The interviews were designed in a semi-structured format so that participants could express themselves spontaneously and naturally. They followed an overall framework recommended by Patton (1990, p. 294), which started with simple and non-controversial questions and descriptions before probing into complex issues. Notwithstanding, the researcher flexibly changed the order of the questions prepared in the interview guideline, depending on the specific circumstances and how each respondent formulated their answers. That is to say, the interviewer went “with the flow” and read the situation to make the participants feel relaxed and comfortable (Radnor, 2002, p. 62). This also enabled the interviewees to elaborate in certain issues under the guidance and direction of the researcher (Dörnyei, 2007).

The wording of questions plays a crucial role in extracting the kind of data desired (Merriam, 1998, p. 76). The interview guideline is mainly made of open-ended questions for the breadth of information they can elicit from participants (Patton, 1990). Although there was an attempt to limit the number of Yes/No questions, they were still necessary on some occasions to clarify or repeat some points in the responses. With respect to the content, questions were developed in accordance with the RQs and possible scenarios of the interviews. In all the interviews, the last question was used as a free space for the participants to add any comments or share any stories that they wanted to (see Appendix 1).

4.3.3. Focus groups

Before coming to the studied site, I had a chance to chat with some DoS students and learnt that they would prefer to be interviewed as a group. They found discussing issues in groups more comfortable, friendly and supporting than individually with the researcher. Barbour (2007) confirms this, since “there may be safety in number”, and those participants who assumingly think of themselves as having nothing to contribute can feel more relieved (p. 42). As a result, instead of one-to-one interviews, the researcher conducted focus groups with the student participants. However, it should be clearly noted here that there are different ways of conceptualising focus groups. Patton (1990, p. 335) claims that the focus group interview is not a discussion but “indeed, an interview”. Yet in this specific study design, I am more of the definition suggested by Kitzinger and Barbour (1999, p. 5) that “any group discussion may be called a focus group as long as the researcher is actively encouraging of, and attentive to, the group interaction”.

Dörnyei (2007) recommends that focus groups work better with “homogeneous samples” (p. 144). One typical feature in the DoS is that students have to do a lot of assessed group presentations and group assignments in class. They often form their own groups of the same academic performance and learning styles, and in most cases, they stay in their fixed group as much as possible. For that reason, the focus groups were organised with students in their chosen groups of four to five members, in which they could freely express themselves without the fear of peer evaluation. In addition, the fact that the first focus group took place six weeks after the semester began allowed enough time for the students and me to break the ice and build rapport through various activities in and out of class. These factors above significantly helped to create a relaxing ambience during the discussions.

Similar to the one-to-one interviews, the six focus groups, each lasting from 35 to 55 minutes, were audio-recorded. The students chose to use Vietnamese but sometimes switched to English for common words like “assignment” or “presentation”. All but the final discussion took place after class in the school cafeteria for the convenience of student. The last one was conducted in a coffee shop where students celebrated the end of their examinations. It could be seen later that data from the last one was not used in this study, as it mainly discusses students’ comments on their examination performances.

A semi-structured focus group guideline was designed in order to assist the researcher in facilitating and directing the whole discussion. In the same way as interview guideline, the focus group discussion started with unthreatening general topics before investigating evaluative and feeling issues (Murphy, Cockburn, & Murphy, 1992). However, the order was not always followed because different groups conducted the discussions at different speeds. Besides, some individual participants took initiative in questioning or raising a topic. Additionally, after a new issue was introduced, there was often some silence in the groups. Yet this silence was tolerated for participants to formulate their ideas (Barbour et al., 2000) and normally, once a member started to express his or her opinion, the others caught up quickly. The focus group guideline is attached in Appendix 2.

The focus groups with students and one-to-one interviews with lecturers in the DoS were incredibly helpful in producing a wealth of valuable information. Moreover, I was able to see the programme from various perspectives, which allowed me to compare, contrast and connect the data in an attempt to describe the whole picture of the department.

4.3.4. Other supplementary instruments

4.3.4.1. Site documents

As Merriam (1998) suggests, fieldwork in qualitative research often includes two primary sources of data: observation and interviews, and also, to a lesser degree, documentary analysis. Accordingly, supplementary documents related to the implementation of EMI programme in the DoS were collected. These site documents include the general framework of education that is currently used in the department, and other teaching and learning materials such as lesson plans, Power Point slides, worksheets, textbooks, articles, online resources, to name a few. A close look at these teaching and learning resources helps to explain certain points of in-class activities and interactions as well as the hidden perceptions of the stakeholders. However, as not all the staff and students were willing to share their resources, I could not obtain the full collection of the materials.

4.3.4.2. Research diary

A research diary, in which I recorded information about interesting events or noticeable details during my time at the site, is essential in my fieldwork (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007). The usage of such a research diary allowed me to note down what I could observe in and outside the class, to explain a phenomenon from my own perspective as a researcher, and to stimulate further critical thinking on specific issues of the DoS. Moreover, I was able to take note of immediate ideas coming up in my mind at certain moments, and then, on reviewing the data, I could reflect on my own interpretation. It can be said that this research diary works as a time log for my research project and a tool for my personal self-reflection and self-evaluation. A sample of my research diary can be found in Appendix 3.

4.3.4.3. Records of online communication

In addition to face-to-face communication, I also contacted my participants before, during, and after my fieldwork. These mainly happened via email and Facebook Messenger, which is among the most popular online communication platforms for Vietnamese people. These exchanges especially helped me to break the ice and build the relationship with the student participants, while enabled the lecturers to share their viewpoints and teaching materials without having to meet me in person. I also used Facebook Messenger to arrange meeting schedules or coffee chats with the participants. Additionally, I was entitled access to the Facebook closed group of the DoS Youth Union, hence could observe their online communication around different activities in the department. Data collected from this online communication is gathered as the source of background and contextual information.

4.4. Data analysis

This study employs thematic analysis (TA) as the primary method of analysis. All the interview, focus group, and classroom observation data were analysed using the same method, with supplementary information from research diary, site documents and records of online communication. In addition, discourse analysis (DA) is used, though not to an equal extent as TA, when dealing with classroom data. DA is adopted when I think discourse features of lecturers' and students' utterances bring additional meanings to the analysis of pedagogical practices (RQ2b).

Braun and Clarke (2006) define TA as "a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data" (p.79). A theme "captures something important about the data in relation to the RQ", and it can "represent some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set" (ibid., p.82). In this research, I have followed their recommendation of six phases when doing TA: 1) familiarising oneself with his/her data, 2) generating initial codes, 3) searching for themes, 4) reviewing themes, 5) defining and naming themes, and 6) producing the report (p. 87).

The first phase was done with me transcribing the collected data. The practice of transcription and the process of its production, while appearing to be a technical task, is actually "a distinctive stage in the process of data analysis itself" (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998, p. 73). It involves certain judgements, such as level of detail to choose from the audible and visual data to represent in the written form (Bailey, 2008). In the current research, an orthographic approach was employed. All the interviews and focus groups were fully transcribed, while due to time constraints, 16 (4 from each module) out of 24 classroom observations were selected for full transcription. Yet I also listened to the non-transcribed recordings two to three times and read through my research diary of those classes to ensure nothing significantly different was left out.

Furthermore, it is worth noting that the transcription details for interviews and focus groups are different from those for classroom data (Appendix 4). In the former case, the main focus was on content, so most prosodic features were not included except for laughter and silence, since there were times when the participants responded my questions by just laughing or keeping silent. Punctuation marks and capitalisations were also employed. The interview and focus group extracts presented in the later finding chapters are the English translations of the original transcripts in Vietnamese (also see Appendix 5). On the other hand, transcripts of classroom data, as involved in both TA and DA, were more inclusive and marked with pauses,

overlaps, emphasis, silence and laughter. No punctuation other than question marks for rising intonation was used and only proper names and first singular pronoun “I” were capitalised. The transcribing of observational recordings was done with the supplementary information from written records of each class, including such information as who was speaking, or where they were sitting. All transcripts were done in Microsoft Word before, together with research diaries and site documents, being imported into QSR Nvivo11. One sample from each kind of transcriptions was picked to be re-checked by another Vietnamese PhD student in Applied Linguistics in Australia. She also checked some extract translations chosen at random, and no significant differences were found in the meanings of the English and Vietnamese versions (Appendix 6).

The pre-coding process actually took place when I started developing initial ideas of analysis while transcribing (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The transcripts were also read multiple times so that I could familiarise myself more with the data, during which informal coding was noted down. The data then would need to be classified into categories and themes, explained and interpreted (Creswell, 2014). While pre-established themes were developed from my RQs, interview and focus group guides, and literature review, new themes also emerged from the data sets (Boyatzis, 1998; Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007). From those, the process of coding occurred repeatedly, as there were numerous attempts of repeated reading and coding to further manage and organise the codes under categories, with some codes being discarded, aggregated with other similar ones, or renamed to reflect more what they describe (Schreier, 2012). It was also during the process that all the transcribed texts coded in the same way were gathered to make a cross case/data source comparison on a particular theme. All these code developments were recorded in NVivo Memos, which were written alongside my coding process as an analytical tool to accompany my coding (Dörnyei, 2007). During this cyclical process, a coding scheme was developed to show hierarchical relationships among the themes and the codes, their descriptions and how they were defined. A sample of each data set and the initial coding scheme were then sent to a second coder to ensure the reliability of the coding process. From her feedback and our discussion, modifications were made when necessary (see the coding scheme in Appendix 7). I then selected among the examples the most vivid extracts to illustrate each node/theme, triangulating among different data sources for final analysis, and relating them to the RQs and literature.

As a part of RQ2 looks at classroom practices through which lecturers and students co-construct the content knowledge, DA was employed as a secondary analysis method for observational data. The main reason for this choice is that DA allows me to

identify what is done and how it is done [...] to identify the function of the talk not only by considering its content, but also by taking it apart to see how it is structured and organised (Wood & Roger, 2000, p. 28).

In so doing, a bottom-up analytical approach was followed, emphasizing the detailed structural and functional features of discourse (Edley & Wetherell, 1997). This approach also allows me to analyse particular features of lecturer talk in relation to their influence on students' learning, such as how they structure their lessons, how they create learning space, or how they reformulate their elicitations. To achieve this, I started by first looking at lecturers' and students' perceptions of their classroom practices, revealed in interviews and focus groups. These are compared with research diary, site documents and existing literature. Based on that, nodes and themes of classroom features were developed through TA. They were then used as a guideline to walk through the classroom data to preliminarily identify relevant discourses, before DA came in to offer deeper exploration of what happened.

4.5. The researcher's role

My role as a researcher in this study can be reflected in terms of reciprocity and reflexivity (Creswell, 2014). First, reciprocity describes the benefits for both the researcher and the participants. Regarding the time and help that they had spent for my research, I was initially worried about what I could do for my participants. However, it was a relief when the majority of them, including both lecturers and students, revealed that my study was a chance for them to reflect on the EMI programme. The students regarded me as a "bin for their untold stories" who was "a teacher but also a friend" to share about their academic apprehension and stress. Moreover, they asked for some advice in the study of English as a language subject and some career guidance after graduation. Meanwhile, the lecturers were stimulated to think of their own practices in EMI classes from some new perspectives that they had not thought before. Some lecturer participants also asked for a copy of the videos recorded in their classes for their self-reflection and professional developments.

In terms of reflexivity, it is suggested by Starfield (2010, p. 54) that qualitative researchers should reflect "on their own positioning and subjectivity in the research and provide an explicit, situated account of their own role in the project and its influences over the findings". I was aware of myself as an insider and an outsider of the DoS community. On the one hand, my role as an insider concerns my established relationship with the participants. With the students, I was able

to chat about issues other than academic topics, make jokes and sometimes even hang out with them. Also, I often met my lecturer participants on campus or attend the DoS events such as the Ceremony for Vietnamese Teachers' Day. These extended interactions with the group gave me the chance to build up the rapport, from which I could construct "a holistic description of the group that incorporates both the views of group members and the researcher's perceptions and interpretations of the group's functioning" (Hancock & Algozzine, 2006, p. 31). On the other hand, I understood that I had to take the role as an outsider who came to learn about the DoS. Therefore, during focus groups or interviews, I tried to maintain the study direction and raise concerns from a researching standpoint. Additionally, due to my lack of their disciplinary knowledge, I could position myself as an outsider to the participants during these kinds of special conversations. Besides, I was aware that my presence, as a researcher in class, may have exerted influence on the lecturers and students, because there was one time in week 4 when Helen told the students that she would change something in the initial plan because of my attendance. The effect, however, reduced as the semester went by.

4.6. Trustworthiness

Lincoln & Guba (1985) posit that the "trustworthiness" of a naturalistic and qualitative study is important to evaluate its worth. The notion involves four criteria: 1) credibility, 2) transferability, 3) dependability, and 4) confirmability.

Credibility corresponds to the traditional concept of internal validity, referring to the truth of the findings. The credibility of this study can be seen through the triangulation of qualitative data sources. There was instant comparison between 1) data collected from observations with interviews, focus groups, and supplementary documents, and 2) data collected from teachers and from students. Moreover, the DoS participants were observed not only in their lessons but also in their off-class activities, in both real life and online. Accordingly, systematic bias in the data was reduced, while avoiding "the accusation that a study's findings are simply an artefact of a single method, a single source, or a single investigator's bias" (Patton, 1990, p.470).

Transferability, traditionally referred as external validity, shows that the findings can be applied to other contexts. Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 316) suggest that transferability can be achieved through the provision of sufficiently rich data so that readers can determine if transferability is possible. With an ethnographic approach, this research offers a holistic picture of an EMI programme in Vietnamese HE seen from various perspectives. Chapter 5 provides an ethnographic account of the DoS, hence informatively contextualising the analysis, findings and

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interpretations presented in Chapter 6, 7, 8. Readers therefore can judge whether the findings can be applicable to other EMI settings.

Dependability, often known as reliability in quantitative research (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007), shows that the findings are consistent and could be repeated with the same or similar subjects in the same or similar context (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Samples of transcriptions, translations, and coding were sent to another Vietnamese PhD colleague in Australia for checking.

Finally, confirmability is the degree to which the findings are the product of the inquiry focus, not of researcher bias (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this study, all the decision before and during fieldwork, as well as during the data analysis process, were noted in my research diary and Nvivo Memos. This “audit trail” (*ibid.*) offers a transparent description of the research steps taken during this PhD project, hence allows the findings, interpretations or conclusions to be traced back to their sources.

4.7. Ethical considerations

Qualitative researchers should be cautious of potential ethical dilemmas (Cohen et al., 2007; Merriam, 1998), since research instruments like interviews or observations are closely related to the participants’ personal world. Therefore, a few measurements were taken to ensure the ethics in this study.

First of all, an Ethics and Research Governance Online application was submitted and approved by the university ethics committee. At the beginning of the fieldwork, potential participants were provided with adequate information related to my background and the research itself via participation information sheets (Appendix 8). Only after they were fully aware of the study did they sign the Consent Form (Appendix 9) to let me collect data. Then, the fieldwork was organised in accordance with the institutional guideline of Southampton University and the home university. Regarding classroom observations, any students that did not agree to participate would not be recorded. If, for some unavoidable reasons that they still appeared in the filming, those episodes containing their presence would not be used but deleted. Participants were also informed of their rights to withdraw from the study anytime or request to remove specific information from the study.

In terms of anonymity, each participant is given an English pseudonym. The names of the university, the college and the department are also kept anonymous for the protection of participants' personal profiles. Additionally, the specific time of my fieldwork is not specifically mentioned, since it can be a clue to the real identity. The data in this study is kept confidentially for the research purpose only.

Another ethical issue relates to the potential risks exposed to both the researcher and the participants. All the focus groups were conducted at the school cafeteria, while personal interviews with the lecturers mainly took place on campus. Unofficial appointments with participants for coffee or chats also occurred at public places located near their accommodations.

4.8. Concluding remark

This chapter has introduced the research methodology of the current study. A number of issues have been discussed herein, with a special emphasis on the data collection and analysis process. In the next chapter, a detailed account of the setting and its participants will be presented.

5 The Department of Study: An Ethnographic Picture

5.1. Introduction

Among possible HE sites for fieldwork in Vietnam, the DoS was selected for responsive and accessible reasons. This chapter offers a holistic picture of the DoS and its lecturers and students who participated in the study. Furthermore, the voices of the DoS participants, including their backgrounds, their EMI motivations, and their evaluation of the involved EMI programme, are provided with a view to providing supplementary information for a better understanding of the data presented later.

5.2. The study setting

5.2.1. A wider context

5.2.1.1. The University

The University where the DoS is situated is a regional, prestigious institution established in the 1950s in the centre of Vietnam. It is composed of 11 affiliated colleges and schools with campuses scattering around the city, not to mention a number of member administrative units and research centres. The University is listed among the 17 key HEIs of Vietnam. Also, in recent years, it is one of the few Vietnamese universities ranked among the top 500 Asian universities by Quacquarelli Symonds University Rankings. The University is mainly responsible for training students at undergraduate and postgraduate levels, the majority of whom come from the Central and Highlands of Vietnam. Offering 119 Bachelor programmes, 82 Master programmes, and 52 Doctoral Programmes, it has an annual enrolment of 13,000 students. However, the student populations for foreign, joint programmes and advanced programmes are relatively low, with 100 and 90 respectively. The statistics on its webpage⁵ state that the University has an approximate number of 15 professors, 28 foreign honorary professors, 253 associate professors, 650 Doctors, 1,438 Masters and 218 senior lecturers. A large proportion of its staff have studied for their degrees abroad, and this figure keeps changing annually.

Internationalisation is clearly emphasized as one of the core goals and objectives of the University. On its webpage, the term “international” is repeated a few times in the University’s

⁵ For the sake of anonymity, the link to this webpage is not attached here. The data was accessed on May 4th, 2018.

specific objectives to achieve by 2020, such as international quality standards and international cooperation. The University also aims to be among the top research HEIs in Southeast Asia by 2030, while its graduates are expected to be capable professionals who can well integrate themselves into international working environments. With such a focus on internationalisation, the University has strived to build a strong network with foreign partners through various activities such as staff and student exchange, research collaboration, or joint degrees. At the time of data collection, the University had already implemented more than 10 joint programmes and advanced programmes at different levels with overseas institutions. These programmes, however, were mainly implemented by its affiliated colleges and their partners abroad. One of these colleges is the Anonymous College (pseudonym, henceforth AC), to which the DoS directly belonged.

5.2.1.2. The Autonomous College

The AC has a total of 8 departments, offering 11 BA, 4 MA and 1 PhD programmes related to foreign languages. Back to the early 2000s, all the foreign language departments of the University's affiliated colleges were merged to create a new college, and that was the birth of AC. Therefore, although AC is considered to be a young member of the University, its core departments were originally founded at the same time as the University itself. As a fresh, dynamic and innovative HEI, AC sets out a mission to enhance foreign language proficiency of Vietnamese people, especially those from the Central and Highland areas of Vietnam. Its role has been highlighted since the MOET assigned AC as one of the pioneering language institutions to be involved in the NFL2020 Project. Under the influence of the University and other college members, AC has also stressed the necessity of becoming an international tertiary institution. But more remarkably, its internationalisation orientation is dictated by the disciplinary features of foreign languages and cultures of the college.

The AC's main activities can be classified as strategies for "internationalisation at home" (Beelen & Leask, 2011; Crowther et al., 2000), a phenomenon when international and intercultural dimensions are integrated into official and unofficial programmes to benefit domestic students, who have no access to outbound movement. AC has developed long relationships with partners from the USA, Australia, or New Zealand, and new departments specialising in Chinese, Korean, or Japanese had brought AC more and more overseas collaborators. Through these channels, AC has managed to bring international factors to its

campus, one of which is the presence of international staff and students. As can be seen in Table 5.1, the college has hosted hundreds of students from foreign countries (mainly Thailand and China) through different programmes: long-term study, short-term study, or cultural exchange activities, which help to “create[d] an international ambience on campus”, as stated on its web page⁶. This attempt to enhance student body’s quality and cultural composition, at the same time gain more prestige and earn more money, is what Altbach and Knight (2007) classify as “developing-country internationalisation” (p.249).

Table 5.1. Numbers of international staff and students in AC

	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Numbers of foreign students	108	112	170	258	177	212
Numbers of foreign lecturers/staff	12	10	8	7	11	15

In another endeavour of internationalisation at home, AC has organised a good number of conferences, workshops and seminars on teaching methodologies, material developments, and curriculum construction, with the participation of key speakers and trainers from world ranking universities. Consequently, many of AC lecturers, who have not have the chance to study abroad, could keep themselves updated with current trends of teaching and researching. In addition, under volunteer programmes or teacher exchange programmes with foreign partners, AC has welcomed lecturers from other countries, mainly from China, Korea, Japan, and Australia. Although the figure of foreign staff is still limited, the idea that students have access to lecturers from multiple cultural and linguistic backgrounds has a positive meaning as this could “offer[ing] high quality language education at the college” (cited from AC webpage). Furthermore, AC’s library is home of more than 2,500 books from leading publishers around the world, inferring that students could get access to international teaching and learning materials.

On such a backdrop of AC, the establishment of the DoS in 2007, together with its distinctive characteristics, will be discussed below.

⁶ For the sake of anonymity, the link to this webpage is not attached here.

5.2.2. The Department of Study

5.2.2.1. The establishment

The DoS is a department which offers a BA degree in International Studies⁷. When the DoS was founded, there were already some departments in other Vietnamese tertiary institutions offering similar BA programmes. Therefore, the AC board of directors, especially the rector, often revealed their ambition to turn the DoS into the first Vietnamese HE department that delivered those courses in English. This line of thought was shared by the DoS lecturers, and the employment of English as the MoI had been repeatedly raised as the mutual concern among the staff during their meetings or discussions. In other words, these bottom-up initiatives from the staff perfectly match the top-down orientation of the AC board of directors, and that was how they started implementing EMI in the department. Years after years, this EMI orientation has been “traditionally maintained by the staff” (Tammy, interview) without any administrative enforcement.

There are several reasons why the DoS is an interesting EMI case for study. First of all, while the majority of EMI programmes in Vietnam are related to business or natural sciences, the DoS specialises in social sciences and humanities. Social sciences are generally an ill-examined area in EMI research (Dalton-Puffer, 2007), and in the case of Vietnam, there are hardly any investigations. Secondly, the EMI degree in the DoS does not belong to any EMI categories in Vietnamese HEIs (see section 3.3). It is definitely not a foreign programme due to the absence of overseas factors, but it is not a domestic programme either. There is no official paper declaring that the disciplinary modules⁸ in the BA degree of International Studies must be delivered in English or English and Vietnamese. Even in the full programme description (Appendix 10), English is not explicitly stated as the desired foreign language in which the DoS graduates should be fluent upon their degree completion, although achieving bilingual competence for international workplaces was emphasized. Similarly, no specific information related to MoI of the DoS could be found in the annual prospectus of Vietnamese universities. Moreover, no screening test for language proficiency is required. This means that students who enrol in the programme may only be aware of EMI factors through their personal networks of friends rather than an authorised announcement from AC or the University. Besides, tuition fee for the DoS is not different from its

⁷ Since the DoS only offered a BA programme in International Studies, which was also the EMI programme under investigation, the three terms “the DoS”, “EMI programme in the DoS”, and “International Studies programme” are used interchangeably in this thesis.

⁸ In this thesis, “course”, “module” and “subject” are used interchangeably to refer to a unit of the EMI programme under investigation

parallel Vietnamese-medium instruction programmes, and therefore, it is not implemented for financial benefits either. The only impetus for EMI at the DoS, as discussed above, was the determination and the implicit agreement of lecturers with the encouragement of AC administrators. In informal conversations with the DoS staff before and during my fieldwork, they usually expressed their desire to deliver their disciplinary modules in English, and they were actually making every single effort to do that. All of the above facts, accordingly, turn the BA degree in the DoS into a product of bottom-up stakeholder initiatives under the influence of top-down policies. However, it is worth noting that the DoS is not an exceptional case in Vietnamese HE where EMI is unofficially implemented this way.

5.2.2.2. Student recruitment

In EMI programmes, Vietnamese students are often required to demonstrate their language proficiency as an entry requirement, either through screening tests, or through scores of standardised English tests such as IELTS, TOEFL, or TOEIC (Nguyen et al., 2016; Nguyen et al., 2017). Although there have been criticisms on the inappropriate level of English required, still in these cases, students are aware of the necessity of having a rather high level of English proficiency to make their own EMI decisions. However, as mentioned earlier, no requirement like this exists in the DoS. The way students get an offer is based on the national system of university entrance examination. An understanding of how students are accepted into this EMI programme, therefore, is essential for an insight into the teaching and learning culture in the DoS.

Before 2015, Year-12 high school students in Vietnam needed to sit two separate examinations: graduation examination and university entrance examination (MOET, 2012). For the latter, test subjects were divided into four main categories, namely A, B, C, and D, among which D, including Mathematics, Literature, and a foreign language, in most cases English, was often for degrees in Social Sciences and Humanities. Once the result was released, students could alternatively apply for another university as a substitute choice if 1) they failed to obtain one place in their first-choice university and 2) their scores were over the pass scores set annually by MOET. The two examinations above have already been combined into one since 2015, but the criteria for selection and the subject divisions mainly stay the same (MOET, 2015). Students still have chances to get a university offer based on their first, second or even third choice. One of the references for students to make decision is the annual prospectus of Vietnamese universities, listing all the programmes offered in all domestic HEIs.

Regarding the DoS and student enrolments, its student number is quite small, partially due to its novelty and relation to politics. Since 2007, its enrolment figures have fluctuated between 20 and 50 per class, making the sum total of the student population in the whole department around 120 to 150. In the school year when I collected the data, there were 138 students in four classes from first year to fourth year. Noticeably, more than 55% of these students chose the DoS as their second or third choice after they failed to obtain a place in their first-choice programme or university. More markedly, as their exam subjects were Mathematics, Literature and English, a number of them passed the enrolment score thanks to their good performance in the first two subjects rather than English.

Table 5.2. The DoS student population

Year	Population	The DoS as their 1st choice		The DoS as their 2 nd /3 rd choice	
		Total	%	Total	%
First year	29	15	51.7%	14	48.3%
Second year	36	4	11.1%	32	88.9%
Third year	32	26	81.3%	6	18.7%
Fourth year	41	16	39.1%	25	60.9%
Total	138	61	44.2%	77	55.8%

With a low figure of population, students are basically in a fixed group for the majority of modules during four years. Studying in the same group for such a long time, students can establish their own interactional modes and practices.

5.2.2.3. The four-year curriculum in International Studies at the DoS

The overall objectives of this BA programme are mainly that its graduates should possess sound knowledge of humanities and social sciences as well as of international studies and can apply their knowledge to study international issues. Students are also anticipated to master one foreign language for their disciplinary study, but this foreign language is not explicitly mentioned⁹.

⁹ Since the DoS establishment, the curriculum had been modified a few times although there was not much change between these versions in terms of modules and number of credits. A year after my field trip, a new version of the curriculum was introduced in the DoS, and it did mention that students had to become fluent in English.

Upon graduation, the DoS students should be able to work in multiple areas, such as university, research centres, or governmental and international non-governmental organisations.

With such an aim, their modules, weighing totally from 138 to 140 credits, consist of two main packages: general education (49 credits) and disciplinary education (89 – 91 credits). General education modules such as “The history of Vietnamese Communist Party” or “Marxism theory” are delivered in Vietnamese. The DoS students take these modules with lecturers and students from other departments of AC in the first two years of their degree. As this conforms to the framework of MOET for domestic EMI programmes and general VMI programmes in HE, textbooks and learning materials are the same in Vietnamese universities. Regarding disciplinary modules, where EMI is implemented, students start to attend one to two courses of basic disciplinary knowledge in their first year, and the number of these modules increase as students progress in their programme. In these disciplinary subjects, the DoS lecturers could show their autonomy in designing the syllabus and choosing course materials. Additionally, during the first five semesters, students are required to attend modules of General English skills from level 1 to level 5, including Writing, Speaking, Listening and Reading. Some courses of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), such as English for Economy, English for Politics, or English for Law, are also available as substitute modules if students do not take English level 5 modules, as long as a total of 8 credits are achieved.

The total number of credits students have to achieve within 4 years of study means that most of the semesters are fully packed with more than 10 modules per each. This tight schedule undeniably has a marked influence on the way students perceive their programme and the way lecturers design their syllabus, which will be discussed in the coming chapters.

5.3. The participants of the study

During the first five weeks of the semester, no official data was collected since I was trying to get to know the DoS, their programmes, and my participants. It was this time that I built rapport with my lecturer and student participants. Participants of this study are classified into three main groups: lecturers for interviews, students for focus groups, and four modules for classroom observation.

5.3.1. Lecturers for interviews

After the ethical consideration request was approved, I began to recruit lecturer participants for this current research. Four key factors in deciding the samples were taken into

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consideration at the stage of research designing. These include 1) the sample size, 2) the representativeness and parameters of the sample, 3) access to the sample, and 4) the sampling strategy to be used (Cohen et al., 2007). The selection of participants in this current research, therefore, was built into a non-probability sample (*ibid.*). To be specific, snowball sampling was deployed.

When I was still in the UK, I emailed a DoS staff and asked for her help in recruiting the lecturer participants. From her reply, I was able to have the staff mailing list and send personal emails to those who were involved in the EMI programme of the DoS. With every potential lecturer participant, I attached a participant information sheet and a brief schedule of my data collection in the email exchanges. Then, after coming back to Vietnam and gaining official permission to access the site, I contacted these potential participants and we arranged for several informal meetings at coffee shops, when they could ask me anything related to my fieldwork plan before signing the Consent Form. From those who agreed to participate, I scheduled the timetable and ended up with four participants for classroom observations and seven for interviews.

During the first few years of the DoS, there were not enough staff to take charges of all modules, so it had to invite some visiting lecturers from other institutions. It also hosted some American volunteer lecturers. Then, the department started to recruit more academics and by the time of my data collection, there were 14 members of staff, including one who also concurrently worked in an administrative position at AC and two who just came back from their 4-year PhD study in Australia. All but two lecturers were female, which is just a typical feature in all departments of AC. The staff component of the DoS can be classified into three main divisions based on their areas of interest and their responsible modules: 1) Literature, 2) Culture, and 3) International Relations. Nevertheless, this division was not fixed because a few lecturers had multiple memberships within the department and there were some overlaps among the sectors. All the staff got MA or PhD degrees, and they took turn to leave for their postgraduate study overseas, making sure there were enough people teaching and doing administrative tasks.

Seven lecturers, each was given with a pseudonym, were involved in my study for the interviews (see Table 5.3, p. 79). Due to the gender imbalance in the DoS, all of these lecturers were female, but the diversity in their educational backgrounds brings some interesting points to consider. First, all of them obtained their postgraduate degree abroad in EMI programmes, and all but one (Vivian) belonged to the division of International Relations. Their average age of 30.57 was quite low compared to that of other staff groups, and they were in fact among the youngest

in the DoS. Secondly, three of these seven participants (Tiffany, Nina and Tammy) actually graduated from the DoS. They were offered lecturing positions immediately after graduating with high distinction. Then, all of them obtained MA scholarships and took a 2-year leave to do their postgraduate study. Besides, they were among the only four (including Nancy as well) who majored in International Relations for their undergraduate degree, with Nancy obtaining her BA in Russia. Meanwhile, Helen, Hannah and Vivian got their BA degree in English Language Teaching of the Department of English in AC. Nevertheless, they changed their majors to International Relations and American Studies when doing MA and PhD study. During my fieldwork, Vivian got a PhD scholarship in the UK while Tiffany was applying for PhD position in Australia. Finally, except for Hannah and Helen, the other five lecturers also worked as IELTS private tutors.

Table 5.3. Lecturer participants for interviews

No.	Lecturer	Age	Degree	BA degree	Postgraduate degree
1	Hannah	37	PhD	English Language Teaching	American Studies, the U.S
2	Helen	33	MA	English Language Teaching	International Relations, Australia
3	Nancy	33	MA	International Relations	International Relations, Japan
4	Nina	27	MA	International Relations	International Relations, New Zealand
5	Tammy	27	MA	International Relations	International Relations, New Zealand
6	Tiffany	27	MA	International Relations	International Relations, Thailand
7	Vivian	30	MA	English Language Teaching	International Relations, Belgium

5.3.2. Students for focus groups

As mentioned in section 5.2.2.2, the DoS had 138 students from first year to fourth year. Their age, therefore, was typically between 18 and 22 years, although some were younger or older. The DoS was a female-dominated department with only a few male students in each class, but this was quite typical for all departments in AC. All students were Vietnamese, and they mainly came from Central Highlands and Central Vietnam.

It was easier for me when approaching DoS students thanks to the help of my lecturer participants. I had a chance to be introduced to the students in their first week, when I could shortly present the research and myself, answer the questions, and ask for student participation in the focus groups and classroom observations. Although my initial plan was to put students in groups according to their academic performance, I eventually let them form their own groups as

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the majority of them wanted to do it that way. However, the class culture in the DoS actually enabled me to have students of the same academic level in each focus group, since they tended to build rapport with 'similar' friends, as revealed many times during informal talks.

Altogether six focus groups were organised, including a total of 23 participants from second year to fourth year. I initially planned to include first year students, but there were two main reasons for me to change my mind. First of all, by the time of my field work, first year students had just started their first semester at university, during which they mainly studied General Education modules. Therefore, they did not have a lot of EMI experience. Secondly, my focus groups were organised by students themselves choosing to participate with their friends, normally with those they had built a strong friendship. That kind of bonds would probably have not been strengthened enough for first year students to freely share their evaluation of the EMI programme, their lecturers and their classmates. Therefore, focus groups with first year students might not produce enough rich data for my study.

Table 5.4. Student participants for focus groups

Group number	Population		Level of students	Student names
	Male	Female		
FG.Y2.01	2	2	2 nd year	Rob, David, Shelly, Minnie
FG.Y3.01	0	4	3 rd year	Joanna, Rebecca, Mariah, Natalie
FG.Y3.02	0	4	3 rd year	Louise, Pat, August, Spring
FG.Y4.01	0	5	4 th year	Anne, Birdy, Mia, Daisy, Laura
FG.Y4.02	0	5	4 th year	Beth, Tracy, Maddie, Taylor, Nasha
FG.ALL	1	10	All level mixed up	All and Thomas

There were only four second-year students, compared to 10 fourth-year and eight third-year students. All these participants took part in five main discussions (focus group 1 to 5), and then for the sixth one- which was organised after their end-of-semester examination, they were all mixed up for a final gathering. The last focus group also welcomed the new participation of a male final-year student. This made the total population of student participants 23. Only three were male, but this lack of gender balance reflects the real ratio of female: male in the DoS. Students, all given pseudonyms, had a diversity of backgrounds related to their first choice of university, their English learning experience and their academic performance. As students participated voluntarily and the researcher had spent time with them previously, they were quite open and friendly during the discussions.

5.3.3. Four modules of observation

In this case study of the DoS, the four modules observed during 11 weeks (see section 4.3.1 and Table 4.1, p. 58) are treated as four sub cases of study. Therefore, other than having the simple meaning of an educational unit in a BA programme, each of these four modules refers to all the agents and factors involved in the process of running that module during the semester of data collection.

After Hannah, Helen, Nina, and Tiffany agreed to participate in classroom observation, they selected the modules themselves. Hannah, Tiffany and Helen let me observe their classes of final year students while Nina's was a second-year group. Accordingly, although four modules were observed, there were only two groups of students: fourth-year and second-year. The homogeneity of students has turned out to provide interesting data, for there were significant differences in classroom practices among the same group of students with three lecturers. In other words, thought-provoking findings concerning EMI teaching practices of different lecturer participants were found in this study. An introduction of these modules, accordingly, is provided below. For ethical reasons, the real names of these modules were modified, but the disciplinary features were maintained in the pseudonyms.

5.3.3.1. The US study

Hannah's module of "The US study" ran from 9:00-10:45 am every Friday. There were three types of assessments: pop quizzes (10%), précis, questions and discussions (30%), and final examination (60%). Unlike the other lecturers, Hannah scarcely employed any multimedia tools: no group presentation or no PPT slides, except for one class when students watched a documentary movie. Hannah was also the only participant that had already obtained a PhD degree, and she was the Head of International Relations Division.

Hannah's module had the same group of students like Tiffany's and Helen's, but it had relatively lower attendances compared to theirs. Hannah was quite flexible and relaxed about attendance, so not coming to class did not affect the final scores of students. Instead, they were required to submit précis and a question for discussion before every class session. Then, at the end of the module, they were allowed to choose five précis that they consider to be the best for final grades. Students were encouraged to work with their classmates to prepare for class by discussing readings beforehand. During class, however, Hannah mainly organised whole-class discussions other than group work, and thus seating arrangement was often in the shape of a small circle.

Hannah did her MA and PhD study in American Studies. She was seen as one of the senior lecturers at the DoS for two reasons: her doctorate qualification and her age gap with younger staff like Tiffany or Nina. She got on well with students, and students often looked up to her as a 'role model' or an 'idol'. In informal talks and focus groups, it was also revealed that they were really impressed by Hannah's English speaking proficiency, which gave them the wrong impression that Hannah's class was an English-only environment, although she did use a lot of Vietnamese in her practices.

5.3.3.2. Vietnam – the US relations

Helen was in charge of "Vietnam – the US relations" module for final year students, occurring from 7:00 to 8:45 am every Thursday. Assessments included group projects and in-class participation (40%) and end-of-term examination (60%). Module materials were predominantly composed of journal articles, non-governmental organisation reports, and online resources.

For this module, students often sat in a U-turn shape. Group work was mainly conducted at home. Based on the main topic of each week, students had to come up with a group project and present in class. The initial ideas and outline drafts were sent to Helen for feedback and advice before students finalised their project and designed the PPT slides. In the first few weeks of the semester, Helen lectured for the first half of each class, then students presented their projects for the rest. However, as Helen recognised that her students were quite passive during lectures, she decided to push students, and hence from the mid-semester, students were required to prepare for the lesson as well. So, each topic was divided into sub-topics, and about five to six groups would take turn to present the content in around five minutes. All these student-led sessions were largely delivered in Vietnamese with PPT slides or posters in English.

Helen did her MA in Australia under the sponsorship of Australian government. She was the type of teacher who could be very strict in class, but then be found having coffee with students in the school cafeteria during breaks. Before class started, she sometimes approached students and chatted with them, but the general atmosphere during her lessons was observed to be quite tense.

5.3.3.3. Introduction to World Politics

Nina just finished her MA study in New Zealand and "Introduction to World Politics" was among the first few modules she taught upon returning to Vietnam. This was also the only

module of second-year students that I attended. There were 34 students altogether, with only 4 male students. Noticeably, a large number of these students did not choose the DoS as their first choice programme. The class started quite early, from 7:00 to 8:45 am every Tuesday. As Nina was strict on checking attendance – which accounted for 10% of the final mark, students rarely missed her class although a lot did come late. Other forms of assessments included individual oral presentation (20%), quiz (10%) and end-of-term examination (60%).

The fact that Nina just came back from abroad influenced her expectations of students and the module as well. Core reading material was the 560-page long “Global Politics” by Heywood (2011), with some other recommended books. Students were individually assessed through an oral 10-minute presentation delivered in English, including the PPT slides and handouts. Every week, Nina would send a guideline to the presenters so that they could prepare for their presentation, which allowed about five to seven days for students to research, come up with ideas and design their handouts and slides. Following the presentation was a Q&A section, when students who would present the following week had to pose one question for each presenter of the current week. After that, Nina would sum up, evaluate the presentation and raise some more questions. All of these presentation took place from week 3 to week 14, with two to three presenters per week. As a result, Nina’s class was basically divided into two parts: student-led section and Nina’s lectures. With this design of the module, seating arrangement was always in the form of traditional desk rows.

Nina did not seem close to her students. Her two-year leave did not allow her to get involved in students’ extra-curricular activities, and thus, she did not have much chance to interact with her students outside classroom. It could be observed before and during class that students kept a distance from her, and if they talked, the topics were only about the course contents.

5.3.3.4. The study of Southeast Asian countries

Tiffany was responsible for this final-year module named “The study of Southeast Asian countries”, which was also her MA research in Thailand. The student population was supposedly 41, but there were never that many students attending (and this was similar in the other two observed modules). This course took place every Monday from 9:00 to 10:45 a.m. Assessment included in-class participation and group quizzes (40%) and final examination (60%).

In this course, students mainly worked in their chosen groups, so the most common seating arrangement was often clusters of five or six chairs. Normally, students were individually

assigned some readings with guidance questions at home. At the beginning of each class, Tiffany would deliver a quiz based on these readings and students had 30 minutes to discuss the answers with their groupmates. Then, they would have a one-hour whole class discussion of the quiz, when students got good marks if giving correct answers. As these good marks weighed significantly in the total formative assessment (40%), there was kind of competitive atmosphere among groups. Tiffany often incorporated her Powepoint slides and explanations of the lesson at the end of each quiz question. On some rare occasions when no reading was required, students would watch documentaries or play some interactive games, through which the main contents of the lessons were discovered. There was no fixed textbook for the module; instead, learning materials were principally composed of journal articles selected by Tiffany.

Among the three modules of final year students, Tiffany's was the best attended. Besides, it can be observed that Tiffany got on quite well with her students. Tiffany once supervised student affairs in the DoS, so she had been involved in a variety of extra-curricular activities, through which she built up a strong rapport with students outside classrooms. Informal chats and focus groups with students showed the popularity of Tiffany, and this could also be confirmed via the way students approached and talked with her before and during class. They could make jokes and share stories about their daily lives, and to the best of my observation, Tiffany placed a mixed role: as a lecturer and as a “big sister” who they could come for help and advice.

5.4. Voices from the insiders

This section will present a part of findings from interviews and focus groups with lecturers and students. Although they were not collected as part of answering the RQs, I strongly believe that how the participants describe their involvement in the DoS and what they generally think of the programme will greatly influence how they perceive and practise the process of knowledge co-construction in an EMI programme. It is worth noting that all the extracts presented here have been translated from Vietnamese to English, with the original versions attached in Appendix 5.

5.4.1. The DoS as a choice

5.4.1.1. Why applying for the DoS?

Motivation plays a considerable role in students' levels of engagement and their efforts invested in the learning process (Ushioda, 2014), thus the reasons why students chose the DoS

were asked at the beginning of each focus group. Nevertheless, a high percentage of students did not initially apply for the programme (see 5.2.2.2). During focus groups, most students revealed that as they could not be admitted to their first-choice university, they ended up in the DoS, as illustrated in extract 5.1 and 5.2.

Extract 5.1 FG.Y2.01 – 43

1 Minnie My first choice was a degree in Japanese, the second choice was English Language Teaching. But
 2 those programme required higher entry scores than my examination results, so I couldn't get in.
 3 Therefore, I failed to my third choice which is DoS

Extract 5.2 FG.Y4.01 - 4

1 Mia Why did I choose DoS, huh? It was because I failed. I wanted to apply for a degree in Chinese
 2 language in [name of another city] but I failed it, so I ended up being here

Minnie and Mia used the word “failed” when describing their reasons for choosing the degree in International Studies, but they were not the only two who associated their participation in the programme as a result of their academic failure – a choice that was only made when they did not have any other options. The use of “failed” brings the impression that the degree of International Studies was not a high-ranked, or at least popular, training programme for students. The choice of DoS, therefore, was nothing but an obligation they had to make so that they could become university students, even when they did not have any idea of the programme content, as Minnie explained below:

Extract 5.3 FG.Y2.01 - 45

1 Minnie International Studies? I didn't know exactly what I would study. International Studies what? I
 2 didn't know. My parents asked what I would study in this major, I didn't know how to answer
 3 them specifically. I just knew that I would study International Studies and English. It was me
 4 before the programme, I knew nothing

This obligation can be either decided on their own, as most student participants revealed, or under the influence of their family members, as Daisy and Maddie shared in extracts 5.4 and 5.5. Daisy chose the major because it matched her parents' wish of “something related to English”, while Maddie thought about applying for the same job like her family member. This conforms to what Le (2016) found in her study that in Vietnam, family influence, including parents' social positions, parents' wishes, and parents' jobs, remarkably dictate high school students' career orientation and university application.

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Extract 5.4 FG.Y4.01 - 5

1 Daisy I studied in DoS because my parents wanted me to study something related to English

Extract 5.5 FG.Y4.02 - 18

1 Maddie I sat an entrance exam for Economic Laws, but I failed [...] one of my family members works in
2 the Department of Foreign Affairs, and DoS fits with this job, so I selected this programme

On the other hand, among all the participants whose first choice was this programme, only one (Joanna) was motivated by her interest in politics and the vision of working in related areas upon graduation. Meanwhile, it was surprisingly found that the name of the programme, International Studies, was attractive enough for some to make this academic selection. They just went for the degree because its name evoked positive feelings, as shown below:

Extract 5.6 FG.Y3.01 - 7

1 Rebecca Even when I was at Grade 12, I had no idea of what I was going to study at university. When I had
2 to fill the application form, I found the name of International Studies unfamiliar and prestigious, so
3 I made that selection

Extract 5.7 FG.Y3.01 - 12

1 Natalie I chose International Studies because the name sounded coolish, but I didn't know what they
2 would teach me. And the destiny was that I passed the exam to get to the programme @@

It can be concluded that the majority of participants did not take the course for the sake of personal interest. They entered the programme with a blurring image of what they would learn and how they would academically survive during their four-year programme. While studying content subjects in English means more challenges and requirements, most students enrolled on International Studies at the DoS believing that they were there because they failed to study in better programmes.

5.4.1.2. First EMI encounters

Hardly knowing anything about the modules offered in this BA programme, students entered the DoS with a mixture of feelings, all of which were unfortunately negative ones. The first few weeks after students started their content subjects in English were so perplexing that they suffered a lot. During focus groups, such adjectives as "unsecured", "discouraged", "difficult"

or even “depressed” appeared quite often when students described initial feelings for their EMI modules.

Extract 5.8 FG.Y3.02 - 17

1 Louise In the beginning, it was really difficult to study, it sounded scary. It was my first time studying
 2 History in English [...] We also studied Geography in English. I didn't find it interesting to learn
 3 History in Vietnamese, now studying it in English is so much challenging

In extract 5.8, Louise referred to her first EMI encounter as a “scary” experience for two reasons: History was not her favourite subject, and it was taught in English. But Louise was not the only student who underwent that experience. Even when delivered in Vietnamese, the majority of modules in International Studies were already demanding for students in terms of their disciplinary knowledge. Consequently, studying these subjects in English placed an extra burden on their shoulder. Becoming a student at the DoS, they faced two obstacles at one time: content issues and language barriers. Compared to the previous findings, where students mainly complained about their lack of English proficiency to fully comprehend EMI lectures (Hellekjær, 2010; Hu & Lei, 2014; Mulligan & Kirkpatrick, 2000), students at the DoS were also panic about their disciplinary knowledge.

Extract 5.9 FG.Y4.02 - 59

1 Tracy OMG, she spoke a chain of English. And Geopolitics has nothing to do with the subject of
 2 Geography I learnt before @@
 3 Beth @@ When we first heard the name, we thought it would be Geography @@
 4 Tracy and it turned out to be about politics, we were totally puzzled. And who are those men? Those
 5 men that we learnt, so far away, I had no idea. I had never heard of those names before

Extract 5.9 illustrates how students were “totally puzzled” because the lecturer only spoke English in Geopolitics, a subject that they had never heard before. They came to class with the assumption that the subject would be to some extent familiar with Geography, so they at least had some background knowledge. Yet when it turned out to be a completely different subject, they became perplexed. There was no more feeling of security. It can be said that those bad experiences of students in this extract did not only come from the use of English in their reading materials and slides but also from the new world of knowledge that had never existed in their minds before. Consequently, some of the student participants had intention to give up, as shared in extract 5.10. Nasha found it so demanding that she planned to “quit”, while Beth shared her intention to drop this BA programme and resit the university entrance examination, which is quite stressful and time-consuming. Taylor joint the conversation by adding that Nasha and Beth were not special cases because many classmates really had the same idea. Similar intention of quitting

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the programme was found in the other group of fourth-year students, but not among the second- and third-year participants.

Extract 5.10 FG.Y4.02 - 30

- 1 Nasha I thought that I would quit @@
- 2 Beth really semester 1 of year 1 I intended to resit the entrance exam
- 3 Nasha that's true
- 4 Taylor a lot wanted to do that

From the examples above, the first EMI encounters for students, no matter whether the DoS was their first or alternative choice, were not really pleasant as they had dreamed before beginning student life. However, the lack of information about the training programme or heavy disciplinary contents were not the main reasons for these negative feelings. Instead, as most students mentioned, English as the MoI for heavy content subjects was the main issue. Whether students had acquired sufficient English skills for studying their content subjects, and whether the department provided any language support for students to get over these negative beginnings, will be discussed in the next section.

5.4.2. EMI preparation

5.4.2.1. Previous English learning experience

Since English is a compulsory subject in Vietnamese secondary schools, all the student had learnt English for at least 7 years before they enrolled in the DoS. This figure could be higher for some students who were involved in pilot English programme in primary schools. However, few students considered this length of English learning to be effective and adequate for them to acquire necessary linguistic proficiency. One of the reasons for this inadequacy was that students did not take English seriously during their general education. Instead, most of them just neglected the subject, as David revealed below:

Extract 5.11 FG.Y2.01 - 26

- 1 David When I started my high school education, I decided that I would not pay attention to English anymore. I quitted it. When I was at grade 12, I started learning English again for graduation exam, but at that moment, it didn't work

As mentioned earlier (section 5.2.2.2), there are different categories of subjects in the national university entrance examination, which usually makes students pay more attention to some subjects and abandon others. Here in the case of David, as well as many student participants, they chose to abandon English for the benefit of other subjects, and therefore, they did not make effort to learn it well. A long period of English learning at schools, accordingly, was more like a process of coping with tests and exams other than improving their proficiency. The average English scores of 12th grade students in annual national graduation exams can be used as an illustration for the ineffectiveness of English learning and teaching in Vietnam. In 2017, 70% of candidates scored below 5 out of 10 in this subject (MOET, 2017).

Another issue related to EMI preparation was the considerably noticed gap between the curriculum in high schools and in universities. This point was markedly raised in different focus groups and my personal conversations with students. Most students did not think they had enough preparation from what they had learnt previously, even when they had worked hard and seriously for the subject of English, as Laura revealed:

Extract 5.12.FG.Y4.01 - 16

1 Laura I think English at university and English at high school are worlds apart. Completely different, the
 2 way we speak the way we listen so much different. Being here, our preparation is like starting
 3 from zero [...] when we are at university, there are so many differences. For example, apparently
 4 when you major International Studies, there are so many disciplinary vocabulary. Those
 5 vocabulary we don't know.

In this extract, Laura compared the kind of English she learnt in high schools and that used in the current degree. As one of the participants who decided to take English as a subject for entrance examination, Laura started focusing on English seriously since secondary school. Her first-choice BA degree was not with the DoS but the English Department. Nevertheless, she was panic when her language resources built up during the previous years did not match the disciplinary English at university. That explains why her “preparation is like starting from zero”(lines 2 and 3), and she felt as if everything started from scratch. Similarly, other students could spot a clear-cut boundary between the general English they had learnt before and the English they had to know in order to master content subjects.

The shocking difference between high school knowledge of English and university use of English that students experienced was also perceived by lecturers. For most lecturer participants, the gap lied at that English learning at high schools focused on grammar and test preparation, while in this EMI programme, students were not only asked to speak and listen, but also acquire a quantity of disciplinary vocabularies. For example, Tammy believed that students felt “scared”

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(line 4) because they stepped out of the familiar grammar-oriented curriculum in high schools and faced a new direction of English use in their content subjects:

Extract 5.13. IN.TAM - 82

1 Tammy Yah my students were not prepared [...] For example, I am currently teaching a content subject
2 for first year students in English. My students are so lost, because they haven't got used to
3 listening and speaking [...] they only learned Grammar in the past, so studying in English really
4 scared them.

In addition, during interviews, lecturers often referred back to the fact that their students had a low level of English, no matter how long they had learnt the language before. Most of them strongly believed that students were not prepared for this EMI journey:

Extract 5.14. IN.VIV - 102

1 Vivian Students really want to learn in English. Really want. But, basically, their fundamental knowledge
2 of English is not good.

In short, regarding previous English learning experience, it appeared that students lacked preparation for this EMI programme. Although they spent a number of years learning English in general education, not much could be used as a tool for them to access content knowledge at university level. Since preparation is a crucial factor for learning to occur effectively in an EMI programme (Kuwamura, 2018), students' inadequate preparedness prior to their EMI enrolment means that there should be supporting language courses alongside (Yeh, 2014). The next section will discuss the language courses offered in this BA degree at the DoS.

5.4.2.2. Language support in the DoS

A description of the DoS curriculum (5.2.2.3) has mentioned that students are supposed to study General English (GE) skills during the first five semesters. They can also select some ESP courses as a substitute for these general English modules. These can be seen as supplementary language courses which are believed to be crucial in supporting students in EMI programmes (Chang, 2010; Kim et al., 2017).

Nevertheless, both lecturer and student participants did not express a positive attitude towards these supporting courses. For these modules, students in the DoS followed the same syllabus with students from the Department of English, while their learning aims and objectives were quite different. The gap between what they could achieve in these modules and the

language they needed to learn disciplinary subjects was considerably big, as illustrated in extract 5.15. Tracy and Beth emphasized that the knowledge they acquired in GE courses was much more simplified compared to technical terms they needed for EMI modules, which were more complicated and “troublesome”. Although they did not explicitly state it, what can be implied here is the lack of usefulness these GE modules brought to their EMI study.

Extract 5.15. FG.Y4.02 – 66

- 1 Tracy General English is simpler, while disciplinary English is related to politics
- 2 Beth It's about politics, difficult
- 3 Tracy Those words, if we use those words wrongly, it is connected to other things
- 4 Beth wrong meanings
- 5 Tracy yah wrong meanings entail many more troublesome issues. So we are often worried that we use wrong key words in English
- 6

These concerns above were shared among students in all focus groups. As second year students in extract 5.16 and 5.17 stated, high marks in GE modules did not equally mean their ability to comprehend EMI disciplinary subjects. Compared to simple words in GE lessons, Minnie described the vocabulary in her EMI subjects as “falling from the sky” (line 2), a phrase literally translated from Vietnamese which means something unexpected happening without any reasons or preparations. Both Minnie and Rob were confident in their GE ability, as they could get good scores or communicate in English without difficulty. But that confidence disappeared when it came to EMI subjects. The lack of parallel structure of language support between GE modules and correspondent EMI modules seems to make students question the relevance and effectiveness of GE in the syllabus. Reading in English for their content subjects with unfamiliar technical terms and academic words remained a linguistic challenge.

Extract 5.16. FG.02.01 - 135

- 1 Minnie Honestly, I think in general English we just learn simple words. But when we learn our content
- 2 subjects, we learn those unknown vocabulary [...] they are like, falling from the sky.
- 3 So for me, my ability I can say it is excellent it is good, learning English in those general
- 5 modules my scores are also very high. But when learning content subjects I understand nothing

Extract 5.17. FG.02.01 - 143

- 1 Rob Actually the English for daily communication, like those learnt in the general skills modules. If I
- 2 those subjects, it's not a big deal, I can communicate with foreigners well. I can communicate.
- 3 There's no problem. But when it comes to my disciplinary subject, I don't get a point when
- 4 reading textbooks.

Lecturers were aware of this issue and they acknowledged the existing gap between these language support modules and their EMI subjects. As Hannah said in extract 5.18, students'

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proficiency was not much improved after five semesters of GE. She also referred to the reality of these language classes, where the student population was usually above 40 and hence they did not have many opportunities to practise. The DoS students were occasionally mixed with students from the Department of English as well.

Extract 5.18. IN.HAN – 42

1 Hannah Although students have five semesters from semester one to semester five to learn general
2 English skills, their language proficiency is not improved much. And you know the reality of those
3 language skills class, I don't need to say.

It can be summarised here that the GE courses given alongside their main EMI modules were inadequate and ineffective. The lack of linguistic preparation discussed in section 5.4.2.1, and these language support classes are crucial background information to understand the next chapters – which investigate how the EMI policy was operated and practised at classroom level in the DoS.

5.4.3. Why EMI?

Section 5.4.1 and 5.4.2 have highlighted the problems related to EMI implementation in the DoS. It should also be emphasized that EMI does not bring such benefits as tuition fees or ranking to the department. Against this backdrop, the reasons why EMI was supported should be explored.

Firstly, all seven lecturers shared the same answer that they preferred teaching in English. For most participants, this personal interest could be linked to their own EMI experience (see Table 5.3, p.79), similar to what has been found in other context (Gürtler & Kronewald, 2015). They felt confident about their language proficiency, and hence did not feel any pressure in lecture delivery. More remarkably, they even found it easier to teach in English than in Vietnamese. This is because the area of international relations involves technical terms or concepts in English, whose meanings cannot be equally found in a Vietnamese translated version. To illustrate, Helen mentioned the word “*hegemony*” in extract 5.19. She acknowledged that people still translated the word into Vietnamese, but the meaning was not totally transferred from L2 to L1.

Extract 5.19. IN.HEL - 6

1 Helen For example, there are words when we translate into Vietnamese, like HEGEMONY. If translated

2 into Vietnamese, it is ... generally, they still translate those words in existing newspapers or in
 3 books, but when I see the translation, I know it is not really correct.

To avoid such a problem that Helen mentioned, most lecturers would choose to fully explain the meaning of the terms in Vietnamese other than providing an equivalent translation. It means that for one short term in English, they may need a longer utterances to explain in Vietnamese. A typical example that was noted across observed modules is the term “government watchdog”. In politics, it refers to an official organisation that “watches the activities of a particular part of government in order to report illegal acts or problems” (Cambridge Dictionary), translated into Vietnamese as “cơ quan theo dõi nhằm giám sát hoạt động của một tổ chức chính phủ nhằm báo cáo các hành vi vi phạm pháp luật hoặc các vấn đề”. As there is no equivalent term of “government watchdog” in Vietnamese, the lecturers will need to use the long explanation above, while using it in English would be more convenient. That is to say, there were certain terms in L2 that even the lecturers found it hard to come up with an equivalence in L1. If lecturers were not careful when explaining such terms in Vietnamese, students would feel perplexed (Tammy, interview).

Another reason for lecturers to prefer EMI was the availability of teaching and learning materials. Most syllabus of the EMI programme were designed by the lecturers who pursued their degrees abroad, brought back their training materials acquired during their study, and used them for their teaching in the DoS. These materials were mostly in English. Moreover, those materials available in Vietnamese reflected certain influences of the governmental perspective, hence limiting the multi-dimensional lenses needed for critical analysis of international relations. Accordingly, teaching in English offered the lecturers more opportunities to save time and introduce a variety of readings to students. All these disciplinary influences can be summarised in extract 5.20.

Extract 5.20. IN.NAN– 112

1 Nancy You will surely not like to teach a class in Vietnamese when all the materials you have are in
 2 English, and most lecturers are trained, so when we go back we have a lot of available materials
 3 acquired from abroad. None would like to switch to Vietnamese [...] It is a convenience for
 4 lecturers. As I said earlier, those terms I don't know their Vietnamese equivalence. To be frank
 5 it's like that. Thus teaching English was more convenient.

On the other hand, it is interesting to see how students felt about doing EMI given their negative first encounters and their inadequate English proficiency. Surprisingly, most students advocated EMI in spite of their struggles with language and knowledge. What stroke me most was the repeated concept of “identity” that students raised in focus groups. As mentioned in section

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5.2.2, the DoS is located in the AC, a college specialising in foreign languages, and this studentship dictated students' strong orientation for studying their discipline in English. In extract 5.21, Joanne described her experience in EMI as an investment in English learning. She kept referring to the title of her college and it was remarkably captivating when she associated the educational aims of her college to English only, while the school actually offered degrees in other languages such as French or Chinese. Similarly, in extract 5.22, Maddie referred to same identity, stating if the courses were no longer in English, then there would be no reason to be registered at the AC. In other words, it was EMI that made the student participants different from graduates of the equivalent VMI programme in International Relations from other institutions.

Extract 5.21. FG.Y3.01 - 186

1 Joanne In my opinion, it should be in English, because studying in this college, having that studentship
2 of this college of foreign languages, we shouldn't make a fuss over English or Vietnamese.
3 Once you choose to be in this college, you should invest to the best in learning English [...]
4 So if you want to graduate and achieve what you want, you have to invest into learning English.

Extract 5.22. FG.Y4.02 - 506

1 Maddie We should use English, if we are in this college but we don't study in English, we shouldn't
2 enrol in this college of foreign languages.

In addition to their college identity, students believed that doing EMI would be beneficial for their future careers if they worked in the areas of foreign cooperation and their potential partners would be foreigners. In extract 5.23, August, Spring and Louise mentioned these EMI advantages for their competitiveness in labour market. Accordingly, the challenges they had to face in an EMI programme would pay off in the end, as they would have “higher” skills and knowledge. That EMI brings job benefits was discussed in other focus groups and in some interviews as well.

Extract 5.23. FG.Y3.02 - 170

1 August If we learn in English and if we learn this major, we will graduate and work for foreigners.

2 If we learn in Vietnamese, it will be disadvantageous for our comprehension, or we can =

3 Spring =distort=

4 August =our understanding of what the lecturers teach us

5 Louise learning in English is more difficult. But the knowledge and the skills we have later will be higher.

It can be seen that students complained about how unexpected it was for them to study their content subjects in English in the beginning (see 5.4.1.2). However, they also acknowledged that EMI would bring them certain benefits. Their studentship of a college majoring in foreign languages also led to their perception that English should be the language of teaching and learning in the DoS.

5.5. Concluding remark

This chapter sketches a general picture of the DoS and its EMI programme and participants. The voices of the students and lecturers presented here provide background information, which will help to understand better the EMI implementation in the next chapters. The DoS was not the first choice for most students, who enrolled in the programme with a feeling of perplexity, a lack of preparation, and contradicted ideas of EMI. Yet in the end, EMI was still preferred by both lecturers and students, although that preference needs to be flexibly realised based on specific conditions and contexts. Chapter 6 is going to investigate how EMI was actually implemented in the DoS.

6 EMI Language Policy in the Department of Study

6.1. Introduction

As mentioned in section 1.2, EMI in this current study is defined when English is [among] the language[s] of: 1) classroom interaction between lecturers and students, 2) teaching and learning materials, and 3) assessment. This way of EMI conceptualisation derives from my personal judgement that a complete English-only institutional practice might seem too unrealistic for the DoS for two reasons: all student and lecturer participants were Vietnamese, and students were not linguistically prepared for the programme (see 5.4.2). In such a context, the presence of L1 in classroom practice is certainly unavoidable.

This chapter aims to explore the EMI language policy in the DoS by zooming in the dynamic interaction of three dimensions in the ROADMAPPING framework: 1) (language) Management, 2) Agents, and 3) Practices and Processes (see Chapter 2). It will first discuss the establishment and introduction of the policy, followed by the key factors that influence how the policy was interpreted and reconstructed at classroom level.

6.2. The introduction of EMI policy in class

In addition to language policies that are often stated explicitly in official documents, there are unofficial, implicit or covert policies (Johnson, 2013; Wiley, 2004), which is the case of EMI policy in the DoS. It is worth noting that the choice of English as the MoI in this department was originally made by lecturers when the DoS was first founded in 2007 (see 5.2.2.1). In other words, EMI implementation was a bottom-up initiative from the lecturers. This grassroots initiative makes the policy a set of decisions about language use in the programme that involves only two levels of educational system: department and classroom level. At the department level, the policy is orally conversed among lecturers and finalised as a shared agreement in staff meetings. It is then proceeded to classroom level where all the lecturers, and even students, interpret and implement EMI on their own way. This thesis focuses on the implementation at classroom level.

Given this BA programme was not registered as an official EMI degree in the annual prospectus of Vietnamese universities, most student participants enrolled in the programme without knowing about the use of English as the MoI (see 5.2.2.1). Accordingly, making students aware that they would have to learn content subjects in English was totally in the hands of

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individual lecturers. The data reveals that lecturer participants introduced the language policy via a few ways: 1) by telling the policy directly to students at the beginning of the semester, 2) by modelling the use of English as the MoI in lecturer-student interaction, or 3) by introducing English teaching and learning materials to their classes.

First, about half of the lecturers shared in the interviews that they would clearly announce to students which language(s) would be used and expected to be used in specific class activities. For instance, in extract 6.1, Tammy revealed that as a lecturer, she stressed on the use of English as the main MoI in her classes (lines 1, 4 and 6), but still acknowledged the necessity of Vietnamese as a supporting tool for explaining complicated disciplinary issues (lines 2 and 3). She took into consideration of her students' English level and knew that the absence of Vietnamese in her modules would be impossible. Yet at the same time, Tammy emphasized that L1 was only an additional language (line 6), and students were supposed to try their best to use English in the class. In other words, Vietnamese was considered to be the last recourse, only after students did not succeed in the use of English.

Extract 6.1. IN.TAM - 54

1 Tammy At the beginning, I will tell my students that this subject is studied in English [...] But, I
2 also add, "if there is anything you [students] don't understand, I will explain in
3 Vietnamese". Although I am prepared that I will probably need to explain a lot in
4 Vietnamese, I still need to orient my students to the direction that the subject is in
5 English, assessment is in English, interaction with me is in English, and student
6 presentation is in English. [...] Vietnamese is not a main one.

It can be said that students' English ability is the most important factor for all lecturer participants to consider before issuing a specific implementation of EMI language policy in their classes. During interviews, all the seven lecturers stated that they would prefer to have their classes delivered only in English. Nevertheless, they referred to the English-only policy as something that could only be dreamed about but would never work for their students, given the fact students had not prepared enough to fulfil the high linguistic requirement of the training programme. Therefore, they did not come to their classes with a pre-teaching, fixed policy, but an expectation that their language policy would need to be modified based on students' needs and proficiency. On the one hand, some lecturers like Tammy preferred to make the language policy quite strict at the beginning of the semester, and then as the courses went by, flexibly adapted the policy to their students' level. On the other, some lecturers would avoid such an overt announcement. To illustrate, in extract 6.2, Hannah shared that she usually did not have an

explicitly stated language policy in her modules, which all were for final year students. Unaware of students' English ability, she could not decide on the amount of English and Vietnamese use beforehand. Thus, she decided to develop an ad hoc policy for her students to see what would work for each specific class.

Extract 6.2. IN.HAN – 44

1 Hannah No, I don't impose any language policy, because I meet my students in their fourth
 2 year and I don't know what level they are at [...] Therefore, I want to have some
 3 flexibility. It means that I want to see the reality of my students first, and then I will
 4 develop a language policy. And I am really easy going with the use of both English and
 5 Vietnamese.

Although Hannah, and some other lecturer participants, did not explicitly state any language regulations, she perceived herself to use mainly English in class. This was confirmed by her students in focus groups. In extract 6.3, students shared that they should use English in Hannah's class because "she always speaks English" (line 7) and therefore, they just simply follow her (line 8). There was no requirement from Hannah, but her students still found it more appropriate to use English. Vietnamese was the only option when they could not produce a proper answer in English, and they would ask for her permission before switching to their L1.

Extract 6.3. FG.Y4.02 – 124

1 Phuong does Hannah tell you that you need to answer her questions in English, or do you assume that?
 2 Nasha we do it ourselves
 3 Beth we assume it. If we can't answer it in English, we will ask her if we could use Vietnamese.
 4 She lets us do it.
 5 Nasha she doesn't require us=
 6 Beth = but we still do it in English
 7 Maddie because she always speaks English in our class
 8 Nasha so we just follow her

Interestingly, it was found from observation data that on average, English only occupied 34.68 % of Hannah's language use in her class (see section 7.3). What strikes here is students' aforementioned belief that "she always speaks English" even when Hannah did use more Vietnamese. This can be potentially explained by two reasons. Firstly, when the lectures started, Hannah mainly occupied English and then gradually switched to Vietnamese as the class proceeded. Secondly, Hannah was regarded as the most fluent and nativelike speaker among the DoS lecturers. In other words, Hannah's fame for her beautifully spoken English and her normal pattern of language use may have had some influence on students' perception of her class

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language policy. It can be inferred here that Hannah indirectly set the rules for her students by demonstrating her “nativelike” linguistic competence.

EMI language policy was also introduced to DoS students through the presentation of course materials, such as course syllabi, Powerpoint slides, or teaching and learning materials. In three observed modules, students were given a syllabus on the first day of class, and Figure 6.1 (p. 101) was an example from Nina’s course. These syllabi summarised course description, assessment, timeline, and core readings. While none of them explicitly stated any requirements related to language choices in the courses, all were written in English only. Especially, when it came to reading texts, all the resources were English journals, books or online resources. That is to say, the presence of English and the absence of Vietnamese gave students the implicit message of what language was dominant in these modules.

For most students, the introduction of the language policy seemed scary in the beginning of their study at the DoS. Nevertheless, as the course went by, they recognised that the regulations were not always strict and Vietnamese was still available for them. Especially, for third and fourth year student participants, the experience they had acquired after a few semesters in the DoS made them perceive the policy to be rather flexible. In extract 6.4, Nata referred to the language regulations as “threats” (line 3), but what she really meant was opposite. It is truly demanding to find an English equivalent to her phrase “dọa dọa vậy đó”, since the original Vietnamese answer implies that she no longer believed in the validity of the policy. It can be interpreted that the policy was announced, but anyway, their lecturers would adapt it. Mari got what Nata meant and elaborated that lecturers would finally switch to Vietnamese. Similar experience is demonstrated in extract 6.5.

Extract 6.4. FG.Y3.01 – 187

- 1 Phuong About the language policy, did your lecturers require you to use English only, or they
- 2 didn't say anything? Or you understood the requirement by yourself?
- 3 Nata They just made threats
- 4 Mari They first thought that we learnt very well, so they used English @@ Then they got bored and
- 5 switched to Vietnamese

Extract 6.5. FG.Y4.01 – 80

- 1 Mia In our first year, she was lecturing but then the whole class understood nothing
- 2 Birdy Then she had to switch to Vietnamese

Figure 6.1. The syllabus of “Global Politics”

Department of International Studies Course syllabus 2016 GLOBAL POLITICS Semester 1, 2016- Tuesday 7:00-8:45am <hr/> Lecturer: M.A. NINA emailaddress@gmail.com
<p>I. Course description:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • This course introduces students with background knowledge and a new approach to the core concepts and theories of global politics such as liberalism, realism and constructivism • Conventional and newly emerging issues varying from economic globalisation, the changing role of state in global politics, war and peace, human rights, terrorism, the global environment, development and security are described and assessed in light of updated events in world politics. <p>II. Course objectives This course has the following aims:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To equip students of international relations major with a common core of ideas, information on international politics and related remarkable issues • To stimulate interest and background in topics that can be researched in other IR-related courses • To sharpen skills and deepen experience in efficient research, analysing facts, critical thinking, effective oral presentation • To prepare students for other courses in international relations for eventual career work in Ministry/Department of Foreign Affairs, international organisations, NGOs, media groups, and other professions. <p>III. Assessment:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Regular attendance+ active participation in class activities (group discussion+ debate) 10% ○ Individual oral presentation 20% ○ End-of-term quiz 10% <p>III. Lecture schedule</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Week 1: Course introduction • Week 2: Introducing Global Politics and Historical Context • Week 3: Theories of Global Politics • Week 4: The Economy in a Global Age • Week 5: The State and Foreign Policy in a Global Age • Week 6: The Nation and society in a Global Age • Week 7: Identity, Culture and Challenges to the West • Week 8: Power and Twenty-first Century World Order • Week 9: War and Peace • Week 10: Terrorism • Week 11: Human Rights and Humanitarian Intervention • Week 12: Poverty and Development • Week 13: Global Environmental Issues • Week 14: International Organizations and the United Nations • Week 15: Quiz taking and briefing on final exam format. <p>V. CORE READINGS:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Textbook <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Heywood, Andrew. <i>Global Politics</i>. New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2011. • Further readings: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Basu, Rumki. <i>International Politics: Concepts, Theories and Issues</i>. SAGE Publications India, 2012. ○ Beeson, Mark, and Nick Bisley, eds. <i>Issues in 21st Century World Politics</i>. Palgrave Macmillan, 2013. ○ Gilpin, Robert. <i>War and Change in World Politics</i>. Cambridge University Press, 1983. ○ Waltz, Kenneth N. <i>Theory of International Politics</i>. Waveland Press, 2010.

To sum up, students in the DoS got to know the EMI language policy through their lecturers only after they entered the programme. In some cases, the lecturers would emphasize the use of English as the main MoI while Vietnamese was a supplementary language to support the knowledge co-construction process. In some others, they informally formulated the policy through their observable and regular language choices in delivering lectures, interacting with students, or using teaching resources. Furthermore, it can be said that all the lecturers in this research were fully aware of their students' linguistic proficiency and prepared to modify their initially introduced policy. As Menken and Garcia (2010b) argue, “there is typically space for policy negotiation in classroom practice” (p.1), and that is what happened in all classes observed. During the whole semester, there were many instances of policy interpretation and re-construction under the influence of different factors. This will be discussed in the next section.

6.3. The implementation of EMI policy at classroom level: what influence the process?

The fact that English is the MoI in the DoS entails various questions to be raised and addressed locally in each class, including when and how much English and Vietnamese should be used. Undeniably, there are no fixed answers to these issues. Instead, they depend on certain factors involving lecturers and students with diverse backgrounds and experiences. In addition to students' linguistic proficiency as mentioned in the previous part 6.2, the collected data reveals that there are three main factors: 1) features of academic disciplines, 2) lecturers' identity as content experts, and 3) students' agency.

6.3.1. Academic disciplines: heavy amount of challenging content knowledge

Neumann, Parry and Becher (2002) classified academic disciplines according to hard/soft and pure/applied categories. Among these main categories, soft pure disciplines are defined to be reiterative and holistic with an emphasis on qualitative content. Students are expected to demonstrate their "intellectual ideas", "creativity in thinking and fluency of expression" (p.410).

Majoring in International Studies means that students at the DoS have to master a wide range of interdisciplinary knowledge, including history, politics, law, or economics. Most of these subjects belong to the aforementioned soft pure disciplines, requiring students to develop and enhance their critical perspectives. Compared to subjects like Mathematics or Finance, these are more descriptive and linguistically demanding since students are encouraged "to put forward their own ideas in the form of written essays or verbal presentations" (Neumann et al., 2002, p. 412). That is to say, students need to employ language to describe a historical event, analyse a political summit, or debate around a legislation document. At a more advanced level, they have to use language to express their critical thinking of the given topics, via various channels of communication: oral, written, or both. EMI students in some other studies have found soft pure disciplines like this quite challenging (for example, see Kim et al., 2017).

Bearing that in mind, it is not surprising when the academic disciplines of the DoS were frequently mentioned as one of the factors dictating the implementation of language policy at classroom level. The first reason was the heavy amount of content knowledge covered in this BA programme. As briefly discussed in 5.4.1.2, what shocked students most was that the subjects, already difficult to be comprehended in Vietnamese, were supposed to be learned in English. In

extract 6.6, Pat and Spring were talking about the module of “International Law”, in which they had to give presentation in English.

Extract 6.6. FG.Y3.02 – 87

1 Pat Really, learning that in Vietnamese is already difficult. When we have to give a
 2 presentation about a topic in 15 minutes in Vietnamese, it is already hard. For me, since
 3 the lecturer assigned us a topic for presentation, I was like @@ for one week, the topic
 4 kept popping up in my head, “law, law” @@
 5 Spring it’s like we spent all of our time on that subject

Similar situation was found with second year students. Data from focus groups, research diary and informal talks with students during school breaks confirm the same unpleasant feeling that they have when thinking about the presentation in English in the module of “Introduction to World Politics”, also led by Nina. The most salient response reflects a negative attitude towards the use of English in their presentations, handouts and slides, because there were many new complex concepts that they could not even understand in Vietnamese. Consequently, in spite of days and nights students spent on one presentation, they learnt nothing except for the stress, as Rob mentioned in extract 6.7. In other words, from students’ perspective, the requirement of English as the medium of individual presentation in this module was not effective at all.

Extract 6.7. FG.Y2.01 – 50

1 Rob Yah we couldn’t understand anything @@@ Our level is still low. We agree that we
 2 should learn both: the language of English and the content knowledge. But that policy of
 3 Nina was too much.

During the interview with Nina, she acknowledged the problems raised by her students in this module and explained why she set such a language policy. To some extent, the fact that Nina just came back from New Zealand and this was the first semester she started teaching again after her two-year leave had a considerable influence on her expectation of students’ level. Additionally, as shown in extract 6.8, she imposed the policy based on her own experience as a previous student of the department, who studied these subjects in English with much enthusiasm (lines 3 and 4). Nina had assumed that, students would make their effort at acquiring disciplinary knowledge no matter how challenging it was. Yet the reality totally disappointed her (line 5).

Extract 6.8. IN.NIN – 50

1 Nina I had a lot of expectations before teaching these classes. Yeah, but there were many
 2 contradictions between expectations and realities, because in fact I thought that my
 3 students would be similar to me, when I was a student here, I learnt these subjects and

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4 felt interested. But I feel like they are learning because they are obliged to learn, so I am
5 quite disappointed.

Even when Nina recognised that delivering individual presentation in English was stressful for students, that part of the policy could not be changed for several reasons. Firstly, since students started presenting in week 3, it would be inconsistent in assessment if the language of delivery was not the same among students. Secondly, the course materials were in English. Accordingly, she attested that it would cause more learning troubles if students had to translate them into Vietnamese during presentation. However, as a consequence of this reality, Nina modified her class language policy on her lecturing part, and my classroom observations with Nina and her second-year students in “Introduction to World Politics” showed how much her language use of English and Vietnamese changed as the course went by. During the first few weeks, Nina used both English and Vietnamese to deliver lectures and to interact with students. She then asked questions to check student understanding, but most of the time what she could receive was silence. After she recognised how much her students struggled to overcome both linguistic and content barriers, the amount of English was reduced while more Vietnamese was employed. By week 5, Nina mainly used Vietnamese, and English was only for the PPT slides or technical terms/concepts. Since this policy implementation seemed to go beyond Nina’s definition of a typical EMI class, Nina was occasionally confused during our informal conversations if recording her so-much-Vietnamese-use class would be helpful for my EMI study.

Extract 6.9 is an example that shows the policy modification when Nina interacted with students. This is a Q&A session after Lindsay delivered her presentation on the topic of “capitalism system”. As can be seen, Nina mainly used Vietnamese, except for line 4 and line 8 when she asked what enterprise meant in English. This question was simple enough for Lindsay to understand, and Nina had asked similar questions in Vietnamese from line 1 to line 3. Additionally, technical terms such as “enterprise” or “capitalism” were mostly kept in their English versions (lines 1, 2, 6). The reasons for this English use will be discussed later in section 7.4.2.

Extract 6.9. CR.NIN.01 – 199

1 Nina *trong ba hình thức chủ nghĩa tư bản (.) đầu tiên em trình bày enterprise (.)*
 {among three types of capitalism (.) first you mentioned}
2 *vậy enterprise có nghĩa là gì? {so what does enterprise mean?}*
3 *đầu tiên em hiểu gì? {first, what do you understand?}*
4 *what is enterprise? (.)*
5 Lindsay *đã thừa cô là (.) chủ nghĩa tư bản (.) {yes, Mrs (.) capitalism}*
6 Nina *khoan khoan trình bày về capitalism đã (.) {no no don't mention capitalism yet}*
7 *cô hỏi enterprise có nghĩa là gì? (.) {I am asking you what enterprise means}*

8 what is enterprise? (.)
 9 *rồi chủ nghĩa tư bản doanh nghiệp là chi?* {so what is enterprise capitalism?}

Nina was not the only one who operated the language policy differently from what she had initially planned due to the heavy amount of content knowledge. Except for Tiffany who did not mention this issue, all other lecturers considered disciplinary modules to be highly demanding, which oriented their language policy implementation, as illustrated in extract 6.10 and 6.11:

Extract 6.10. IN. HEL – 4

1 Helen Teaching in English is our wish, but this is a content area, and it has disciplinary
 2 knowledge. “International Studies” is a laborious degree.

Extract 6.11. IN. NAN – 72

1 Nancy When my slides are 100% in English, the terminologies are underlined or bolded to
 2 highlight that they are the most necessary terms students have to know [...] I will explain
 3 in English, then give examples, then in Vietnamese, no matter whether they have
 4 understood the terms in English or not

Undeniably, the levels of difficulty among different disciplinary subjects were not the same, and so was the policy implementation. More English could be used, even when students' language proficiency was not relatively high, in introduction modules that contained general and familiar topics, or in modules that had commonly global features. “The study of Southeast Asian countries” is an example where English occupied about 75.23% of teacher talk (see section 7.3), but students still felt positive about their subject comprehension. In addition to Tiffany's pedagogical strategies (see chapter 8), there are two other reasons. First, as Vietnam is a country of ASEAN community, news about ASEAN appeared quite often in the national television and radio channels as well as newspapers, both printed and online versions. Secondly, by year 4, students have already built up theoretical knowledge that can be applied to solving practical issues in international relations among ASEAN countries and between ASEAN and other partners such as the US or EU.

Meanwhile, if the modules required practical links to the local context of Vietnam, reading materials in Vietnamese were included and more L1 was allowed. Similar allowance for Vietnamese would be accepted if the subject covered challenging disciplinary knowledge that required complex explanations. For example, in extract 6.12, Vivian compared her language policy between two modules “The History of International Relations” and “Vietnam's foreign policy”.

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Since the latter was specifically attached to Vietnamese situations, Vietnamese would make it easier for students to get the core points.

Extract 6.12. IN. VIV – 78

1 Vivian It depends on the subject. I think "The History of International Relations" is more general
2 and I use more English. But for "Vietnam's foreign policy", there are many points that
3 need to be discussed in Vietnamese, so Vietnamese occupies more than 50% of the class. I
4 think so. But more English is used in "The History of International Relations".

To sum up, the implementation process of EMI policy in the DoS was remarkably influenced by the disciplinary features of modules students had to cover. These features can be a heavy amount of knowledge students had to get per lesson, or challenging content to understand even in L1. The interpretation of English as the only MoI or among languages in class, accordingly, depends on the nature of each module, or even on each topic of the same module.

6.3.2. Lecturer's identity as content experts

There have been concerns that teaching content subjects in a foreign language will affect students' learning because lecturers may simplify the content to avoid imperfect lesson understanding (Dalton-Puffer, 2011). This simplification of content for the linguistic purpose, consequently, may put the disciplinary knowledge at risk (Hu, 2009). However, the previous section has indicated that it is not usually the case in the DoS. Instead of reducing the amount of knowledge or simplifying the content in one lesson, lecturers decided to use more Vietnamese for the purpose of clarity and comprehensibility of their disciplinary content. The lecturers could do this for two reasons: first, their EMI policy is a bottom up initiative, thus they had certain autonomy in policymaking. Secondly and more importantly, they identified themselves as content experts, which will be discussed in this section.

Most lecturer participants stated that they would like their students to develop language proficiency, but that was not their main target. Extract 6.13 is an example where Hannah first accepted her role as a language teacher (line 1), but at the end of this extract (line 7) she refused this and implicitly regarded herself as a content teacher. Taking Hannah's educational and teaching background into consideration, this kind of contradiction in her opinion actually makes sense. Hannah had her BA background in English Language Teaching and had a few years teaching in English Department before she moved to the US for her MA and PhD degree in American

Studies. That was the reason why she saw chances of English practice for her students during their EMI study. This should not only be done in class but also when students were assigned at-home reading texts. For Hannah, students could pay attention to how people develop their ideas and learn how to improve their writing based on those reading materials. However, Hannah did not consider this role of language teacher to be as much important as her current position as a content expert. In line 6, she said that it was just a recommendation for her students other than a regular reminder she had to deliver, because “it was not my responsibility” (line 7).

Extract 6.13. IN.HAN – 46

1 Hannah Normally lecturers don't pay attention if English is a tool or a target, but I am a language
 2 teacher myself, I have told my students that they should make use of all the chances that
 3 they can practise their skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Secondly, even in
 4 the texts students are assigned to read at home, they should read to get the contents, but
 5 also read to learn and take note of how the texts are written to improve their own skills.
 6 That is my advice for my students, but I don't remind students quite often because it is
 7 not my responsibility. However, I do mention it.

Later in the interview, Hannah repeated that she positioned herself as a content lecturer, not a language teacher (extract 6.14). That was why she would focus on content when assessing students: if students could answer the questions in a comprehensible way, they could get marks.

Extract 6.14. IN.HAN – 50

1 Hannah When marking assignments, I just assessed the ideas. I only focused on the ideas, because
 2 I am not language teacher.

The emphasis on “content” as the main criteria in assessment can be found in other interviews. Another example can be found in extract 6.15, Helen was talking about how she assessed group presentation. She would like her students to present in English, but she did not include language choice as one marking criterion (line 3). This elimination of language in the assessment guideline would prevent students from apprehension. For more significant forms of assessment such as semester-end tests, she allowed a mixed use of both L1 and L2 in students’ essays (lines 4 and 5). On the one hand, this permission for code mixing in official tests certainly created more work for Helen when marking (lines 5 and 6). On the other hand, that shows how much she encouraged students to use English within their competence while still offering students freedom of language choice. All these imply that despite her advocacy of English use, the biggest concern for Helen was still students’ understanding of the content rather than how well they could express their thinking in English. This act refers to translanguaging practices, and more examples and discussions are included in chapter 7 and 8.

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Extract 6.15. IN.HEL – 72

1 Helen There is no section for language in my assessment criteria, just not to make students
2 stressed. I will encourage, encourage, but I don't mark if {the presentation} is in English
3 or in Vietnamese [...]
4 For the final examinations in the previous years, I often let students write both in English
5 and Vietnamese. That means, I encouraged them to use as much English as possible, and
6 that made my marking process really demanding, because they could write freely.

Similar opinion from Tiffany is seen in extract 6.16, where she stated that correcting students' use of language or checking their grammar are not as important as students' demonstration of knowledge.

Extract 6.16. IN.TIF – 80

1 Tiffany Yah, so when I mark students' essays, I seldom correct their language use [...] Its main
2 purpose is to check if students understand the knowledge correctly and if they can
3 demonstrate their evaluation and thinking about one issue. In terms of language, I am
4 mostly concerned about the fundamental knowledge, if they can write or not. I don't
5 need to check grammar mistakes. I don't put too much weight on that.

Some lecturers shared that they actually corrected language use in assessed works, whether it was grammar, spelling, or pronunciation mistakes. Explaining for this, Tammy said in extract 6.17 that she wanted her students to improve their ELP. However, similar to the viewpoints presented above, content knowledge was the only thing Tammy took into consideration when giving marks. This implicitly confirmed her identity as a content expert.

Extract 6.17. IN.TAM – 66

1 Tammy I often tell my students that they can answer in English, but I will not reduce their marks if
2 they make grammatical or spelling mistakes. Because I want to encourage them to learn in
3 English [...] I still correct their spelling or grammatical mistakes, but I don't give them lower
4 mark. I only reduce their marks related to content knowledge.

That most lecturers did not assess language aspects in their EMI courses corresponds with findings from previous studies (Aguilar, 2017; Baker & Hüttner, 2017). Notwithstanding, while the majority of students in Baker & Hüttner (2017) felt that their English performance was assessed in examination, most students in focus groups agreed that disciplinary knowledge was the main concern of their lecturers in both assessments and daily teaching. For example, in extract 6.18,

some fourth year students were mentioning the correction of English grammar in their EMI subjects. Prior to this extract, students had been comparing the difference between their English knowledge in high schools and in this EMI programme. With an examination-oriented syllabus, students had to acquire various grammatical points and deal with numerous grammar exercises during their high school English learning. Nevertheless, since they started university, there was not much chance for them to use and review what they had learnt previously. They believed that lecturers did not care much if students could write a grammatically correct sentence, which resulted in their loss of grammar knowledge (lines 1 and 2. Yet Beth said that if her lecturer Hannah had taken grammar into consideration, there would have been “nothing left” for her essay to gain good mark (line 7). Her laughter at the end of this extract made it impossible to tell if this content-focused viewpoint actually made students more or less confident in their English usage.

Extract 6.18. FG.Y4.02 – 598

1 Tracy Many of them do not make a big deal about grammar, so we can't {use the grammar we
 2 learnt in the past}
 3 Beth Like the essay in Hannah's class last time. She didn't strictly require us about grammar.
 4 Generally it was because that subject was difficult. So she just asked us to have correct
 5 answers about the content. As long as she could understand our ideas when she read our
 6 essays. But she didn't check grammar. If she did check our grammar, it must be full of
 7 mistakes. Nothing left @@@

Most students – with the exception of second year students - also agreed that English knowledge was not the primary concern in their lecturers' daily teaching practices. In extract 6.19, third-year student participants were discussing about their language choice in classroom interaction with lecturers. For unchallenging topics, lecturers would ask questions in English and students would normally answer in Vietnamese. When being asked if their lecturers were happy with their answers in L1, Rebecca did not give an explicit answer. Yet she referred to her beliefs that for her lecturers, the academic knowledge outweighed language development.

Extract 6.19. FG.Y3.01 – 114

1 Rebecca Sometimes if the topic is easy, they ask questions in English
 2 Phuong in what language do you answer?
 3 Joanna in Vietnamese
 4 Nata if it is difficult, in Vietnamese @@
 5 Phuong Do your lecturers accept that?
 6 Rebecca Yah normally in disciplinary modules, the lecturers pay more attention to how we understand
 7 the subjects than how we use English.

The second-year students were the only group of participants who believed that language was also a focus, though not as important as content knowledge, in daily lessons. They mentioned their pronunciation being corrected in a few courses, including Nina's, and this is confirmed repetitively in classroom data. As illustrated in extract 6.20, Nina corrected Felicia's pronunciation of "pressure" at the end of her oral presentation by asking a series of questions of "how" (lines 1 to 5). Felicia was quite hesitant (line 6) before giving her answer /pri'ʃʊə(r)/, following by Nina's rather harsh comparison of /pri'ʃʊə(r)/ and /en'ʃʊə(r)/. "Ensure", belonging to the Abbott Global Corporation, is a household milk brand in Vietnam. Its name is pronounced in a Vietnamese way as /en'ʃʊə(r)/, and that explained why Nina referred to this brand twice when correcting Felicia's mistake (lines 7 and 13). That students were influenced by their Vietnamese on the way of pronouncing English words could be found numerously in all four observed modules, yet these pronunciation problems were not often pointed out. Nina was the lecturer who did this the most, but it does not mean she paid more attention to language than content knowledge. As Nina justified (lines 11 to 14), she only raised her concerns if those mistakes were too basic. In the interview, she still identified herself more as a content expert than a language teacher.

Extract 6.20. CR.NIN.04 – 17

The extracts provided so far in this section have confirmed lecturers' orientation to the clarification and comprehension of disciplinary knowledge. The question of what to prioritise in an EMI class where students have insufficient language proficiency and share the same L1 with their lecturers has been answered here. In the DoS, lecturers do not want to go for an unrealistic

target of “English-only” at the expense of disciplinary knowledge. It can be summarised that their identity as content experts has dictated their way of implementing and interpreting the EMI language policy in their classroom contexts.

6.3.3. Students as policy actors

The data in the two previous sections show that lecturers played the major role in the process of policy implementation and interpretation. They decided which language to be used, how much they should be used, and in what circumstances that the language choice could be flexibly altered. Nevertheless, in addition to this emphasis on lecturers as “policy actors” (Hult, 2018, p. 41), classroom data - supplemented with research diary - advocates that students participated actively in co-constructing language practices at classroom level.

To begin with, when there was no explicitly established norm of language use in their classrooms (i.e.: English for assessed individual presentations in Nina’s class), students would make use of their full linguistic repertoires to facilitate their classroom participation. Yet the way they acted varied among classes and lecturers. For example, in most of Hannah’s classes, students often asked for permission to use Vietnamese, as illustrated in extract 6.21.

Extract 6.21. CR.HAN.02 – 56

1 Hannah myth number one?
 2 (10)
 3 who can tell me (.) myth number one? (2)
 4 ok (.) Steph? (.)
 5 Steph *dạ thưa cô nói bằng tiếng Việt được không cô? (.) {Can I answer in Vietnamese, Mrs?}*
 6 Hannah it depends on you (.)
 7 Steph *dạ thưa cô là (.) cái ah ah myth đầu tiên là (.) Massey nói là sự sự di cư là ah nguyên nhân của {yes (.) Mrs (.) the ah ah first myth is (.) Massey said that (.) the the migration ah the cause of}*
 8 *sự ah các nền kinh tế ah (.) {the economies ah}*
[some interruption – a student arriving late to the class]
 9 migration ah is caused by ah lack of economic developments (.) in migrants’ home
 10 ah countries (.)

This episode was extracted from the beginning of a class discussion on the Republican’s myths of immigrants in the US. Hannah mainly used English to introduce an article students had read at home before asking the question in line 1. This was responded by a long silence from the students (10 seconds), followed by her repetition of the question (line 3). What strikes here is that Steph, once having raised her hand to participate, asked for Hannah’s permission to use

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Vietnamese. Interestingly, this request was done in Vietnamese, or basically, Steph imposed her language choice in this act of policy negotiation with her lecturer. Therefore, the conversation occurred in both languages with Hannah using English and Steph first using Vietnamese (lines 7 to 8) and then English (lines 9 to 10) – when she decided to read the whole sentence verbatim from the article. The meanings of her answers in two languages were rather similar, with more pauses and repetitions in her Vietnamese talk. It was likely that Steph had originally wanted to answer in L1 first so that she would have more time to formulate her thought in L2, and that explained why she asked for permission to use Vietnamese in the beginning. Nonetheless, what she actually did was literally translating a sentence in the reading text from English to Vietnamese. The translation was not really smooth, so finally Steph decided to read the sentence aloud, resulting in fewer hesitations in her English response.

The same group of fourth-year students established their language choice more dynamically in class with the two other lecturers: Tiffany and Helen. Compared to Hannah, Tiffany used much more L2 than L1, with a ratio of 3:1 (see 7.3). However, her relaxing and encouraging attitude towards students, together with her slow, calm way of speaking English and her young age, made students feel quite comfortable with Tiffany. Thus, they usually decided their language use without asking for Tiffany's permission, as illustrated in extract 6.22. Here, the class was discussing the topic of "US rebalancing policy in Asia Pacific Region", and Tiffany was asking a question in English about the norm related to the South China Sea (lines 1 to 4). Students were silent for a while before Claire responded with a request in Vietnamese (line 5), followed by Tiffany's reply in English without any reminders of language choice made by Claire. The interaction continued with Claire answering in English with short, simple words (lines 7 and 9). In this case, Claire actively took on her role as a policy actor, making a language choice based on her own linguistic repertoire. It is worth mentioning that this kind of interaction was quite typical to Tiffany's class.

Extract 6.22. CR.TIF.03 – 332

- 1 Tiffany the norm and objectives are different (.) ok?
- 2 (1.5)
- 3 what is the norm (.) related to South China Sea?
- 4 (6)
- 5 Claire ví dụ một cái đி cô? {can you give an example?}
- 6 Tiffany have you heard about code of conduct?
- 7 Claire what?
- 8 Tiffany code of conduct=
- 9 Claire =no

Helen's class was the setting where students demonstrated the most autonomy in language choice. In other words, the implementation of EMI policy in this module witnessed the active participation from students. One of the key reasons lies at the fact that Helen set an example of using both English and Vietnamese interchangeably in her talk. Students appeared to be aware of Helen's flexibility and thus, they activated their dynamic role in implementing and negotiating the policy. In all Helen's class episodes that involved student participation, students did not appear to ask for Helen's consent on what language to be used. That is to say, in group presentations and class discussions, students independently selected whatever language they felt comfortable and continuously switched between English and Vietnamese. Remarkably, if any students could manage to speak English, they would attempt to do it. They would select Vietnamese not because they were lazy to think, but because they were aware that their English proficiency might influence the content they delivered. Accordingly, in each group with various capabilities, each individual member had their own language choice. It was common for a presentation to be delivered in English by one speaker, and then in Vietnamese by the next speaker. Similarly, in Powerpoint slides, each team selected the language based on their own linguistic repertoire. They could present in Vietnamese orally but their slides were in English, making translanguaging happen commonly for both speakers and listeners.

An interesting example for students' language choice in Helen's class is a project presentation of group 3, including 6 members: Vanessa, Birdy, Anne, Laura, Mia and Daisy. Figure 6.2 (p. 114) represents the employment of both English and Vietnamese in their slides. When introducing the background of dumping, Vanessa had both the slides and her talk in L2. This part was quite theoretical and the information presented could be found in English in journal articles or on the Internet. Furthermore, compared to her classmates, Vanessa was observed to prefer using English to Vietnamese. After that, the group applied what they had learnt to proposing the project of "ProShrimp", an imaginative company founded and invested by a US corporation. The group had to ask for their classmates' participation in discussing the feasibility of this project by role playing a meeting between the company representative and local Vietnamese people. For this second part, the slides and talk were done in Vietnamese. In extract 6.23, Birdy played the role of Proshrimp Company representative from the US and explained in English that she would use Vietnamese to communicate with her potential Vietnamese partners. After that, she switched to Vietnamese.

Figure 6.2. Two PPT slides by group 3– CR.HEL.04

CAUSES OF DUMPING

Intentional dumping:

- Producers in one country are trying to stay competitive with producers in another country.
- Producers in one country are trying to eliminate the producers in another country and gain a larger share of the world market.
- Producers can make more profit by dividing sales into domestic and foreign markets, then charging each market whatever price the buyers are willing to pay.

➤ CHÍNH PHỦ

- Thúc đẩy phát triển kinh tế.
- Cung cấp một môi trường chính sách thuận lợi để tăng khả năng cạnh tranh toàn cầu
- Thúc đẩy quan hệ hợp tác và sự kéo theo phát triển của các ngành dịch vụ liên quan.



Extract 6.23. CR.HEL.04 – 333

1 Birdy hello everybody (.)
 2 I'm Birdy (.) the representative of ah Proshrimp (.) Company (.)
 3 well (.) I'm from the US but i want everyone to understand ah more clear about
 4 our project (.) so i will present the project in Vietnamese (.) are you ok? (.)
 5 Class @@ ok
 6 Birdy đầu tiên thì (.) nhằm đáp ứng nhu cầu của ah người dân người dân nuôi tôm cá trong tỉnh
 {first (.) to meet the demand of people people who build shrimp farm in this province}
 7 và ngoài tỉnh (.) tức là đáp ứng được nhu cầu và chất lượng của con tôm giống thì ah (.)
 {as other provinces (.) I mean to meet the demand and the quality of shrimp breeding ah}

It is apparent from the example above that Birdy felt free to select from her linguistic repertoires what could maximise the quality of her presentation, but at the same time took into consideration the need to make her language choice fit well in that situation. At the end of Birdy's talk about ProShrimp, Helen questioned the use of Vietnamese by comparing the identity of Proshrimp and the use of language associated with that identity (extract 6.24). Helen's laughter (line 3) and comment on Birdy's Vietnamese proficiency (line 5) indicated her attention to the use of Vietnamese in this context. Birdy's response in line 6 functioned as a rebuttal against Helen's statement "You speak Vietnamese fluently" – claiming that her choice of using Vietnamese in that setting was a deliberate and prepared act. It is interesting to see how the students empowered their L1 through this role play, because normally in real life, that kind of meeting between an American company and local people would often take place in English with an English-Vietnamese translator.

Extract 6.24. CR.HEL.04- 540

1 Helen so Proshrimp is an American company (.) or a Vietnamese company?
 2 Anne American

3 Helen [@@]
 4 Class [@@]
 5 Helen you speak vietnamese fluently
 6 Birdy *không phải mô cô (.) do học Tiếng Việt cấp tốc* {no Mrs (.) I learnt Vietnamese intensively}

Regarding the second-year participants in the observed module, since Nina used mostly Vietnamese in her talk time, students just followed that established norm and interacted with her in their mother tongue. However, as described in section 6.3.1, for the assessed individual presentation, they did not have that space of freedom as the fourth-year students in Helen's module. Nonetheless, in extract 6.25, Shelly revealed their tactics to deal with Nina's language policy in presentation. Outside class, the presenters and their classmates would arrange a prepared set of questions to be asked in Q&A sessions – which helped them feel safer with their use of English in this type of assessment. This was confirmed with a few other students in informal chats. On the one hand, this way of doing challenged the validity of presentation and Q&A. On the other hand, it demonstrated how students acted on their agency towards the EMI policy imposed by their lecturer. This may be linked to the concepts of "front stage" and "back stage" behaviours in sociology proposed by Goffman (1959). In this case, the presentation in class was a "front stage" performance when presenters were aware of the norms, the expectations and the class setting, with Nina and their classmates watching them. They were expected to present in English in a comprehensible way, and the audience was supposed to follow the talk so as to come up with proper questions. In order to prepare for their "front stage" appearance, students secretly had their "back stage" interaction – when the presenters and the audience were more relaxed and revealed their true selves. They admitted their fear for being reprimanded in class and rehearsed their way of asking and answering questions naturally. The roles of the questioner and respondents in the class, therefore, were only a "front stage" performance of the roles of friends/classmates on the "back stage".

Extract 6.25. FG.Y2.01-281

1 Shelly For that subject of global politics, we will arrange the questions before class. We will tell
 2 the presenters before class what we are going to ask them in their presentation, so they can get
 3 their answers ready so that she [referring to Nina] doesn't have any criticisms.

To sum up, the EMI policy implementation in the DoS was significantly contributed by students – who were conscious of their roles as policy actors. How they played that role differed among all the four modules observed and even among lessons with the same lecturer. Yet from the data above, it is apparent that students did not just passively follow what was imposed on

them. Instead, they found their own strategies to actually negotiate the policy and make use of their own linguistic repertoire.

6.4. Concluding remark

In this chapter, I have presented how the EMI language policy was founded at departmental level and then introduced to the DoS students via a few channels. The data shows that the lecturers were well prepared for the potential gap between the stated and enacted policy at classroom level. Also, three main driving forces that guided the policy implementation and interpretation process are discussed herein. Section 6.3.1 and 6.3.2 focus on the role of lecturers as policy actors, while section 6.3.3 emphasises the role of students in negotiating and co-constructing the language policy. It should be noted that these were not the only variables that affected how English and Vietnamese were used in this EMI programme. Some other variables, such as the relationship between students and each lecturer, the availability of Vietnamese teaching and learning materials, or the shortage of class time, were mentioned once or twice during focus groups and interviews. Although they affected this process of policy implementation and interpretation, they were not salient enough in the data to be fully discussed in a separate section.

Another point to keep in mind is the interrelationship of academic disciplines, lecturers' identity, students' initiatives and their low English level. There was not a clear-cut boundary between these elements in the way they influenced the process of policy implementation and interpretation at classroom level in the DoS. For instance, if students had had enough language proficiency to learn everything completely in English, the heavy amount of content knowledge delivered in English may not have been as problematic as it was for DoS students. In that case, lecturers would not have needed to select between content and language, and thus modify their language policy remarkably. This interrelation yet reflects how dynamic and diverse the implementation of an EMI policy in a specific context can be, depending on its constitutive components.

Additionally, the flexible implementation of the language policy in individual classes made it impossible to clearly distribute the roles of English and Vietnamese in the programme. There was no exclusive functional category, for example, English was mainly for lectures and Vietnamese was mainly for interactions. In addition, the value of studying about language practices in the DoS

does not lie at how much each language should be used in an EMI setting, but in which situation that monolingual or bilingual practices should or should not be encouraged. Chapter 7 will provide a more in-depth investigation of the use of English and Vietnamese in the DoS.

7 Language use in the Department of Study

7.1. Introduction

Chapter 6 has clearly stated that both Vietnamese and English were crucial for this studied EMI programme. The EMI policy was constantly negotiated and co-constructed by lecturers and students in their classroom practice. Following that flow of data analysis, this chapter will depict a detailed picture of the language practice in the department. It will begin with a general overview of how Vietnamese and English were distributed among domains in classroom practice, followed by their proportion in lecturer talk. The chapter ends with the functions of English and Vietnamese.

In this chapter, the data collected from classroom observation is placed as the main point of access to the focal component of Practices and Processes and The Roles of English, while other components such as Agents are still acknowledged for their interrelated dynamism. Besides, data from interviews, focus groups and other sources are employed as supplementary tools to analyse L1 and L2 use in the programme. It should be highlighted that the alternation between Vietnamese and English was more complex than just a simple identification of the language involved. Accordingly, as defined in section 2.6.1, this study follows the conceptualisation of Garcia (2009, p.45) that codeswitching, as well as other kinds of bilingual language use, is included in translanguaging.

7.2. Domain distribution of Vietnamese and English use in classroom practices

In this study, classroom practice refers to all the constructs that facilitate the process of meaning making and knowledge co-construction in an EMI class, and therefore, the language used in these constructs contributes to the way EMI is defined in the DoS. For a general overview, Table 7.1 summarises the distribution of Vietnamese and English in all these domains of classroom practice. In this table, items 1 to 5 describe several types of lecturer and student talks, while items 6 to 8 belong to the category of visual aids – with item 8 referring specifically to lecturers' use of available whiteboard in classroom to write key words in English. Item 9 includes handouts delivered by lecturers (mostly by Tiffany) and students in their presentations. Meanwhile, items 10 to 12 refer to all the required reading materials, most of which were assigned in English by lecturers, except for those found from Vietnamese resources by students. For in-class quizzes

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(item 13), the questions were written in English but students could write their answers in both languages. In item 14, at-home short written homework such as reading text summaries (Hannah's class) or project briefs (Helen's class) must be submitted in English.

Table 7.1. A summary of Vietnamese and English use in classroom practices

	Vietnamese	English
1. Lectures	✓	✓
2. Student individual presentation		✓
3. Student group presentation	✓	✓
4. Student pair/group discussion	✓	
5. Interaction between lecturers and students	✓	✓
6. Slides by lecturers		✓
7. Slides by students	✓	✓
8. Whiteboards		✓
9. Handouts		✓
10. Course book		✓
11. In-class extra reading materials		✓
12. At-home reading materials	✓	✓
13. In-class quizzes/tests	✓	✓
14. At-home short written homework		✓

All these domains in Table 7.1 did not work independently but operated in a dynamic interrelation. Especially, in this EMI context, several of them were observed to function as linguistically supplementary tools for some others in the process of meaning making and knowledge co-construction.

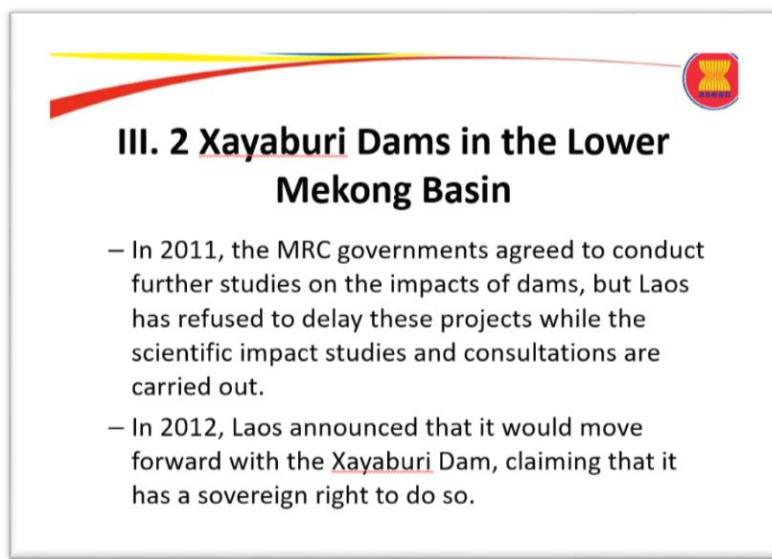
One example is Powerpoint slides, which worked as a linguistic assistant to lecturer talk. Tiffany was the one who tactically supported her monologic presentations with effective slide shows, and often referred back to this visual aid when explaining something complicated. Extract 7.1 and Figure 7.1 (p. 121) are examples from Tiffany's class. Figure 7.1 had the main points that students should remember about the construction of Xayaburi Dam on Mekong River by Lao government, and in extract 7.1, Tiffany was explaining why that construction created conflicts among ASEAN countries. Right before she started her description, Tiffany referred to the slide

(line 1). Tiffany also let the points on her slide appear one after another to match with what she was lecturing and avoid overwhelming amount of information at one time. Accordingly, the high proportion of English use in Tiffany's talk was effectively aided by her strategical employment of the slide.

Extract 7.1. CR.TIF.02 – 370

1 Tiffany this slide will show you ah the conflicts (.)
 2 in the opinion of the Lao government (.) When they start the project of Xayaburi
 3 dam (.) ah (.) in Lao government (.) In a the MRC (.) The Mekong River Commission (.)
 4 they agreed to (.) they received the proposal (.) of Xayaburi dam (.)
 5 and after receiving the proposal (.) they start (.) doing some research (1.5)
 6 in order to evaluate the impact of the proposal (.) before they give the permission
 7 to Lao government (.) to build their dam (.) but (.) before the MRC finished their
 8 research (.)

Figure 7.1. A PPT slide in Tiffany's lesson of “Ecological Security” – CR.TIF.02



III. 2 Xayaburi Dams in the Lower Mekong Basin

- In 2011, the MRC governments agreed to conduct further studies on the impacts of dams, but Laos has refused to delay these projects while the scientific impact studies and consultations are carried out.
- In 2012, Laos announced that it would move forward with the Xayaburi Dam, claiming that it has a sovereign right to do so.

Contrary to Tiffany who used most English in her talk, Nina mainly used Vietnamese. Accordingly, Powerpoint slides functioned as the platform for her to provide students with key technical terms and main ideas of every lesson in English. Extract 7.2 and Figure 7.2 below are examples of how her talk and her slide coordinated together. In extract 7.2, Nina was explaining the first point on the slide. She wanted her students to focus on the key features of a society, including “interaction” – written in bold on the slide, “connectedness” – in quotation mark, and “relationship”. Nina codeswitched between Vietnamese and English when mentioning “interaction” and “connectedness”. She explained everything in Vietnamese but tried to keep the key words in English, yet still wanted to make sure that students understood what they really

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meant in Vietnamese. The combination of verbal explanation in Vietnamese and written slides in English is a typical example of translanguaging practices in Nina's class. There was no visible linguistic boundary for students to switch in and out of these two separate codes. Instead, to make meaning of the lessons effectively, students were supposed to shuttle between L1 (talk) and L2 (slide) in an integrated and smooth way.

Extract 7.2. CR.NIN.02 – 490

1 Nina *đầu tiên (.) xã hội (.) nó không phải là một tập hợp các nhóm người (.) sống gần nhau*
{first society it is not a gathering of a group of people living near each other}

2 *nó không gọi là xã hội (.) {it is not called a society}*

3 *xã hội là một tập hợp các nhóm người sống trong một cái lãnh thổ giống nhau nhưng mà phải có*
{society is a collection of a group of people living in the same area but they must have}

4 *interaction (.)*

5 *interaction là gì? {what is interaction?} (.)*

6 *interaction? (.)*

7 Class *[sự tương tác] {interaction}*

8 Nina *[sự tương tác] {interaction} (.)*

9 *phải có tác động qua lại với nhau {there must be interaction} (.)*

10 *phải có các {there must be} relationships (.)*

11 *các mối quan hệ với nhau (.) đúng không? (.) {relationships (.) right?}*

12 *thì cái đó mới gọi là {that is called} society (2)*

13 *như vậy người ta gọi một cái một cái khái niệm đó là {so we have a concept that is}*

14 *connectedness (.) connected là gì hè? {what does it mean by connected?} (1.5)*

Figure 7.2. A PPT slide in Nina's lesson of "Nation and society in a global age" – CR.NIN.02

A. SOCIETY IN A GLOBAL AGE

I. Society- what is it?

- Characterized by interaction among members living in the same area
- Society involves a sense of "connectedness" and is made up of a usually stable set of relationships between and among their members, involving mutual awareness and at least a measure of cooperation
- Societies exist on two different levels
 - At a national or domestic level: Members are connected through a shared culture of political allegiances and a common sense of identity
 - At international level: "international society", "world society", "global civil society"

Nina's students actually preferred this language practice, as shown in extract 7.3. For them, lectures in Vietnamese and slides in English enabled them to gradually adapt to an EMI programme without suffering from any language shocks.

Extract 7.3. FG.Y2.01 – 125

- 1 Phuong For this subject, do you want to have slides in English and lecturer speaks in Vietnamese
- 2 or slides are also in Vietnamese?
- 3 Rob Slides are in English
- 4 Minnie It is better to have slides in English
- 5 David At this stage my English is not good enough. I think it is better to communicate the lessons
- 6 in Vietnamese but the slides are in English so we can approach the knowledge
- 7 step by step.

Nevertheless, the employment of Powerpoint slides did not function effectively in student presentations. In Helen's class where students could present in Vietnamese and had their slides in English, speakers' and listeners' bilingual repertoires were made use and translanguaging became a common phenomenon in these presentations (see 6.3.3). However, when English was required to be the language of oral presentation, students tended to overuse slides by turning this visual aid into scripts for presentation and completely became dependent on their slide shows.

Another visual aid employed by all the lecturers but Helen was the whiteboard. This worked quite well for Hannah, the only lecturer who did not use Powerpoint slides in her module. Hannah had a lot of key words written in English on the board alongside her English or Vietnamese verbal explanations. For example, in extract 7.4, Hannah was talking about the dominant culture in the U.S. on the early days of its history. At the same time when she said "White Anglo Saxon" (line 5) and "WASP" (line 7), she wrote these words on the board to make sure that students grasped the key terms being discussed.

Extract 7.4. CR.HAN.06 – 14

- 1 Hannah and you talk about particular group called Anglo Saxon (.)
- 2 ok? (.)
- 3 and they have to be white (.)
- 4 so the dominant culture then (.) was
- 5 white (2) Anglo (2) Saxons (1.5)
- 6 and Protestants or you say (.)
- 7 WASP (2)

Additionally, whiteboard was also used to write students' contributing opinions in English – normally in the form of eliciting key words related to a topic at the start of a lesson. This kind of activity encouraged students to explore their available English repertoire and linguistically

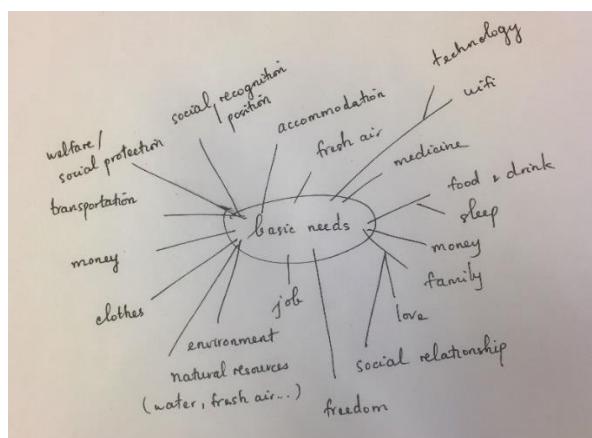
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prepare for a class. Extract 7.5 is from a lesson on Ecological Security in ASEAN community. Tiffany began the lesson by asking students to think of 10 words about what they needed to live as humans, then students took turn to say one word. This is a familiar eliciting activity that often occurs in EFL class, and in this EMI setting, the combination between lecturer-student interaction and the use of whiteboard facilitated students' collaborative learning of content knowledge in both Vietnamese and English. This interactional episode lasted for about 6 minutes¹⁰, by the end of which students had developed a comprehensive word map on the whiteboard, as noted down in Figure 7.3. Tiffany then guided students to critically reflect on the word list, which students did in Vietnamese.

Extract 7.5. CR.TIF.02 – 17

- 1 Tiffany ok (.) now let's give me some words (.)
- 2 now let's start from this group (.)
- 3 Anne we need to eat and drink (.)
- 4 Tiffany so you need food and drink (.) hey
- 5 (2)
- 6 ok (.) so this group?
- 7 Claire family
- 8 Tiffany ok (.) family
- 9 (3)
- 10 this one?
- 11 Joel we need jobs (.)
- 12 Tiffany yes we need jobs (.)

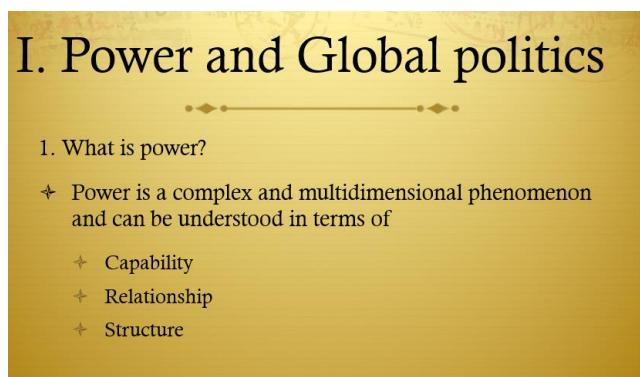
Figure 7.3. Research diary – White board word map – CR.TIF.02



¹⁰ The full 6-minute extract is presented in Appendix 11

While the use of whiteboard in extracts 7.4 and 7.5 accompanied lecturer talk in English, it could effectively support talk in Vietnamese as well. This often took place in Nina's class. In addition to slides, writing on whiteboard was one way to help Nina assure that her students could grasp the key words/terms in English. In the example below, Nina was lecturing the topic of "power", which could be understood in terms of "capability", "relationship" and "structure". She first showed her slide in Figure 7.4, then wrote the first two areas of power on the board before getting students' participation in extract 7.6. Vietnamese was mainly spoken here, except for the key concepts like "military" or "geography". Nina kept explaining in L1 and writing in L2 – that explains why there are some pauses in line 4 or line 8 for her to write these words - until she got what was noted on Figure 7.5 (p. 126). In this case, the whiteboard filled with visual links between key words, accompanied by her talk, provided students with a systematic way of capturing the crucial knowledge in English in a comprehensible approach.

Figure 7.4. A PPT slide in Nina's lesson on "Power and Global Politics" – CR.NIN.03



Extract 7.6. CR.NIN.03 – 4

1 Nina *rồi như vậy khả năng này là khả năng về gì?* {So what are these capabilities?}

2 (2)

3 military

4 (4)

5 military (.) *rồi gì đây?* {and what else?} (.) Jeyjey?

6 Jeyjey economic

7 Nina economic

8 (3)

9 ok (.) *rồi gì nữa?* {what else?} (3)

10 *gi hè?* {what else?}

11 *georgrahy (.) gi nữa?* {what else?} (.)

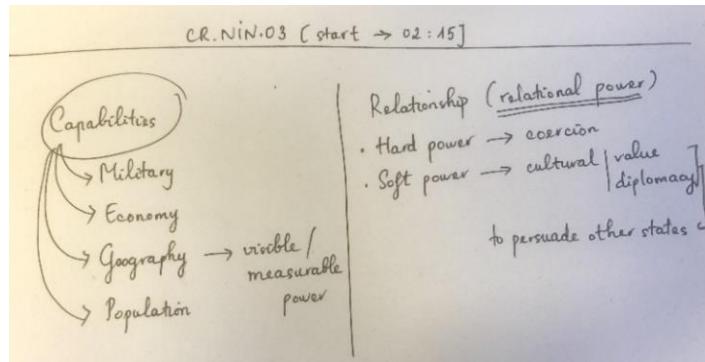
12 *nước nào mà nhiều công dân là nước đó mạnh? (.) có nghĩa là nước nào? (.)*
{which country has the largest population and is strong (.) that means which country?}

13 Nadia *Trung Quốc* {China}

14 Nina *China (.) đúng không?* {right?} (.)

15 *China (.) population (2) population (1.5)*

Figure 7.5. Research diary – White board word map – CR.NIN.03



The functions of PPT slides and whiteboard as visual aids to support lecturer talk in the examples above indicate that in this EMI settings, both languages were respected and employed to co-construct the content knowledge between lecturers and students. What has been discussed so far mainly revolves around the use of languages across separate components of classroom practices. However, when mentioning classroom practices, the areas that often attract considerable research attention are lecturer/teacher talk and student talk, given a huge number of research in classroom discourse (for example, see Christie, 2002; Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Walsh, 2011). The use of Vietnamese and English in classroom discourse, therefore, was expected to provide interesting data and underline how participants' linguistic repertoires were made use in the DoS. Accordingly, the next section will focus on the proportion of L1 and L2 use in lecturer talk, including both monologue presentations and dialogues.

7.3. The proportion of Vietnamese and English in lecturer talk

Although this research employs a qualitative approach, a simple quantitative analysis is needed for a better understanding of how much Vietnamese and English were employed in classroom discourse. However, it should be noted that while classroom talk includes both lecturer and student talk, the latter is not included in this quantitative analysis for several reasons. Firstly, the four modules did not have the same way of classroom organisations, so students were required to participate differently in each module. For example, students had individual presentations in English in Nina's module and group presentation in Helen's – mainly in Vietnamese - as a type of formative assessment. Meanwhile, student presentations were not included in Hannah's and Tiffany's classes. Secondly, a significant amount of time in Tiffany's module was spent on group discussions. It was impossible for me to record all student talks in

these activities, although walking around and observing them revealed that the majority of their talks happened in Vietnamese except for technical terms or popular English words. With these two reasons, the calculation of student talk that could be systematically done across the four modules was mainly based on student-teacher interaction. Since this alone does not reflect the real participation of students in the knowledge co-construction process, the proportion of Vietnamese and English in student talk is not calculated.

Table 7.2 (p. 127) and Table 7.3 (p.128) below present the percentage of L1 and L2 being used by four lecturers: Hannah, Helen, Nina and Tiffany. The result was calculated in three steps. First, as mentioned in section 4.4, four out of six classroom observations with each lecturer were fully transcribed. These full transcriptions were then coded in Nvivo according to the speaker and language being used. Next, a Matrix Coding query was run for every single class to estimate the proportion of Vietnamese and English use. This procedure is quite different from the Timed Analysis proposed by Macaro (2001) – also applied by Yo (2015) - who suggested sampling a lesson every 5 seconds and coded it. However, Timed Analysis is not feasible in the current project. As can be seen in the extracts introduced later, it was quite common for Vietnamese and English to be used interchangeably within one phrase or one short sentence. That typical phenomenon made it impossible to code the whole 5-second sampling as L1 or L2. In addition, although the number of words coded does not specifically reflect the amount of time spent on each language, the objective of this quantitative analysis is simply to provide a general description of the coverage of Vietnamese and English in lecturer talk. Hence, calculating the language proportion based on the words coded in each class works well here. This simple method has also been used in several previous studies on language use in class (e.g.: Liu, Ahn, Baek, & Han, 2004; Probyn, 2015; Rolin-lanziti & Brownlie, 2002).

Table 7.2. A summary of the proportion of Vietnamese and English used in lecturer talk

	Vietnamese use Mean %	English use Mean %
Hannah	65.32	34.68
Helen	57.04	42.96
Nina	91.49	8.51
Tiffany	24.77	75.23

It can be seen from Table 7.2 that the use of Vietnamese and English varied in lecturer talks, which comprised both authoritative presentation and dialogues with students, across the

four observed modules. With the same group of fourth year students, it is interesting to see a remarkable difference among the three lecturers in their language use. Helen was the only one who used quite similar amount of both languages, roughly half L1 and half L2 (57.04% Vietnamese and 42.96% English). Meanwhile, interview data revealed that Hannah perceived herself to use about 70-80% English, but the actual figure from classroom data was just about half of that (34.68%). Out of four lecturers, Tiffany used the most English (75.23%), and she was also remarkably rated as delivering the most effective classes by students in focus groups and informal chats. That positive evaluation was actually the result of her employing various teaching strategies, and this will be discussed further in chapter 8. On the other hand, Nina used Vietnamese almost exclusively in her lessons (over 90% of her talk time) as a consequence of her policy modification (see 6.3.1).

Table 7.3. Proportion of Vietnamese and English used by each lecturer participant

	CLASS 1		CLASS 2		CLASS 3		CLASS 4	
	Vietnamese	English	Vietnamese	English	Vietnamese	English	Vietnamese	English
Hannah	57.31	42.69	72.98	27.02	59.27	40.73	71.73	28.27
Helen	27.30	72.70	44.82	55.18	81.18	18.82	74.87	25.13
Nina	90.97	9.03	89.76	10.24	91.72	8.28	93.53	6.47
Tiffany	0.06	99.94	26.70	73.30	19.15	80.85	53.16	46.84

Table 7.3 shows that the proportion of language use varied significantly within four classes of every lecturer, except for Nina who stably had the same amount of Vietnamese and English among her lessons. For example, in class 2 and 4 of Hannah, her Vietnamese use far outweighed that of English, while there was not such a big difference in class 1 and 3. A zoom in the content of these four classes could partially explain why the proportions turned out to vary that way. In class 2, Hannah shared a lot of her personal stories in living in the U.S., including looking for jobs, buying a house, and her scholarship sponsor. All these stories, functioned as real-life examples for the article the class was discussing, were largely told in Vietnamese, with only a few English appearing. Meanwhile, in class 4, Hannah began by providing some background knowledge related to the reading text, before asking students to work in pair and answered some given questions. After that, she ran the whole class discussion, and soon recognised that students were so quiet and reluctant to participate. All of these occurred within the first 20 minutes out of her 70-minute lesson, with the proportion of Vietnamese and English use in this period as 15%

and 85% respectively. However, for the rest of her lesson, this proportion was reversed when Hannah decided to mainly employ Vietnamese for the sake of lecture comprehension and student participation.

Similarly, in Helen's class 3 and 4, the proportion of English use was relatively small compared to that of Vietnamese. It should be noted that Helen did not deliver any lectures in these two classes, but just watched her students presenting, thus her talk only occupied 12.42% (class 3) and 21.11% (class 4) of the whole class talk. Notwithstanding, students mainly delivered their presentations in Vietnamese, and there were occasionally times when miscommunications between presenters and their classmates arose. Consequently, Helen had to step in to settle things down among students, which she usually did in their L1.

Tiffany was the one who had the highest percentage of English use in her class. Most strikingly, English made up for 99.94% of her talk in class 1, and this figure was twice as high as that in class 4 (46.84%). In the latter class, Tiffany had initially intended to focus on dealing with Part One of the topic "ASEAN's unity following the permanent court of arbitrary ruling on South China Sea", and Part Two would be saved for the week later. However, it turned out that they finished the discussion much earlier than planned, leaving about 25 minutes free without anything to do. At that moment, Tiffany decided to move to Part Two so that they could finish the whole topic within one lesson, and that explains why this discussion was solely conducted in Vietnamese. In other words, time saving was the reason for this proportion of L1 and L2 use in class 4.

In conclusion, Table 7.3 (p. 128) confirms what has been discussed about the diversity and flexibility of the EMI policy implementation among four lecturers and among lessons/classes of one individual lecturer. Under the influence of three main factors mentioned in section 6.3 as well as other variables such as time constraints, the lecturers made appropriate use of L1 and L2 for the benefits of lecture comprehension and content delivery.

7.4. The functions of Vietnamese and English use in lecturer talk

This section focuses on the functions of Vietnamese and English in lecturer talk – without taking other components of classroom practices such as slides or textbooks into consideration. To put it simply, the function of a switch from L2 to L1, or vice versa, or why one language has to be used in a specific situation, is explored in this section.

Previous studies on language use in bilingual/ multilingual classrooms have presented various pedagogical functions of codeswitching (see section 2.6.1), and they provided a preliminary scheme for analysing the use of Vietnamese and English in this current study. Also, I referred to Ferguson's (2003) framework, which broadly classified functions of classroom codeswitching into three categories: curriculum access, classroom management and interpersonal relations. Although Ferguson focuses on post-colonial settings, his framework is still applicable in the DoS for several reasons. Firstly, the use of home language and target language in both contexts is mainly seen as a strategy for coping with situations where students' proficiency of the MoI is relatively insufficient. Secondly, the practices reviewed in this section share the same teacher-centred direction with that in Ferguson's framework. Thirdly, in spite of being proposed in 2003, this framework is still influential and being referred in the current literature.

From the three broad categories of Ferguson (2003), sub-categories were developed and re-checked after several rounds of coding, with the adding and removing of certain functions of English and Vietnamese. Some of these sub-categories were attributed to Gwee and Saravanan (2018), Lo (2015) and Probyn (2015). Furthermore, it should be noted that there are numerous instances where one switch has more than one function, and as Ferguson (2009, p. 231) states, it is "difficult to allocate a discrete determinate meaning to every switch". In addition, although attempts were made to have a concise description of each function and avoid unnecessary overlaps, there were certain occasions when those defining boundaries became blurred. Accordingly, while a few previous research include a frequency calculation of certain functions, which can be interesting to some extent, such a quantitative summary is not included here. However, it should be acknowledged that the frequency count in Nvivo was still necessary, for example, to identify that most of the switches from English to Vietnamese served the purpose of curriculum access, while only several instances were found to be for interpersonal relationship development.

7.4.1. The functions of Vietnamese

Table 7.4 (p. 131) lists the functions of Vietnamese in codeswitching situations from L2 to L1. A detailed explanation of each function is also provided below. It is worth mentioning that the extracts given here are from all the modules except for Nina's – as more than 90% of her talk was in Vietnamese and she therefore mainly switched from L1 to L2.

Table 7.4. A summary of Vietnamese functions in EMI classes at the DoS

Function	Short description
Curriculum access	The use of Vietnamese to help constructing and transmitting content knowledge
1. Checking comprehension	The lecturer checks whether students have understood the content knowledge.
2. Confirming answer	The lecturer confirms students' response, either acknowledging them or simply repeating them.
3. Critical thinking	The lecturer asks critical questions or raises issues that requires students to be more critical.
4. Eliciting answer	The lecturer tries to help students give a correct answer, or generate a more in-depth response.
5. Emphasizing	The lecturer emphasizes an important content matter that students should remember.
6. Explaining	The lecturer gives a detailed explanation on a subject matter to students.
7. Giving examples	The lecturer gives examples, either from her own or from students' experience, to explain an unfamiliar or complicated topics.
8. Translating	The lecturer literally translates an English word/term/concept into Vietnamese.
9. Recalling	The lecturer refers to the previous knowledge or lessons that students are supposed to have known or learnt.
Classroom management	The use of Vietnamese to manage classroom settings and student behaviours to support the delivery of contents
1. Arousing students' attention	The lecturer tries to attract students' attention or keeps them focused on task/content being discussed.
2. Disciplining	The lecturer reprimands students for inappropriate behaviours.
3. Encouraging class participation	The lecturer asks students to participate in class discussion or answer her questions.
4. Giving instructions	The lecturer asks students to perform certain acts such as working in pairs or turning on the lights.
5. Saving time	The lecturer decides to use Vietnamese to speed up the class process and finish the lesson within the time allocated.
Interpersonal relations	The use of Vietnamese to build up relationships between the lecturer and students and negotiate their identities
1. Creating atmosphere	The lecturer builds up a warmer and friendlier atmosphere, or builds rapport with students.

2. Referring to a shared identity	The lecturer refers to a shared cultural norm, a social value, or a linguistic identity with students.
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7.4.1.1. The use of Vietnamese for curriculum access

Similar to many other bilingual classrooms, the main purpose for lecturers' use of Vietnamese was to provide students with detailed explanations of complex content matters, which could not be done in English due to students' limited language proficiency. The following instance in Tiffany's class - when the class was discussing the topic of "non-interference" in ASEAN community - illustrates this function. Prior to this extract, Tiffany raised a question related to the legal case of the Philippines about the South China Sea with the international court, but students mostly remained silent. She then gave her answer in English, and explained that again in Vietnamese¹¹. This kind of language practice reflects what she revealed in extract 7.8. However, it should be noted that in addition to the main function of explanation, the language shift in extract 7.7 serves some other purposes. First of all, as can be seen in line 3, Tiffany paused for three seconds at the end of her explanation in English before asking if her students understood the matter. She waited for another three seconds (line 4) but still there was no respond. One reason for this reticence could be students' inability to comprehend the content. Also, they could probably lose track of Tiffany's explanation since she lectured on this issue in English for so long. Thus, when Tiffany paraphrased the question in Vietnamese (line 5), it created a code contrast which helped to gain students' attention. Moreover, by asking "have you understood" in Vietnamese, Tiffany wanted to check students' comprehension, which then led her to give a detailed account of the matter starting in line 6. Thus, the shift from English to Vietnamese in this extract worked for several goals.

Extract 7.7. CR.TIF.04 - 193

¹¹ Full extract in Appendix 12

7 và điều này có một cái ảnh hưởng đến vấn đề là {and this has an influence} (.)
8 cách tiếp cận của ASEAN khi giải quyết mâu thuẫn {on the way ASEAN approaches when dealing with conflicts}

Extract 7.8. IN.TIF - 86

1 Tiffany When I have to explain a very complex issue to my students. In that case if I have explained in
2 English, but still find students confused, I will judge if I should switch to Vietnamese to make it
3 effective

Vietnamese was also commonly used when the lecturers shared examples from their personal stories or linked to students' familiar real life situations as they explained a complicated content issue. This appeared the most with Hannah, while Helen and Tiffany rarely used Vietnamese for this reason. In extract 7.9, the class was discussing the situation of Mexican immigrants in the U.S. Hannah highlighted American people's misperception that every Mexican immigrant wanted to reside in the U.S, while in fact, many of them just wanted to work for money and then go back home (line 1). She linked this misperception to students' daily experiences by referring to the story of "Viet Kieu" – a familiar term with the connotation meaning as rich Vietnamese people living in the U.S. and often sending remittance back to Vietnam. This example was given in Vietnamese, and then English was used again when Hannah made that connection back to the case of Mexican immigrants.

Extract 7.9. CR.HAN.01 - 386

1 Hannah they just want to make some money and go back (.) they don't want to stay there (.)
2 *phải không nò? {isn't it?} (.) bởi vì nói thật với các em là {because frankly speaking} (.)*
3 *những người nào mà coi như là Việt kiều a {those people called "Viet Kieu"¹²} (.)*
4 *họ về nói cho oai rúa đó {when they come back they may show off} (.)*
5 *chợ thật ra qua bên đó họ cũng khổ dẽ sợ lắm {but actually in the U.S. they have to suffer a lot} (.)*
6 *và họ thấy Việt Nam mình thật là sung sướng {and they find living in Vietnam is so happy} (.)*
7 *vì mình đi ra ở ngoài mình thấy là ah {because when we are out we can feel that ah} (.)*
8 *ở đây là đất của mình thiệt {this is really our land} (.) các em có hiểu không nò?*
9 *{do you understand?}*
10 you know (.) you feel like more relaxed of course (.) people in America they're under
11 a lot of pressure (.) and Mexican culture is pretty much the same (.) as the
Vietnamese culture (.)

Extract 7.10 illustrates some other functions of Vietnamese in the class co-construction of knowledge. It is taken from a longer interactive episode focusing on the formal normalisation of

¹² A term means overseas Vietnamese

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diplomatic relations between Vietnam and the U.S. In the extract, Helen was trying to elicit some previous knowledge related to the situation of Vietnam in the 1980s, especially the economic reforms in 1986. She mainly used English from line 1 to line 11, except for a short shift to Vietnamese in line 2 to emphasize the time period “in the 80s”. Yet Helen did not get much response from students – just a short answer in Vietnamese by Nasha (line 7). Accordingly, from line 12 to line 26, Helen decided to regularly switch to Vietnamese so that she could scaffold her student Anne to get the correct answer in line 24. In this process, the use of Vietnamese in line 14 also served as a tool for recalling previous knowledge learnt in another module, while in line 16 and 25, Helen used Vietnamese to confirm Anne’s answers by acknowledging them: “economic changes” and “from the economy of subsidy to a market economy”. These functions can be found in Hannah’s and Tiffany’s modules as well.

Extract 7.10, CR.HEL.02 - 310

24 Anne *chuyển đổi từ nền kinh tế bao cấp sang nền kinh tế thị trường*
 {changed from the economy of subsidy to a market economy} (.)

25 Helen *yah (.) từ chế độ bao cấp sang kinh tế thị trường*
 {from the economy of subsidy to a market economy}

26 (12) và {and} what? (.) what happened? (.) what is about the renovation? (.)

Another popular uses of Vietnamese in the data was to provide a parallel translation of an English term, concept or utterance into students' home language. This can be simply done like what Tiffany did in extract 7.11.

Extract 7.11. CR.TIF.01- 12

1 Tiffany so this (.) this is ah (.) this is the view of the concentration or refugee (.) tents (.)
 2 *trại tị nạn* {refugee tents} (.) hey (.) the refugee tents in the Rakhine state of Myanmar

Remarkably, this function of parallel translation was often accompanied by another function. That second function can be of curriculum access, or in the other categories of classroom management and interpersonal relations. For example, in extract 7.12, Hannah basically translated the word "old school" from L2 to L1 in line 5. Nevertheless, this translation also served to emphasise that the concepts mentioned were no longer suitable due to its obsolescence.

Extract 7.12. CR.HAN.06 - 92

1 Hannah in the case of the melting pot you expect that people would try to assimilate
 2 and trying to do something else (.) right?
 3 something that is not very recognisable anymore (.) right? (.)
 4 but you also know that you know these concepts are somehow very old school (.)
 5 *hơi cổ lỗ một chút rồi* {quite old already} (.) because nowadays every time we talk about
 6 culture (.) there is no longer the concept of ethnic culture (.) anymore

Vietnamese would also be used when students were encouraged to be more argumentative and critical, and this function has hardly been mentioned in previous studies. When argumentativeness and critical thinking from students were encouraged, Vietnamese would be used. This function appeared in all three modules of Tiffany, Helen and Hannah, yet not with a high frequency. In extract 7.13, the class was talking about the U.S. President Obama's speech, in which he mentioned Vietnamese labour force and the economic cooperation of two countries. Helen then wanted students to think about what Obama suggested and if Vietnam should do anything to respond to such suggestions. In the beginning, Vanessa provided some answers – in one or two English words (lines 3 and 5). However, Helen's request for detailed clarification in line 6 made Vanessa pause for a few seconds, and then gave a longer answer in

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Vietnamese (lines 7 and 8). Her switch to L1 here indicates two things: her role as a policy actor and the involvement of deep thinking, leading her to produce a more complex answer than the two preceding ones. To encourage Vanessa to be more critical in her answer, Helen switched to Vietnamese in line 9 and continued asking her. It should be clarified that this situation is a bit different from the earlier example in extract 7.10, where Vietnamese was used for eliciting answers that came from previous knowledge or lessons. In this extract, in order to answer Helen's question, students would need to synthesise what they had known about the topic, including Vietnamese' economic situations, characteristics of their labour force, and the economic ties between Vietnam and the U.S. Students would need to analyse and come up with an in-depth analytical answer, which Vanessa could not really do (line 11). She provided a short answer, followed by a 10-second silence.

Extract 7.13. CR.HEL.03 -550

1 Helen *liên quan tới vấn đề* {related to} export (.) *thì* {so} what can Vietnam do? (.)
2 what can Vietnam do? (2) in Obama's statement? (2)
3 Vanessa labour force
4 Helen yah (.) *là cái gì?* {what is it?} (.) including what? (.)
5 Vanessa skills
6 Helen skills of labour force (.) what do you mean by skills? (4)
7 Vanessa *thì nếu như trình độ của nhân công Việt Nam cao thì sản phẩm làm ra cũng sẽ được nhập khẩu*
{if the skill level of Vietnamese workers is high our products will be exported}
8 *nhiều hơn* {more} (.) *em nghĩ là có thể* {I think it's possible} (.)
9 Helen *trình độ* {skill level} (.) *trình độ ở đâu ra mà tăng cao?* {how can that skill level be upgraded?} (.)
10 *làm sao mà tăng cao?* {how can it be upgraded?}
11 Vanessa *thì trong quá trình hợp tác thì mình có thể học hỏi kinh nghiệm* {so in the cooperation we can gain
experience from the other} (10)

7.4.1.2. The use of Vietnamese for classroom management

In addition to support the knowledge construction process, Vietnamese was used for off-content purposes like managing classroom. Functions belonging to this category can be found only in Hannah's and Helen's classes, because most of Tiffany's switches to Vietnamese served the purposes of curriculum access. This can include disciplining, as shown in extract 7.14 when Helen was reprimanding her students for not preparing their group presentation carefully. Joel, the presenter of the group, was being asked several questions related to the incorrect content they presented. Yet he could not answer them properly, so Helen interrogated the contribution of other group members and showed her discontent of their preparation. This group kept being

quiet, with a lot of silence after each question of Helen. Finally, when Celine said that the task was divided among the members, Helen displayed her dissatisfaction with an ironic question, “Divide?” followed by her justified comment, “It’s not much to divide”. Although Helen did not directly criticise her students, these utterances in Vietnamese disciplined the students for their attitudes toward their learning.

Extract 7.14. CR.HEL.05 - 331

1	Helen	ok (.) how many members in your group? (.)
2	Joel	four
3	Helen	who else? (2)
4		can you answer the questions? (4)
5		have you worked together? (2) on the question? (4)
6		<i>bốn đứa em có làm việc với nhau không?</i> {have you four worked together?} (2)
7		say the truth? (2)
8	Celine	<i>dạ mỗi bạn chia một phần</i> {we divide the task among us} (.)
9	Helen	<i>phần gi?</i> {divide?} (.) <i>có mấy câu à</i> {it's not much to divide} (2)
10		<i>vậy mỗi người trình bày phần của mỗi người đi</i> {so each of you present your part} (7)

Already mentioned in the analysis of extract 7.7 (p.132), Vietnamese could be employed as a tool for attracting students’ attention. This purpose is re-highlighted in extract 7.15, where Hannah shifted to Vietnamese in line 6 to direct students’ attention to Stephan’s explanation of military issue.

Extract 7.15. CR.HAN.01 - 195

1	Hannah	so what is that reason? (.) is that economic reason? (.)
2		or is that political reason? (.) or is that cultural reason? (.)
3		can you think of a reason?
4	Steph	ah ah i think ah (.) it’s ah ah (.) military reason (.)
5	Hannah	military? (.) ok (.) why military? (.) can you explain? (.)
6		<i>như vậy ở đây là vấn đề về quân sự</i> {so here it is a military issue}
7		<i>các em nghe bạn giải thích nào</i> {everyone, listen to your friend explaining}

Moreover, when the lecturers changed to Vietnamese, this could be a signal to welcome students’ participation in classroom discussion, indicating that they could contribute without worrying about their limited language proficiency. In extract 7.16, Tiffany was asking students to distinguish between traditional and non-traditional issues in the security of ASEAN community. She initially raised the questions in English and allowed some short pauses for students to think, as can be seen in line 1 - 3. After a long pause of 16 seconds in line 4 without any responses, Tiffany tried to give some clues based on The Cold War (line 5 – 9), and repeated the question in

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English in line 10. Nevertheless, student reticence led her to switch to Vietnamese in line 12, which can be analysed as an act of encouraging her students to participate. Given the earlier report in section 6.3.3 that Tiffany's students often decided their language choice in classroom interaction without asking for her permission, it may be argued here that Tiffany's language shift did not necessarily serve to invite students' contribution. Nonetheless, regarding the time Tiffany had spent on repeating the question, waiting for students' answers, giving the clues, and then re-asking the question – all was done in English from line 1- 11 - her choice of Vietnamese did open a supporting space for students to contribute their opinions.

Extract 7.16. CR.TIF.05 - 63

1 Tiffany how to distinguish (.) between traditional (.) and non traditional issues? (3)
2 what is the difference (.) between these concepts? (.) you guys? (4)
3 how to distinguish (.) traditional (.) and non traditional issues? (4)
4 what is the difference? (16)
5 we witness a lot of traditional issues (.) especially before (.) the cold war (.)
6 right? (.) but after the cold war (2)
7 the importance of non traditional issues was recognised (1.5)
8 so (.) that is the development (.) and the changing in the perception (.) about ah (.)
9 different ah (.) security plans (.)
10 so what is the difference between traditional and non-traditional issues? (.)
11 anyone? (6)
12 *mỗi đe dọa an ninh truyền thống và phi truyền thống khác nhau như thế nào nhỉ?*
{how are traditional and non-traditional security issues different?}

Giving instructions, such as organising group works or identifying the page number of a reading text, was another function of Vietnamese use in the DoS. In extract 7.17, Hannah asked students to work in pairs to answer two questions related to a reading text:

Extract 7.17. CR.HAN.05 - 21

1 Hannah first of all (.) who are the savages? (.)
2 second one (2)
3 why should (.) we would say (.) why must (2) the savages be (.) be bombed?
4 these two questions (.) ok? (.) you work in pair (.) ok? (.)
5 các em làm việc theo cặp và cho cô hai câu trả lời hai cái câu hỏi đó (.)
 {you work in pair and find me the two answers of those two questions}
6 and then use some of the examples you know in the text (.) to clarify for me (.)

There was one function of Vietnamese in classroom management that has not been reported in previous studies. This L1 role – saving time – was remarkably identified in Tiffany's class 4, and this was in line with what she revealed in the interview. As mentioned briefly in section 7.3, the first part of this class was mainly in English, but to finish all the contents within the amount of time left, Tiffany decided to switch to Vietnamese in the second part. In the interview, she said:

Extract 7.18. IN.TIF - 86

1 Tiffany For example last time, I still had a lot to present but it was 10:30 already, and I hadn't finished yet
 2 but there were still 3 to 4 slides so I switched to Vietnamese. The slides were of course still
 3 in English.

7.4.1.3. The use of Vietnamese for interpersonal relations

According to Ferguson, in addition to being a setting where formal learning takes place, the classroom is “a social and affective environment in its own right” (2003, p.6). In a classroom, lecturers and students will negotiate their relationships and identities via their language use. In EMI settings, English represented a more academic-oriented channel of communication, while home language represented a more informal and close community. L1 is used to build up a warmer atmosphere in the classroom, to encourage students, or to build rapport with individual students (ibid.)

Among the lecturer participants, Hannah was the only one who used Vietnamese for the purposes of this category. Vietnamese could support Hannah to build up a warmer atmosphere, shortening the hierarchical relationship between lecturers and students. In extract 7.19, Hannah was inviting students to share their group ideas in a whole class interaction. Students had previously suggested that every group should take turn to share one idea. Ellen recommended they would begin the discussion from the other side (line 2) – where Birdy's group was sitting – and this made Birdy complain (line 4) in a loud voice and a pouting face. Hannah, in response to Birdy's act, made a friendly joke in Vietnamese, and this created a friendly ambience among the students before they started the discussion. It should be noted that this joke did not appear to offend Birdy, since she was laughing freely with her friends, and she was known to often make jokes in class as well.

Extract 7.19. CR.HAN.04 - 103

1 Hannah ok (.) well got it (.) then just talk (.) *vậy thì nói đi ạ* {let's talk}
 2 Ellen *đi một vòng từ bên này đi cô* {let's start from that side, Mrs}

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3 Hannah ok (.) sure
4 Birdy *vì rắng khi mô cũng bắt bên ni trước* {why do we always start from this side?}
5 Hannah @@ *coi cái miệng nhọn hoắt tè* {look at your pouting mouth}
6 Birdy @@
7 Class @@

The shared identity between Hannah and her students as Vietnamese people could also be seen through the use of their mother tongue. For example, the class was talking about the average income of Mexico in extract 7.20, where students were switching back and forth between L1 and L2 and Hannah mostly spoke English. However, she then changed to Vietnamese when linking the case of Mexico to Vietnam, using the term “our Vietnam”.

Extract 7.20. CR.HAN.02 - 150

1 Jemma Mexico ah (.) *theo cái ah chuẩn quốc tế thì họ không phải nước nghèo nhất* (.)
{according to ah the international standard it is not the poorest country}
2 Hannah ah huh
3 Jemma *và họ có những cái ah những cái thu nhập đầu người rất là cao* (.)
{and their the ah the average income per head is very high}
4 Hannah how much?
5 Mia nine thousand
6 Hannah how much?
7 Jemma ah ah (.) nine thousand dollars
8 Hannah nine thousand dollars? (.) *Việt Nam chúng ta bao nhiêu*? {how about our Vietnam?}

7.4.2. The functions of English

This current section primarily deals with the reasons for switches to English in Nina's module, of which more than 90% was Vietnamese. It also takes into account of all the class sessions where the other lecturers generally used Vietnamese and occasionally changed to English. It is worth mentioning that the roles of English are not commonly discussed in the literature of bilingual/multilingual education like EMI or CLIL, since English is expected to be the language of instruction and should be used as much as possible. Notwithstanding, the different picture of real classroom practices indicates that it is essential to investigate the functions of English in those EMI classes where Vietnamese was the “main” Mol. Table 7.5 (p.141) lists the functions of English in codeswitching situations from L1 to L2. It can be seen that there are fewer functions when lecturers switched from Vietnamese to English compared to the reversing case, and no function was found in the broad category of interpersonal relations.

Table 7.5. A summary of English functions in EMI classes at the DoS

Function	Short description
Curriculum access	The use of English to help constructing and transmitting content knowledge
1. Accessing disciplinary terms	The lecturer teaches subject-specific technical terms or concepts.
2. Delivering proper nouns	The lecturer keeps the names of countries, places, books, TV shows in English.
3. Citing directly from text	The teacher reads a phrase, a sentence or a paragraph verbatim from the reading materials/PPT slides.
4. Translating	The lecturer literally translates a Vietnamese/term/concept into English.
5. Teaching language	The lecturer focuses more on teaching an aspect of language than on content.
Classroom management	The use of English to manage classroom settings and student behaviours to support the delivery of contents
6. Arousing students' attention	The lecturer tries to attract students' attention or keeps them focused on task/content being discussed.
7. Praising	The lecturer makes positive comment on students' contribution.

7.4.2.1. The use of English for curriculum access

Most language shifts in Nina's class were for teaching subject-specific technical terms or concepts. Nina mainly lectured in Vietnamese, but as she often emphasized with students in class, it was essential that they remembered key words in English. That emphasis dictated her choice of keeping these terms in L2, although a parallel translation in L1 could be given as well. This little use of English at least ensured Nina that her students were provided with basic knowledge they were supposed to acquire in English from this EMI programme. This function of English for technical terms were also found in Hannah's and Helen's modules, but rarely with Tiffany. The data from classroom observation was in line with what the lecturers shared in interviews, as can be seen in the extracts below:

Extract 7.21.CR.NIN.04 – 381

1 Nina *rồi {so} (.) chiến tranh thì có hai loại {there are two kinds of war} (.) người ta gọi là {it is called conventional và gọi là {and} modern (.) conventional là chi? {what is conventional?} (2)*
 2 *conventional /à {is} traditional (.) cuộc chiến tranh truyền thống {traditional war}*
 3

Extract 7.22. IN.HAN – 8

1 Hannah English has some terms or concepts that we haven't got equivalent terms or concepts in Vietnamese, especially those disciplinary ones. Or there are some topics that just one English word can express the full meaning, but it will take much time to express them in Vietnamese.

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One interesting use that appeared across four modules was the use of English for specific names and especially countries, as seen below:

Extract 7.23. CR.HAN.04 - 429

1 Hannah *ở trong tui hắn có một cái show gọi là* {they have a show called} (.) the Real Housewives (.)
2 *of (.) for example New York (.) City of Orange County (.) of Florida (.) những cái đó* {things like that}

Furthermore, the use of English reading materials and Powerpoint slides in all four modules resulted in a number of interactive episodes where the lecturers read aloud a phrase, a sentence or a section from the English sources before clarifying the meaning in Vietnamese (extract 7.24). In this study, I would call this function of English as “citing directly from text”.

Extract 7.24. CR.TIF.04 - 634

1 Tiffany *vậy thì ở đây người ta nói* {so here they say} (.) the statement was a slap in the face of the Philippines (.) hah (.) *nó giống như một cái tát ngược lại đối với chính quyền của Philippin*
{it was like a slap against the Philippines government}
3 *(2) bởi vì ASEAN* {because ASEAN} *tại vì sao lại là một cái tát ngược lại đối với chính quyền của Philippin?* {why is it considered as a slap against the government of the Philippines?}

Another function of English in this category, which was commonly found in Nina’s module, was a literal translation of a Vietnamese utterance into English. Nina tended to codeswitch to English to increase the presence of L2 in her expected-to-be EMI class, where she believed that English should have been the dominant language in her talk. Since she could not do it, she tried to repeat her simple questions in English with a view to raising her students’ exposure to English in the module. To some extent, this use of English could also be seen as a way to attract students’ attention.

Extract 7.25. CR.NIN.01 - 643

1 Nina *nó ứng dụng như thế nào đối với thời kì toàn cầu hóa kinh tế?* (.)
{how is this applied to the time of economic globalisation?}
2 *how is this applied during economic globalisation? (3)*
3 *cuộc sống của em đang có những cái gì thể hiện nền kinh tế tri thức?*
{what does your life have that are the products of knowledge economy?}

Finally, lecturers might sometimes switch from Vietnamese to English to teach language matters other than subject matters. This is quite interesting to explore given the identity as content experts the participants declared about themselves (see 6.3.2). Although this was not a primary function of English in this study, it is worth mentioning for the reflection of potential

lecturers' dual roles in an EMI context: mainly a content expert and occasionally a language teacher. This is in line with what Baker & Hüttner (2017) argue, that there is not a clear-cut boundary between language and content instruction in EMI settings. For example, in extract 7.26, Tiffany was drawing students' attention to the prefix "re" in "rebalance":

Extract 7.26. CR.TIF.03 - 340

1	Tiffany	<i>nhưng mà cô muốn hỏi ý nghĩa nội hàm của cụm từ</i> {but I want to ask you the meaning of}
2		<i>rebalance</i> (.) <i>cái re trong chỗ prefix ở đây a</i> {the re in this prefix} (.) <i>thì cái rebalance đó có nghĩa là</i> <i>{so what rebalance means is}</i>
3		<i>again</i> (.) <i>balance again</i> (.) <i>đúng hay là không?</i> (.) {yes or no?}

7.4.2.2. The use of English for classroom management

It can be seen from both Tables 7.4 and 7.5 that the use of Vietnamese and English can attract students' attention. In other words, the code contrast created by shifting from Vietnamese to English, or vice versa, functions as an "attention-focusing device" (Merritt, Cleghorn, Abagi, & Bunyi, 1992, p. 117). An example has been given earlier in extract 7.25 for this category.

While in some previous studies (Adendorff, 1993; Lin, 1996), L1 was reported to function as a tool for praising or encouraging students, the case is quite opposite here. English was found in many situations where the lecturers made a positive comment on students' performances, either in a presentation or in a class discussion. For example, in extract 7.27, Hannah responded to Anne's answer by giving her a praise in English. This kind of function appeared in Tiffany's and Nina's modules as well.

Extract 7.27. CR.HAN.01 - 330

1	Anne	<i>bà nghĩ cũng nên là giống như Europe</i> {she thinks that like Europe} (.)
2		<i>ah giống như ở Europe là mình sẽ ah</i> {like Europe that we will ah} (.)
3		<i>cho di chuyển tự do tất cả những người đó</i> {let those people move freely} (.)
4		<i>và giúp cho họ hợp pháp hóa ở nước Mỹ</i> {and help them to be legalised in the U.S.} (2)
5	Hannah	excellent

7.5. Concluding remark

This chapter has investigated the language use in the DoS, suggesting that both languages operated cooperatively for the benefits of teaching and learning activities. It can be summarised that lecturers used Vietnamese and English for various functions, ranging from explaining complicated disciplinary issues to constructing classroom atmosphere. The use of L1 in most cases was not a spontaneous act of the lecturers, but had pedagogical intentions so that the lessons

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could proceed smoothly. However, each lecturer had their main purposes of Vietnamese use, with Tiffany mainly focusing on curriculum access, Helen on curriculum access and classroom management, while Hannah used Vietnamese for all three categories of functions.

Therefore, the practices of codeswitching and translanguaging in the DoS recognised the linguistic repertoires of both lecturers and students. The two languages were used in “an integrated and coherent way to organise and mediate mental processes in learning” (Baker, 2011, p.288). Interestingly, while these language practices appeared to be effective, focus group data reveals that students still expressed their wish to be linguistically capable to learn their content subjects in English only, or at least, in an English-dominant classroom. This target is closely linked to their identity as students of the college and the potential career benefits associated with English (see section 5.4.3). Most lecturers shared the same viewpoint that an English-only teaching experience would be much better if students could afford that linguistically. Nevertheless, an EMI programme needs more than just students’ language proficiency to be effective. Pedagogy is such a prerequisite, and this will be explored in chapter 8.

8 EMI Classroom Pedagogical Practices

8.1. Introduction

In the previous chapters, the roles of both Vietnamese and English were highlighted as playing crucial functions in the process of content knowledge co-construction between the DoS lecturers and students. This strategic use of L1 and L2 was an essential pedagogical technique in this setting of bilingual education. Nevertheless, most participants still negatively regarded the use of Vietnamese as a temporary solution to students' language deficiency.

Table 7.2 (p. 127) interestingly reveals the different amounts of Vietnamese and English used among the four modules observed. Remarkably, while three of these modules shared the same group of fourth year students, Tiffany's classes were overwhelmingly conducted in English (75.23%), while that was not the case in Hannah's and Helen's lessons (34.68% and 42.96%, respectively). Tiffany was unofficially rated by students to deliver one of the most effective and attractive modules in the DoS. This was revealed by students in focus groups and informal talks, as in extract 8.1 and notes from research diary collected in classroom observation, as in extract 8.2.

Extract 8.1. FG.Y4.01 - 298

1 Mia Ms Tiffany's teaching method is really effective
2 Anne Yah we can say that the teaching method of Ms Tiffany seems to be the most understandable.

Extract 8.2. Research diary – CR.TIF.04

Students were so excited to participate in the class discussion of the questions in the handout. They raised their hands, shouted to get Tiffany's attention, and complained if they were not chosen to answer. It was really a "healthy" competition, and many times Tiffany had to calm the students down. Students also laughed a lot, and I didn't feel that students were stressed because of their English level here.

This chapter, therefore, aims to have a close look at classroom pedagogical practices of Tiffany as opposed to those of the other lecturers. To be more specific, it addresses the concern about what happened in Tiffany's classes that enabled her to use much more English, compared to her colleagues, with the same group of students while still ensuring their lecture comprehension. In so doing, the focal ROADMAPPING component of this chapter is Practices and Processes, with an investigation into 'the ways of doing' of lecturers and how it is connected to

'the ways of doing' of students. These ways of doing are not limited within lecturers' use of instructional language or delivery strategies, but can involve pre- and after-class activities as a supporting platform for what happens inside class. This chapter notwithstanding will exclude all the examples when Vietnamese was employed as a pedagogical practice to avoid unnecessary repetition of the previous chapter. In other words, this chapter narrows the analytical scale down to other teaching strategies which were employed by Tiffany, which to some extent was an attempt to increase students' exposure to a content learning environment in English. Undeniably, there are certain episodes where the parallel use of L1 and L2 collaborated with other pedagogical practices to enhance learning opportunities. I therefore acknowledge the potential consequences of missing such classroom episodes in this chapter. However, my main purpose of analysing these various teaching practices is to argue that an EMI lecturer with appropriate use of pedagogy is able to cope with language barriers and facilitate students' learning opportunities of content knowledge.

To achieve the abovementioned aim, two steps were conducted. First, a preliminary scheme of classroom features was developed based on data collected from interviews with lecturers, focus groups with students and notes from research diary. This scheme was then used as a guideline to walk through classroom data, with a reference to the current literature in EMI practices. Therefore, this chapter will begin with typical EMI classroom practices of Tiffany, compared to those of Hannah and Helen when appropriate. It should be clarified that Nina's module is not included in this chapter, since most of her classes were in Vietnamese and she had a different group of students from the other lecturer participants.

8.2. The allowance of planning time in group work

One typical feature in Tiffany's classes is her allowance of planning time via group work. This is strongly linked to students' participation in the knowledge co-construction process¹³, as students were observed to be quite active in the whole class discussion that occurred after each group work activity.

Tiffany's module often started with a discussion point and a quiz based on students' at-home reading texts. Students worked in their group to prepare their answers for the quiz. After

¹³ See 2.6 for a brief discussion of the social constructivist understanding of learning

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that, Tiffany would lead the whole class discussion to address the quiz questions, and her lectures would come in the form of explanations for each individual question. This class procedure typically took place as demonstrated in Table 8.1. This group work activity, occupying nearly 50% of class time, was based on the reading each student had done individually at home. The quiz questions worked as guidance for students to navigate through the reading with support as they could check reading comprehensions with their group mates, shared their ideas and co-construct the meaning together. Especially, during this group work, Tiffany moved around to check if students had any questions or concerns to take control of what happened in class but still leave an open space for students to explore the knowledge themselves.

Table 8.1. Lesson organisation outline – CR.TIF.03

1. Greetings (1 minute)
2. Group work (40 minutes) – Quiz delivered Students discussed the quiz questions
3. Whole class discussion (47 minutes) Students volunteered to answer the quiz questions and get bonus mark if answer correctly Lecture explanation was integrated into the discussion.

On some occasions when no quiz was delivered, Tiffany would give questions for discussion after her monologue lectures. Students were still assigned to group work and had some time to plan for answers. In Table 8.2, two group work activities were allocated in another class of Tiffany:

Table 8.2. Lesson organisation outline – CR.TIF.02

1. Greetings/ Outline of the lesson (1 minute)
2. Group work (about 6 minutes) Students brainstormed 10 words people need for their daily life
3. Whole-class discussion (about 8 minutes) Each group shared their words
4. Monologue lecture – explanations of the dam construction site (about 48 minutes)
5. Group work (about 5 minutes) Students discussed four questions about the damn construction in Mekong River
6. Whole-class discussion (about 5 minutes) Students contributed their group answers
7. Lecture explanation of the four questions (about 11 minutes)

Extract 8.3, taken from Tiffany's class presented in Table 8.2, is a comprehensive example of how this pedagogical practice of allowing planning time in group work can enable students to participate in knowledge construction process. Right before this extract, Tiffany had just finished her monologue lecture about the construction of different dams in Mekong River and how that construction led to several conflicts on water governing in this area. She then asked students to work in groups for fifteen minutes and answer four questions (line 1- 6). From lines 7 to 49, Tiffany monitored a whole class discussion based on students' group work.

Extract 8.3. CR.TIF.02 - 677

1 Tiffany so ah I let you guys do the discussion in your groups (.) and try to find the answers for the four
 2 questions (2)
 3 Tiffany first (.) what do we gain? (.) ok? (.)
 4 second (.) who will gain? (.)
 5 ah next question (.) ah what do we lost? (.)
 6 and finally (.) who will lose (.) if the dam is constructed in Mekong river?
 [students worked in group for 15 minutes]
 7 ok (.) four questions (.) you guys
 8 ok (.) let's start the first question (.) what is the big gain when ah when it comes to the building of
 9 ah the dams (.) on Mekong river (.) the big gains? (.)
 10 Anne?
 11 Anne electricity
 12 Tiffany electricity (.) hah (.) electricity is the biggest gain for ah Mekong countries (.)
 13 anything else? (3)
 14 Jemma control of water
 15 Tiffany hah?
 16 Jemma control of water
 17 Tiffany the control of water (2) ahm (.) can you explain? (3)
 18 Jemma ah (.) we ah we will prevent the flood ah when it rains a lot ah in the rain season (.) and we we
 19 will release the water ah ah when it is dry
 20 Tiffany um (.) so control water (.) and electricity (.) ah (.) the biggest gains for construction projects ()
 21 ah (.) who will gain (.) basically from the project? (2) who will gain (.) mainly from the project (3)
 22 Jemma Laos and Cambodia
 23 Tiffany Laos (.) and ?
 24 Jemma Cambodia
 25 Tiffany Laos government (.) and Cambodia (.) do you agree? (2)
 26 Anne Laos only
 27 Mia Laos *[pointed at the slide]*
 28 Tiffany Laos (.) and Cambodia (.) or (.) Laos only? (3)
 29 now we're talking about the dam construction project (.) both in Laos and Cambodia (.) it's not

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30 only in Laos (.) right? (.) if you are looking into the map (.) actually ah um (.) the project is in Laos
31 and Cambodia so far (.) here (2) right? (2) so Cambodia is in the map (2)
32 so not only Lao government but also Cambodian government (.) are the ones who gain from the
33 the construction project (.)
34 next question (.) what will be lost? (2)
35 what will be lost? (.) the commission or the dams?
36 Thomas the loss is change the natural floods {/fluds/} (.)
37 Tiffany the natural floods
38 Thomas and drought {/drɔ:t/} cycle
39 Tiffany the?
40 Thomas the floods {/fluds/} and drought {/drɔ:t/} cycle
41 Tiffany ah the drought? ah hah (.)
42 Thomas and (.) these=
43 Tiffany =so changing the flows of water (.) the first thing he mentions is (.) the changing of the free flows
44 of water (.) on the Mekong river (2) ok?
45 Thomas and reducing the amount {/ə'mʌŋt/} of the water
46 Tiffany reducing the?
47 Thomas water (.) the amount of water
48 Tiffany reducing the (.) amount of water (.) ah hah (2) what else? (.)
49 Kate ah the dams ah would block the migration of fish ah and change their natural habitats

In extract 8.3, planning time in group work was necessarily important since students had the chance to reflect on the information they listened to, share their understanding with their group mates, and synthesise all those knowledge to respond to the questions. This preparing time in small group discussions made students be more confident when they could check their lecture comprehension “in a less threatening forum” with a few friends (Airey & Linder, 2006, p. 559). Additionally, the answers were later presented as a team product other than an individual opinion in the whole class discussion by a group representative. For those students who were shy or reluctant to speak in English, they at least had their learning space when interacting with their group mates, either in English or in Vietnamese. It can be said that this allowance of planning time in Tiffany’s class played a significantly crucial role in getting students’ participation in the construction of knowledge that happened later from line 7 to 49. Given students’ limited English ability to formulate their responses on the spot, this planning time prepared them in both aspects: content (what to answer) and language (how to answer in English). It should be acknowledged that most of students’ contributions in English in Tiffany’s classes were similar to those in extract 8.3. If they needed to produce more complicated utterances, students usually switched to Vietnamese. However, the allowance of planning time undeniably helped to create a

platform for students to feel less threatened and express what they understand in L2, in spite of their language barriers.

8.3. The creation of a comfortable classroom environment

Data from focus groups and research diary shows that Tiffany was able to create a relaxing, comfortable classroom environment for her students, where they could feel that their language proficiency was not a big issue for class participation. Joanna shared her feelings about Tiffany's class in extract 8.4.

Extract 8.4. FG.Y3.01 – 171

1 Joanna in her class, I feel really comfortable, it's like we talk to each other instead of being teacher and
2 student, it's like exchanging ideas between what we have already known and what we haven't, so
3 I find it relaxing and easier to absorb the knowledge.

Tiffany's creation of a comfortable classroom was conducted via different ways. Firstly, she was really patient with students' answers. That patience could be seen through her extended waiting time in extract 8.3 above. For example, after Anne volunteered to answer the first question (line 11), Tiffany wanted to elicit more responses from the other groups. She waited for three seconds (line 13) and then Jemma added her answer (line 14). Similar amount of waiting time was also found in lines 17, 21, 25, 28, 34. While teachers typically wait less than one second after asking a question (Walsh, 2011), Tiffany's significant waiting time enabled her students to rehearse what they had prepared in the previous group discussion – especially when their discussion was mostly conducted in Vietnamese - and had more courage to contribute their ideas in English. It is also noticeable that Tiffany had meaningful pauses after certain statements, such as that in line 17. Her echo of Jemma's answer "the control of water" was followed by a 2-second pause, which provided a space for the whole class to absorb the information together. At the same time, it gave Jemma a short "break" before Tiffany asked for an expansion ("Can you explain?"). Similarly, in line 31, when Tiffany asked the class to look at the Mekong River map with the location of the construction project, she paused continuously three times, each time for 2 seconds, allowing space for students to critically connect what they could see on the map with the discussion taking place from line 21 to 33.

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In the other two modules of the same group of fourth year students, extended waiting time was present in the data, but instead of students' active contribution, it was mainly followed by silence. A typical example is extract 8.5 in Helen's class. Before this episode, Helen had let the whole class watch a 2-minute video about the normalisation of diplomacy relation between Vietnam and the US. Right after the video, Helen started eliciting the key words about this relation. Although the question seemed to be simple, not much participation from students could be found in this interaction.

Extract 8.5. CR.HEL.02 - 9

1 Helen ok (.) so could you tell me some adjectives or some words to ah (.) overall describe the
2 the relationship (.) in terms of the policy and politics (.) between these two countries? (3)
3 just give me any words (.) coming up in your mind (2)
4 to talk about this special relationship
5 (18)
6 huh? (.) any words? (.)
7 Anne?
8 Anne promotion
9 Helen promotion (2)
10 what else? (3)
11 Bella normalisation
12 Helen normalisation (2)
13 Ellen lift embargotion
14 Helen hah?
15 Ellen lift embargotion
16 Helen embargotion? (.) ah ah lift (.) lifting the embargo (.) trade embargo (.) trade xxx (.)
17 what else?
18 (17)
19 Laura strategic partnership
20 Helen ah (.) strategic partnership (.) yah
21 (10)
22 any other words?
23 (8)
24 no?
25 (4)
26 what else?
27 (18)
28 before (.) you had to work a lot on your presentation (.) and on prepare (.) and on preparing the
29 lesson (.) and (.) I think that (.) maybe one day (.) I should shift (.) my policy into the former policy
30 that you have to work more (.) because this semester (.) I work more than you (.) and I think this is

31 not a successful ah way (.) for this class

It is evident that Helen had an extensive use of waiting time, sometimes up to 18 seconds (lines 5 and 27). Nevertheless, the employment of extended waiting time alone did not result in students' participation, causing Helen to pick Anne – one of the most active students of this group – to give an answer (line 7). Notably, Anne was often considered to be the top student. In extract 8.3, Anne was also the first student to participate in the interaction, but she volunteered in that situation with Tiffany. This was not the case in extract 8.5. Anne's answer, however, was able to entail two other contributions (lines 11, 13, 15), followed by another long pause of 17 seconds (line 18). The silence was broken with Laura's answer (line 19), before the interaction ends with more class reticence. Helen's attempts to elicit additional contributions (lines 21 to 27) were unsuccessful. That explained why Helen suddenly changed from "instructional discourse" to "regulative discourse" (Christie, 1997) in line 28. The switch from the discussion topic to class policy showed that she was not happy with students' lack of cooperation in this elicitation activity. There are two possible reasons for class reticence here. Firstly, it is related to what was discussed in 8.1 as Helen did not allow time for peer work. Secondly, Helen's class atmosphere was quite tense compared to that of Tiffany. For example, some students revealed their feelings about Helen's normal way of teachings in extract 8.6.

Extract 8.6 - FG.Y4.02 -195

- 1 Beth when Helen asks, we are not allowed to hesitate, we have to answer immediately
- 2 Tracy she walks around the class like this=
- 3 Beth =and if she points at you and asks=
- 4 Taylor =we are shaken

The necessity of creating a friendly atmosphere in getting student participation, especially in an EMI setting, can be inferred from extract 8.6. Undeniably, each lecturer has their own teaching style and objectives, and it would be too overgeneralised to say that Helen's teaching did not bring about expected educational results. Nevertheless, what matters here is how much students were able to feel less threatened about their use of English to participate in class discussion. In this aspect, it seems that Helen was not able to create similar fear-free learning space as Tiffany.

Another aspect that highlighted Tiffany's creation of comfort for her student is the way she treated students' contributions. This can also be seen in her technique to deal with Thomas's

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pronunciation errors in extract 8.3 above (lines 37, 41). What Tiffany most concerned here was Thomas' ability to identify the loss regarding this dam construction. Concurrently, she had to make sure that the class could understand what was being said. That explained why Tiffany employed the corrective feedback strategy of "recast" (Ellis, 2009), where she echoed Thomas's answer with some repairs. Instead of reducing learning space, Tiffany's recast in this episode is of great importance for two reasons. First, it did not impede Thomas's flow of contribution in the interaction, as his turn was maintained from lines 36 to 47. Second, her echo of Thomas's answers functions as "an inclusive strategy" (Walsh, 2011, p. 170) where everyone was able to catch up with what was happening, especially when Thomas spoke at a low voice. The learning space, accordingly, was opened up to the whole class rather than just limited to Thomas and his group, who were directly involved in the interaction with Tiffany. It should be added that during this interaction, Tiffany often smiled encouragingly to the students.

Tiffany also organised games or physical activities in her class, which generated a lot of laughter but concurrently provided a chance for students to link between the fun and the content knowledge. Among the lecturer participants, she was the only one who incorporated games into her teaching. For example, in CR.TIF.01, before teaching about human rights issue of Rhoyingya people, she divided the class into two groups staying in two parallel lines. They all were required to keep silence and not to smile or do anything else but looked at their partners' eyes. Then, students in one line were asked to sit down, while those in the other kept standing. They were directed to continue looking at their partners' eyes in this new position, with no talk and smile. Finally, when the students came back to their seats, Tiffany asked them to reflect on that activity, as in extract 8.7. Apparently, students appeared to be really enjoying the activity, with a lot of laughs while talking about the experience (lines 11, 13, 19-24, 30-33). At the same time, students were actually given the chance to explore the concept of "power" through Tiffany's guiding questions. By comparing how they actually felt in the two situations: when they all stood and when half of them had to sit down, students co-constructed the meaning of "power equality" – that they felt more comfortable in the first case (lines 2-6) - and "power over" – that those who stood felt happy because they had more power, while those who sat down felt hurt (lines 12-34). At the end of this interaction, starting from line 35, Tiffany started linking students' reflection on this activity to the two key concepts of exercising power on human rights. Therefore, the content knowledge was made simple and relevant to students' involvements in the activity. In addition, since this activity was organised in the middle of the lesson when Tiffany had lectured for about 30 minutes, it created significant boost in students' interest.

Extract 8.7. CR.TIF.01 - 348

1 Tiffany now it's time for you to talk (.) you have kept silence for a long time (.) now it's time for you to talk
 2 (.) now tell me (.) tell me (.) how do you feel in this case? (.) in which case do you feel more
 3 comfortable? (3)
 4 in the first case of in the second? (.)
 5 Mia first
 6 Ellen the first
 7 Tiffany the first one (.) right? (.) so (.) what makes you uncomfortable in the second one? (.) in the second
 8 time? (2)
 9 any thoughts? (.) let me ask Thomas (.) what makes you uncomfortable when you look into Anne's
 10 eyes?
 11 Anne @ he became too @@=
 12 Tiffany = no no no I ask him @ he is the one who sat down (.) you were the one who stand up right? (2)
 13 Thomas before ah when I see her ah (.) when I sit down (.) ahm I feel ah @ (4) ah I have ah a (.) low level (.)
 14 Tiffany you you already have a lower level? (.) a lower position than her (.) right?
 15 Thomas yah
 16 Tiffany um (2)
 17 Thomas and ahh
 18 Tiffany how do you feel about that?
 19 Thomas I feel ahhh @ hurt my eyes [@@]
 20 Class [@@]
 21 Tiffany ah you hurt?
 22 Thomas @@
 23 Tiffany @@ especially your eyes (2) ok @@ anything else
 24 Thomas @@ and ah (3) no @@
 25 Tiffany nothing else (.) ah hah (2) Hetti? (.) tell me (.) tell me what do you feel?
 26 Hetti when I stand (.) I feel ah (.) so happy and I feel I have a @=
 27 Tiffany =when you were in equal positions you feel ah happy?
 28 Hetti no ah when I stand and ah my friends ah @ sit down @
 29 Tiffany ah @ you are the one who stand (.) right (.)
 30 Hetti yes (.) and ah I think I have ah more power [@@]
 31 Class [@@]
 32 Tiffany oh you have more power (.) you feel happy (.)
 33 Hetti [@ yes @]
 34 Class [@@]
 35 Tiffany because you are more powerful than the one who sit down (.) right (.) but the one who sits down
 36 feel hurt (.) because you are in a lower position (.) right? (.)
 37 so actually that is something I want you to understand about human rights (.)
 38 when you think about human rights (.) actually that is interplayed with the concept of power (2)
 39 right? (.) the one the one who have power (.) hah (.) the authority in the state they have the

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40 power (.) right? (.) and there are two ways for them to exercise the power (.)
41 power equal (2) when you are in an equal position (.)
42 power equality (.) when you are standing (.) both of you standing equally (.) this is how the
43 government should exercise the power (.) right? (.)
44 but in some other cases (.) instead of power equality (.) there is a power over (2)
45 the power over is exercised when the government impose power on the citizens (2) and as you
46 say (.) the government actually feel happy (.) they are more powerful (.) they want everyone to do
47 everything they ask (.) you the one in lower position have to do what what I want right? (.)
48 Class @@

Last but not least, the exciting learning environment in Tiffany's class was generated by her organisation of class discussion as a competition between groups. Tiffany often had group quizzes, and it was through these quiz questions that she structured her content delivery. For every correct answer, each group will get one mark. At the end of each class, Tiffany would take note of these marks and then add them as bonus points to students' final results. This worked very noticeably as a motivation for students to try their best and participate in the whole class discussion. Additionally, this way of motivating students opened up a space for knowledge construction to the whole class instead of just limiting the contribution to the most active students. Undeniably, since students worked in groups and got bonus marks together, their answers to the quizzes were often given by group representatives. Yet when Tiffany asked one group for clarification or explanation, it was common for any group members to answer. In extract 8.8, Birdy and Mia, from the same group, took turns to support each other in providing their answers so that their group could get the bonus mark. Birdy initiated with her answer in line 4, followed by Mia's answer in line 8. The two 2-second pauses in line 9 after Tiffany's question implied that the students started having difficulty in finding another America's partner. That explained why Birdy responded "Vietnam" in an uncertain voice (line 10), and Mia supported her group mate by repeating the answer in line 12.

Extract 8.8. CR.TIF.03 -296

1 Tiffany who are American partners in Southeast Asia ah in Asia Pacific region? (.) the partner (.) not ally?
2 Birdy awwww
3 Tiffany Birdy?
4 Birdy Singapore
5 Tiffany Singapore [@@]
6 Birdy [@@]
7 Tiffany ok (.) one good mark (.) please please count the good mark (.) ok? (.)

8 Mia Taiwan
 9 Tiffany Taiwan (.) ok (.) which one? (2) the partner? (2) America's partner?
 10 Birdy Vietnam
 11 Tiffany what?
 12 Mia Vietnam
 13 Tiffany Vietnam? (.) America's partner (.) ok (.)

8.4. The combination of multiple sources of delivery as extensive scaffolding devices

Tiffany was very efficient in making use of two visual aids in her lectures, including Powerpoint slides and writing on the whiteboard (see 7.2). These two supporting tools assisted the delivery of content knowledge in English by helping students to grasp the key words and ideas in Tiffany's talk while providing information in a systematically visual way. Also, the slides were available after class via email distribution, hence enabled students to do their independent learning. Meanwhile, Hannah only used the board, while Helen occasionally had her lectures supported with a Powerpoint presentation.

Observational data and notes from research diary also point out that another effective source of lesson delivery in Tiffany's class was her handout in the form of quiz questions. This is really typical to Tiffany's pedagogical practices and could not be found in any other DoS lecturers' content modules, including those which were not observed. The handout was normally designed as a set of reading comprehension questions, combining several types of tasks such as multiple choices, True/False, gap-filling, matching, answering short questions. On the one hand, these questions were the key points to be discussed in Tiffany's slides that followed later in the whole class discussion. On the other hand, these questions scaffolded students in exploring the disciplinary knowledge with key ideas and necessary language.

For example, Figure 8.1 is a handout Tiffany used in her lesson of "The US Rebalancing Policy". Eight questions included here had different formats and objectives, such as asking for factual information (i.e.: question 1), explanation (i.e.: question 6), or classification (i.e.: question 7). The first question, for instance, was purely looking for facts, but it then resulted in a more in-depth discussion between Tiffany and her students, as illustrated in Extract 8.9. In line 3, Jemma gave her group's initial answer but was able to correct it in line 5 thanks to Tiffany's elicitation

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corrective feedback (line 4). It was then followed by Tiffany's explanation of what Obama administration did (lines 6 to 11). Remarkably, in lines 12-13, Tiffany referred to information presented on the slide (Figure 8.2, p. 160), adding one more supporting aid to her mode of delivery.

Figure 8.1. CR.TIF.03 – Quiz questions for group discussion

1. When was the initiative of “Rebalancing” pronounced?
2. Which of the following points are fundamental goals of the policy?
 - a. to broaden areas of cooperation beneficial to the U.S. with regional states and institutions;
 - b. to counter Chinese peace rising
 - c. to promote American values
 - d. develop regional norms and rules compatible with the international security, economic, and political order long supported by the United States.
3. The story of the rebalance is not a story of U.S. disengagement and then re-engagement in Asia. True or False? Why?
4. It is suggested that the rebalance was mainly designed to contain China. True or False?
5. What are the key lines of action in the implementation of the policy?
6. Why is it a comprehensive policy?
7. Read the following statements and write B for Benefits and R for Risks of the policy.
 - a. A failure to rebalance could invite other regional powers, particularly China, to shape the region in ways that are not necessarily in U.S. interests
 - b. In an era of constrained U.S. defense resources, an increased U.S. military emphasis on the Asia-Pacific region result in a reduction in U.S. military capacity in other parts of the world.
 - c. Administration officials argue that demonstrating a lasting U.S. commitment to Asia will make bilateral partners and Asian multilateral organizations more willing and able to shape the region’s rules and norms collectively.
 - d. the perception among many that the “rebalancing” is targeted against China could strengthen the hand of Chinese hard-liners
8. Fill in the gap with one word ONLY.

8. Fill in the gap with one word **ONLY**

might *tension* *multilateral* ³ *territory* ⁵ *warn* ³
claim *maritime* *influence* *response* *resist* ⁴

Concerning the regional implication, although US officials have often stated that their moves are not aimed at any one particular country, most observers believe they are ... (1) , at least in part, to China's growing ... (2).... Particularly worrisome to many in the U.S. and in the region has been Beijing's greater willingness in recent years to display its diplomatic and military... (3).... in asserting its (4) to contested maritime(5).... in the South and East China Seas, as well as through live-fire military exercises,(6) patrols, harassment of Vietnamese oil exploration vessels, and detention of Vietnamese and Philippine fishing boats.

While the Obama Administration continues to seek stronger cooperative ties with China, its Pacific "rebalancing" effort represents a simultaneous attempt to ...⁽⁷⁾... China away from using heavy-handed tactics against its neighbors and provide confidence to other Asia-Pacific countries that want to ...⁽⁸⁾... pressure from Beijing now and in the future. The Administration appears to have had some success with the more confrontational side of this two-track approach

After the United States, Vietnam, and other East Asian countries diplomatically pushed back in 2010 against what they saw as Chinese encroachment in the South China Sea, China chose to join (9) negotiations with Southeast Asian countries over a Code of Conduct in the South China Sea. More recently, Vietnam's move to strengthen U.S.-Vietnamese ties appears to have led Beijing to try to patch up its relationship with Hanoi, contributing to an easing of(10)....

Extract 8.9. CR.TIF.03 -23

1 Tiffany let's work on the handout (.) the first question (2) ah right (.) you are the first (.) when was the
 2 initiative of the rebalance pronounced?
 3 Jemma ah ah in ah November ah two thousand and ten
 4 Tiffany say that again (.) in November two thousand?
 5 Jemma and eleven
 6 Tiffany and eleven good (.) ok (.) so here (.) sorry (.) in your handout you got um the date ah January two
 7 thousand and nine (.) and November two thousand and eleven but the date when the policy was
 8 first pronounced (.) was in November two thousand and eleven (.) but let me tell you (.) ah (.) the
 9 the policy is actually xxx that time (.) and also have to make some adjustments (.) so in the fall of
 10 two thousand and twelve (.) the Obama administration pronounced a series of steps in order to (.)
 11 ah in order to expand and also intensify ah its role (.) its significant role in Southeast Asia (.) ah and
 12 if you look into this slide (.) there is one important word for you guys ah please please pay
 13 attention to the slide (.) everyone (2) everyone please look into the slide (.)
 14 so my question is (.) when the initiative (.) was pronounced (.) you say it was in November two
 15 thousand eleven (.) but there was one important word here (.) the already (2)
 16 what does it mean (.) by saying (.) Obama administration say I want to expand (.) and intensify
 17 the already role in this region? (7)
 18 so why why is this point "already role" significant? (2)
 19 what does it tell you? (3.5)
 20 or in other words (.) do you think this policy is new or old? (2)
 21 is it the new thing or the already thing for the US? (12)
 22 is that the new policy or not? (4)
 23 what do you think?
 24 Ellen old policy
 25 Tiffany please raise your voice
 26 Ellen I think it's old policy
 27 Tiffany uh huh (2) can you elaborate? (4) Halle?
 28 Halle I think it's the old policy because ah
 29 Tiffany you think it's not the new one? uh huh
 30 Halle ah ah sorry ah I think this is the new policy of=br/>
 31 Tiffany =you think it's the new policy huh?
 32 Halle yes because um before ah the US policy focus on the the ah middle (.) middle age (.) Middle East
 33 Tiffany ah she argues that (.) the US rebalancing policy (.) is a new policy (.) to Southeast Asia because
 34 before their focus was in Middle East region (.) not Southeast Asian region (3)
 35 do you agree with her? (9)

From line 14 in extract 8.9, we can see that based on the facts provided by question 1, Tiffany continued to guide her students to more critical thinking with an analytical question about

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the words “the already role”. Since this question was not in the handout, it was quite demanding for Tiffany’s students to come up with an immediate answer. There was a series of questions (lines 15-22), followed by several cases of significant extended waiting time, one of which was up to 12 seconds. It should be noted this interaction here also showed Tiffany’s questioning techniques, such as paraphrasing (line 18), making the question more specific (line 20), or repeating the question as re-elicitation (lines 21-22). These techniques helped to scaffold students, as Ellen was able to contribute (line 24), although that was a short contribution. Tiffany was waiting for more explanation (line 27) before asking Ellen to do it (“Can you elaborate?”). As Ellen could not, Halle raised her hand to volunteer (line 28). Tiffany’s confirmation check (line 29) by using the synonyms “old” and “not new” enabled Halle to self-correct her answer (line 30) and provided an explanation (line 32).

Figure 8.2. A PPT slide in Tiffany’s class of “US rebalancing power” – CR.TIF.03



Similar interactional episodes occurred for other questions in the handout in Figure 8.1. That is, firstly, students answered the questions based on their group discussion; then Tiffany clarified the answers and provided more information on her Powerpoint slides; and if necessary, she guided students to more in-depth discussions. Especially, gap-filling task (question 8) in the handout was quite common. To some extent, it seemed to turn Tiffany’s content class into a more-or-less language class. However, this is a kind of exercise through which students could be familiarised with key terms of the lesson, such as “multilateral”, “maritime” or “territory”. Also, when correcting this task, Tiffany devoted some time to explain these words in the context of the topic. Hellekjær (2010) suggests that students should have a chance to get used to unfamiliar

terms or concepts, and this gap-filling exercise in Tiffany's class is such a significant activity to improve EMI instruction.

To sum up, for ensuring lecture comprehension when she used English extensively, Tiffany provided students with scaffolding devices such as visual aids. More importantly, her handouts, composed of quiz questions, were accompanied by her practice of assigning students to prepare in groups. This pedagogical practice functioned effectively in improving her EMI instruction.

8.5. EMI instruction language

8.5.1. The use of signposting devices

One of the key concerns in EMI classroom practices is how students can follow their lecturers' line of thoughts. As Hellekjær (2010) reveals, this is considered to be among the most frequent sources of difficulties in EMI instruction and students' lecture comprehension. For L2 listeners, it is recommended that interactive discourse structuring via signposting devices should be employed to facilitate lecture comprehension (Camiciottoli, 2004). Dafouz and Perucha (2010) also highlight the value of metadiscursive devices in supporting students to keep track with their L2 lectures. They propose different categories: 1) openers, 2) sequencers, 3) topicalisers, 4) prospective markers, and 5) retrospective markers. Table 8.3 displays these types of markers.

Table 8.3. Discourse structure markers (Dafouz and Perucha, 2010, p.220)¹⁴

Openers	Signal the formal beginning of a class	Today, we are going to talk...
Sequencers	Mark particular positions within a series	First, then, next...
Topicalisers	Indicate introduction of new topics/topic shifts	Another concept; what are FI cars made of?
Prospective markers	Refer towards to future topics/sections in the lecture/other lectures	We will see later...
Retrospective	Refer backwards to previous topics/sections in	As I mentioned before...

¹⁴ Dafouz and Perucha (2010) proposed a comprehensive framework of different types of metadiscourse categories which were identified for three phases of lectures, including: 1) discourse structuring phase, 2) interactional phase, and (3) conclusion phase. However, within the scope of this analysis, only devices of the discourse structuring phase are mentioned and used for analysis. To avoid unnecessary complexity and confusion, their "metadiscursive devices" are simply referred as discourse markers in this analysis.

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markers	the lecture/other lectures	
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Tiffany was really aware of the importance of structuring her lesson in a clear way for the benefit of students' comprehension. All her observed lessons started with "openers", proving a clear structure of what would be covered in each lesson, and how many topics and activities would be included. For instance, in extract 8.10, Tiffany used different metadiscursive devices, including openers, prospective markers and sequencers. Openers could guide her students as to what to expect in the lesson, while sequencers established the lesson procedure so that students could be prepared.

Extract 8.10. CR.TIF.03 - 7

1 Tiffany so today we're going to talk about ah US rebalancing policies in Southeast Asia(.) huh(.) ah and
2 (.) what is the implication of this policy(.) especially to ASEAN(.) right? (2)
3 so you you may already read it at home(.) and then I also give you the handout on reflection(.)
4 with these questions(.) we're gonna discover three main questions huh(.) what is the old things
5 of the policy(.) and what is the new thing about it(.) alright?(.) ah in the second part we're gonna
6 discuss(.) what ah the policy brings for the US?(.) what is the dangers for the US?(.) and finally
7 we're gonna talk about(.) uhm the implications of the policy(.) to Southeast Asia(.) especially to
8 ASEAN(.)

Compared to Tiffany, the other two lecturers Hannah and Helen rarely presented the lesson outlines. Each of them only announced the outline in one out of six lessons recorded and four lessons fully transcribed. Meanwhile, typical sequencers like temporal markers (i.e.: first/next) and noun phrases containing determinatives indicating orders (i.e.: the first thing/the next issue), appeared less frequent in these two modules than in Tiffany's, as shown in Table 8.4 (p. 162) and Table 8.5 (p. 163). In all four classes, Helen only used 19 sequencers, Hannah used 38, while Tiffany used up to 163 sequencers. Especially, most of Hannah and Helen's use of sequencers occurred in the beginning of a lesson or a topic.

Table 8.4. The use of typical sequencers in three modules of Hannah, Helen and Tiffany

	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Total
Hannah	11	11	5	11	38
Helen	7	10	2	0	19
Tiffany	23	33	66	41	163

Given students' limited English proficiency and the challenging disciplinary knowledge, the employment of sequencers helped students to understand the order of the class, the lesson or any topics being discussed, hence they could follow the lectures or ongoing discourse events with fewer difficulties. Tiffany's extensive use of sequencers, as opposed to her colleagues, explains why students found it easy to follow her line of thoughts, even when her language use was mostly composed of English.

Regarding topicalisers, it was very common for Tiffany to use the structure of "Let's ..." / "Let me" to introduce a new topic or activity. This structure is a recurrent pattern in all four transcribed lectures of Tiffany, and happened occasionally in Hannah's and Helen's classes, as can be seen in Table 8.5. Some examples of Tiffany's use of this topicaliser are shown in the following extracts. As can be seen in these extracts, this topicaliser is usually found to follow the sequencer "now", creating a "metadiscursive chain" (Dafouz and Perucha, 2010, p. 222) – a phenomenon when several metadiscursive devices occur within the same stretch of discourse. The combination of both sequencers and topicalisers helps to "structure the main ideas and present them in an orderly fashion to favour comprehension" (ibid., p. 223).

Table 8.5. The use of "Let's..." / "Let me ..." as topicaliser by Hannah, Helen and Tiffany

	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Total
Hannah	1	0	0	1	2
Helen	4	1	1	0	5
Tiffany	6	4	20	10	40

Extract 8.11 CR.TIF.01 - 116

1 Tiffany ah ah now (.) first let me tell you some basic knowledge about human rights (.) um very briefly

Extract 8.12. CR.TIF.04 - 306

1 Tiffany ah (.) now let's come to the second state

Additionally, Tiffany occupied rhetorical questions as topicalisers, similar to what has been found in previous studies (Dafouz & Perucha, 2010). She often raised a new point of discussion or attracted students' attention to a new topic by asking questions which were

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followed by her own answers (extract 8.13). There were 13 rhetorical questions that functioned as topicalisers in Tiffany's four lectures, compared to 5 in Hannah's and 2 in Helen's.

Table 8.6. The use of typical sequencers in individual classes of Hannah, Helen and Tiffany

	Hannah				Helen				Tiffany			
	CR.HAN.01	CR.HAN.02	CR.HAN.03	CR.HAN.04	CR.HEL.01	CR.HEL.02	CR.HEL.03	CR.HEL.04	CR.TIF.01	CR.TIF.02	CR.TIF.03	CR.TIF.04
First/firstly/ the first ...	3	7	1	5	3	7	1	0	7	6	19	9
Secondly/ the second...	2	1	1	5	1	2	0	0	0	1	9	9
Next	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	2	4
Then	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	2	3	1
After	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
Before	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	0
Finally/ the final...	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	1
Lastly/the last...	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	3	7	3
Now	5	3	2	0	3	1	1	0	3	13	25	14
TOTAL	11	11	5	11	7	10	2	0	23	33	66	41

Extract 8.13. CR.TIF.02 - 266

1 Tiffany why do we need to talk about Mekong River? hah (.) as one of the eleven longest rivers all over
2 the world (.) because Mekong River (.) has a very great economic (.) cultural (.) and environmental
3 value

It can be concluded herein that Tiffany had an extensive use of metadiscursive devices in her lecture, signposting her discourse clearly. Although there was no data collected about students' evaluation of this practice, it cannot be denied that her use of signposts significantly enabled students to follow her talk in English with fewer challenges.

8.5.2. Linguistic adaptation in teacher discourse

A typical feature in Tiffany’s discourse in English was her attempt to simplify technical terms or new key words with simple vocabulary or familiar examples. Meanwhile, with the same group of students, Hannah and Helen often employed a parallel translation of complicated concepts or new vocabulary. This may be due to the convenience and time-saving of the codeswitching strategy, but at the same time, it explains why Tiffany could use more English while maintaining the effectiveness of content delivery. The extracts below illustrate an interesting example while both Hannah and Tiffany, in their separate lessons, talked about “sustainable development”. In extract 8.14, Hannah just provided an immediate translation of the term in Vietnamese (line 4). On the other hand, in extract 8.15, Tiffany chose to modify her language and simplify the term with a detailed explanation (line 1-2), followed by a specific example (line 3-4). Tiffany also spoke at a slow rate with a number of pauses. Although Tiffany’s way took more time than simply providing the translated phrase as Hannah did, this is undeniably a pedagogical technique that should be considered for EMI practices. The fact that both the DoS lecturers and students shared their mother tongue of Vietnamese allowed for the use of codeswitching to explain new words. Yet when there are international students in the class - even just one- the ability to explain by paraphrasing in English may be needed. In this EMI context, Tiffany’s ability to simplify her discourse enabled students to be more exposed to English while ensuring their lecture comprehension.

Extract 8.14. CR.HAN.02 - 238

Extract 8.15. CR.TIF.02 - 189

1 Tiffany so developments (.) sustained governments want to achieve when (.) we meet the basic needs (.)
 2 in our generation (.) at this time without affecting the basic needs of (.) the future generations (.)
 3 we can use transportation without any damage on fresh air (.) and the environment of the future
 4 generations (.) your children in the future (2) ok? (.) that that is the concept (.) and that's what
 5 makes it a sustainable development (1.5)

Table 8.7 below shows four language modification strategies that appeared in Tiffany's four transcribed classes. The most frequent one is the use of explanations to help students construct the knowledge of a new technical term or word, while synonyms appeared in the data for a few times. It should be acknowledged that there was not always a clear-cut boundary between explanations and definitions. Therefore, in order to code the data for this section, the definition schema of "X is a T having characteristics c1, c2, c3" (Dalton-Puffer, 2007, p.131) was employed. That is, the data would be coded as definition if it appeared to fit this category, such as the example in Table 8.7.

X (The human rights commissions) are T (the agency) having characteristics (helping the international community to make sure the protection and promotion of human rights around the world)

Meanwhile, those which did not fit the above schema but at the same time provided a clearer meaning of a term/word were coded as explanations.

Table 8.7. Language modification strategies employed by Tiffany

Type	Meaning	Frequency	Example
Explanations	An elaborated explanation to make one's meaning clear and understandable within students' limited language proficiency	45	CR.TIF.02 – 110 social position (2) <u>everyone needs to be recognised (1.5) and have a certain power or certain position in life (.)</u>
Definitions	A definition with simpler words is used to explain the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary	16	CR.TIF.01 - 140 the human rights commissions (.) right (.) <u>that is the agency helping the international community ah to make sure the protection and promotion of human rights around the world (.)</u> ok? (.)

Examples	Specific examples are provided to explain unfamiliar vocabulary/terms	7	CR.TIF.01 – 707 non-confrontation means (.) <u>even though (.)</u> <u>you are not supportive with other countries (.)</u> <u>right? (.) but you did not criticise (.) other</u> <u>ASEAN states (.) you cannot criticise them (.)</u> <u>right?</u>
Synonyms	The use of synonyms to replace unfamiliar vocabulary	4	CR.TIF.03 – 420 so they they try to avoid (.) mentioning this case (.) the word “dominant” (.) “dominant” means <u>leading (.)</u> hah (.)

8.6. Concluding remark

This chapter has looked at Tiffany's EMI classroom practices - in comparison with her colleagues - to explain why the fourth-year students considered her module to be the most understandable and effective. This investigation was based on the background that Tiffany used most English in her talk among the lecturer participants, while she had the similar group of students as Hannah and Helen. As discussed above, Tiffany's ways of teaching included a wide range of practices, and her success came from the combination of all these teaching strategies together. Students individually prepared at home (pre-class reading). Then, they were given a comfortable, supporting learning space at class via visual aids (slides, blackboard), handouts, group work, competitions and games. Their knowledge construction was also scaffolded by Tiffany's use of signposting devices and language simplification techniques. Finally, they were able to revise the lesson based on those given handouts and distributed slides (after-class independent learning).

From Tiffany's pedagogical practices, what can be concluded here is that students' English proficiency is not the only key factor to decide the success of an EMI implementation. More importantly, lecturers should also be aware of their pedagogical competence to deliver content knowledge in a constructive way. It is necessary to realise that EMI does not simply involve translating the content knowledge into English, as using English to teach a content subject requires proper training. Unfortunately, this is still a considerable gap in the implementation of EMI as well as in teacher training courses. This chapter, therefore, offers significant pedagogical implications that will be presented in the discussion and conclusion.

9 Discussion

9.1. Introduction

In the previous chapters of data analysis, the EMI programme in the DoS was explored via various types of discourses, i.e. interviews, focus groups, classroom observations, site documents and my research diary. Based on the ROADMAPPING framework, EMI was seen from multiple perspectives, altogether providing a holistic picture of a specific HE entity in Vietnam. This chapter aims to synthesise these findings into a coherent structure describing the EMI story of the DoS, with crucial links to relevant studies in the existing literature. It is going to be developed around two main themes addressing the two RQs:

1. How is the EMI policy implemented in the DoS?
 - a. What is the policy?
 - b. What are the roles of lecturers and students in the implementation?
2. How is the knowledge co-constructed between lecturers and students in the EMI programme?
 - a. How are classroom's language resources utilised to support students' learning?
 - b. To what extent do different pedagogical practices influence students' learning in the observed classes?

Additionally, a discussion of the employment of ROADMAPPING as a holistic conceptual framework will be presented at the end of this chapter, addressing Dafouz and Smit's (2016) call for more research to test its applicability and viability.

9.2. The implementation of EMI policy at a micro level

According to Garcia & Menken (2010), it is time to "shift the emphasis" of language planning and policy from a top-down direction – where a policy is handed down to the educators by the government or official bodies - to a bottom-up perspective - where educators themselves "stir the onion"¹⁵ by enacting the policy in their own practices (p.250). Against this backdrop, the focus of this PhD research on EMI implementation at classroom level highlights significant findings

¹⁵ Ricento and Hornberger (1996) referred to language planning and policy as a multi-layered onion, where teachers are located at the centre of the onion.

of the process where lecturers and students enact their agency to “manipulate the language situation” (Spolsky, 2004, p.8).

9.2.1. Defining the EMI policy in the DoS

9.2.1.1. A heavily context-dependent EMI implementation

In the component of (language) Management of the ROADMAPPING framework, Dafouz & Smit (2016, p.406) state that language policy statements and declarations may “come in different channels”, one of which is via spoken form. This is the case of the EMI policy in the DoS, where none of the regulations related to teaching and learning of content subjects in English was articulated in an officially written statement, either on paper or on the Internet. Initially, EMI was a shared agreement among the DoS staff and gained institutional support. Yet instead of an explicit statement of support, it was a “silent” top-down permission for the department to select their own MoI.

For the DoS staff, English was chosen and maintained as MoI because the majority of them had studied in EMI settings, mostly in English-speaking countries. They had acquired their disciplinary knowledge in English, and their conceptualisation of academic disciplines was strongly linked to English rather than Vietnamese or any other foreign languages. Additionally, the availability of English textbooks and academic resources, most of which were from their previous study, dictated lecturers’ EMI-oriented action. For these reasons, this EMI initiative can be said to be guided by the lecturers’ beliefs in the necessity of EMI policy, which derived from their own experience and training abroad (section 5.4.3). In other words, it is these beliefs that serve as filters (Fives & Buehl, 2012) in the selection of English as the MoI for the discipline of International Relations in the DoS. The EMI policy implementation at the department, therefore, is seen from a significantly different perspective from what has been studied in previous studies. Most existing EMI literature acknowledge the situations where lecturers “are typically at the mercy of the whims and policy declarations of administrators and others higher up the chain of command” (Fenton-Smith et al., 2017, p.10). In those situations (e.g. Cots, 2013; Hu et al., 2014; Nguyen et al., 2017), it is normally found that the MoI is regulated via a law issued by a nation-state, or other official bodies authorised to make regulations such as HE institutions (Spolsky, 2009). Simply speaking in the words of Macaro et al. (2018), EMI growth “appears to be top-down policy driven, rather than bottom-up and promoted by enthusiastic key stakeholders” (p. 64). Meanwhile, as a bottom-up promotion, EMI in the DoS places an emphasis on lecturers not only as policy actors (Hult, 2018) but also as policy creators, although that policy is unofficially stated.

Section 6.2 presented various ways in which the DoS staff introduced the EMI policy to students. Some lecturers officially announced the requirements to use English in their modules. Others implicitly set the MoI by their regular language choices in classroom interaction or in their use of teaching and learning materials, hence created a norm in their classrooms (Arias & Wiley, 2013) for students to follow. However, it can be seen from these findings that among seven lecturers and four modules observed in the DoS, a variety of EMI conceptualisations and realisations could be found. For example, Tammy explicitly told her class that they would do everything in English while Hannah developed a language policy as her course went by. Nina required her students to present in English whereas Helen's students were allowed to select whatever language they preferred for group presentation. Tiffany did not provide any regulations but she mainly used English, while Vivian's policy differed among her modules. That is to say, all these lecturers were the one who promoted EMI policy in the programme, but the same overt policy that "we have to do the programme in English" turned into diverse directions in their individual classroom practices. EMI can be present in some or all, optional or compulsory, elements of a course. As shown in section 7.2 and Table 7.1 (p. 120), the extent of English use varied from the language of reading materials and visual aids, to the spoken interaction in lectures or student presentations, to the language of assessments. Such a rich diversity of implementation underscores that EMI is not "an on-off switch, a black and white concept" (Knagg, 2013, p. 24). Instead, it is "a more nuanced concept operating on continua of usage at varying levels including institutional, course and classroom" (Walkinshaw et al., 2017, p. 6). Within the DoS, EMI has proven "not to be monolithic but heavily context-dependent" (Humphreys, 2017, p. 94). The process of implementation and negotiation occurred under the mediation of various elements creating the specific EMI entity in the DoS.

9.2.1.2. Elements of the DoS EMI entity

Different factors influencing the implementation of EMI policy at the DoS were revealed in chapter 5 and chapter 6. Among these factors, students' limited linguistic proficiency appeared to be an overwhelming challenge for both lecturers and students. Firstly, students entered the DoS with no proof of English proficiency except for their university exam results, which were the sum of Literature, Mathematics, and English scores (section 5.2.2.2). Yet the low entry requirement for English is not typical to only the DoS, as similar problem has been found in other EMI contexts (Chen, 2017; Nguyen et al., 2016; Truong, 2017). Additionally, as the policy was not written down anywhere, a great number of students did not select the DoS because of their

interest in the discipline or the MoI (section 5.4.1.1). The common motivations found in previous studies for students' enrolment in EMI programmes, such as job opportunities, high quality of education, or English improvements (Bozdoğan & Karlıdağ, 2013; Chappel, 2015; Yeh, 2014), are not reported in the DoS. Instead, they just wanted to be admitted to a BA programme. That is, the department was like a shelter for students to get away from pressure of university entrance examination results and fulfil their desire to become university students – a desire that may have been shaped under the social, cultural and family influence in Vietnamese context (Trines, 2017). Accordingly, they were not prepared to deal with EMI, either in psychological or linguistic sense. Furthermore, although students had studied English for a certain period of time before university, the English knowledge acquired was mainly general and not much could be used for them to access disciplinary content (section 5.4.2.1). Likewise, the language support provided in the DoS was in form of GE courses focusing on four practical skills: Speaking, Reading, Writing and Listening. For students, what they learned in these courses and what they needed for their EMI modules were not related at all (section 5.4.2.2). This support was inadequate and ineffective since languages needed for accessing academic content and general languages are different (Schleppegrell, 2004). The lack of language courses at the DoS that deal with academic rather than GE and students' struggle with disciplinary language reflects common problems in EMI settings, for example in Korea (Byun et al., 2011), Hong Kong (Evan & Green, 2007), Taiwan (Chang, 2010) or Turkey (Macaro, Akincioglu, & Dearden, 2016). Against this backdrop, it was foreseeable that DoS students would struggle in this EMI programme. The obstacles posed by language proficiency on content learning that participants narrated (sections 5.3.1.2 and 6.2.1) were the same as found in other EMI studies (Evans & Morrison, 2011; Fenton-Smith, Stillwell, et al., 2017; Huang, 2015; Kim, 2011; Margić & Vodopija-Krstanovic, 2017). Accordingly, to enable students' access to their subject contents, the DoS lecturers had to re-interpret their EMI policy, such as allowing for more Vietnamese when necessary.

Another factor dictating the implementation of EMI policy at DoS classroom level is the disciplinary characteristics (section 6.2.1). Because different academic disciplines have various linguistic demands for students (Dafouz, Camacho-Miñano, & Urquía, 2014), it is expected that the amount of English may vary among disciplines. For example, Bolton & Kuteeva (2012) found that much more English was used in the Science faculty compared to Social Science, Humanities and Law faculties. They reasoned that while language in Science subjects may be relatively easy and straightforward, the three other disciplines involve in more linguistic formulation and style of expression. The latter is also the case of DoS students majoring in International Relations, with linguistically demanding subjects like History, Economics or Law. They found a considerable part

of their programme concerned with new concepts and knowledge that students were not familiar with, even in Vietnamese. As “concepts already attached to words in the first language will easily be transferred into the second language” (Baker, 2006, pp. 309-310), this lack of knowledge in L1 would have entailed serious comprehension problems for students in L2 if a strict EMI policy had been enacted. The same problem was found in Kim et al. (2017) with Korean students, who preferred to have both Korean and English in their EMI education. This research aligns with the findings that Nina operated her language policy differently from what she had initially planned or that Helen and Nancy regarded the demanding nature of the programme as one key factor to consider their language choice in teaching (section 6.3). It can be seen here that the lecturers adopted “a flexible and pragmatic view” about the implementation of language policy (Trent, 2017, p. 230). This is of great importance to avoid “a double loss” of both content and language (Hamid, Nguyen, & Baldauf, 2013, p. 10), which has been reported in previous studies (e.g. Ali, 2013; Hamid, Jahan, & Islam, 2013) as unintended outcomes of EMI.

The EMI policy implementation at the DoS was also influenced by other elements that contributed to creating particular EMI situations. Those included time management, available reading materials on the spot, or the classroom atmosphere. Notwithstanding this, teachers’ language proficiency, a significant concern regarding EMI implementation in existing literature, (Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Fenton-Smith, Stillwell, et al., 2017; Pulcini & Campagna, 2015; Vu & Burns, 2014), is not found in the DoS. In the studies listed above, lecturers often lacked assurance in EMI teaching due to their low language proficiency. On the contrary, most DoS lecturers felt more comfortable and confident teaching their courses in English than in Vietnamese (section 5.4.3). Hence they preferred teaching in English although they could not do it due to other constraints discussed herein. This confidence is strongly linked to their positive self-perception of English ability, probably deriving from their own educational and training backgrounds (section 5.3.1). These self-evaluations were consistent with the students’ perceptions of their instructors’ English ability as there was no complaint from students in focus groups about lecturers’ accents, grammars, or lexical choices. Instead, lecturers like Hannah even got compliments on their native-like competence and became role models for students. This finding is in contradiction with previous results reporting students’ dissatisfaction with their non-native instructors’ English, normally with pronunciations and accents (Byun et al., 2011; Hou et al., 2013). Especially, the convergence between lecturers’ and students’ beliefs of lecturers’ language proficiency found in the DoS is opposite to the divergence reported by Bolton and Kuteeva (2012).

To sum up, the discussion in this section 9.2.1 addresses RQ1a. The EMI policy is established to be an unofficial, spoken policy, which is not fixed. Rather, it is fluid and implemented on an ad hoc basis at the DoS. With the general interplay of factors mentioned above, the policy kept being interpreted, negotiated and re-interpreted in the implementation process. During this process, lecturers and students – as social players engaged in this EMI entity – played the “multifaceted and dynamic” roles (Dafouz, 2017, p. 177). Their agencies are discussed in the next section.

9.2.2. The roles of agents: lecturers vs. students

9.2.2.1. Lecturers: from policy creators to policy actors

According to Hult (2018), teachers are language policy actors. They make practical language policy decisions through critical and meaningful language choices in their day-to-day, moment-to-moment classroom practices. This applies well to the case of EMI lectures at the DoS, who constantly demonstrated their agency in the policy interpretation and negotiation.

First, as has been repeatedly mentioned in this study, the DoS EMI policy is a bottom-up initiative and promotion from the staff. This emphasizes the role of lecturers as policy creators on a local scale. Taking their own initiatives to select the MoI, which is considered to be the most fundamental issue in language education policy (Spolsky, 2004), they viewed EMI as an opportunity to activate their own training and experience as well as use the available materials in English. The DoS choice of EMI hence was less threatening and more promising compared to circumstances where EMI is imposed via a top-down approach. Instead of the obligation to follow guidelines and policies from policy makers and administrators, then bear most responsibilities for the potential failures, the DoS lecturers actually created their own policy and enacted it in their teaching practices. To some extent, this agency was activated under the implicitly stated impact of global, national, and local forces. At the macro level, globalisation and the membership of different international and regional organisations has exerted a significant effect on Vietnamese education and the role of English in Vietnam (section 3.2). Besides, more educational cooperation on a global scale between Vietnam and other countries, such as Australia, USA or New Zealand, has led to the provision of full postgraduate scholarships for Vietnamese students, and most DoS staff were previous holders of such grants. Moreover, internationalisation and university profiles have been fostered through crucial governmental policies such as HERA (2005), or NFL2020 (2008) (section 3.3). At an institutional level, the policy was proposed in a wider context that both the University and the AC set a target for internationalisation and profile enhancement (section

5.2.1). As a result, the choice of EMI is not simply a spontaneous act of DoS lecturers' agency but also a part of interactive networks of drivers at macro-, meso-, and micro levels (Dafouz, 2017).

Secondly, DoS lecturers' agency was shown through their policy enactment in daily classroom practices. They considered the contributing factors of each specific EMI entity and made their language choices accordingly. These choices were not fixed with one student group, one module, or even within one lesson but kept being negotiated and re-interpreted. This can be seen through examples of classroom negotiation and re-interpretation of the policy (chapter 6) and the roles of those language choices in knowledge construction (chapter 7). More importantly, the practical language decisions the DoS lecturers made in their classrooms were linked closely to their identity as content experts (section 6.3.2). This identity appeared to be the driving factor that markedly dictated their language choices in moment-to-moment classroom practices to ensure students' lecture comprehension. In other words, the subject content matter is their priority, and they were not responsible for teaching language. There seemed to exist an "us and them dichotomy" between content experts and language instructors in the construction of the DoS lecturers' identity (Trent, 2017, p. 229). This separation of responsibility for language and content teaching is in line with the findings of Chen (2017), Dafouz (2011), Doiz et al. (2013b) or Lo (2014). However, as Baker & Hüttner (2017) argue, separating language instruction from content teaching is problematic because it is difficult to clearly "distinguish[ing] content knowledge from the linguistic practices that accompany it" (p. 509).

The content-language matters also highlight the policy dilemma of EMI content teachers (Lo, 2015; Tavares, 2015). On the one hand, they need to flexibly modify the policy and allow for more L1 to facilitate students' learning of content knowledge. On the other, they have to adhere to the official top-down policy and maintain the "linguistic purism" with English only (Lin, 2006), which potentially resulted in the simplification of content knowledge for the sake of language. This issue of simplified content has been a big concern, from either lecturers' or students' perspectives, reported in a number of previous studies (Brown & Iyobe, 2013; Dalton-Puffer, 2011; Hu, 2009; Hu et al., 2014; Huang, 2018). Nevertheless, the DoS lecturers were not stuck in such a dilemma thanks to their agency in creating a bottom-up policy, which afforded them more autonomy and freedom in mediating between the policy and their own classroom practices. This mediation was highly context-dependent as lecturers had to make judicious language decisions, given students' levels of abilities, disciplinary features, their own experiences, and other possible factors. That also explains why there were significant differences in the amounts of English and

Vietnamese used among four modules observed and among four classes in one module of Hannah, Helen, Nina and Tiffany (section 7.3).

In summary, the enactment of EMI policy in the DoS recognised the lecturers' active roles as policy creators at departmental level and policy actors at classroom level. Although the lecturers had complaints about students' language proficiency, they managed to re-interpret and contextualise the policy according to each class setting. The realisation of EMI may not have been what they had initially imagined in their mind when proposing the policy. However, the EMI elements, either fully or partially implemented, should be recognised as an attempt to act on their agency to change the planned language policy into something feasible and effective in their own practices. This remarkable finding – in response to RQ1b - confirms the current focus on the teachers' role as policy makers in bilingual education settings (e.g. Creese, 2010; Henderson & Palmer, 2015; Hult, 2018; Johnson & Freeman, 2010).

9.2.2.2. Students: from passive victims to policy actors

The Agents component in ROADMAPPING considers different individual social players in an EMI setting, including students (Dafouz & Smit, 2016). At a micro level, students' involvement in EMI may derive from their expectation "to gain a competitive advantage and enhance their foreign language skills and their employability" (Dafouz, 2017, p. 178). Notwithstanding this, it was not the case for the majority of DoS students, who did not enter the department for the abovementioned objectives (see sections 5.4.1.1 and 9.2.1.2). Their first experience of learning in English was full of negative feelings (section 5.4.1.2), and to some extent, students felt "victimized" by this unofficial language policy. Similar to findings from previous studies, DoS students were found to struggle in the programme due to their low language proficiency and lack of linguistic and psychological preparation,

Yet the remarkable finding of this study lies at the process during which students, starting their EMI journey as passive victims, turned themselves into active policy actors. The data presented in section 6.3.3 places an emphasis on students' participation into the language policy negotiation and re-interpretation with their lecturers and among themselves. They first followed and observed their lecturers' language choice, understood the rules, and then in most cases, came up with an action plan to deal with the regulations. They asked their lecturers to switch to Vietnamese or decided on their own in what language their contributions would be, depending on who the lecturer was and in what situation the interaction occurred. When a rule was rigidly

fixed, such as Nina's requirement for individual presentation to be delivered in English, students came up with their 'back stage' tricks to appear successful in their 'front stage' performance (Goffman, 1969). Additionally, contrary to their negative feelings in the beginning of the programme, students developed their positive attitudes towards the EMI programme for the potential benefits it can bring (section 5.4.3). They appeared to be willing to try whatever the lecturers suggested, and they came up with their own strategies to make EMI possible. All of these are typical examples of how students exercised their agency in the translation of EMI policy.

That students drew on their linguistic repertoires has been mentioned in previous studies (e.g. Kim et al., 2017; Margić & Vodopija-Krstanovic, 2017; Smit, 2019), but their agency in the negotiation and re-interpretation of the EMI policy is still under-researched. Instead, as Henderson and Palmer (2015) and Hult (2018) comment, research in language planning and policy has mainly focused on the role of teachers as language policy makers and actors. Teachers are placed "at the epicentre of the dynamic process of language policymaking", with a focus on their enacted agency in translating various language education policies into practices (García & Menken, 2010a, p. 262). Nevertheless, what has been discussed in this section points out that students are equally active agents in policymaking process. They created their own spaces for language practices and dynamically move back and forth between English and Vietnamese to assist their content learning. Another crucial contribution of this study, therefore, is the suggestion that students should also be located at the heart of the multi-layered language planning and policy 'onion' (Ricento & Hornberger, 1996). They should not be considered as merely passive victims of already-decided regulations, but rather, when appropriate, act on their agency and take actions against an imposed policy (Henderson & Palmer, 2015). Consequently, how students interact, negotiate and "stir the onion" (García & Menken, 2010b, p. 249) with their lecturers in classroom practices should be recognised for its influential part. This finding, together with section 9.2.2.1, answers RQ1b about the roles of DoS lectures and students in the implementation of EMI policy at classroom level.

9.3. Knowledge co-construction in EMI classes

9.3.1. Translanguaging as pedagogy: the utilisation of classroom language resources

The DoS is a typical EMI setting outside English-speaking countries, where in most cases lecturers and students share the first same language. Among various EMI classroom practices, the notion of pedagogical translanguaging, or translanguaging as pedagogy (Creese & Blackledge,

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2010; García & Wei, 2014; Lewis et al., 2012a) appeared as an outstanding pedagogy in the four modules observed. The discussion of translanguaging in the DoS, therefore, addresses the repetitive questions raised for bilingual education in existing literature: should the L1 be used, and if so, how much? (Cahyani et al., 2018; Lin & Wu, 2015; Lo, 2015; Pun & Macaro, 2018; Tavares, 2015). Under the lecturers' and students' agency, the ad hoc EMI policy in the DoS was negotiated and interpreted into a wide range of Vietnamese and English use in four modules observed. As seen in section 7.2, the two languages were distributed across various domains of classroom practices to benefit students' learning of content knowledge. Hence, the role of translanguaging practices will be discussed from both lecturers' and students' perspectives below.

Firstly, similar to what Probyn (2015) suggests, lecturers practically switched to Vietnamese in their oral practices, while maintaining students' reading, writing and assessment in English. In other words, the two languages were employed by four lecturers in a balanced and structured way. They adopted translanguaging strategies in their use and provision of classroom resources, such as the availability of English in their Powerpoint slides, textbooks, or reference resources, whereas they paid attention to students' meaning making and used Vietnamese when necessary. Furthermore, they created meaningful spaces for translanguaging in their classroom structures. For example, Tiffany and Hannah both let students work in pairs or groups, which enabled them to collaborate in exploring the content in Vietnamese. Helen asked students to work in groups at home, propose project ideas and presented them to their classmates. Meanwhile, Nina required students to do research on their own and prepare for their individual English presentations. All of these practices of the DoS lecturers are what García and Wei (2014, p. 121) propose as strategies to achieve the goals of a translanguaging pedagogy. These strategies enable students of different linguistic levels to follow the class flow and build background knowledge to make meaning of disciplinary contents (*ibid.*). Through the coordinated, pedagogic use of two languages, the DoS lecturers provided "bilingual supportive scaffolding practices" (Doiz et al., 2013c, p.218), in which Vietnamese functioned as a bridge for students to access the content to be acquired in English and then produce new knowledge.

In terms of oral practices, there existed a significant difference in the amounts of English and Vietnamese in lecturer discourses among Hannah, Helen, Nina and Tiffany, as well as among lessons of each lecturer (see Table 7.2, p. 127 and Table 7.3, p. 128). Nina's classes had the highest proportion of Vietnamese, with an average of 91.49%. However, this high percentage, despite far exceeding the 10%-15% L1 threshold proposed by Macaro (2005), is not a rare phenomenon in bilingual classes where English is the official MoI, as previous studies have

reported a much higher amount of L1 use, even to over 80% (Lo, 2015; Probyn, 2006). As opposed to Nina, Tiffany used most English, followed by Helen and Hannah. Such a difference can partially be explained via the lecturers' sensitivity to both students' learning needs and their policy orientation, leading them to adopt both L1 and L2 for the sake of students' achievement in both content and language. That explains why the switches between English and Vietnamese had their own functions (see section 7.4, Table 7.4, p. 131 and Table 7.5, p. 141). Most of the use of Vietnamese was for content/curriculum access, while developing interpersonal relations was the least popular function. This is in line with Lo's (2015) study, which finds 60% - 70% of their teacher participants' switches from L2 to L1 was content-related. Especially, the use of Vietnamese provided a platform for DoS students to develop their critical thinking, which was not often found in earlier findings of Cahyani et al. (2018), Ferguson (2003, 2009) and Gwee & Saravanan (2018), to name just a few. Yet it fits well with the suggestion that there is a positive correlation between the use of L1 and the number of cognitively challenging questions (Pun & Macaro, 2018), and hence implies the need for further research. On the other hand, DoS lecturers' switches from Vietnamese to English served several main pedagogical purposes, including teaching subject-specific technical terms or phrases, or teaching language aspects. These support previous findings in the study of Lo (2015).

Lecturers' language practices mentioned above belong more to the category of "official translanguaging" (Williams, 2012) as their language choices were planned and structured for the benefits of students' learning. On the other hand, students' use of two languages in their EMI participation can be depicted as acts of "natural translanguaging" (*ibid.*), or "pupil-directed translanguaging" (Lewis et al., 2012a). Students independently and naturally shuttled between Vietnamese and English in presentations, in pair/ group discussions, or in interactions with their lecturers. Traditionally, moving between languages has been "frowned upon" in educational settings (Creese & Blackledge, 2010, p.105) under the ideological pressures that languages should be kept "pure and separate" (Lemke, 2002, p. 85). Notwithstanding this, as Laupenmühlen (2012, cited in Tavares, 2015) argues, students are naturally inclined to activate their own existing resources in L1 when dealing with tasks and concepts in L2. In other words, studying via L2 does not prevent them from relying on their mother tongue in processing information (Logan-Terry & Wright, 2010). Similarly, Hornberger (2005) affirms that only when students are allowed to freely make use of their language resources can their learning be maximised.

Students' use of translanguaging to learn content knowledge in the DoS modules are consistent with the above arguments. They were aware of their low English proficiency, and to

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access academic content, they made use of all their linguistic resources. Remarkably, that was accepted by their lecturers, who acknowledged the existence of two languages in the programme and jointly created the space for students' translanguaging practices. Their group work to prepare for discussion, almost conducted in Vietnamese, or their presentation with slides in both languages, are typical examples. Even in formal essays or examinations, they were given permission to use their full language repertoire to show their comprehension and knowledge of a given topic (section 6.3). Students played along two languages in meaning making process, creating a new reality in which both English and Vietnamese operated within the dynamism of classroom practices. How much each language was used varied among students depending on individual language strength, but more importantly, the two languages collaborated and empowered the students linguistically and academically. Particularly in student talk, their translanguaging serves three important discursive functions mentioned by Garcia and Li Wei (2014, p.103), including "to participate", "to elaborate ideas", and "to raise questions". Examples of these functions for students' learning could be seen in extracts of section 6.3.3 and 7.4.

There was apparently a linguistic ecology in this EMI programme where English and Vietnamese co-existed in peace. This is in line with the statement that "the functional breadth of English must be considered in relation to the complete linguistic repertoire of a specific higher education site" (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p.403). In the DoS case, both lecturers and students usually drew on both English and Vietnamese for a wide range of functions. These functions re-confirm the crucial importance of translanguaging pedagogy for the benefit of both learning and teaching in bilingual/multilingual settings (e.g. Doiz et al., 2013; Garcia & Li Wei, 2014; Lewis et al., 2012a, 2012b; Probyn, 2015). Additionally, it can be inferred from this study that L1 use in EMI classrooms is not "a deficit practice" (Probyn, 2015, p.220), or something to feel guilty about (Creese & Blackledge, 2010). Yet the quantity of L1 use is still an open question. Teachers will need to decide on their own, with the collaboration from their students, so that their translanguaging practices are employed "strategically moment-to-moment and as a critical gesture" (Garcia & Li Wei, 2014, p. 94). This requires certain training in which teachers can be guided to value classroom language resources and take pedagogically language-related actions (Tavares, 2015). However, this area is still neglected or marginalised in teacher education, as Ferguson (2009) highlights. This will be discussed further in chapter 10.

This section discusses DoS lecturers' and students' translanguaging practices and addresses RQ2a about the utilisation of classroom's language resources in students' learning. It

indicates that EMI should be promoted as a learning environment where students can get access to their linguistic repertoires and bilingually/multilingually develop their academic knowledge.

9.3.2. The roles of pedagogical practices in EMI settings

As Cots (2013) points out, shifting from teaching in L1 to EMI has been narrowed down to a focus in the medium of communication and left the “adaptation of the teaching methodology” out of consideration (p. 117). Likewise, Dearden (2014; 2018) emphasizes the lack of guidelines on how to teach through English in many countries adopting EMI. This is a warning issue since teachers’ high English proficiency alone is not enough for a successful EMI programme. To put it simply, effective EMI teaching involves more than the translating of content subjects from L1 to L2 (Lo & Macaro, 2015). It requires specialised pedagogical skills, which enable teachers, for example, to modify their input, ensure students’ comprehension, and create a learning-encouraging atmosphere (Dearden, 2014). Against this backdrop, one of the most striking conclusions emerging from this study is the roles of pedagogical practices in EMI settings. Through classroom practices of the lecturers observed, this research reinforces the need for “rethinking of pedagogies” (Sancho, 2008, p. 260).

The data presented in Chapter 8 show that with the same group of students, Hannah, Helen and Tiffany had different teaching approaches, made different pedagogical decisions, and consequently their teaching had different results. Firstly, the differences in teaching practices of these three lecturers underlines that even within one small department, each staff member has their own “ways of doing”. The lack of guideline, as mentioned above by Dearden (2014), and the absence of EMI teacher education and training opportunities in the DoS were probably among the main reasons for a divergence in individual practices. In this case, those “ways of doing” were mainly influenced by their “ways of thinking”, i.e. beliefs, perceptions and experience. Secondly and more remarkably, chapter 8 affirms that EMI teachers need to acquire a capacity to effectively deliver content knowledge through English (Wilkinson, 2013). Previous studies (Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Chen, 2017; Tsou, 2017) report that for students, their lecturers’ methodological abilities, or instructional skills, are rated far more highly than language issues. Similarly, Doiz et al. (2013c) underlines that while many students do not have sufficient language proficiency for EMI, lecturers can help them overcome this deficiency via adequate pedagogical strategies. In this study, Tiffany’s successful teaching methodologies enabled her students to undertake her module with confidence, enthusiasm and satisfaction. Meanwhile, her colleagues Hannah and Helen used more Vietnamese in their teaching, but their modules were not perceived to be as well-understood and effective as that of Tiffany. Undeniably, there may be arguments that these

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perceptions have happened because the three content subjects were variably challenging. Yet the fact that they all shared the same group of students, hence similar language proficiency, provides additional support for the viewpoint that pedagogical practices do matter in EMI classes. Once again, it points towards the idea that EMI teachers should re-examine their ways of content delivery (Airey, 2011a) for the benefits of teaching and learning quality.

Chapter 8 also offers unprecedented evidence that every pedagogical move teachers make has meaning for students' learning, whereas language proficiency is not everything for the effectiveness of an EMI lesson (Bradford, 2018). Tiffany's classroom practices went in line with what was suggested in previous studies about recommended EMI teaching strategies and skills. To begin with, she adopted a student-centred approach in her classes, which is recommended for EMI classes (Bradford, 2018; Guarda & Helm, 2017; Pulcini & Campagna, 2015). For example, she allowed students to work in groups and plan their answers (section 8.2), she managed to create ample learning opportunities when students could engage in peer interaction. This practice is in agreement with the recommendation of Lo & Macaro (2015), that allowing peer discussion time is one pedagogical skill that lecturers can adopt in their L2 teaching to enable negotiation of meaning and make up for students' shortage of language in expressing complex ideas. It also corroborates the "Think-Pair-Share" strategy (Tavares, 2015) and helps to establish a "participatory classroom culture" (Schleppegrell, 2007, p.151) among students where they can feel safe and less anxious in L2. By working with their friends, they could activate their linguistic repertoires in translanguaging practices, then "clarify their doubts, deepen their understanding of the concepts, and arrive at a collective decision" (Tavares, 2015, p.325).

Secondly, Tiffany managed to create a comfortable classroom environment (section 8.3), which was recommended for EMI classrooms by Chen (2017). For example, Tiffany's patience after she posed questions is different from what was observed in Tsou's (2017) study in a Taiwanese EMI context, where the participant teachers appeared to answer their own questions without waiting for any responses. More importantly, her extended wait time was pedagogically controlled to avoid unnecessarily long reticence in the class. Consequently, instead of increasing students' anxiety via excessive silence as Helen did (extract 8.5), Tiffany's silence provided a space for students to reflect, reformulate a response or rehearse what they had in their minds – all of which offer pedagogical values of extended wait time that have been examined in language classes (Walsh, 2011). The way Tiffany corrected her student's pronunciation errors (extract 8.3) while maintaining the flow of exchange recognises her ability to "tailor [their] error correction to the "moment" and promote opportunities for learning" (Walsh, 2011, p.15). Meanwhile, her

organisation of games and competitions in class, which has scarcely been reported in existing EMI literature, is in accordance with suggestions for general classroom practices (Redfern, 2015). Among ten ‘rules of engagement’ (*ibid.*, p.74), ‘compete’ and ‘be active’ are two important factors to help students engage in their learning.

The use of visual aids and handouts as extensive scaffolding devices (section 8.4) is another noticeable teaching strategy of Tiffany as well as her three colleagues. They demonstrate how language support can be integrated with semiotic resources to facilitate students’ learning of content subjects in L2. This combination between visual aids and oral delivery of academic knowledge necessary is an extended communicative repertoire that bilingual teachers should have, according to Lin (2012). Visual aids and graphical presentation of complex concepts have also been identified as indispensable tools of teaching in EMI settings, as revealed by teachers (Chen, 2017; Jiang et al., 2016) or students (Chen, 2017; Hellekjær, 2010).

Regarding EMI instructional discourse, section 8.5.1 corroborates the call for EMI teachers to “consider the impact that language and discourse might have” on content areas (Ball & Lindsay, 2013, p.59). One crucial feature of teacher discourse that helps students follow lectures, especially in L2, is the use of signposting devices (Camiciottoli, 2004; Hellekjær, 2010). Compared to her colleagues, Tiffany appeared to be aware of the vitality of structuring her lessons in a clear manner by employing a number of discourse structure markers (Dafouz & Perucha, 2010). As Ball & Lindsay (2013) discuss, such considerations as Staging and Signposting have been unlikely to be recognised in a teacher’s performance repertoire. While a native speaker tends to use discourse markers instinctively, an L2 speaker is less inclined to possess the same repertoire of signalling discourse. Given how much attention Tiffany paid to this issue, it is easy to explain why her students still perceived her lessons to be understandable in spite of the large amount of English spoken. Undeniably, this raises the necessity for this topic to be considered in EMI teacher education, since teachers should learn to use discourse markers so as to present written information in an informal but comprehensible manner (Chen, 2017).

Additionally, Tiffany differed herself from the other participants in the linguistic adaptation in her discourse (section 8.5.2). Hannah, Helen and Nina often switched to Vietnamese to provide parallel translation, i.e. providing the L1 equivalents of English vocabulary so that students could understand the meaning immediately, which may be “more time efficient and effective for explaining the meaning of difficult vocabulary” (Lo, 2015, p.281). In this case, there is a negotiation between time efficiency and language development, and the choice of what matters in their classes is at the hands of each individual teacher. Meanwhile, instead of providing a

translation, Tiffany tended to elaborate more in L2 to paraphrase, explain, or give examples, synonyms and definitions so that students could grasp a better comprehension of the concepts even in English. Therefore, her teaching might appear to be less effective in terms of time but more effective in terms of content learning and retention. When Tiffany simplified her English, it does not equally mean that she simplified the content knowledge (extract 8.15, Table 8.7, p. 168). This is in contradiction with the common criticism that an EMI focus causes detrimental impact on the depth and complexity of content concepts (Hu, 2009; Hu & Lei, 2014; Yeh, 2014). Therefore, the argument from this finding is that making content accessible in L2 and simplifying content are two separate choices for EMI teachers. In the former case, which is also my recommendation for a sustainable teaching and learning goal, students still have to be challenged, but teachers need to provide suitable guidance and scaffolding for them to achieve that. This again refers back to the issue of teacher education and professional development. EMI teachers need to be equipped with tools and techniques to moderate their classroom discourse so that they can support and facilitate their students' learning of content knowledge (Fenton-Smith et al., 2017).

To conclude, by discussing Tiffany's pedagogical practices in comparison with her colleagues' as well as relevant EMI practices described in previous research, this section addresses RQ2b. With Hannah, Helen and Tiffany teaching the same group of students, this research provides crucial insights into the effects of different teaching styles on the same participants as well as the necessity of appropriate pedagogical practices. This is also a striking contribution of the current study, not only to Vietnamese context but also in other similar EMI settings. As far as I am concerned, no previous studies on EMI classroom practices has different teacher participants with the same students in different observed modules.

9.4. ROADMAPPING as a conceptual framework for analysing EMI in Higher Education

This study employs an ethnographic case study approach, acknowledging the dynamic and holistic nature of an EMI entity. While zooming into a specific factor of a setting, the whole context - in which that component constantly interacts with the others - should still be taken into consideration. For that purpose, this research has been developed based on the conceptual framework of ROADMAPPING (Dafouz & Smit, 2016). What has been discussed so far in this thesis supports the usefulness of the model for analysing EMI phenomena from a wide range of perspectives.

First, ROADMAPPING locates Discourses as the overlapping access point through which all six dimensions can be investigated. In this study, lecturers' and students' discourses, either in interviews, focus groups, or classroom observations, provide entry to explore how the EMI policy was implemented in the DoS and what actually happened inside each class regarding language issues and classroom practices. Discourses from research diary, teaching and learning materials, and other site documents functioned as supplementary tools to complete that picture. As Baker & Hüttner (2017) argue, these discourses were seen as "not only representations of these dimensions, but more importantly as means of co-constructing these realities" (p.503). Additionally, they help to triangulate the data and offer multiple perspectives from insiders (lecturers and students) and an outsider (me as a researcher).

Secondly, one objective of this thesis was to find out the "ways of doing" and the "ways of thinking" of DoS lecturers and students as agents of this EMI policy. These ways were covered by addressing a wide range of topics, varying from what they perceived about the policy to how they dealt with it. The previous chapters have demonstrated how these ways were intertwined with other issues, such as language management or language issues. ROADMAPPING, therefore, helped me to foreground the component of 'Practices and Processes', while not leaving the other dimensions out of the analysis. For example, the investigated EMI policy was a bottom-up promotion issued by DoS staff (language Management). It was negotiated and reinterpreted under the agency of both lecturers and students (Agents) whose teaching and learning activities in the DoS "construct and are constructed" (Dafouz, 2017, p. 178) by their specific EMI programme (Practices and Processes). In those activities, lecturers and students made use of their linguistic repertoires to achieve pedagogical targets (Roles of English). As its authors maintain, ROADMAPPING "offers a blueprint for outlining an "object of analysis" that is intrinsically dynamic and potentially elusive" (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 412).

Notably, the analysis and discussion so far have underlined that all the six ROADMAPPING components have played a significant role in this study. While not being elaborately reviewed in Chapter 2, the two components of Academic Disciplines and Internationalisation and Glocalisation still make their marked presence via a dynamic interaction with other components. Hence, they are inextricable parts of a comprehensive picture of the investigated EMI programme. For example, entering the DoS, students had to familiarise themselves with specific discourses typically defining the area of International Studies under the guidance of their lecturers. They also had to produce spoken/written works that follow the specific norm or genre of this discipline. Accordingly, the use of English and Vietnamese (Roles of English) by lecturers and students

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(Agents) in the process of knowledge construction in the DoS (Practices and Processes) was remarkably influenced by these academic features (Academic Disciplines). It should be noted that while that process could actually be done in Vietnamese, DoS lecturers and students still advocated a bilingual policy and implemented that policy on an ad hoc basis (language Management). This advocacy could be partially explained against the backdrop of the university, the AC, and the DoS paying special attention to internationalisation of HE (see 5.2.1 and 5.2.2.1). On the one hand, this EMI programme contributed to the mission of educating “global” graduates who would be expected to become competitive in global labour market. On the other hand, by establishing an EMI programme, the DoS would become more capable in recruiting students, not only from Vietnam but also from other countries (Internationalisation and Glocalisation).

In summary, the framework enabled me to avoid the risk of locating the examined EMI phenomenon in a vacuum without acknowledging the dynamic and holistic interaction of surrounding factors. In other words, the usefulness of ROADMAPPING can be summarised as a model for me to see the EMI policy in the DoS from two directions: one-in-all (the selection of Practices and Processes as a focal point among components of the framework) and all-in-one (the interrelation of different components demonstrated in the component of Practices and Processes). Undeniably, when focusing on the two RQs with a view to provide an in-depth exploration of the DoS, it was impossible to give the same amount of attention to all the six components. Therefore, the prioritisation of some ROADMAPPING components in different chapters – especially Chapter 2, 3, and 6 – did not exclude the roles that other components played in this study. As a researcher, I was fully aware that it would be too ambitious to include all. Yet concurrently, it would be a shortcoming if the presence of these six components in the study is not fully acknowledged and emphasised.

ROADMAPPING is still a newly developed conceptual framework for EMI settings. As it has been recently used as a model for reviewing literature on EMI (Bradford & Brown, 2018; Dafouz, 2017) or empirical studies (Baker & Hüttner, 2017; Dafouz et al., 2016; Komori-Glatz, 2017), there is still a need to test its validity and applicability in various EMI contexts. Against this backdrop, the employment of ROADMAPPING in this study is a new contribution to the literature in terms of theoretical and methodological orientation for EMI research.

9.5. Concluding remark

This chapter offers an in-depth discussion of the findings presented in previous chapters, through which two RQs are answered. To summarise, in response to RQ1, the EMI policy in the DoS is an unofficial, spoken policy which is not fixed but negotiated under the agency of lecturers and students in classroom practices. Regarding RQ2a, both English and Vietnamese are recognised as resources for knowledge co-construction. A close look at what actually happens inside class also places a strong emphasis on the roles of pedagogy in EMI settings (RQ2b). Besides, the chapter highlights the applicability of the ROADMAPPING framework in this EMI context, emphasizing the necessity to look at an EMI entity from various perspectives and in a holistic and dynamic approach. Based on these discussions, considerations for further research as well as pedagogical implications are going to be presented in the next chapter.

10 Conclusion

10.1. Introduction

This chapter will begin by summarising the key findings of the research, followed by its contributions and limitations. Then, it will present some implications for the implementation of EMI programmes recommended to four groups of potential readers: policy makers, teacher trainers, EMI teachers, and researchers. A final reflection on the whole project will end this chapter.

10.2. Key findings

This study aimed to investigate an EMI entity in Vietnam where both lecturers and students share the same mother tongue and English is a foreign language. By focusing on the ways of thinking and the ways of doing, this research was intended to critically explore the implementation of the EMI policy in the BA degree of International Studies at the DoS. Specifically, it looked into: 1) how the lecturers and students conceptualised and realised the policy in their classroom practices, 2) the roles of English and Vietnamese in the process of knowledge co-construction, and 3) different patterns of EMI pedagogical practices. In so doing, I employed the theoretical framework of ROADMAPPING proposed by Dafouz and Smit (2016) to offer a holistic and dynamic description of the DoS from multiple perspectives. Various sources of discourses in the investigated site were collected through an ethnographic case study approach. By answering the two RQs (see chapter 9), this study highlights several key findings:

- **EMI is a fluid, dynamic concept**

EMI is a general term referring to the use of English as a Mol, but that is not simply limited to one way of conceptualisation. It has been reported in this study that the lecturers had their own way of defining EMI, ranging from whether EMI means English only or English plus other language(s), to the presence of English in various aspects of teaching and learning. Similarly, students saw EMI as a negotiated rather than a fixed concept, as they were found to react to and actively engage with the language policy instead of being mere passive respondents. Therefore, while EMI was originally defined in chapter 2 as the policy where English is [among] the language(s) of 1) classroom interaction between lecturers and students and among students themselves, 2) teaching and learning materials, and 3) assessment, the finding suggests that how

much English should be used in each of these three dimensions really varies. EMI, to sum up, is a fluid and dynamic practice and “heavily-context dependent” (Humphreys, 2017, p. 94).

- **EMI policy is enacted by both lecturers and students as active agents at classroom level**

The EMI policy in the DoS was reported to undergo processes of implementation and negotiation between lecturers and students in classroom practice. That process was mediated by certain factors creating a specific EMI entity under the agency of lecturers and students. On the one hand, this study reconfirms the existing role of lecturers as active policy makers at local level. The lecturer participants in this study enacted their agency by proposing an EMI policy, which they believed to be suitable for their disciplinary subjects. Yet when realising this EMI policy in their practice, lecturers modified it to guarantee educational quality and ensure that students could grasp the content knowledge. On the other hand, this study recognises students' agency, an aspect of power not often discussed so far in the existing literature. Students were shown to be individual actors who exercised their agency in translating the EMI policy into their learning process. They did not passively wait for lecturers' modification of the policy, but actively joined into the policy negotiation. They raised their voices and empowered themselves with various strategies to make up for their low language proficiency.

- **EMI does not mean developing monolingual English ideologies and practices**

In previous studies of international EMI programmes where students and teachers come from different L1s, the use of English has frequently been found to be accompanied by other languages (e.g. Baker & Hüttner, 2017; 2018; Smit, 2019). Therefore, it is not surprising that in local EMI contexts where both lecturers and students are native speakers of the same L1, this L1, like Vietnamese in the DoS, plays a significant role in classroom practices. Participants in the current study employed both English and Vietnamese for their knowledge co-construction, showing a significant role for translanguaging pedagogies which value and make use of participants' linguistic repertoires for the benefit of content teaching and learning. Therefore, instead of being associated with the development of monolingualism of English-only, EMI should here be seen as providing settings for the nourishment of bilingualism/multilingualism.

- **English proficiency is not the only deciding factor for EMI success**

Students' low language proficiency has been cited in the literature as a reason for both lecturers' and students' complaints about EMI. This research acknowledges the importance of English proficiency, but contends that it is not the only deciding factor for EMI success. The

current study has different lecturer participants teaching the same group of students, and with their individual pedagogical practices, they were able to create different effects on their students' learning. Therefore, instead of just simply focusing on students' (and lecturers' – in some cases) language ability as the only crucial element for EMI success, lecturers should also reflect on their own pedagogies, hence critically evaluate the effectiveness of their own practice. This project highlights the necessity of pedagogy-orientation in EMI implementation. EMI is not simply the translation of content knowledge from L1 to English, which is a key point that has been missing from much previous research.

- **In EMI settings, making contents accessible does not necessarily mean simplifying it.**

Via the discussion of Tiffany's instructional discourse, one key finding is that the use of English as the MoI does not necessarily mean the simplification of content knowledge. Students can still be cognitively challenged if lecturers are able to scaffold and provide sufficient guiding for them to explore the knowledge. Examples from Tiffany's teaching imply techniques that EMI lecturers can consider for their discourse improvements, some of which include paraphrasing, explaining, giving examples, providing synonyms or definitions, or using discourse markers to structure their lessons. Teaching practices like organising group activities, giving feedback, allowing for waiting time, are also beneficial for students' learning opportunities. Once again, these are familiar techniques and strategies in second/foreign language classes, but when content has become more of a priority than language, they have not been given adequate attention in EMI settings.

- **Multimodality plays an essential role in EMI classes**

All the four modules observed could be typically defined as multimodal teaching and learning environments. The use of different modalities was also mentioned in students' focus groups for their positive impact on learning. Students were able to access content knowledge with the support of PPT slides, the use of blackboards, the availability of handouts, and the occasional employment of videos and posters. In most cases, English was used in these supporting modes, providing a platform for students to acquire the key concepts while their lectures were orally delivered in either English or Vietnamese. Therefore, multimodality can be used as a scaffolding tool for students in EMI classes.

10.3. Contributions of the study

To begin with, this study has a remarkable contribution to make to the Vietnamese context. Given the governmental focus on improving the national foreign language competence via influential language policies like the NFL2020, more empirical research is needed to provide references and guidelines for EMI implementation. The number of studies on EMI in Vietnamese HE is already limited, and those offering an analysis of classroom practices are even more rarely to be found. How English and Vietnamese co-exist and how the knowledge is co-constructed in EMI classes have so far been explored through the narrations of teachers and students. Accordingly, one of the greatest contributions of this study lies in its focus on classroom practices. Its observational data, combined with interviews and focus groups, provides a detailed picture of the DoS. To the best of my knowledge, this is the first study that provides insights into EMI classes in Vietnam with naturally occurring data. More importantly, the findings of this study are not limited to Vietnam but can be relevant to other similar settings where lecturers and students speak the same mother tongue. Furthermore, it addresses the call for more empirical research on classroom practices in EMI settings over the world, since what takes place inside EMI classes are still under-developed and “are still relative unknown” (Cots, 2013, p. 110).

Secondly, as far as I am aware, this study is one of a few comprehensive empirical studies (see Komori-Glatz, 2017) to employ Dafouz and Smit’s (2016) ROADMAPPING framework as a conceptual and analytical framework. Komori-Glatz conducted her study in an Austrian university where the EMI policy was officially recognised and her student participants came from different language backgrounds. In comparison, my study was carried out in a Vietnamese university where the EMI policy was unofficially stated and all students and teachers were Vietnamese. Additionally, Komori-Glatz zoomed in multicultural student teamwork, while my focal point was classroom practices between lecturers and students. Against this backdrop, the use of ROADMAPPING in this current project contributes to assessing the applicability of this framework in different contexts. It also highlights the possibility of this framework to bring all components of an EMI setting into a holistic and dynamic picture, whereas at the same time not losing the specific research focus if that were needed.

Thirdly, the fact that EMI in this study was proposed by the staff adds another perspective to policy implementation. Most current literature has investigated EMI as a product of a top-down approach, while this research looks at the policy from a bottom-up direction. The voices and actions of lecturers and students are located at the centre of this study. Therefore, the findings propose a different lens for policy makers to envisage their language policy and planning.

In addition, by looking at lecturers' and students' classroom practices, this study contributes to the development of a taxonomy of translanguaging strategies as well as the validation of translanguaging practices, since "it is important that we develop our pedagogies ground up, from the practices we see multilingual students adopting" (Canagarajah, 2011, p. 415). Moreover, the current study reminds us of the necessity to contextualise and institutionalise EMI research, which has been emphasized by Doiz et al. (2013b). In other words, each EMI institution has its own features and thus should conduct their own research to find out what language policy is most appropriate for them.

In terms of methodological contribution, as Dimova, Hultgren, and Jensen (2015) review, the use of questionnaires and interviews have been favoured methodologies in the EMI literature since its early days. However, the new era of EMI research may need to "move towards more in-depth ethnographic and observational studies" (p. 318) so that more insights into the complexity of teaching and learning practices can be offered. Similarly, the use of an ethnographic approach is what Dafouz (2017) calls for. Against such a backdrop, this research addresses those abovementioned gaps by employing an ethnographic approach, collecting a wide range of data for investigation. Spending nearly six months with my participants and participating in academic and extra-curricular activities enabled me to have an in-depth understanding of what my participants thought and what they did in EMI classes. The whole process, from how they started in the beginning, constantly negotiating the policy, and then achieving certain objectives when the modules ended, revealed different mediators of the policy that were not visible at first sight. In other words, through an ethnographic engagement, different patterns of change in the four modules observed could be recognised and described. Another methodological contribution stems from the employment of different teaching styles of three lecturers on the same group of students, which adds more weight to prove the roles of pedagogy in EMI classes. As mentioned in chapter 9, this is among the biggest contributions of this study for its originality and potential to address existing gaps.

10.4. Limitations

One limitation of this study is the absence of "stimulated recall interviews", an established method that enables participants to reflect on their teaching practice (e.g. Gass & Mackey, 2000; Lyle, 2003). The employment of stimulated recall interviews would provide information about what the lecturers and students were thinking when they made certain language choices.

However, although I was totally aware of this, it was impossible to overcome the challenges of scheduling with my lecturer participants, given their packed timetable of academic work, extra-curricular activities, personal tutoring classes, and family life. The analysis of classroom data, therefore, was mainly based on my personal interpretation. To make up for this limitation and to ensure the validity and credibility, that subjective interpretation was triangulated with interview and focus data, supported with my research diary of small stories shared by the participants.

I also acknowledge that as this is an ethnographically oriented research, there is little generalisability. The specific focus on the DoS and a small number of participants makes it impossible for the findings to be directly applied in other EMI institutions. Notwithstanding this, the thick description of this research setting (see chapter 5) could help potential readers to decide if there are enough similarities between the DoS and their own educational settings. They could obtain insights into their own circumstances by referring to what has been explored and discussed in this research. This lack of generalisability, therefore, can be made up by the study's transferability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Additionally, such an in-depth study in one department may function as a stimulating start for more research interest in EMI in Vietnamese Higher Education.

Moreover, although this research zoomed in what actually happened inside EMI classrooms, only lecturer talk was analysed in terms of the proportions and functions of English and Vietnamese (chapter 7). The recorders were positioned either in the centre of the classroom or near the lecturer, so it was impossible for me to cover all the student talks in group/pair work activities. Given the agency of both students and lecturers in classroom implementation of the EMI policy, this may be seen as a limitation that needs to be addressed in future research.

Another consideration to point out is my engagement in the DoS community, which may entail a possibility of subjectivism in data analysis. As discussed in section 4.5, the ethnographic approach enabled me to take on a dual position as an insider and outsider of the DoS. I became friends with the students and colleague to the lecturers while participating in their classes. Being familiar with my presence, my participants did not need to 'play-act' for my observation and the data collected was able to reflect the nature of the community. In other words, the close relationship I had with my participants gave me a privileged access to their community, but on the other hand, this may have a certain influence on my data interpretation. To reduce as much as possible the potential for biased judgement, I kept triangulating the information between different data sources. I also kept in touch with the participants via emails and social media, and when necessary, casually talked with them to confirm my interpretation.

10.5. Implications

I should make it clear that most of the implications below are targeted at the context of Vietnam. Nevertheless, I strongly believe that the implications can still be useful and transferable to other similar EMI contexts.

10.5.1. Implications for policy makers and institutional administrators

EMI policy has been adopted rapidly and, in most cases, uncritically around the world in general and in Vietnam particularly, leading to a number of issues (chapters 2, 3). By looking at the case of the DoS, policy makers at a governmental/national level and administrators at an institutional level can translate some implications for their decision-making regarding the choice of Mol at tertiary level to their own setting.

Firstly, this study adds more strength to the suggestion that how EMI is to be implemented should be decided on a case-by-case basis (Doiz et al., 2013b; Williams, 2015). Since EMI practice is heavily determined by contextual factors, policy makers or administrators should not make a rushed decision in adopting it without examining their own situation, including the human and financial resources available in the country or in the institutions involved. Successful examples of EMI implementation should not be used as a model to copy and paste, but only as a reference for policy makers and administrators when analysing their context.

Secondly, the current goal of using English as the Mol in universities, explicitly stated in some governmental policies, should be revised in the light of the current sociolinguistic reality of Vietnam, where Vietnamese is the national language and mainly used in daily life. The presence of international staff and students, while acknowledged in certain institutions, has not always been found as a ‘must’ in Vietnamese EMI programmes. In addition, students’ and lecturers’ language proficiencies may vary across contexts. Consequently, the EMI policy should be designed and approached with flexibility and pragmatism other than a rigid set of rules and regulations revolving around the use of English. As Smit (2018, p.394) suggests, the language policy in HEIs should “go beyond a simplified “Englishization” approach”, while a “context-sensitive combinations of two or more languages” should be taken into consideration. That is to say, while EMI acknowledges the particular role of English as the language of learning and teaching, the linguistic ecology of higher education settings as well as the society should also be recognised.

Another concern that should be attended to is the issue of discrimination and social equality. Although it was briefly discussed (extract 5.23), the belief that learning in English could help graduates to get better job opportunities, to some extent, may associate English with a higher status and more prestige than that of Vietnamese. This issue has also been raised in the study of Nguyen et al. (2017) when they refer to the problematic names of VMI and EMI programmes in governmental policies, or that of Le (2012) who points out the relation between high tuition fees and access to EMI programmes. Consequently, policy makers should consider this potentially problematic side effect of EMI implementation; otherwise the social gap may be widened in the country. Similarly, within an institution, administrators should be careful not to provide preferential treatment of EMI staff/students with respect to their VMI counterparts.

Last but not least, there should be more dialogic forums for policy makers and administrators to communicate with EMI teacher trainers, lecturers, and students. The gap between stated goals from a governmental and institutional perspective and on-the-ground implementation from lecturers' and students' perspectives can be partially bridged when both sides are able to make their voices heard. Those communications can also be organised via the public reports of empirical studies on existing EMI implementation. Consequently, there should be more conferences, workshops, or public lectures on EMI, especially when this is a considerable gap in Vietnamese academia.

10.5.2. Implications for teacher education

A key topic that has been raised in previous studies (e.g. Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Fenton-Smith, Stillwell, et al., 2017; Vu & Burns, 2014) is the provision of support for EMI lecturers through teacher education programmes and professional development activities. These supports, covering a wide range of topics related to language issues and teaching methodologies, should be provided on a continuous basis. As a practical implication of this research, I have designed a few samples of training materials and how to organise them for EMI teacher trainings in Vietnam and similar contexts (Appendix 13). The main topics of these activities can be summarised as below.

The first suggestion is that there should be training or activities to raise lecturers' awareness of classroom translanguaging pedagogies in EMI settings. This is necessary for both pre- and in-service teacher education and can be done by providing specific examples, probably from empirical studies in the area, in which lecturers' and students' linguistic repertoires are valued and employed in an appropriate way to enhance learning opportunities. A taxonomy of

translanguaging strategies and functions may also be useful for teacher trainees to accept the usefulness of different languages in their classes, while feeling assured that bilingual/multilingual practices are common in EMI programmes. However, as Ferguson (2009) suggests, the general aim of these activities is not to impose prescriptive guidelines on EMI lecturers, but to enhance their understanding of translanguaging, based on which they can make their own decision.

Another aspect that teacher educators can consider for their training activities is the inclusion of necessary pedagogical skills to integrate content and language effectively. As discussed earlier (see 9.2.1.2), the separation of content and knowledge is somewhat problematic (Baker & Hüttner, 2017). Accordingly, instead of insisting on their own identities as content experts, EMI lecturers may be equipped with useful ELT strategies, such as giving feedback, using different types of questions, or eliciting information. Useful classroom languages, like adopting discourse markers to organise lessons, should also be incorporated in these teacher training programmes. More importantly, there should be professional development opportunities for in-service staff to reflect on their existing EMI practices and share their own concerns, experiences and teaching tips with colleagues. That can be done in face-to-face discussions, or online forums, and organised according to themes for clarity and focus. To make it more relevant to trainees, prior to these professional development activities, a needs analysis may be conducted.

10.5.3. Implications for EMI lecturers

A recurring theme of this study, which is also a considerable implication for EMI lecturers, is the necessity of pedagogical skills for teaching content subjects in English. In addition to the support from professional development activities, which may not always be available in a specific country or institution, each lecturer should take their own initiative to equip themselves with sufficient pedagogical practices for EMI teaching. The practices of four lecturers observed in the DoS suggest the following implications, which can be divided into three phases: pre-class, in-class, and after-class.

This research recommends that students should be given at-home reading assignments to prepare, both in terms of content and language knowledge, for what they are going to learn in class. Lecturers can provide guiding questions for students to read, or they may ask students to come up with a few questions that can be answered via their readings. If possible, students can also be required to combine a list of key disciplinary terms/ academic words that can be found in the texts. Another task for students is to summarise what they read, and when appropriate,

visualise the content in forms of graphs, pictures or tables. In so doing, students are able to engage in the lessons and feel less panic in class. However, lecturers should also be aware of the workload that students get in general - rather than just their own module - to assign an appropriate amount of reading. Too complicated texts may discourage students from reading, hence the selection of materials is another concern for lecturers in this pre-class phase.

When students come to class, they should be given some time to work in groups/pairs to reflect on their own reading. Lecturers can join this process by building a class bank of questions/vocabulary based on students' preparation, and then finalise the key topics or technical terms to be covered in their lectures. Additionally, to enhance students' ability in taking notes and following their thoughts, lecturers should structure their discourse clearly with signposting devices for every stage or when introducing a new topic. The use of multimodality, as reported in this study, is necessary in scaffolding students to access the disciplinary subjects. Furthermore, in EMI teaching, lecturers should avoid "assumptive teaching", that is to say, the practice in which they just simply assume that students understand the lecture (Ball & Lindsay, 2013). Such pedagogical practices as checking understanding, simplifying their language use, rephrasing a students' utterance, asking for clarification, or backtracking (Walsh, 2011) are all necessary to create a space of learning for students and maintain the process of meaning-making and knowledge co-construction. The asking of questions should also be given proper attention by lecturers. Each lecturer can improve their abovementioned teaching behaviour by, for example, recording their own lectures and doing some reflective analysis of their own practices. While this might take some time in their busy schedule, it would definitely be useful in helping them to improve their pedagogy. Nevertheless, it should be noted that "good lecturing techniques are the same in any language" (Airey & Linder, 2006, p. 559). To put it simply, these pedagogical implications do not limit themselves to EMI classrooms but can be applied well to lectures in students' L1. Yet it is accentuated here for the roles that effective pedagogical practices can play in supporting students to get over their language barriers and access content knowledge in L2.

After class, it would be helpful if lecturers could allow time for questions. Airey & Linder (2006) suggest that lecturers can finish class early and spend about five minutes for students to come forward and ask questions in a less threatening atmosphere. This certainly should be moderated in balance with the structure of the whole lesson. Another platform for discussion is the creation of group pages on social media where students can pose questions or points to discuss. Given its popularity in Vietnam, Facebook can be used, but still precautions should be taken to avoid unwanted effects. Additionally, handouts or Powerpoint slides should be available

to students, especially in case they are not able to take notes of all the details. This could be sent through email, since Blackboard or similar platforms does not exist in the majority of Vietnamese universities.

Last but not least, while professional development activities are still a question of time and organisation, each lecturer can improve their own knowledge and skills of EMI teaching by signing up for free courses online. For example, the University of Southampton has recently run a MOOC course on “English as a Medium of Instruction for Academics”, which offers thoughtful insights into teaching practices. Also in these courses, a community of EMI lecturers in different contexts is constructed, creating chances for each instructor to enhance their knowledge and skills by sharing their own stories.

10.5.4. Implications for future research

Due to the time and space constraints, this study cannot include a detailed analysis of student talks as well as their individual learning strategies. Moreover, the lecturers and students' perceptions of English and other languages, situated in the broad sociolinguistic context of Vietnam, was beyond the scope of the present project. It would also be interesting to know what the university administrators think about this grassroots advocacy of EMI. Finally, although features of classroom discourses were mentioned, such topics as questioning techniques or academic language functions were briefly touched on in this research. All of these lay the foundation for my later research projects. I also plan to propose a pilot professional development workshop for EMI teachers in the university where I conducted the study, based on which a larger research project on this aspect will be constructed.

The present study clearly demonstrates that ethnography-informed studies focusing on specific cases are essential in describing the current situations of EMI policy in Higher Education Institutions. Although gaining access to educational settings for ethnographic projects is quite challenging and hard to plan, this is certainly an area worth investigating for future research. Additionally, it would provide more insights if research could be conducted across sites, like a top-down programme compared to a bottom-up programme. Such comparison would contribute to a better understanding of the diversity in EMI conceptualisation and implementation.

Another potential research trajectory, based on this project, is the inclusion of EMI graduates as participants. While people participate in EMI for different motivations, it would be interesting to know how far these motivations are turned into reality after graduation. The

connection between what students are offered in an EMI degree and what they can contribute in the labour market from those offered, seen from the perspective of EMI graduates, may be a useful reference for many institutions in their debates of doing EMI or not. Similarly, an investigation into local EMI programmes – which consist of instructors and students from the same L1 – and international/global EMI programmes – with staff and students of mixed linguistic backgrounds – could be another topic for future studies.

10.6. My personal reflection

Reflecting on this doctoral project as a whole, I want to end my thesis with the metaphor of an Asian water lotus. For me, an EMI policy – or any other language-in-education policies – can be metaphorically compared to a lotus. A set of rules and regulations in each policy are designed and adopted at different levels by authorised bodies. These bodies can be seen as layers of lotus petals, all covering a large, flat-topped receptacle which has many round chambers, each contains a seed. Similarly, the final purpose of all the statements in an EMI policy revolve around the central focus of teaching and learning in classroom settings, where teachers and students actually implement the policy. While outer petals may help to nurture the seeds, regulations from upper agencies in the hierarchical structure can either promote or hinder teaching and learning activities. And in the end, we do not only want beautiful lotuses but also strong, nutritious lotus seeds. Likewise, it is human developments and values that we want to achieve in these language-related educational policies.

This project is a meaningful start for me as a novice researcher to explore the EMI policy in Vietnam. The knowledge, skills, experiences, and even up-and-down emotions acquired during this doctoral research are surely valuable luggage for me to carry further on into my future career as a lecturer, a teacher trainer, and a researcher in Vietnam.

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Appendix 1 Interview guide (English version)

Thank you for agreeing to take part in my research about English-medium instruction (EMI) programmes in Vietnamese Higher Education. In this interview, I would like to learn about your teaching experience in EMI classrooms, focusing on your teaching style, classroom interaction, and how you, as an EMI lecturer, think of the role of English compared to Vietnamese. In other words, it is your ideas, opinions and experience that I would like to learn from this interview. You are the expert fully in charge of what is said.

All the participants' names and identity information will be coded to assure the confidentiality and anonymity. The information you provide through this interview is the valuable source of data for my study.

I. General information

- Can you tell me about yourself? Your academic background?
- How long have you been teaching?

II. Lecturer's self-reported competence

- What skill are you most confident in English?
- Is there any specific skill/language area that you want to improve?
- Do you think that its improvement will help you in teaching EMI courses?

III. Lecturer's teaching styles

- How would you describe your way of teaching EMI classes in DIS?
 - *What is the most predominating teaching style: lecture-based sessions, a mixture of theoretical explanations and direct application/exercises in the classroom context, group work, students' presentation, or classroom discussions?*
- In your opinion, are pedagogical knowledge in EMI classes and in Vietnamese-medium instruction classes similar or different?

IV. Classroom interaction

- Could you describe what the interaction in your classes looks like? (who speak what and when, for how long, how often? Is there any underlying belief related to such classroom interaction?)
- How do you get students involved in your lesson?
- Do you think there are any patterns in your class?
- What are some common interactional patterns in your EMI classes?

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The IRF structure?

- Could you describe your use of questions in your EMI classes?
 - *How often do you use questions in your classroom?/ When do you often ask questions?*
 - *What kind of questions do you prefer to use?*
 - *What do you do if no student can answer your questions?*
 - *How would you react to students' questions?*
 - *How willing are your students to ask?*
- How do you deal with unfamiliar words/ expression in EMI lessons?
 - *Subject-specific language?*
- How do you help your students to follow the lesson?
 - *Outline of the lesson structure?*
 - *Signal words?*
- How do you evaluate the classroom interaction in your EMI classes?

V. Lecturer' attitudes towards English and Vietnamese

- Is there a “language policy” in your class? If yes, so what is the “language policy” for your EMI classes?
- Is that an “English-only” zone?
- What do you think about the role of English in your EMI classroom interaction?
 - *Is it a tool or a target?*
 - *Do you correct students' mistakes, or do you just pay attention to the content?*
- Could you describe the use of English and Vietnamese in your EMI classroom interaction?
 - *On using English in your EMI classroom, do you pay attention to English as a native language, as a foreign language, or as a lingua franca?*
 - *When do you use Vietnamese? Why do you use Vietnamese? Why not?*
- From your own teaching experience, how do your students conceptualise the role of English and Vietnamese in EMI classes?
- What is your students' English like? Do you think they are fully prepared for EMI courses?

Any further comments?

Appendix 2 Focus group guide (English version)

Thank you for agreeing to take part in my research about English-medium instruction (EMI) programmes in Vietnamese Higher Education. In this focus group, I would like to learn about your learning experience in EMI classrooms, focusing on your understanding of the EMI lectures, your participation in classroom interaction, and your conceptualisation of the role of English in the classroom interaction. In other words, it is your ideas, opinions and experience that I would like to learn from this focus group. You are the expert fully in charge of what is said.

All the participants and any information that can be linked to any participants will be coded to assure the confidentiality and anonymity. The information you provide through this interview is the valuable source of data for my study.

I. General information

- English learning experience
- Why did you choose to study in this EMI programme?

II. Attending EMI programmes

- What do you think about EMI classes?
- Do you prefer to take Vietnamese-medium instruction programmes to EMI programmes?
- How confident are you in taking EMI classes? Do you think you are fully prepared for the EMI lessons?

III. Understanding EMI lectures

- How much do you understand the EMI lectures?
- What are some of your learning methods/strategies in EMI classes?
- How can you follow the EMI lectures?

IV. Classroom interaction

- Could you describe what the interaction in your classes looks like? (who speak what and when, for how long, how often?)
- How often do you participate in classroom interaction? When?
- What do you think about your lecturer's interactional strategies?
- Do you think you get enough guide from your lecturers to obtain the knowledge in EMI lectures?
- How do you evaluate the classroom interaction in your EMI classes? (effective or not...)

V. Attitudes towards English and Vietnamese in EMI programmes

- What is the "language policy" for your EMI classes?

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- *Is that an “English-only” zone?*
- *Are you allowed to speak Vietnamese or any other languages in your EMI classes?*
- What do you think about the role of English in your EMI classroom interaction?
 - *Is it a tool or a target?*
 - *Do you want to be corrected for your mistakes in English use?*
- Could you describe the use of English and Vietnamese in your EMI classroom interaction?
- On using English in your EMI classroom, do you pay attention to English as a native language, as a foreign language, or as a lingua franca?
- Do you use Vietnamese? With whom? In what case?

Any further comments?

Appendix 3 Research diary – Sample

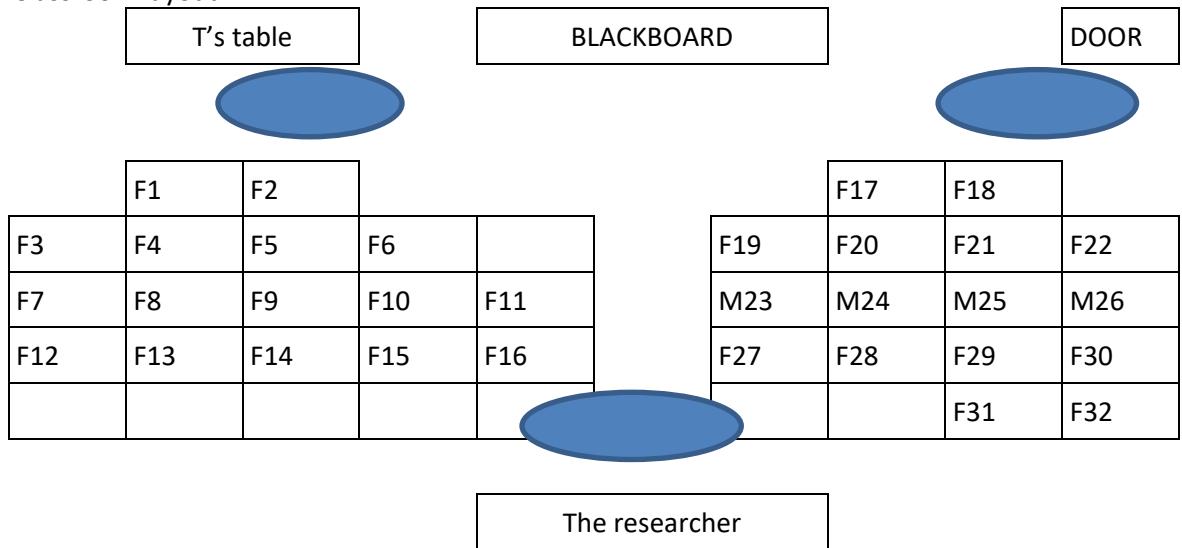
Lecturer: Nina

Room: BII.4

Course: Global politics – Class 1 (Introduction) – [dd/mm/yy]

Student population: 32 (4M/28F)

Classroom layout:



S can probably understand 50% of the knowledge in English

Assessment = individual presentation + attendance + end-of-term quiz + final examination

Use of email:

- (1) academic reasons (slides for presentation/ reading materials)
- (2) not only for personal issues/ complaints/ gossipings

Oral presentation:

- (1) T gives the lists of topics.
- (2) S choose their topics + register their dates of presentation
- (3) Individual presentation, not GROUP presentation
- (4) Handout for classmates, slides in English
- (5) 10-15 mins/ S
- (6) Presentation is in English

S must be in time (not later than 10 minutes)

S must attend class (2 absences maximum)

Today was the first class, and Nina introduced me to the students and then I had a chance to talk about my research and ask for the class participation. No one asked me any questions, and I guessed we would have to interact more in the future to break the ice.

The class started at 7:00, but a number of students were late. They had to get into the classroom from the front door because the back door was locked, so it caused some kinds of

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interruption. Nina didn't explicitly say anything when students came in late, but she then stressed the attendance policy in her assessment criteria. I am curious about how students would abide by the policy of attendance. Let's see if more students will arrive in time next week.

I don't know if this is because they are just in the second-year and still influenced by the traditional ambience of high school education, or because they are worried about assessment, or because they are afraid of Nina, but the way students interacted in class this morning is very reserved and lack of liveliness. I should observe more to see whether this will improve as the semester goes by. Probably today was the first day, and they didn't see Nina during their first year in the Dos.

It was noticeable that students looked quite anxious at Nina's announcement of assessment formats. When they knew that presentation was assessed individually and they were supposed to do it in English, I could hear a lot of "ahhhh" or sighs around the classrooms. This is a second year class, and they are still getting themselves familiar with learning in English.

Appendix 4 **Transcription conventions**

(.)	short pause
(number)	longer pause in seconds
<i>Italic text</i>	utterances in Vietnamese
{ }	translation
[<i>italic text</i>]	contextual information
[]	overlapping utterances
?	rising intonation for question
xxxx	inaudible
(?)	uncertain transcription
Hannah	speaker
Sx	unidentified student
@	laughter
=	latched utterance
[...]	omitted section of the transcription initial letter in proper names is capitalised interview and focus group transcriptions include punctuation marks and capitalisations for sentences

Appendix 5 Vietnamese sources of interview/focus group extracts

CHAPTER 5

Extract 5.1.FG.Y2.01 – 43

Minnie Sau em đăng kí nguyện vọng 1 là tiếng Nhật, thứ hai là SP Tiếng Anh, nhưng hai ngành đó điểm cao quá, em không đủ điểm. Sau đó em rót xuống nguyện vọng thứ ba là IS.

Extract 5.2.FG.Y4.01 – 4

Mia Tại sao chọn IS hả cô? Cũng do e đợt ấy thi rớt thì phải. E thi tiếng Trung ở (...), xong cuối cùng em thi rớt rồi e vào đây học

Extract 5.3.FG.Y2.01 – 45

Minnie Hoc IS thi nghe cung khong biết cụ thể là mình sẽ học cái chi. IS là răng hè, cũng không biết. Mà ba mẹ có hỏi là con học ngành IS là học cái gì, em cũng không biết trả lời cụ thể ra răng. Lúc đó em có nghe nói là học IS với tiếng Anh. Đó là trước khi vô học, không biết chi hết

Extract 5.4.FG.Y4.01 – 5

E vō IS là do ba m e em th ich em học v ề ti ng anh h on n en em ch on v ô d ay

Extract 5.5.FG.Y4.02 – 18

Maddie Khi thi đại học thì e thi luật kinh tế xong rồi không đậu. [Và e cũng từ bỏ luôn Sư phạm Lí luôn].
Thêm nữa, trong nhà có người làm Sở Ngoại vụ, cho nên cũng đúng ngành, vì vậy em đi theo ngành này.)

Extract 5.6.FG.Y3.01 – 7

Rebecca Thật sự khi lên lớp 12, em cũng chưa định hình là em sẽ học ngành chi. Đến khi chọn ngành, em thấy tên IS hắn rất là lạ và kiêu, nên quyết định chọn ngành ni.

Extract 5.7.FG.Y3.01 – 12

Natalie Em chọn IS vì lúc đó nghe cái tên hay hay, chứ ko biết khoa sẽ dạy gì. Và cũng có duyên là em cũng đậu được vào khoa @@

Extract 5.8.FG.Y3.02 – 17

Louisette: Lúc đầu cũng rất là khó để học, vì nghe rất là sợ. Vì là lần đầu tiên học mà sử dụng Tiếng Anh. [...] Địa chỉ cũng bằng Tiếng Anh luôn. Sử dụng Tiếng Việt đã thấy không hứng rồi chờ nếu mà học bằng Tiếng Anh thì rất là khó

Extract 5.9.FG.Y4.02 – 59

Tracy Trời ơi, cô nói một tràng tiếng Anh luôn. Mà Địa chính trị thế giới không liên quan gì đến Địa lí mình học hết @@

Beth @@ Hồi đó bọn em nghe tưởng là giống Địa lí @@
 Tracy Ai ngồi toàn bộ là chính trị luôn, tụi em ngơ luôn. Rồi mấy ông chi rứa? Mấy ông gì, mà học mấy ông gì xa lắc xa lơ gì đâu không biết luôn. Từ giờ chưa nghe luôn.

Extract 5.10.FG.Y4.02 – 30

Nasha em nghĩ chắc là em bỏ @@
 Beth thật sự là kì 1 năm 1 em có ý định thi lại
 Nasha đúng rồi đó
 Taylor đa số là muốn rửa hấy

Extract 5.11.FG.Y2.01 – 26

David lên cấp 3 thì em lại xác định khác là không học tiếng Anh. Em bỏ tiếng anh luôn. Tới lúc năm 12 bắt đầu thi tiếng Anh thì em mới bắt đầu học, nhưng mà học lúc đó thì hắn cũng không vội nữa rồi.

Extract 5.12.FG.Y4.01 – 16

Laura Em thấy vô đại học, học tiếng Anh hắn khác xa nhiều so với học tiếng Anh ở trường cấp 3. Khác nhiều hoàn toàn. Ngay cả cách nói năng hay là cách nghe, khác nhiều lắm, nên vô đây, sự chuẩn bị của tụi em giống như bắt đầu từ số 0 [...]Tại vì vô học đại học, hắn có nhiều cái khác. Ví dụ như rõ ràng học DoS, hắn có quá nhiều chuyên ngành luôn, mà những cái từ chuyên ngành mình không biết.

Extract 5.13.IN.TAM - 82

Tammy Dạ, mấy bạn không được chuẩn bị. Tức là khi mấy bạn vừa ra khỏi lớp 12 và mấy bạn vô năm 1, là mấy bạn đã bị một vài môn chuyên ngành bằng Tiếng Anh rồi. Ví dụ như chử, học kì 1 là em đang dạy một môn này, năm 1 luôn và dạy bằng Tiếng Anh luôn. Mấy bạn kiểu như là bỡ ngỡ lắm, tại vì mấy bạn cũng chưa quen với cái việc là nghe nói a. Kiểu như học Nghe nói mà ngày xưa chỉ học Ngữ pháp này kia, cho nên khi nghe học Tiếng Anh là mấy bạn sợ lắm.

Extract 5.14.IN.VIV - 102

Vivian Chị nghĩ là sinh viên rất muốn học bằng Tiếng Anh. Rất muốn. Nhưng mà cái cơ sở, căn bản của mấy em chưa tốt

Extract 5.15.FG.Y4.02 - 66

Tracy Với lại Tiếng Anh thực hành thì hắn đơn giản hơn, mà Tiếng Anh liên quan tới chính trị
 Beth Chính trị đó, khó cõi
 Tracy Mấy cái từ đó, nếu mà mình dùng sai những từ đó thì hắn lại liên quan tới một cái khác
 Beth sai nghĩa
 Tracy Sai nghĩa, rồi hắn còn kéo theo nhiều cái khác mệt hơn nữa. Cho nên tụi em hay lo về cái vụ mà tụi em dùng sai từ key words bằng tiếng Anh

Extract 5.16.FG.Y2.01 – 135

Minnie Thật ra, em thấy tiếng Anh kĩ năng học mấy từ đơn giản, nhưng đến khi học tiếng Anh chuyên ngành thì học cái từ chi chi a [...] Em thấy giống như từ trên trời rơi xuống. Thành ra bây giờ em thấy,

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khả năng của em cũng là xuất sắc đó, cũng là giỏi đó, học tiếng Anh mấy môn kĩ năng điểm cũng rất cao. Nhưng học mấy môn chuyên ngành thì em không hiểu chi hết.

Extract 5.17.FG.Y2.01 – 143

Rob Thật ra thì tiếng Anh giao tiếp thường ngày, giống như học mấy môn kĩ năng đó. Nếu mình học tiếng Anh thì vẫn bình thường thôi, mình giao tiếp với nước ngoài bình thường. Mình giao tiếp được, không có vấn đề chi hết.

Extract 5.18.IN.HAN - 42

Hannah Mặc dù các em đó có 5 học kì từ học kì 1 đến học kì 5 được học các cái môn về thực hành tiếng, nhưng mà nó cũng không cung cấp được bao nhiêu cả. Và thực trạng dạy thực hành tiếng ở đây thì e cũng k cần phải nói làm chi nữa rồi.

Extract 5.19.IN.HEL - 6

Helen Ví dụ như khi mình dịch những từ đó qua Tiếng Việt, từ hegemon chẳng hạn, hoặc là hegemony. Nếu mà dịch qua Tiếng Việt thì hắn cũng ... nói chung là sách vở thì họ vẫn dịch như vậy, nhưng mà mình nghe thì mình biết là hắn ko có cái độ chuẩn xác lắm.

Extract 5.20.IN.NAN - 112

Nancy Em chắc chắn sẽ không thích dạy một lớp bằng Tiếng Việt khi mà tài liệu em có hoàn toàn bằng Tiếng Anh, và giáo viên đa phần được đào tạo, thì ai cũng đi học về rồi nên ai cũng có sẵn một đống thứ học được từ nước ngoài. Không ai ưa chuyển qua Tiếng Việt hết

Extract 5.21.FG.Y3.01 - 186

Joanne Theo e thì e nghĩ là nên sử dụng Tiếng Anh, tại vì đã học Ngoại Ngữ, mang tiếng học Ngoại Ngữ rồi, thì đừng nên quá áp đặt vô chuyện Tiếng Anh hay Tiếng Việt. Đã chịu đã bước vô học Ngoại Ngữ rồi thì phải đầu tư hết sức vô học Tiếng Anh, còn Tiếng Việt thì chắc chắn là ko còn gì để xa lạ nữa, nên nếu muốn ra trường đạt được những cái mình muốn thì chắc chắn phải đầu tư để học Tiếng Anh rồi.

Extract 5.22.FG.Y4.02 - 506

Maddie Mình sẽ sử dụng tiếng Anh, mà tới khi mình vô trường, m ko học bằng tiếng Anh, thì nói chung là mình đừng có vô Ngoại Ngữ nữa.

Extract 5.23.FG.Y3.02 - 170

August Cho nên e thấy nếu học Tiếng Anh và nếu như mình học ngành ni thì mình ra mình làm cho người nước ngoài. Mà mình học bằng Tiếng Việt thì ra sẽ có một thiếu sót nào đó về cái vấn đề hiểu, hay là mình có thể =

Spring =lệch lạc=

August =cái cách hiểu của mình về vấn đề mà thầy cô dạy

Louise Dạ theo e thì e thấy, nếu mà học bằng Tiếng Anh thì nó sẽ khó hơn. Nhưng mà cái kiến thức của mình nhận được với kỹ năng mà mình có được sau này nó sẽ cao hơn.

CHAPTER 6

Extract 6.1. IN.TAM - 54

Mới đầu vô thì mình sẽ nói là cái môn ni học bằng Tiếng Anh. [Cô sẽ nói trước là môn ni học bằng Tiếng Anh.] Nhưng mà, em sẽ nói thêm, nếu như có cái chi mà mấy em không hiểu, thì cô sẽ giải thích bằng Tiếng Việt. Mặc dù là mình cũng chuẩn bị tinh thần là mình sẽ phải giải thích bằng Tiếng Việt rất nhiều, nhưng mình cũng phải định hướng cho sinh viên là môn ni học bằng Tiếng Anh, thi bằng Tiếng Anh, cô hỏi bài bằng Tiếng Anh, và lên trình bày cũng bằng Tiếng Anh. Thị em nói như rứa thôi, chơ còn Tiếng Việt chỉ là kiểu phụ thôi.

Extract 6.2. IN.HAN – 44

Ko, mình không đưa ra language policy, bởi vì cái khó của mình là như thế này. Mình gặp các em này vào năm thứ tư, và mình ko biết được là các em đó là ở đang đoạn nào rồi. [Ví dụ như mình có dạy các môn thực hành tiếng của các em, thì mình có thể biết được cái năng lực ngôn ngữ của các em. Thị có thể sẽ dễ dàng hơn trong cho việc đưa ra cái language policy.] Thành ra là mình muốn có sự linh hoạt, có nghĩa là để xem xem thực tế nó là như thế nào rồi khi đó mình mới có language policy. Và mình rất là thoải mái trong việc dùng Tiếng Anh và dùng Tiếng Việt.

Extract 6.3. FG.Y4.02 - 124

Phuong Nhưng cô Hannah có thông báo với các em chính sách là phải trả lời bằng Tiếng Anh không, hay là do mấy em mặc định là mình phải trả lời bằng Tiếng Anh?
 Nasha Dạ mặc định
 Beth Mình mặc định rứa thôi. Lâu lâu nếu mình bí quá mình hỏi cô để trả lời bằng Tiếng Việt được không thì cô vẫn cho phép.
 Nasha Cô không yêu cầu =
 Beth = nhưng thường thường vẫn trả lời bằng bằng Tiếng Anh
 Maddie là do cô vô lớp cô chỉ toàn nói bằng tiếng Anh
 Nasha nên bọn em cứ theo cô thôi.

Extract 6.4. FG.Y3.01- 187

Phuong Về quy định sử dụng ngôn ngữ tròn mấy lớp của mấy em, đầu năm vào thầy cô có quy định là lớp này chỉ dùng Tiếng Anh ko thôi ko, hay là thầy cô ko nói chi hết? May e tự mặc định hiểu?
 Nata Dạ dọa rứa đó
 Mari Lúc đầu mới vô thầy tưởng mô học giỏi bơ thầy sử dụng Tiếng Anh @@ Sau này thầy chán quá rồi thầy chuyển qua Tiếng Việt.

Extract 6.5. FG.Y4.01- 80

Mia Bài hồi năm một là cô giảng xong cả lớp không hiểu chi hết
 Birdy Xong cô buộc phải chuyển sang tiếng Việt

Appendices

Extract 6.6. FG.Y3.02- 87

Pat Thật sự là cái nör học Tiếng Việt cüng đã khó rồi. Mỗi lần thuyết trình về một chủ đëe mô đó mà trong vòng 15 phút thì hắn cung hơi khó. Em là từ khi cô bắt đầu đưa cho bài thuyết trình đến 1 tuần là e @ 1 tuần sau cho đến khi nör là em cứ liên tục, “ luật luật” trong đầu rứa @@

Spring Bỏ hết thời gian để làm môn nör thôi.

Extract 6.7. FG.Y2.01 - 50

Rob Dạ không hiểu luôn @@@ Level thì còn thấp. Tui em đồng ý là vừa phải học ngoại ngữ tiếng Anh, vừa phải học thêm môn chuyên ngành. Nhưng cách làm của cô Nina thì kiểu nặng quá

Extract 6.8. IN.NIN.01 – 199

Dạ, nói chung expectations của em thì cung nhiều. Dạ, tương phản khá lớn, vì thật ra cung nghĩ các em cung như mình hồi xưa, vì em đã từng học qua và cảm thấy thích. Nhưng vì nhìn mấy em thì em cảm thấy học kiểu bị bắt buộc, nên em cũng cảm thấy khá thất vọng.

Extract 6.10. IN.HEL – 4

Thật ra, việc dạy bằng Tiếng Anh là mong muốn của các thầy cô, nhưng mà vì đây là môn chuyên ngành, cho nên hắn có kiến thức chuyên ngành. Mà ngành quan hệ quốc tế cung là một ngành khó.

Extract 6.11. IN.NAN – 72

Còn nếu như slides hoàn toàn bằng Tiếng Anh, thì các cụm từ nör cũng thường thường được gạch chân hoặc in đậm lên một chút, tức là những cụm từ cần phải biết [và rồi cũng giải thích bằng phương pháp tương tự]. Giải thích bằng Tiếng Anh, rồi cho ví dụ trước, rồi bắt đầu qua Tiếng Việt, không cần biết là ngang Tiếng Anh đã hiểu chưa.

Extract 6.12. IN.VIV – 78

Tùy môn, chị nghĩ môn Lịch sử quan hệ quốc tế là môn hơi bao quát thì chị dạy bằng Tiếng Anh nhiều hơn. Nhưng môn chính sách đối ngoại Việt Nam lại có rất nhiều vấn đề mà phải nói bằng Tiếng Việt, thì môn ni chắc là phải hơn 50% bằng Tiếng Việt. Chị nghĩ rứa. Lịch sử Quan hệ quốc tế thì lại Tiếng Anh nhiều hơn.

Extract 6.13. IN.HAN - 46

Cái này là cái mà thường các thầy cô cung không có đëe ý. Nhưng bản thân mình là một người dạy ngôn ngữ, mình có nói với các em là phải tận dụng triệt để những cơ hội để có thể rèn luyện những kĩ năng nghe nói đọc viết. Thứ hai nữa là ngay cả những cái texts mà các em được giao về nhà đọc, thì ngoài việc đọc là để lấy nội dung, còn phải học và đëe ý cách người ta viết để mà improve được các kĩ năng của mình. Thì đó là một lời khuyên mà mình có, nhưng mà mình không nhắc nhở thường xuyên vì đó không phải là nhiệm vụ của mình. Tuy nhiên mình có nói.

Extract 6.14. IN.HAN – 50

Mình chỉ chấm ý, mình chỉ chú trọng vào ý thôi, bởi vì mình ko dạy kĩ năng.

Extract 6.15. IN.HEL – 72

Vì tiêu chí chấm điểm là ko có phàn language để cho mấy em khỏi bị căng thẳng, chị sẽ khuyến khích encourage nhưng trong đó ko có chấm Tiếng Anh hay Tiếng Việt [...] Thi cuối kì mấy năm trước, khi cho thi thì có cho nó làm bằng Tiếng Anh Tiếng Việt. Nghĩa là chị có encourage nó dùng được bao nhiêu Tiếng Anh thì dùng, và cái đó mình chấm cũng rất là cực, vì cho nó viết thoải mái luôn mà.

Extract 6.16. IN.TIF- 80

Dạ, cho nên khi mà mình đánh giá bài thi ít khi mình sửa về ngôn ngữ [vì thật ra là bài học kì thi cũng ko phải là bài trả lại]. Cho nên, chủ yếu là để kiểm tra kiến thức sinh viên hiểu đúng, và thể hiện được cái tư duy và suy nghĩ của họ về vấn đề đó. Còn về phần ngôn ngữ thì chủ yếu là có được những kiến thức nền thôi. Có thể viết được thôi, mình cũng không phải kiểm tra về lỗi ngữ pháp. Không đặt nặng vấn đề này.

Extract 6.17. IN.TAM – 66

Em hay nói với mấy bạn là, mấy em trả lời bằng Tiếng Anh, nhưng mà cô sẽ không trừ điểm nếu như mà em sai ngữ pháp với là từ ngữ với là chính tả đồ rửa. Vì em muốn khuyến khích cho mấy đứa hồn học bằng Tiếng Anh. [Tức là hồn cố gắng làm bằng Tiếng Anh thôi, còn những cái đó mình có thể sửa được ở những môn khác.] Em vẫn sửa, vẫn sửa chính tả và ngữ pháp nhưng mà em không trừ điểm. Em chỉ trừ điểm chuyên môn thôi.

Extract 6.18. FG.Y4.02 – 598

Tracy	Thầy cô cũng nhiều người ko quan trọng về phần ngữ pháp nữa, nên bọn e ko xài được.
Beth	Giống như đợt vừa rồi mình làm luận môn cô Hannah đó. Cô cũng không yêu cầu gắt gao về ngữ pháp. Đại khái là vì chuyên ngành khó đó cô. Thành ra cô chỉ yêu cầu làm đúng nội dung. Miễn cô đọc cô hiểu là được, chứ cô không check về Ngữ pháp. Mà nếu cô check về ngữ pháp chắc là sai tè le không còn chỉ luôn @@

Extract 6.19. FG.Y3.01 – 114

Rebecca	Dạ đôi khi có những thứ dễ thì thầy cô lại đặt Tiếng Anh
Phuong	Còn mấy e trả lời?
Joanna	Dạ tui e trả lời Tiếng Việt
Nata	Khó quá thì Tiếng Việt @
Phuong	Ờ thầy cô vẫn chấp nhận việc đó?
Rebecca	Dạ vì thường thì những chuyên ngành, thầy cô chú trọng vào việc mình hiểu môn đó hơn là việc mình sử dụng Tiếng Anh như thế nào.

Extract 6.25. FG.Y2.01 – 281

Shelly Cho nên đổi với cái môn chính trị đó, tụi em cơ cấu câu hỏi trước. Mấy bạn mà thuyết trình thì bạn sau sẽ về nhà đặt câu hỏi trước cho mấy bạn đó. Và mấy bạn đó trả lời săn để cõ khỏi bắt bẻ lại.

Appendices

CHAPTER 7

Extract 7.3.FG.Y2.01 – 125

Phuong như vậy với môn này thì em muốn dùng slide bằng tiếng Anh và cô giảng bằng tiếng Việt, hay là slides cũng bằng tiếng Việt luôn?

Rob slides bằng tiếng Anh

Minnie slides bằng tiếng Anh thì tốt hơn

David ở giai đoạn hiện tại thì tiếng Anh của em chưa tốt. Do đó, em nghĩ nên học bằng tiếng Việt, nhưng slides bằng tiếng Anh. Như rửa bát em sẽ được tiếp cận một cách từ từ. Không phải là dồn dập như môn mà bạn em vừa thuyết trình.

Extract 7.8.IN.TIF – 86

Trường hợp mà mình phải giải thích một cái vấn đề mà nó rất là khó hiểu cho sinh viên. Trường hợp đó nếu như mà Tiếng Anh mà mình giảng rồi, mà mình thấy hắn vẫn còn confused thì lúc đó em sẽ cân đo xem thử là nếu được thì để hiệu quả. Vì em nghĩ là vấn đề quan trọng nhất vẫn là cái hiểu bài. Thật ra chuyện mà mình switch language hắn không quan trọng.

Extract 7.18.IN.TIF – 86

Ví dụ như cái bài đó nó dài mà khi đó là 10h rưỡi, mà đoạn cuối thì vẫn chưa nói xong, cho nên là vẫn còn khoảng 3-4 slides thì lúc đó e chuyển qua tiếng Việt. Nhưng mà slides đương nhiên vẫn là Tiếng Anh, từ đầu đến cuối.

Extract 7.22.IN.HAN – 8

Mình thích dạy bằng Tiếng Anh hơn vì nó có những cái khái niệm mà trong Tiếng Việt của chúng ta có thể chưa có để có thể diễn đạt, đặc biệt là những thuật ngữ liên quan tới chuyên ngành, hoặc là có những chủ đề mà đôi khi chỉ cần một từ Tiếng Anh thôi thì có thể diễn đạt được rất là nhiều, nhưng mà Tiếng Việt thì sẽ mất rất nhiều thời gian.

CHAPTER 8

Extract 8.1.FG.Y4.01 – 298

Mia Tính ra phương pháp dạy của cô Tiffany hay ghê

Anna Dạ tui em thấy phương pháp dạy của cô Tiffany là có vẻ hiệu quả dễ hiểu nhất.

Extract 8.4.FG.Y3.01 – 171

Joanna Cách dạy của cô Tiffany và của cô Nancy thì trong giờ học của 2 cô thì e cảm thấy rất là thoải mái, giống như kiểu mình trò chuyện với nhau chờ ko phải là giữa cô với trò dạy cho nhau nữa. Giống như kiểu là để trao đổi những cái chưa biết với những cái đã biết rồi với nhau, nên e cảm thấy thoải mái hơn và dễ tiếp thu hơn.

Extract 8.6.FG.Y4.02 – 195

Beth cô Helen hỏi là không được ngập ngừng đồ rửa mồ nghe, phải trả lời rột rột luôn
 Anna Dạ cô Helen là cô đi dặn dặn nè=
 Beth = rồi cô chỉ cái cô hỏi=
 Taylor =giật mình

Extract 8.7.FG.Y4.01 – 246

Laura Thầy cô mà thân thiện gần gũi với mình thì mình dễ hiểu bài hơn
 Birdy Giống như cô Helen. Cô rất là dữ. Nhưng tụi em vẫn hay nói chuyện với cô, thành ra mặc dù cô dữ, tụi em vẫn có khả năng nói thảng, nếu không hiểu thì nói thảng là không hiểu. Còn nhiều bạn khác nhìn vô thấy cô dữ quá đâm ra sợ quá nên không dám hỏi vì sợ bị la.

Appendix 6 Translation sample checked by an independent translator

Extract 5.1 FG.Y2.01 – 43 - Minnie

My first choice was a degree in Japanese, the second choice was English Language Teaching. But those programmes required higher entry scores than my examination results, so I couldn't get in. Therefore, I failed to my third choice which is DoS.

To Minnie
You mean "fell"?

Commented
Formatted: Highlight

(Em đăng kí nguyện vọng 1 là tiếng Nhật, thứ hai là sư phạm tiếng Anh, nhưng hai ngành đó điểm cao quá, em không đủ điểm. Sau đó em rớt xuống nguyện vọng thứ ba là ngành DoS.)

Extract 5.2 FG.Y4.01 – 4 - Mia

Why did I choose DoS, huh? It was because I failed. I wanted to apply for a degree in Chinese language in <name of another city> but I failed it, so I ended up being here

(Tại sao chọn IS hả cô? Cũng do e đợt ấy thi rớt thì phải. E thi tiếng Trung ở (...), xong cuối cùng em thi rớt rồi e vào đây học)

Extract 5.3 FG.Y2.01 – 45 - Minnie

International Studies, I didn't know exactly what I would study. What is International Studies what? I didn't know. My parents asked what I would study in this major, I didn't know how to answer them specifically. I just knew that I would study International Studies and English. It was me before the programme, I knew nothing.

(Học IS thì nghe cũng không biết cụ thể là mình sẽ học cái chi. IS là rằng hè, cũng không biết. Mà ba mẹ có hỏi là con học ngành IS là học cái gì, em cũng không biết trả lời cụ thể ra rằng. Lúc đó em có nghe nói là học IS với tiếng Anh. Đó là trước khi vô học, không biết chi hết.)

Extract 5.4 FG.Y4.01 – 5 - Daisy

I studied in DoS because my parents wanted me to study something related to English

(E vô IS là do ba mẹ em thích em học về tiếng anh hơn nên em chọn vô đây)

Extract 5.5 FG.Y4.02 – 18 - Maddie

I sat an entrance exam for Economic Laws, but I failed [...] one of my family members works in the Department of Foreign Affairs, and DoS fits with this job, so I selected this programme.

(Khi thi đại học thì e thi luật kinh tế xong rồi không đậu. [Và e cũng từ bỏ luôn Sư phạm Lý luận]. Thêm nữa, trong nhà có người làm Sở Ngoại vụ, cho nên cũng đúng ngành, vì vậy em đã

Extract 5.6 FG.Y3.01 – 7 - Rebecca

Even when I was at Grade 12, I had no idea of what I was going to study at university. When I had to fill the application form, I found the name of International Studies unfamiliar and prestigious, so I made that selection

(Thật sự khi lên lớp 12, em cũng chưa định hình là em sẽ học ngành chi. Đến khi chọn ngành, em thấy tên IS hẳn rất là lạ và **kiêu**, nên quyết định chọn ngành **đó**)

Hay bạn đó ý nói chữ "kêu", mình nghĩ 1 chương trình mà "kiêu" thì "kỳ kỳ" @ nếu là "kêu" thì mình sẽ dùng chữ "trendy" chẳng hạn!

Extract 5.7 FG.Y3.01 – 12 - Natalie

Natalie - I chose International Studies because the name sounded coolish, but I didn't know what they would teach me. And the destiny was that I passed the exam to get to the programme @@

(Em chọn IS vì lúc đó nghe cái tên hay hay, chữ **ko** biết khoa sẽ dạy gì. Và cũng có duyên là em cũng đậu được vào khoa @@)

Extract 5.8 FG.Y3.02 – 17 - Louise

In the beginning, it was really difficult to study, it sounded scary. It was my first time studying History in English [...] We also studied Geography in English. I didn't find it interesting to learn History in Vietnamese, now studying it in English is so much difficult

(Lúc đầu cũng rất là khó để học, vì nghe rất là sợ. Vì là lần đầu tiên học mà sử bằng Tiếng Anh. [...] Địa cũng bằng Tiếng Anh luôn. Sử học bằng Tiếng Việt đã thấy không hứng rồi chờ nếu mà học bằng Tiếng Anh thì rất là khó)

Extract 5.9 FG.Y4.02 - 26

Nasha it was the first time in my life that I learnt Geopolitics=

Beth = it was really shocking, wasn't it?

Nasha the first time in my life that I went to class like that. It was like, high school was too easy, and Geopolitics was @

(Nasha Lần đầu tiên trong đời mà em học bài môn Địa chính trị=

Beth = lần đó thật sự là bị sốc đúng không?

Nasha Lần đầu tiên trong đời mà em đã học như rửa. Dạng kiểu cấp 3 dễ quá, mà lên Địa chính trị là @)

Appendix 7 Coding scheme

INITIAL CODING

A. Background

1. Choices of the DoS

- a. Personal interest
- b. Future career
- c. Family influence
- d. Curiosity
- e. No other options/ Last choice
 - i. Low score
 - ii. Failure
 - iii. Random selection as 'destiny'
- f. Knowing nothing about DoS

2. Feelings about the DoS

- a. Descriptions of feelings when first learning in EMI
 - i. 'Bình thường'
 - ii. Bõ ngõ'
 - iii. Bored
 - iv. Difficult
 - v. 'Ghét'
 - vi. 'Hoang mang'
 - vii. 'Nản'
 - viii. Scared
 - ix. 'Vinh hạnh'
 - x. Uncertain
 - xi. Quit and resit exam
- b. Changes in feelings
 - i. More positive
 - ii. Adapting
 - iii. Calm down
 - iv. Friendly
 - v. Supportive

3. English learning experience

- a. Length
 - i. Primary school
 - ii. Secondary school
- b. Places of learning English
 - i. Extra classes

- ii. Language center
- iii. Official education at school
- iv. Family
- v. On one's own

c. Attitudes towards English learning in previous education

- i. English as my focus
- ii. English was my minor subject
 - I didn't care about English
 - English was for exam
 - Lack of foundation knowledge in English

4. Language proficiency

- a. English from high school
 - i. General English
 - Confident
 - High scores
 - ii. Grammar-oriented
 - iii. Lack of communicative practices
 - iv. Exercises to prepare for tests and exams
- b. English from university courses
 - i. Studying with English students
 - ii. Not useful
 - iii. General English
 - iv. Crowded
 - v. Ineffective
- c. English in EMI
 - i. Compared with General English
 - Complex sentence structures
 - Strange disciplinary vocabulary
 - "Falling from the sky"
 - Difficult
 - ii. Skills to be used
 - Listening
 - Speaking
 - Presentations
 - Debates
 - Role play
 - Writing
 - Essays
 - Briefs
 - Summaries
 - Reading
 - Long texts
 - Time consuming
 - Incomprehensible
- d. Self-evaluation of language proficiency
 - i. Positive

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- Confident
- Comfortable
- Adequate

ii. Negative

- Inadequate
- Zero/know nothing

5. Reasons for EMI

- a. Previous learning in EMI programmes
- b. Time saving
- c. Familiar concepts in English
- d. Available materials
- e. Lack of parallel translation
- f. More confidence in teaching in English than in Vietnamese
- g. Language improvement
- h. AC student identity
- i. Better job opportunities

B. Attitudes towards EMI policy

1. Introducing the policy

- a. How?
 - i. Annual university prospectus
 - ii. Advices from seniors
 - iii. Announcements from lecturers
 - iv. Textbooks
 - v. Syllabus
 - vi. Assessment
 - vii. Powerpoint slides
 - viii. Lecturers as models
- b. What?
 - i. English-only
 - ii. English and Vietnamese

2. Implementing the policy

- a. Negative attitudes towards English-only
 - i. Depressed
 - ii. Loss
 - iii. Sleep deprived
 - iv. Puzzled
- b. Modifications
 - i. Mixed use of Vietnamese and English
 - ii. Distributions of Vietnamese and English in classroom practices
 - Talk
 - Reading materials
 - Powerpoint slides

- Assessment
- c. Students' perceptions of the policy
 - i. 'Đạo dọc cho vui rùa đở' / English-only as invalid threats
 - ii. Context-dependent policy
 - Lecturers' personality
 - Subjects
 - Familiarity of the topics investigated
 - Pre-class preparation
 - Availability of materials
 - Time for preparation
 - Previous knowledge
- d. Lecturers' perceptions of the policy
 - i. Flexible policy
 - Subjects
 - Previous modules
 - Challenges of content knowledge
 - Time management
 - Groups of students
 - ii. Content vs. language
 - Identity as content experts
 - Content knowledge as the teaching focus
 - Assessing language
 - Presentations
 - Written assignments
 - Powerpoint slides

C. Classroom practices

1. Classroom organisation
 - a. Lecturer- whole class discussion
 - b. Monologue lectures with Powerpoint slides
 - c. Group presentations
 - d. Individual presentations
 - e. Group discussions
 - f. Games
 - g. Role play
 - h. Competitions
2. Challenges for classroom interaction
 - i. Language barrier
 - ii. Lack of participation
 - iii. Difficult topics for students to talk
 - iv. Passive attitudes
 - v. High amount of content knowledge
 - vi. Different student levels
 - vii. Unfamiliarity with critical thinking

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3. Teaching strategies

- a. Codeswitching
 - i. Explanation
 - ii. Translation
 - iii. Examples
 - iv. Supplementary reading materials
 - v. Feedback
- b. Assigning pre- and post- reading
- c. Providing guided questions
- d. Group preparation
- e. Using teaching aids
- f. Scaffolding
- g. Paraphrasing
- h. Email communicating for learning purposes
- i. Using sequencers
- j. Questioning

4. Learning strategies

- a. Reading before class
- b. Translating to Vietnamese
 - i. Google Translate
- c. Asking friends
- d. Emailing lecturers
- e. Working in groups
- f. Using Vietnamese resources
- g. Avoiding spontaneous interaction
 - i. Arranging questions for presenters
 - ii. Writing scripts for presentation
- h. Using textbooks
- i. Taking notes in Vietnamese
- j. Learning key words

5. Conceptualising English in classroom interactions

- a. ELF
 - i. Intelligible
 - ii. Communicative
 - iii. Accent
 - iv. Pronunciation
- b. Correction of English
 - i. Areas to be corrected
 - Grammar
 - Pronunciation
 - Spelling
 - Accent
 - ii. Attitudes towards English correction
 - It is needed in EMI
 - It is not my responsibility

- c. Roles of English
 - i. Tool
 - ii. Target
 - iii. Tool and target

FINAL CODING

A. Voices on the DoS

- 1. The DoS as a choice
 - a. Reasons for choosing the DoS
 - b. Feelings about studying EMI
- 2. Language preparation
 - a. Pre-university
 - b. Language support in university
- 3. Attitudes towards EMI
 - a. For
 - b. Against

B. EMI policy

- 1. Ways of introducing the policy
 - a. Explicit introduction
 - b. Implicit introduction
 - i. Lecturers as models
 - ii. Syllabus
 - iii. Teaching and learning materials
 - iv. Assessment
- 2. Factors influencing the policy implementation
 - a. Disciplinary features
 - b. Lecturers' identity as content experts
 - c. Students' initiatives

C. Language use in the DoS

- 1. Domain distributions of Vietnamese and English

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2. Functions of Vietnamese and English in lecturer talk

- a. Curriculum access
- b. Classroom management
- c. Interpersonal relations

D. Classroom practices

1. Classroom organisation

- a. Teacher-centred organisation
- b. Student-centred organisation
 - i. Group work
 - ii. Presentations
 - iii. Competitions and games

2. Teaching strategies

- a. Language adaptation
- b. Visual aids
- c. Signposting devices
- d. Pre- and post-class reading
- e. Non-threatening learning environment

Appendix 8 Participant information sheet

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET (FACE TO FACE)

Study Title: English-Medium Instruction (EMI) In Higher Education: A Case Study of an EMI Programme in Vietnam

Researcher: Phuong Le Hoang Ngo

Ethics number: 21085

Please read this information carefully before deciding to take part in this research. If you are happy to participate you will be asked to sign a consent form.

What is the research about?

EMI programmes have been widely implemented in different universities around the world in the last few decades. However, the majority of EMI research have focused on language ideologies/attitudes of stakeholders other than the real language practices that take place inside an EMI classroom.

Therefore, this study attempts to address the abovementioned gap and focuses on both ways of thinking – what lecturers and students think about EMI programmes, and ways of doing - what actually takes place between lecturers and students. To be specific, it will investigate the way lecturers and students co-construct the subject knowledge in an English-medium instruction classroom and how they conceptualise the role of English, compared to the role of Vietnamese and other languages, in that process of knowledge co-construction.

This is a PhD research project sponsored by the University of Southampton, and it is supposed to finish by the end of 2019. The researcher is a PhD student in Modern Languages, Faculty of Humanities, University of Southampton, UK. As a student financially funded by the Vietnamese Government Scholarship, the researcher hopes that this study will contribute to the National Foreign Language Project and be used as a reference for the policymakers on implementing EMI programmes in Vietnamese university.

This is a case study research investigating the issue in EMI programmes, using a qualitative approach. Data collection tools include: interviews, focus-groups and classroom observation. Other types such as field notes, document analysis will also be employed.

Why have I been chosen?

As a lecturer/ a student in an EMI programme, you are invited to take part in this study voluntarily. The researcher attempts to see the ways of thinking and ways of doing of both lecturers and students in the EMI settings, especially when all the participants in the teaching and learning process are native speakers of Vietnamese.

What will happen to me if I take part?

The study will be conducted in the first semester of the academic year 2016-2017 (September 2016 to January 2017).

a. The interviews: The interviews will be in either Vietnamese or English, or in whatever language that makes the participants comfortable. Each face-to-face interview will be audio- recorded. It is planned to last about 30 minutes, but the actual amount of time may vary more or less, depending on how willing the participants want to share about their EMI teaching experience.

b. Focus-groups: Students are invited to voluntarily join in one among SIX focus-group discussions, each of which consists of 3-5 students. The discussion will be in any languages that make participants comfortable. Each focus group is expected to last

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about 30-50 minutes. Student participants will talk about their experience in learning EMI subjects, their language learning history and their attitudes towards the classroom interaction between lecturers and students.

c. Classroom observation: Classroom observations will be conducted continuously in 6 weeks in 4 classes of 4 lecturers who participate in the semi-structured interviews. The researcher will video-record the classes.

- ➔ As a lecturer participant, you are expected to take part in 2 interviews (at the beginning and at the end of the course) and in 6 classroom observations.
- ➔ As a student participant, you are expected to take part in the focus-group (one time for one participant). You will also be observed and video-recorded in the classroom observations.

Are there any benefits in my taking part?

- As a lecturer participant, you will be able to reflect on your own teaching experience in EMI classes through the findings of this study. Hopefully, it will contribute to your own professional developments and help you to get a deep insight into your own teaching process.
- As a student participant, you help to contribute to improving the quality of EMI programmes not only in the current context of study, but also in other university settings in Vietnam. Additionally, by participating in this study, you are able to share your own opinions of the programmes with other students and reflect on your own process of knowledge learning in English.
- Furthermore, the findings of this study is hoped to address the existing gaps in the field, and thus, by taking part in the research, all the participants are actually contributing to the quality improvement of EMI programmes. The benefits are not only for their future teaching and learning, but also for other stakeholders' benefits.
-

Are there any risks involved?

Given all the abovementioned data collection tools, there is no considerable risk involved in taking part in this research.

Will my participation be confidential?

Complete anonymity is promised for all the participation in the questionnaire. For those who participate in interviews, focus groups and classroom observations, each participant will be assigned a code and will be referred by that code during the transcription and analysis. All information in the collected data that may reveal about participants' identity will be removed. All the research information will be kept confidentially and can only be shared with those who are already party to it. This kind of information may also be disclosed where the person providing the information *provides explicit consent*.

What happens if I change my mind?

Taking part in the study is voluntary, and the participants have the right to withdraw at any time without their legal rights being affected.

What happens if something goes wrong?

In the unlikely case of concern or complaint, you should contact Prof. Chris Janaway, the Chair of the Faculty Ethics Committee: 0044 23 80593424, email address: c.janaway@soton.ac.uk.

Where can I get more information?

In case you have any questions related to the study after reading this information sheet, please feel free to contact the researcher at 0084 914 478 478, or plhn2g11@soton.ac.uk

Appendix 9 Consent form

CONSENT FORM

Study title: English-Medium Instruction (EMI) Higher Education: A Case Study of an EMI programme in Vietnam

Researcher name: PHUONG LE HOANG NGO

Staff/Student number: 25213822

ERGO reference number: 21085

Please initial the box(es) if you agree with the statement(s):

I have read and understood the information sheet and have
had the opportunity to ask questions about the study.

I agree to take part in this research project and agree for my data to be
used for the purpose of this study:

I understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any
time without my legal rights being affected

Data Protection

I understand that information collected about me during my participation in this study will be stored on a password protected computer and that this information will only be used for the purpose of this study. All files containing any personal data will be made anonymous.

Name of participant (print name).....

Signature of participant.....

Date.....

Appendix 10 The BA Programme in International Studies of the DoS

UNIVERSITY OF [...]
AUTONOMOUS COLLEGE

The socialist republic of Vietnam
Independence – Freedom - Happiness
-----*-----

PROGRAMME SPECIFICATION

Programme: Credit based academic programme in International Studies

Level: BA

Mode of study: Full time

Awarding institution: Autonomous College

Duration: 4 years

Entry requirement: according to the general regulation of the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training

Course structure: 138-140 credits (not including the Physical education (5 units), and Military Training (165 periods).

a. General knowledge modules: 49 credits

Theories of politics	10 credits
Natural sciences	07 credits
Social sciences	10 credits
Humanities	04 credits
English	18 credits

b. Specialized knowledge modules: 89-91 credits

General knowledge of specialized modules	14 credits
Fundamental knowledge of specialized modules	19 credits
Specialized knowledge modules	44-46 credits
Final year – internship	05 credits
Dissertation (or equivalent modules)	07 credits

List of modules:

No.	Module code	Module name	No. of credits
1	2	3	4
A		GENERAL KNOWLEDGE	51
I		Theories of politics	10
1	LCT1012	Philosophy of marxism and Leninism1	2
	LCT1063	Philosophy of marxism and Leninism 2	3
2	LCT1022	Ho Chi Minh's ideology	2
3	LCT1033	History of Vietnamese communist party	3
II		Natural sciences	07
		Compulsory	07
4	KTN1013	Basic IT	3
5	KTN1022	The environments and human beings	2
6	KTN1032	Social statistics	2
		Social sciences	10
		Compulsory	8
7	KXH1012	Vietnamese	2
8	KXH1022	Contrastive linguistics	2
9	KXH1042	The fundamentals of linguistics	2

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10	KXH1072	Research methods	2
		Optional	2/4
11	ANH2062	Stylistics	2
12	QTH1062	Sociolinguistics	2
		Humanities	04
		Compulsory	4
13	KNQ1012	The history of world civilization	2
14	KNV1022	The fundamentals of Vietnamese culture	2
IV		Fundamentals of foreign language	18
		Compulsory	
15	NNQ1012	Listening 1	2
16	NNQ1022	Speaking 1	2
17	NNQ1032	Reading 1	2
18	NNQ1042	Writing 1	2
19	NNQ1052	Phonetics	2
20	NNQ1062	Listening 2	2
21	NNQ1072	Speaking 2	2
22	NNQ1082	Reading 2	2
23	NNQ1092	Writing 2	2
	1	Physical education	5
	1	Military education	6 tuần
B	2	SPECIALISED KNOWLEDGE FOR AMERICAN STUDIES	89
VII	QTH 2	General knowledge	14
		Compulsory	6
26	VNH2012	An introduction to regional studies	2
27	QTH2022	Theories of global politics	2
28	QTH2032	An introduction to nationalism	2
		Optional	8/18
29	QTH2042	An introduction to economics	2
30	VNH2042	An introduction to the study of society	2
31	QTH2062	Geopolitics	2
32	VNH3012	The history of Vietnam	2
33	QTH2082	The institution of global politics	2
34	QTH2092	Global politics	2
35	QTH2102	Principles of security and cooperation after the Cold War	2
36	QTH2112	The history of Vietnamese foreign affairs	2
37	QTH2122	Foreign policies in the time of Renovation	2
VIII	QTH3	Fundamental knowledge	19
		Compulsory	15
38	QTH3013	The history of international relations	3
39	QTH3022	The history of Vietnamese international relations	2
40	QTH3032	International economics	2
41	QTH3042	Vietnamese foreign trade	2
42	QTH3052	International Law	2
43	QTH3062	Vietnamese Law	2
44	ANH3052	Intercultural studies	2

		Optional	4/18
45	QTH3082	Research on international relations	2
46	ANHA112	Document analysis	2
47	ANH4242	Relationship and communication	2
48	QTH3112	Economic diplomacy	2
49	QTH3122	International mass media	2
50	QTH3132	International law of conflict resolution	2
51	QTH3142	International law of economics	2
52	QTH3152	International Relations of Asia-Pacific Region	2
53	QTH3162	ASEAN	2
IX	QTH 4	Specialized knowledge of American Studies	44
	QTA 4	EAP	24
		Compulsory	16
54	QTH4012	Listening 3	2
55	QTH4022	Speaking 3	2
56	QTH4032	Reading 3	2
57	QTH4042	Writing 3	2
58	QTH4052	Listening 4	2
59	QTH4062	Speaking 4	2
60	QTH4072	Reading 4	2
61	QTH4082	Writing 4	2
		Optional (Choose either Category A or Category B)	8/20
		Category A	8/8
62	QTH4092	Listening 5	2
63	QTH4102	Speaking 5	2
64	QTH4112	Reading5	2
65	QTH122	Writing 5	2
		Category B	8/12
66	QTH4132	English for Tourism	2
67	QTH4142	English for Environment	2
68	QTH4152	English for Trade	2
69	QTH4162	English for Law	2
70	QTH4172	English for Administration	2
71	QTH4182	English for Economics	2
		American Studies	20
		Compulsory	18
72	QTHH012	The foundation of the U.S	2
73	QTHH022	An introduction to American Studies	2
74	QTHH032	U.S government	2
75	QTHH042	U.S population and economics	2
76	QTHH052	Socio-cultural perspectives of the U.S	2
77	QTHH062	Vietnam-U. S relations	2
78	QTHH072	The U.S foreign policies	2
79	ANH3032	American literature 1	2
80	QTHH093	U.S in global context	2
		Optional	2/6
81	QTHH103	U.S culture and arts	2
82	QTHH112	Research on Culture and Literature	2
83	QTHH122	U.S religions	2

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84	QTHH135	Internship	5
		Dissertation and equivalent modules	7
		Equivalent modules	
85	ANHA023	American literature 2 (advanced)	(3)
86	QTHH152	Ethnic identity and U.S population problems	(2)
87	QTHH162	U.S regional culture	(2)
88	QTHHTN7	Dissertation	7
		Total credit	138
C	2	SPECIALISED KNOWLEDGE FOR INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS	91
VII	QTH 2	General knowledge	14
		Compulsory	6
26	VNH2012	An introduction to regional studies	2
27	QTH2022	Theories of global politics	2
28	QTH2032	An introduction to nationalism	2
		Tự chọn:	8/12
29	VNH2042	An introduction to the study of society	2
30	VNH3012	The history of Vietnam	2
31	QTH2062	Geopolitics	2
32	QTH2092	Global politics	2
33	QTH2112	The history of Vietnamese foreign affairs	2
34	QTH2122	Foreign policies in the time of Renovation	2
VIII	QTH3	Fundamental knowledge	19
		Compulsory	15
35	QTH3013	The history of international relations	3
36	QTH3022	The history of Vietnamese international relations	2
37	QTH3032	International economics	2
38	QTH3042	Vietnamese foreign trade	2
39	QTH3052	International Law	2
40	QTH3062	Vietnamese Law	2
41	ANH3052	Intercultural studies	2
		Optional	4/6
42	QTH3082	Research on international relations	2
43	ANHA112	Document analysis	2
44	ANH4242	Relationship and communication	2
IX	QTH 4	Specialized knowledge of International Relations	46
	QTA 4	EAP	24
		Compulsory	16
45	QTH4012	Listening 3	2
46	QTH4022	Speaking 3	2
47	QTH4032	Reading 3	2
48	QTH4042	Writing 3	2
49	QTH4052	Listening 4	2
50	QTH4062	Speaking 4	2
51	QTH4072	Reading 4	2
52	QTH4082	Writing 4	2
		Optional (Choose either Category A or Category B)	8/18
		Category A	8/8

53	QTH4092	Listening 5	2
54	QTH4102	Speaking 5	2
55	QTH4112	Reading 5	2
56	QTH4122	Writing 5	2
	Category B		8/10
57	QTH4162	English for Law	2
58	QTH4182	English for Economics	2
59	QTH4192	English for Politics	2
60	QTH4202	English for Diplomacy	2
61	QTH4212	English for Mass Media	2
	<i>International Relations</i>		22
	Compulsory		20
62	QTH2082	The institution of global politics The history of Vietnam	2
63	QTH2102	Principles of security and cooperation after the Cold War	2
64	QTH3152	International Relations of Asia-Pacific Region	2
65	QTH3162	ASEAN	2
66	QTHH072	The history of Vietnamese foreign affairs	2
67	QTHQ012	International political economy	2
68	QTHQ022	Global issues	2
69	QTHQ032	International mass media	2
70	QTHQ042	The relations of big countries after Cold War	2
71	QTHQ052	Some issues about European politics	2
	Optional		2/6
72	QTH3142	International law of economics	2
73	QTH3112	Economic diplomacy	2
74	QTH3132	International law of conflict resolution	2
75	QTHQ065	Internship	5
	Dissertation and equivalent modules		7
	Equivalent modules		
76	QTHQ072	Peace and Conflict in international relations	(3)
77	QTHQ082	Power and Order in international relations	(2)
78	QTHH062	Vietnam – U.S relations	(2)
79	QTHQTN7	Dissertation	7
	Total credit		139

Appendix 11 Extract of classroom recordings – Sample 1 CR.TIF.02 - 17

(This is a six-minute extract of classroom interaction where Tiffany used white board to support her eliciting technique with students. This is used as an example of what is discussed in Extract 7.5 and Figure 7.3, Section 7.2, page 124-125)

17 Tiffany ok (.) now let's give me some words (.) now let's start from this group
[Teacher pointed to the Group 5]

18 Anne we need to eat and drink

19 Tiffany so you need food and drink (.) hei (.)
[Teacher wrote Anne's answer on the board]

20 Tiffany ok? so this group

21 SG1 family

22 Tiffany ok (.) family *[Teacher wrote answer on the board]*

23 this one? *[T pointed at the next group]*

24 SG2 we need jobs

25 Tiffany yes we need jobs
[S enthusiastically raised their hands and said "Cô cô"]

26 Natalie habitat

27 Tiffany habitat means the environment? =

28 Natalie =yes
[Teacher wrote the answer on the board]

29 Tiffany this one *[T pointed at G7]*

30 SG7 dq {yes} money

31 Tiffany money
*[Teacher wrote on the board
 Students laughed
 Hands still up enthusiastically]*

32 Tiffany next? *[T pointed at G3]*

33 Jemma electric

34 Tiffany electricity
*[Teacher wrote on the board
 Hands still up enthusiastically]*

35 Tiffany and that one?
T pointed at group 4

36 SG4 medicine

37 Tiffany what? =

38 SG4 =medicine

39 Ssx =medicine *[in chorus]*

40 Tiffany ah medicine
*[Teacher wrote on the board
 S enthusiastically raised their hands and said "Cô cô"]*

41 Daisy *ê đưa tay lên mi* {raise your hand}

42 Mia *tùtù dã* {slow down}

43 Tiffany this one

44 Birdy sleeping

45 Tiffany what?

46 Birdy sleeping

47 Tiffany we need sleep (.) ah (.)
[Student laughed]
S enthusiastically raised their hands and said "Cô cô"

48 Tiffany what else?

49 Natalie *dạ* {yes} love

50 Tiffany ah love (.) family and love
[Teacher wrote on the board]

51 Tiffany ok (.) this group?

52 Jemma natural resources

53 Tiffany ah (.) natural resources (.) environment and natural resources
[Teacher wrote the answer next to the previous answer "environment" on the board]

54 Daisy *cô oi* (.) *đây cô* {miss (.) here miss}
[Daisy shouted and raised her hand high]

55 Tiffany that one?

56 SG4 technology

57 Tiffany technology (.)
[Teacher wrote on the board]
S enthusiastically raised their hands]

58 Tiffany and this one

59 Beth we need healthy

60 Tiffany health? (.) we need health

61 Mia *cô không thèm nhìn bên này này* {you don't bother to look at this side}
[Teacher wrote on the board]
S still enthusiastically raised their hands]

62 Daisy *cô oi* {miss}

63 Sx *cô oi bên này này* {miss this side}

64 Tiffany that one?

65 Daisy *[răng cô] gọi bên nớ không rúá?* {why do you just pick that side?}

66 SG4 [clothes]

67 Tiffany hah?

68 SG4 clothes

69 Tiffany ah you need clothes
[Teacher wrote on the board]
S chatted in Vietnamese]

70 Tiffany that one?

71 SG7 transportation

72 Tiffany ah transportation

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[Teacher wrote on the board]

73 Birdy *Cô không thương em à? {don't you love me Miss}*
[hand raised and voices shouted at the same time]

74 Mia *cô cô cô cô {Miss Miss Miss Miss}*
[Birdy and Mia were in the same group]

75 Tiffany now this one
[T pointed at Birdy and Mia's group]

76 Birdy freedom

77 Tiffany freedom

[Teacher wrote on the board]

78 Jemma *cô oi (.) cô {Miss (.) Miss}*
[pointed at Jemma]

79 Tiffany this one?

80 Jemma accommodation

81 Tiffany accommodation

[Teacher wrote on the board]

82 Tiffany this one?

83 SG4 air

84 Tiffany what?

85 SG\$ ai::::r

86 Tiffany fresh fresh air? (.) ok (.)

[Teacher wrote on the board]

87 Tiffany anything else?

88 SG3 personal relations

[Teacher wrote on the board]

89 Tiffany and?

90 SG4 water source

91 Tiffany ah (.) water
[Teacher tried to locate where to write the word "water" and then she pointed at "natural resources"]

92 Tiffany it should be here (.) hah (.) natural resources (.) water (.) including (.) what else? (5)

93 anything else? (3)

94 Birdy wifi

95 Daisy [yah wifi]

96 Tiffany [@ ok wifi]

97 Ss @@@@
[Teacher wrote on the board]

98 Tiffany in in in the life of the twenty first century (.) the basic need will be wife (.) ok (.) anything else? (4)

99 anything else? (3)
[Teacher pointed at Halle]

100 Halle human rights

101 Tiffany ah human rights (.) freedom is human rights (.) hah
[Teacher wrote on the board as she spoke]

102 Thomas welfare

103 Tiffany hah?

104 Thomas welfare

105 Tiffany and welfare (.) ah hah (.) ok (.)
[Teacher looked for a suitable place to write "welfare"]

106 welfare (.) could be here
[Teacher wrote on the board]

107 welfare (.) o::r social protection (.) hah? (.) good idea

108 Halle social recognition

109 Tiffany a:::h (.) ok (.) it can also be::: social recognition
[Teacher wrote on the board as she spoke]

110 or (.) social position (2) everyone needs to be recognised (1.5) and have a certain power

111 or certain position in life (.) right? (.) anything else?

112 Daisy no

113 Sx no::

114 Tiffany (2) now we're finishing the list?

115 Birdy ye:::s

116 Tiffany ok (.) so if you look at this (.) these are the lists (.) hah (.) you guys got (.) when you came to the basic needs (.) of human (.) ah (.) fo::r (.) their own life (.) so when you look into these needs (.) hm (.) ahm (.) you can see that (.) there are some conflicting needs in the list (4) can anyone see any conflicts? among these needs? (5) can anyone recognise any conflicting needs (.) on the list? (10)can you see any conflicting needs?

[T wrote "conflicting needs" on the board and then waited for the answer from students (5) then pointed at Tracy]

Appendix 12 Extract of classroom recordings – Sample 2 CR.TIF.04 - 120

120 Tiffany ah a (.) the DOC (.) good (.)
121 the two thousand and two (.) declaration on the conduct (.) of parties on South China Sea
(.)
123 *đây được gọi là (.) các em biết cái cụm từ này là (.) các em phải phân biệt là DOC và COC*
124 *hah (.) "DOC" là tuyên bố về ứng xử của các bên trên biển đông (.) right? (.) và chúng ta có*
125 *ah (.) công ước về luật biển (.) của liên hiệp quốc năm 1982 (.) UNCLOS*
126 *và tiếp theo chúng ta có là (.)*
127 *asean china talks (.) on code of conduct (.) in the south china sea (.) đó là (.) cái cụm từ*
128 *này là gì (.) nó khác gì với là "DOC"? (.) "COC" với "DOC" (.) mọi người cần phải phân biệt*
129 *hai cái khái niệm này nghe (.)*

130 Sx xxx

131 Tiffany @@@ not really (.) of course DOC involves China (.) and COC also (.) hah (.)
132 the DOC (.) achieved in 2002 (.) ok? (.) but DOC has not achieved yet (.) they are in
133 progress (.) the DOC (.) this is what they are trying to achieve (.) alright? (.)
134 and COC (.) in Vietnamese
135 *bộ quy tắc ứng xử trên biển đông (.) cái này là bộ quy tắc ứng xử (.) chứ không phải là*
136 *tuyên bố về ứng xử nghe (.) cái này nó mang tính gắn kết nhiều hơn (1.5) right (.) ahm (.)*

137 Anne *như rúa là "COC" là đang*

138 Tiffany COC is in progress

139 Linda *đang đàm phán*

140 Tiffany right (.) still in progress (.)
141 and DOC was achieved in 2002 (.) alright?
142 (3.5) so (.) with this question (.) with this question i want to tell you guys one more point
(.) ah (.)
144 if i ask you guys (2.5) ah do you think ASEAN was happy (.)when the Phillipines (.) submits
145 the case (.) to the international court (2) after ASEAN achieved (.) the "DOC" with China?
146 (3) in your opinion?
147 (2) do you think ASEAN (.) as a regional group (.) was happy (.) when Philippines itself (.)
148 submitted the case to the international court (.) after achieving (.) after ASEAN (.)
149 together achieved the "DOC" with China?
150 (5.5) and why?
151 (7) what do you think? (.) were they happy? (1.5) did they welcome the case? (2.5) did
152 ASEAN welcome the case or not (.) and why?
153 (14)
154 ok? (.)

155 Mia *thưa cô em nghĩ là (.) asean sẽ cảm thấy không vui bởi vì là*

156 Tiffany *not happy? (.) uh hum*

157 Mia *bởi vì là ASEAN cố gắng xây dựng một cộng đồng lớn mạnh và bản thân nó =*

158 Tiffany *=can you speak louder*

159 Mia *tức là ASEAN hy vọng chính bản thân nó có thể giải quyết được tất cả các vấn đề xảy ra*
160 *bên trong nó (.) và nó không muốn một nước trong đây đi kiện đến tòa án quốc tế (.) bởi vì*
161 *điều đấy chứng tỏ là bộ máy làm việc của nó không được tốt (.) vì vậy điều đó*
162 *chứng tỏ nó yếu*

163 Tiffany ah (.) to some extent (.) but particularly xxx
[The school bell rang]
164 but actually you get one good mark huh

164 Tiffany if you remember (.) if you remember the slides of ASEAN ways (.) huh (.) there are four
165 principles in ASEAN ways
166 one of the first ones is the principle of non interference (.) and what is it (.) what is the
167 implication of non interference (.) in (.) conflict resolutions? (2) ok? (.) what does the
168 principle of non-interference tell (.) about how ASEAN tries to solve their problems? (.)
169 it says that (.) when ASEAN (.) saw a conflict (.) or dispute (.) it does not rely on (.) the legal
170 means (.) legal foundation (.) hah (.) but rather (.) it tries to rely more on informal
171 meetings (.) and trust building (.) measures (3) alright? (.)
172 so ASEAN will (.) design (.) trying to build ah TRUST with China (.) with the DOC
173 achievement (.) agreement (.) alright? (.)
174 and when the Philippines itself (.) submits the case to:: the international court (.) they are
175 actually go against (.) the ASEAN ways (.)
176 they are based on (.) the legal means (.) to solve the problems (1.5) but ASEAN (.) doesn't
177 work that way (.)
178 ASEAN doesn't want to base on international convention and laws (.) but trying to talk
179 together (.) alright? (.) and building trust among the members (.) to solve the problems (.)
180 so these are two different approaches (.) in ASEAN (.)
181 alright? (.)
182 so that's why ASEAN (.) when (.) ASEAN achieved the DOC in 2002 (.) and after that (.)
183 Philippines itself (.) unilaterally submit the case to the international court (.) it goes
184 against the non interference principle in ASEAN (3)
185 is that clear for you guys? (3)

Appendix 13 Sample materials

[Sample materials to be used for EMI teacher training workshops]

TOPIC: LANGUAGE AWARENESS

Activity: A REFLECTION ON YOUR LANGUAGE CHOICES

Please work in group of three or four.

Please remember that there are no right or wrong answers to the following questions.

You are going to read some extracts from previous studies on lecturers' beliefs of language use in EMI settings. These extracts were collected through interviews with lecturers in different universities around the world, where EMI teaching was introduced to [predominantly] home students sharing the same L1.

What do you think of these extracts? Do you agree or disagree with each teacher? Have you ever found yourself in similar situations?

What is your own opinion of using Vietnamese (or any other L1 languages of your students) in your EMI class?

Extract 1 – adopted from Dafouz, Hüttner, and Smit (2016)

“I don't allow my students to talk to me in Spanish in class, other teachers do. Mine talk to me in English in the corridor, during office hours. If it's a group in English, it is in English. If I was the only one who spoke English, how would they improve”

(collected in a university in Spain)

Extract 2 – adopted from Griffiths (2013)

“we get a little, you know, (Kang & Park) multi-language here, but it's basically taught in English because of the international students, then I switch to Norwegian if I need to more on an individual basis”

(collected in a university in Norway)

Extract 3 – adopted from Karakas (2016)

“I deliver my lectures mainly in Turkish but frequent switches to English for the key terminology or by inserting English words and phrases into my sentences. I don't feel shame for this in the slightest degree. This way, I can use all the richness of Turkish [...] If this linguistic resource is not allowed in classes, I feel like a bird with a broken wing”

<p style="text-align: right; margin: 0;">(collected in a university in Turkey)</p>
<p>Extract 4 – adopted from Ngo (2019)</p> <p style="margin-left: 20px;">“Vietnamese plays a significant role, and I am Vietnamese. I told my students that it was lucky that I was also a Vietnamese person, because what if I were a foreigner who only spoke English? How could they understand the contents?”</p>
<p style="text-align: right; margin: 0;">(collected in a university in Vietnam)</p>

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