Education in the Asia-Pacific Region: Issues, Concerns and Prospects 68

Min Pham
Jenny Barnett *Editors*

English Medium Instruction Practices in Vietnamese Universities

Institutional, Practitioner and Student Perspectives

ASIA-PACIFIC EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH ASSOCIATION

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Min Pham · Jenny Barnett
Editors

English Medium Instruction Practices in Vietnamese Universities

Institutional, Practitioner and Student Perspectives

Editors
Min Pham
University of South Australia
Adelaide, SA, Australia

Jenny Barnett
University of South Australia
Adelaide, SA, Australia

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The idea for this book originated with our dear colleague and friend, Dr. Doan Ba Ngoc, who sadly passed on before writing began.
It is dedicated to him with our great respect and appreciation, and trusting that it fulfils his intentions.

Foreword

Two decades into the twenty-first century, it is fair to say that the internationalisation of higher education and, concurrently, the use of English as a medium of instruction is an indisputable worldwide reality. In this respect, Vietnam is no exception. However, as this timely volume edited by Min Pham and Jenny Barnett lucidly portrays, the national and local conditions wherein Vietnamese practitioners, students and institutional management operate are markedly (and excitingly!) different to other world settings.

To explore comprehensively as well as critically such educational realities, the first and last chapters of this volume are framed against ROAD-MAPPING, the acronym for a conceptual model designed to examine broadly English-medium education in multilingual university settings—or EMEMUS in short (see Dafouz & Smit, 2016, 2020). As one of the authors of the ROAD-MAPPING framework, it is a pleasure for me to see how our model proves relevant and useful in educational sites far removed from our own European context, and how, at the same time, ROAD-MAPPING helps to provide a well-defined account of the Vietnamese EMEMUS experiences without losing sight of any of its national and local idiosyncrasies.

Having been involved in investigating EMEMUS for over twenty years now, and in reviewing countless articles, books, and reports, I am delighted to say that this book makes a valuable contribution to the field. Both the editors and the contributors have done an excellent job in putting together a very solid and mature volume which will be of great help to those directly involved in the Vietnamese setting and also to others in distinct environments seeking to find sensible and pedagogically oriented answers.

Of the 16 chapters that conform the book, chapter two sets the scene for EMEMUS across the Vietnamese nation and uses the six ROAD-MAPPING dimensions (i.e. Roles of English, Academic Disciplines, Language Management, Agents, Practices and Processes and Internationalisation and Glocalisation) to organise the complex and dynamic reality of the said country. The closing chapter, in turn, revisits the six dimensions one by one against the studies included in the book and brings together key themes from across the different levels examined, reminding us, insistently, that local adaptations are always needed to make EMEMUS effective.

Structurally, the editors adopt three different perspectives, starting off at the national and institutional level, followed by the practitioner level and ending with the student perspective. The tripartite structure, well-balanced in terms of the number of chapters for each part, is deemed effective in two ways. Firstly, it provides a top-down approach that enables the newcomer to the Vietnamese context (like myself) to understand to what extent the macro-level policies explained in the opening chapters impact (or not) the meso-level policies and how these, in turn, influence (or not) the micro-level practices and the student and faculty views described in other chapters. Secondly, such tripartite configuration can also be approached in a reverse order—from a bottom-up perspective—allowing those more familiarised with the topic or the Vietnamese setting to choose a particular chapter and delve deeper into it. If one adopts this bottom-up perspective, the book offers a multi-layered view of the notion of agency, for instance, which cuts across different chapters and levels, in order to help all agents engage in critical reflection and innovative action so that 'readiness' for EMEMUS—another key notion in this volume—can be achieved. Similarly, student views and voices are given substantial space in this book, with chapters examining how learner strategies play a part in EMEMUS, or how student agency needs to be aligned with faculty views and supported explicitly beyond concerns for English language proficiency.

One of the major differences I found in this book, when compared to other publications, is its wider scope of the EMEMUS label. In this respect, in the opening pages, the editors explicitly add the area of English Studies programs, where English is taught as an academic subject as well as where students are trained to be teachers of English. Although such a perspective may initially collide with a prototypical definition of EMEMUS which concerns mainly subjects other than English, I realise that by expanding the scope of the label, due respect is paid to the educational dimension of this phenomenon and to all the professionals involved. In other words, if we broaden the term EMEMUS to include English Studies—with its pedagogies, epistemologies and educational developers—we will be counting on a field of knowledge and group of key players who are essential in the EMEMUS agenda and who, surprisingly, are often absent in the equation. With this inclusive educational approach, I believe the editors do not anticipate institutions letting go of strategic and economic perspectives but they certainly do want such organisations to have a stronger commitment to educational perspectives and to support students and teachers in achieving the intended learning outcomes of their programs.

To close this foreword, I would like to highlight that this publication is highly recommended for *all* engaged in EMEMUS. For those with experience, innovative ideas and perspectives stemming from the Vietnamese setting can be found throughout the book to address seemingly well-known issues. On the other hand, for those new to EMEMUS, this work can be deemed a useful start to move forward in

English-medium education and, as the editors rightly claim, to do so with sufficient readiness.

Emma Dafouz
Department of English Studies
Universidad Complutense de Madrid
Madrid, Spain
edafouz@filol.ucm.es

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Emma Dafouz is an associate professor in the Department of English Studies at Complutense University of Madrid (UCM), Spain. Since the 2000s her research deals with understanding the roles of language in education, in CLIL programs, and in English-medium higher education. She served as Advisor for Curricular Internationalization at her university from 2014–2019 and developed the Plan for Internationalization at UCM. At present Dr. Dafouz is Chair of the Spanish Regional Group of ICLHE as well as principal investigator of the international project known as SHIFT, funded by the Spanish Government, which examines students' development of disciplinary literacies in English-taught business programs.

Series Editor's Introduction

This edited book by Min Pham and Jenny Barnett, on *English Medium Instruction Practices in Vietnamese Universities,* is the latest volume to be published in the long-standing Springer Book Series 'Education in the Asia-Pacific Region: Issues, Concerns and Prospects'. The first book in this Springer international series was published 20 years ago, in 2002, this book by Pham and Barnett being the 68th volume to be published to date.

English Medium Instruction Practices in Vietnamese Universities provides a clear and comprehensive overview of EMI theory and practice in Vietnam.

The sixteen chapters in the book are organised into three parts. Part One provides institutional perspectives on English Medium Instruction (EMI) while parts Two and Three provide, respectively, Practitioner and Student Perspectives on EMI. The various chapters are strongly evidence and real-life experience based, being written by 26 leading researchers, policy makers and/or practitioners, each of whom have extensive, in-depth knowledge and experience of education in universities in Vietnam, with particular reference to EMI theory and practice.

The book provides a road map of EMI in Vietnamese universities. It examines challenges of English medium instruction at the university level, and comprehensively surveys important considerations in EMI such as classroom practices and approaches in action, areas of job satisfaction (and dissatisfaction) among EMI teachers in Vietnamese universities, content and language integrated learning perspectives, assessment practices in EMI and decision-making processes in undergraduate EMI programmes.

As the editors of this important volume themselves point out, 'together the various chapters illustrate management, curricular and pedagogical practices in action, drawing on a range of different tertiary contexts and disciplines'. The book seeks to understand the complex interactions between pedagogical innovations and the context into which they are introducted.

In terms of the Springer Book Series in which this volume is published, the various topics dealt with in the series are wide ranging and varied in coverage, with

an emphasis on cutting edge developments, best practices and education innovations for development. Topics examined in the series include: environmental education and education for sustainable development; the interaction between technology and education; the reform of primary, secondary and teacher education; innovative approaches to education assessment; alternative education; most effective ways to achieve quality and highly relevant education for all; active ageing through active learning; case studies of education and schooling systems in various countries in the region; cross country and cross cultural studies of education and schooling; and the sociology of teachers as an occupational group, to mention just a few. More information about the book series is available at http://www.springer.com/series/5888.

All volumes in the series aim to meet the interests and priorities of a diverse education audience including researchers, policy makers and practitioners; tertiary students; teachers at all levels within education systems; and members of the public who are interested in better understanding cutting edge developments in education and schooling in Asia-Pacific.

The main reason why this series has been devoted exclusively to examining various aspects of education and schooling in the Asia-pacific region is that this is a particularly challenging and dynamic region. It is renowned for its size, diversity and complexity, whether it be geographical, socio-economic, cultural, political or developmental. Education and schooling in countries throughout the region impact on every aspect of people's lives, including employment, labour force considerations, education and training, cultural orientation and attitudes and values. Asia and the Pacific is home to some 63% of the world's population of 7 Billion. Countries with the largest populations (China, 1.4 Billion; India, 1.3 Billion) and the most rapidly growing mega-cities are to be found in the region, as are countries with relatively small populations (Bhutan, 755,000; the island of Niue, 1,600).

Levels of economic and socio-political development vary widely, with some of the richest countries (such as Japan) and some of the poorest countries on earth (such as Bangladesh). Asia contains the largest number of poor of any region in the world, the incidence of those living below the poverty line remaining as high as 40 per cent in some countries in Asia. At the same time many countries in Asia are experiencing a period of great economic growth and social development. However, inclusive growth remains elusive, as does growth that is sustainable and does not destroy the quality of the environment. The growing prominence of Asian economies and corporations, together with globalisation and technological innovation, are leading to long-term changes in trade, business and labour markets, to the sociology of populations within (and between) countries. There is a rebalancing of power, centred on Asia and the Pacific region, with the Asian Development Bank in Manila declaring that the twenty-first century will be 'the Century of Asia-Pacific'.

I know from comprehensive feedback received from numerous education researchers, policy makers and practitioners, worldwide, that this book series makes a useful contribution to knowledge sharing about cutting edge developments concerning education and schooling in Asia-Pacific.

Any readers of this or other volumes in the series who have an idea for writing or co-writing their own book (or editing/co-editing a book), on any aspect of education and/or schooling, relevant to the region, are enthusiastically encouraged to approach the series editor either direct, or through Springer, to publish their own volume in the series. We are always willing to assist prospective authors shape their manuscripts in ways that make them suitable for publication.

March 2022

Rupert Maclean
Schools of Education
University of Tasmania
Hobart, Australia

RMIT University
Melbourne, Australia

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Editors and Contributors

About the Editors

Min Pham is a lecturer in language education at the University of South Australia. He has completed graduate studies in TESOL and digital education and a Ph.D. in International Studies from the University of South Australia. Min Pham has extensive experience in teaching English as an additional language/dialect in various higher education institutions. His main research interests concern English as medium of instruction, content and language integrated learning, enabling pedagogies and digital technology. He is also experienced in collaborating with international colleagues on research projects relating to EMI and the use of human technology in teaching English.

Jenny Barnett worked for 25 years in the School of Education, University of South Australia, Adelaide. She taught undergraduate and postgraduate courses in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), and supervised doctoral students addressing issues in multilingual learning environments. Until recently, her research and consultancy work focused on the learning and teaching of students in Australia for whom English is an additional language or dialect (EALD), with an emphasis on their learning across the curriculum. This focus has subsequently shifted to English medium education in the Asia-Pacific region more broadly, and particularly in higher education.

Contributors

Marta Aguilar-Pérez Escola Tècnica Superior Enginyeria Industrial de Barcelona (ETSEIB), Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya, Barcelona, Spain

Jenny Barnett University of South Australia, Adelaide, SA, Australia

Anne Burns Curtin University, Perth, Western Australia, Australia;
Aston University, Birmingham, UK

Alice Chik School of Education, Macquarie University, Sydney, NSW, Australia

Thi Ngoc Diep Hoang Vietnam Maritime University, Haiphong, Vietnam

Thu Ba Hoang Thuongmai University, Ha Noi, Vietnam

Tue Hoang Hanoi University of Industry, Bac Tu Liem, Hanoi, Vietnam

Andy Kirkpatrick Griffith University, Brisbane, Australia

Vo Thi Khanh Linh Nha Trang National College of Pedagogy, Nha Trang, Vietnam

Thi Quynh Huong Luu Vietnam Maritime University, Haiphong, Vietnam

Ha-Anh Thi Nguyen School of Education, Macquarie University, 29 Wally's Walk, Balaclava Road, Sydney, NSW, 2109 Australia;
Hanoi Pedagogical University 2, Vinh Phuc, Vietnam

Khac Nghia Nguyen Thuongmai University, Ha Noi, Vietnam

Min Pham University of South Australia, Adelaide, SA, Australia

Thi To Loan Pham Thuongmai University, Ha Noi, Vietnam

Toan Pham University of South Australia, Magill, SA, Australia

Ngo Dinh Thanh Department of Electrical Engineering, University of Science and Technology—University of Da Nang, Da Nang, Vietnam

Nguyen Thi Anh Thu University of Da Nang—University of Science and Technology, Da Nang, Vietnam

Nguyen Thi Kim Thoa Academy English Center, Da Nang, Vietnam

Dinh Thuy Vy Academy English Center, Da Nang, Vietnam

Duyen Tran Hanoi University of Industry, Bac Tu Liem, Hanoi, Vietnam

Nguyen Thi Tu Trinh University of Da Nang—University of Science and Technology, Da Nang, Vietnam

Pham Van Tuan University of Da Nang—University of Science and Technology, Da Nang, Vietnam

Ho Vu Khue Ngoc University of Da Nang—University of Foreign Languages Studies, Da Nang, Vietnam

Stuart Woodcock School of Education and Professional Studies, Griffith University, Brisbane, QLD, Australia

Abbreviations

AP	Advanced Program
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EFL	English as Foreign Language
EHEA	European Higher Education Area
EME	English Medium Education
EMEMUS	English-Medium Education in Multilingual University Settings
EMI	English Medium instruction
EOI	English Only Instruction
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
HE	Higher Education
HEI	Higher Education Institution
HERA	Higher Education Reform Agenda
HOT	Higher Order Thinking
HQP	High Quality Program
ICC	Intercultural Communication Competence
ICLHE	Integrating Content and Language in Higher Education
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
JP	Joint Program
LOT	Low Order Thinking
MOET	Ministry of Education and Training
PBL	Project-Based Learning
ROAD-MAPPING	Role of English, Academic Disciplines, (Language) Management, Agents, Practices and Processes, and Internationalisation and Glocalisation
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TOEIC	Test of English for International Communication
VMI	Vietnamese Medium Instruction

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Chapter 1
Perspectives on English Medium Instruction Practices in Vietnamese Universities: Introduction

Jenny Barnett and Min Pham

Abstract As an educational innovation, the English medium instruction (EMI) project in Vietnamese universities is dependent for its success on the quality of the instruction practices put in place. Consequently, this book takes the direction of moving forward with EMI—successfully achieving educational goals through EMI, enhancing student learning experiences and outcomes, and developing transformational EMI practices. To this end, institutional, practitioner and student perspectives are all brought into play, representative of the key stakeholders in the educational outcomes of the EMI project. This chapter begins by indicating the aims the book hopes to achieve as a contribution to the forward direction of EMI in Vietnamese universities. It then briefly reviews EMI as a pedagogical innovation internationally and in Vietnam, and outlines the types of undergraduate EMI offerings currently available in Vietnamese universities. There follows an explanation of the three part structure of the book—institutional, practitioner and student perspectives on EMI practices—and an overview of the chapters across the three parts.

Keywords English-medium instruction · EMI · Vietnam · Higher education

Much has been written about the challenges of English medium instruction (EMI) in higher education both internationally and in Vietnam, so this book looks to how such challenges have been understood and constructively addressed in particular contexts in the Vietnamese tertiary sector. Chapter 2 provides a detailed analysis of the complex picture of EMI in Vietnamese higher education generally, highlighting the range of actors and their different opportunities and capacities for enacting agency to move EMI forward educationally. Subsequently, the focus throughout the book is on how institutions, practitioners and students have engaged with the introduction of EMI, and what we can learn about moving forward educationally based on their experiences, reflections and actions within particular settings. The book thus acts on

J. Barnett (✉) · M. Pham
University of South Australia, Adelaide, SA, Australia
e-mail: jenny.barnett@unisa.edu.au

M. Pham
e-mail: min.pham@unisa.edu.au

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the call by Vu and Burns (2014) that studies of EMI 'generate evidence for good practice that can assist the development of effective EMI programs' (p. 24).

Together the chapters illustrate management, curricular and pedagogical practices in action, drawing on a range of different tertiary contexts and disciplines. All the authors have deep practical experience of EMI in their particular disciplines, not only as current EMI lecturers but often as previous graduate students studying overseas in English speaking environments.

1.1 Aims of the Book

We take seriously the importance of 'understanding the complex interactions between a pedagogical innovation and the context into which is it introduced' (Schweisfurth, 2015). EMI as a pedagogical innovation in Vietnamese universities is set within the broader context of internationalisation in South East Asia, and specifically within higher education. In Vietnamese universities, this context has exerted considerable pressure and has frequently resulted in the implementation of EMI in undergraduate programs without sufficient readiness in terms of planning and resourcing (Nguyen et al., 2017; Tri & Moskovsky, 2019). Consequently a key aim of this book is to understand how particular institutions, teachers and students have engaged with EMI and the implications for moving forward with EMI to develop transformational EMI practices and provide quality educational experiences and outcomes for students.

More broadly, the purpose of the book is to provide a resource for the successful implementation of EMI programs and courses in Vietnam and other Asian settings. To this end, the specific objectives are:

- to bring alive the realities of teaching and learning through EMI and options for moving forward educationally;
- to inform the constructive development of institutional EMI policies and practices;
- to illustrate valuable EMI practices for teachers and students; and
- to provide professional learning and support for lecturers engaging in EMI.

Macaro et al. (2018, p. 11) argue that the evolution of EMI 'should be research-led, not imposed top-down by market forces or by managerial imperatives [to] ensure that EMI would be of benefit to society at large and to the learners in particular'. Consequently, a further aim of this book is to contribute to the research-led evolution of EMI in Vietnamese higher education. We set the broad context in this chapter and the next, while subsequent chapters are grounded in the authors' lived experience. This encompasses a range of disciplines—from engineering to business—and a range of university settings—metropolitan and regional; early to late undergraduate coursework. The emphasis throughout is on finding ways of making EMI work as effectively as possible within particular local constraints, and within the particular type of program offered. The experiences and strategies represented in this volume also enable comparison and contrast with those in similar contexts across Asia or elsewhere.

1.2 EMI as a Pedagogical Innovation

EMI is commonly defined as 'the use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries where the first language (L1) of the majority of the population is not English' (Dearden, 2014, p. 4). Although many have reported this definition as excluding the study of English itself, we agree with Dearden's original definition that includes such study. English in Asian universities is taught as an accredited academic subject incorporating linguistics, literature and cultural studies, with all their associated conceptual content. It is also taught as a preliminary foundation for entry into EMI programs, in which case it may or may not be taught through EMI.

The focus in an EMI program is typically on achieving content-related learning outcomes, with English viewed solely as a tool for teaching (Airey, 2016), and with no explicit English language learning outcomes set out. Consequently, as Airey points out, EMI programs must be seen as very different from programs explicitly integrating content and language in higher education (ICLHE), where language learning is an assessable goal on a par with content achievement. Nevertheless there is often an implicit expectation on the part of policy makers, students and other stakeholders that there will indeed be some improvement in students' English language proficiency over the years of an EMI program.

The rise of EMI in Asian universities is a direct reflection of the place of English within a globalising and glocalising world, reflecting 'the rise in the geopolitical status of English as a lingua franca' (Walkinshaw et al. 2017, p. 1). Internationally, English has been promoted as a pathway to 'improve national competitiveness in a rapidly changing global market place' (Wedell, 2009, p. 15), while in the ASEAN region, English also means that citizens 'are able to communicate directly with one another and participate in the broader international communities' (ASEAN Secretariat, 2009, p. 3). In Vietnam, proficiency in English is seen as 'synonymous with economic growth and prosperity' (Le, 2019, p. 8), and the aim of EMI programs has been to 'promote international exchange, increase revenue, raise the quality and prestige of educational programs, and provide a well-qualified, bilingual workforce for Vietnam's rapidly-developing economy' (Nguyen et al., 2017, p. 37). Thus, EMI has an integral responsibility to society, while also being closely tied to university competiveness, prosperity and international engagement, as well as having direct implications for the students and staff who engage with it.

Despite the importance of English language and the phenomenal, perhaps inevitable, development of EMI, concerns have been raised about educational effectiveness, social equity and English hegemony. Educational effectiveness relates to how EMI impacts learners' acquisition and application of both content knowledge and English language competence. The findings internationally have been unclear, with Macaro et al. (2018) stressing that conclusive proof is required. As elsewhere, such proof is not yet available in the context of Vietnamese universities, and there is an urgent need for national research. With regard to social equity in Vietnamese tertiary study, access to EMI is at present available to only a small number of students in a limited number of academic disciplines. Tuition fees for EMI programs are often

higher than for standard programs, which hinders those students who cannot afford to enroll in EMI programs. In addition, low and/or varied competences in English occur widely across Vietnam, with considerable inequality of access to English and limited resources in many schools (Le, 2019), making it difficult for students to meet entry requirements for EMI programs. Nevertheless, although concern has been raised about social equity in Vietnam, impacts currently remain limited as the majority of tertiary students enroll in standard programs (Tran & Nguyen, 2018). Another recently emerging EMI concern internationally is related to the hegemonic status of English at the potential expense of mother tongues (Blattes, 2018; Wilkinson, 2013). The degree of such concern varies from one country to another due to historical and cultural factors, and it appears not to be a major concern in Vietnam. This is for several reasons. English is neither institutionalised as an official language, nor is it popular across workplaces. Furthermore, the number of people who speak English fluently is very small and it is not a language used in the home (Hoang, 2021); it is mainly favoured by teachers and students due to its advantages for employment and ongoing study (Le, 2017). Consequently, we do not foresee English hegemony over Vietnamese as problematic at this time.

Students in EMI classrooms such as those at Vietnamese universities can be categorised into four types (Anderson, 2016). Foreign students are differentiated according to whether they are participating in short-term mobility or exchange programs or have enrolled to follow a full program. Both types are currently represented in small numbers across many Vietnamese EMI higher education programs and across most of the chapters in this volume. Anderson (2016) further differentiates two types of domestic or 'home' students according to whether they are majoring in English through EMI, where English is *core*, or majoring in other areas, where English is *instrumental*. This categorisation is in line with our chosen definition of EMI, covering the use of English to teach any academic subject, including English. For the majority of students referred to in this book, English is instrumental, not core, although the students referred to in Chapter 9 do fall into the 'core' category. The teacher education students represented in Chapter 13 could be said to constitute a third domestic category—perhaps 'instrumental-core'—since the students are majoring in primary school teaching, with English as just one specialist area.

A feature of EMI university students internationally has been their low and/or varied competences in English, and Vietnam is no different (Le, 2019). In response to inadequate English competence among students, universities internationally frequently put in place a sequence of overlapping language-conscious components making up what Schmidt-Unterberger (2018) refers to as a 'paradigm of EMI'. The first component of the paradigm is typically a pre-sessional course in English for Special Purposes (ESP) and/or English for Academic Purposes (EAP). This is followed by curricular (embedded) ESP/EAP and/or adjunct ESP, the former targeting discipline-specific language and the genre knowledge needed for that discipline, while the latter is tied to and runs parallel with a particular content course. All of these components are taught by English language specialists. Vietnamese universities offering EMI programs reflect this EMI paradigm to some degree, but with

important differences and with corresponding implications for moving forward, as indicated in several chapters.

1.3 Undergraduate EMI Programs and Courses in Vietnamese Universities

The presence of EMI undergraduate programs in Vietnamese higher education institutions (HEIs) has been directly influenced by the 2008 government policy initiative entitled 'Teaching and Learning Foreign Language Education in the National Education System in the Period 2008–2020', known as the National Foreign Language 2020 project (Doan et al., 2018; Nguyen, 2018).

For some years now there have been three types of EMI program operating in Vietnamese universities, as well as the more recent introduction of individual EMI courses within standard Vietnamese Medium Instruction (VMI) programs. The first two types of EMI programs were born of cooperation between Vietnamese HEIs and foreign universities. Of these, Joint Programs are fully designed and delivered by staff of the foreign university, and offer an overseas qualification, while Advanced Programs use overseas curricula that are modified and delivered under agreement between local and foreign institutions, offering a domestic qualification (Nguyen et al., 2017; Vietnamese Government, 2008a, 2008b). Reflecting the current situation, only Chapter 4 in this book has a Joint Program setting, while Chapters 3, 6, 7, 8, 10, 12 and 14 have data relating to Advanced Programs. The third type of program, known as a High Quality Program, is a more recent introduction and involves a minimum of 20 per cent of its courses being delivered in English (MOET, 2014). These latter are fully domestic programs, developed, administered and delivered by Vietnamese universities, albeit with some reference to overseas programs. In addition, a number of regular undergraduate programs across the disciplines are beginning to offer single EMI courses in the later years of VMI programs (Nguyen et al., 2017; Rahman et al., 2018). Chapters 4, 6, 10 and 12 relate to High Quality Programs, while Chapters 6, 9, 10 and 13 relate to single courses within VMI programs, and Chapter 8 has data relating to both.

In regard to EMI programs imported from overseas, it must be noted that it is not just the language and the content that are imported, but also ways of thinking and understanding the world. While different academic disciplines call on different ways of thinking and viewing the world through their particular disciplinary lens, there are nonetheless some general ways of thinking and learning that come with imported EMI programs and are applicable to all disciplines. For example, '[c] ritical thinking, independent learning, lifelong and life-wide learning, and adversarial forms of argument are cited as virtues of Western education and seen as desirable goods' (Ryan & Louie, 2007, p. 413). It follows that EMI in such programs inherently requires students to develop a degree of intercultural competence if they are to be successful (Aguilar, 2018). It also follows that Joint Programs would require

a very highly developed intercultural competence given that the imported program is taught without any of the locally relevant adaptations that are possible within Advanced Programs. At the same time, the widely used practice of translanguaging in EMI classrooms creates possibilities for the co-construction of knowledge using a combination of linguistic repertoires. Li Wei (2018) emphasises translanguaging as 'a process of knowledge construction that goes beyond language(s) [taking] us beyond the linguistics of systems and speakers to a linguistics of participation' (p. 15). It is participation in the globalising world that EMI is designed to foster.

1.4 Overview of the Chapters

This book has three parts, each highlighting the perspectives and voices of key university stakeholders in English medium education: institutions, practitioners and students. Each part concludes with a commentary from an international scholar active in the field of EMI-related research and practice. These commentaries respectively highlight the importance of institutional preparation, consultation and support; the need for a glocal educational approach; and the value of a socio-ecological perspective. The three parts are flanked by this introductory chapter and by a concluding chapter of meta-analysis and reflections from the editors.

The first part of the book—Institutional perspectives on EMI practices in Vietnamese universities—provides a backdrop and frame of reference for the subsequent parts. It considers institutional practices in English medium instruction in higher education, addressing both the broad educational context of university EMI programs and particular curricular and extracurricular environments. The second part, on EMI classroom practices, provides perspectives from lecturers who have been actively engaging with EMI and attempting to support their students' learning. These practitioner perspectives focus on how to approach the learning needs of students in an overall and comprehensive way and some pedagogical practices teachers can usefully engage in. The third part offers student perspectives on ways of engaging with EMI and addressing its challenges, along with ideas for improving their EMI experience. These student perspectives relate to their actual experiences of learning, indicating the strategies they draw on and the outcomes they achieve in terms of both the disciplinary content and their intercultural and linguistic competences. Across the book, it is the agency of stakeholders that is in focus in terms of moving forward with EMI. This focus on the agency of institutions, teachers and students offers pathways for readers to engage in critical reflection and consider innovative action in other settings.

Of the three chapters discussing institutional practices, the first is wide-ranging across Vietnamese university settings in general, the second offers the experience of a single university that set out to enhance students' EMI experience, while the third considers the issue of sustaining practitioners as they undertake EMI within their particular disciplines. Chapter 2 puts forward an analysis of the current EMI situation in Vietnamese universities using the ROAD-MAPPING framework proposed

by Dafouz and Smit (2016, 2020). This sets a broad context for subsequent chapters by successively exploring EMI through six dimensions: Roles of English, Academic Disciplines, Management, Agents, Practices and Processes, and finally Internationalisation and Glocalisation. In this overarching chapter Pham raises critical perspectives on the degrees of agency available to and currently utilised by actors in each of these dimensions, and the extent to which there is a divergence of agency at national, institutional and individual levels. Chapter 3 then shifts the focus to agency within a single institution, and is written from the various perspectives of the collaborating team of staff: Nguyen Thi Anh Thu, Pham Van Tuan, Ho Vu Khue Ngoc, Nguyen Thi Tu Trinh, Dinh Thuy Vy and Nguyen Thi Kim Thoa. This chapter provides an account of institutional agency working through the experiences of a particular faculty to put in place curricular, non-curricular and extra-curricular practices that enhance students' EMI experience. Such institutional initiative is seen as vital to the success of EMI. Chapter 4 then provides a close look at how job satisfaction among EMI lecturers is mediated by particular factors, and what the implications are for institutional agency. Building on Hagedorn's (2000) framework of faculty job satisfaction, this study by Thi To Loan Pham, Khac Nghia Nguyen and Thu Ba Hoang locates an additional factor within job satisfaction as the ability/inability to translate pedagogical beliefs into practice within a particular context of institutional regulation and support mechanisms. Chapter 5 commentary on Part 1 is provided by Andy Kirkpatrick, whose reflections highlight the importance of institutional preparation, consultation and ongoing support for students and staff.

All of the studies reported in Parts 2 and 3 relate directly to the classroom, defined as a space where 'teachers and learners are gathered for instructional purposes' (Nunan, 2005, p. 225), including virtual spaces. These chapters (6–10 and 12–14) can also all be classified as qualitative classroom research (QCR).

> QCR is now a well-established approach to research that fulfills the important mandate of shedding light on a range of topics and issues that can best be examined with the primary data gathered in situ or, if not collected exclusively within the walls of classrooms, then from members of the class (e.g., via out-of-class interviews and journals) regarding their classroom experiences (Zappa-Hollman & Duff, 2019).

The studies reported are strongly process-oriented, focusing on pedagogy and classroom interaction, and aiming to contribute to practice in related contexts. Most of them are what Ellis (2012) refers to as formal research, being carried out by an external researcher. Some are practitioner research, conducted by the authors in their own classrooms and representing 'exploratory practice' (Ellis, 2012) that aims to provide information that can improve teaching and learning in a particular setting. In both cases the research-based insights offered are opportunities to enrich practitioners' knowledge base (Ur, 2014).

Methodologically, the studies draw on robust data sets, triangulating different data sources and data generation methods and often extending over a full semester. Student and teacher interviews are the most frequent data generation methods, often accompanied by classroom observations, focus groups, student products and quantitative assessment data, the latter indicating authors' respect for mixed methods within

an overall qualitative study. Interviews are seen as particularly valuable in that they facilitate access to participants' sense of agency in EMI, by eliciting insights into how practitioners and students see their own actions and the reasons for them.

Part 2 presents practitioner perspectives on EMI practices in Vietnamese universities, particularly in terms of designing and teaching EMI courses that support students to achieve the required content goals. The opening chapter by Tue Hoang and Duyen Tran offers many examples of EMI classroom practices in action across several disciplines, all with the aim of facilitating student learning and engagement. It provides a detailed explanation of the teachers' practices as well as a full account of students' reflections on the usefulness of the practices to their learning. Chapter 7 moves from this broad brush view to provide a detailed account of the pedagogy in a single EMI electrical engineering course, in which the lecturer adopted key principles of the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach. The authors, Ngo Dinh Thanh and Jenny Barnett, offer a range of insights into how a non-language specialist can creatively engage students in language learning opportunities within a fully focused content course. Taking the focus off English language development, Chapter 8 by Min Pham is a discussion of lecturers' views on the role of the first language, Vietnamese, in achieving the content goals of coursework when the English language is encountered as a stumbling block. It addresses the unease of EMI lecturers in using Vietnamese when policy stipulates otherwise or provides no explicit guidance, and the need for professional development on the pedagogical uses of translanguaging. This notion of translanguaging is taken up in the next chapter by Ha Anh Thi Nguyen, Alice Chik and Stuart Woodcock in regard to its various functions when teaching English as an academic subject to diverse non-English majors, specifically in order to support their EMI learning. In this case study, strategic use of translanguaging was found to be pedagogically valuable for content transmission, classroom management and affective purposes, clearly suggesting a need for EMI educators in such settings to be confident in the flexible use of Vietnamese. The final study reported in Part 2 addresses university assessment practices in those EMI programs where students may be uncertain about enrolling for fear of not being able to demonstrate a high enough level of content knowledge. Written by Duyen Tran and Tue Hoang, the chapter raises issues for both teachers and students in this regard, suggesting assessment *for* learning as a useful practice in place of a sole focus on assessment *of* learning. Part 2 concludes with a commentary by Marta Aguilar-Pérez, which offers a deep meta-analysis of features across the preceding five chapters, affirming the need for a glocal educational approach among practitioners.

Supplementing the student reflections integrated into Part 2 of the book, Part 3 focuses directly on student perspectives, highlighting the importance of students' experiences and insights as a source of input to policies and practices for moving forward with EMI. Chapter 12, written by Toan Pham and Jenny Barnett, draws on students' accounts of their experiences of institutional and practitioner decisions regarding EMI, and their suggestions for variations to those decisions. These EMI students are located at the intersection of policy, curriculum and pedagogy, harnessing their own agency and that of their teachers in co-constructing policy implementation on the ground. Chapter 13 is an example of practitioner research by Vo Thi Khanh

Linh, who reports on students' learning experiences in her EMI teacher education course with students from rural and remote areas where English is little used. Through observation, student learning diaries, videos of micro-teaching, as well as interviews and pre- and post-tests, we see the workings of both student and teacher agency, and its value for English language development alongside the primary objective of knowledge construction. The last study reported in Part 3, written by Luu Thi Quynh Huong and Hoang Thi Ngoc Diep, focuses specifically on student strategies for learning through EMI in an International Business and Logistics program. Students' struggles with EMI are shown to lead directly to related strategies across pre-class, in-class and post-class stages, which in turn have implications for improving students' EMI experiences. The commentary for Part 3 is written by Anne Burns, who particularly endorses the value of a socio-ecological perspective on EMI at all levels—from policy and curriculum to pedagogy and student support.

All the chapters across the three parts of the book have clear pedagogical significance and suggest particular directions for moving forward with EMI. These are brought together in the editors' review and meta-analysis in Chapter 16, which highlights the potential for agency across all dimensions of the EMI enterprise in Vietnamese universities.

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Jenny Barnett worked for 25 years in the School of Education, University of South Australia, Adelaide. She taught undergraduate and postgraduate courses in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), and supervised doctoral students addressing issues in multilingual learning environments. Until recently, her research and consultancy work focused on the learning and teaching of students in Australia for whom English is an additional language or dialect (EALD), with an emphasis on their learning across the curriculum. This focus has subsequently shifted to English medium education in the Asia–Pacific region more broadly, and particularly in higher education.

Min Pham is a lecturer in language education at the University of South Australia. He has completed graduate studies in TESOL and digital education and a PhD in International Studies from the University of South Australia. Min Pham has extensive experience in teaching English as an additional language/dialect in various higher education institutions. His main research interests concern English as medium of instruction, content and language integrated learning, enabling pedagogies and digital technology. He is also experienced in collaborating with international colleagues on research projects relating to EMI and the use of human technology in teaching English.

Part I
Institutional Perspectives on EMI Practices in Vietnamese Universities

Chapter 2
Road-Mapping English-Medium Instruction in Vietnamese Universities: The Divergence of Agency

Min Pham

Abstract This chapter critically reviews the development of EMI in Vietnamese universities, with a particular focus on the agency available to and utilised by its various participants. The theoretical lens is through the six dimensions of the ROAD-MAPPING framework established by Dafouz and Smit (2016, 2020). ROles of English, Academic Disciplines, (language) Management, Agents, Practices and Processes, and INternationalisation and Glocalisation. Each dimension is explored in terms of the actors involved at national, institutional, and individual levels. The analysis sheds light on the perceptions, rationales, goals, and requirements of these various actors with regard to EMI, demonstrating a considerable divergence of agency. This divergence is attributed to several factors including (1) the top-down model of policymaking and management at the national and, to a lesser extent, institutional level, (2) the dominance of non-educational goals at the institutional level where institutions have to respond to a variety of factors undermining their academic operation, (3) the lack of policy guidance, EMI professional development, and practical support for lecturers, and (4) the quality, disciplinary focus, and ongoing curriculum support for students' English language development. The analysis demonstrates that these factors have particular effects at national, institutional, and individual levels within each of the dimensions of EMI. It is concluded that such divergence calls for a close investigation of what is happening at the level of individuals in actual classrooms in order to inform the development of EMI in an effective and sustainable way at the national and institutional levels.

Keywords English-medium instruction · EMI · Vietnam · Higher education · Educational policy · ROAD-MAPPING

M. Pham (✉)
University of South Australia, Adelaide, SA, Australia
e-mail: min.pham@unisa.edu.au

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2.1 Introduction

While national policy is acknowledged as an important factor in the development of EMI in Vietnamese universities, it has frequently been noted that the actuality of EMI programs is very directly influenced by local factors within particular university settings (H.T. Nguyen, 2018; H.T. Nguyen et al., 2017). In reviewing EMI in Vietnamese universities, this chapter therefore attends not only to national agency but also to institutional and individual agency. Framing the review are the six dimensions of the ROAD-MAPPING framework developed by Dafouz and Smit (2016, 2020), which is specifically designed for the analysis of English-Medium Education in Multilingual University Settings (EMEMUS). Their work is based on an integration of theoretical perspectives from current developments in sociolinguistics, ecolinguistics, and language policy theory. Together these perspectives generate the six core dimensions of their framework: ROles of English, Academic Disciplines, (Language) Management, Agents, Practices And Processes, And Internationalisation And Glocalisation, giving the acronym ROAD-MAPPING.

All of these dimensions of EMI intersect and relate to each other, so that a focus on one will have connections to others (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, 2020). For example, management decisions about language use within university programs not only directly involve human agents and their practices and processes, but relate to the role of English on campus, to specific requirements of different academic disciplines, and to internationalisation and glocalisation in future employment options. Figure 2.1 illustrates the inter-relationship of these six dimensions and their dynamic nature.

It is possible to investigate each dimension in any particular setting through the ways EMI is talked about in that setting, whether it be by government, university

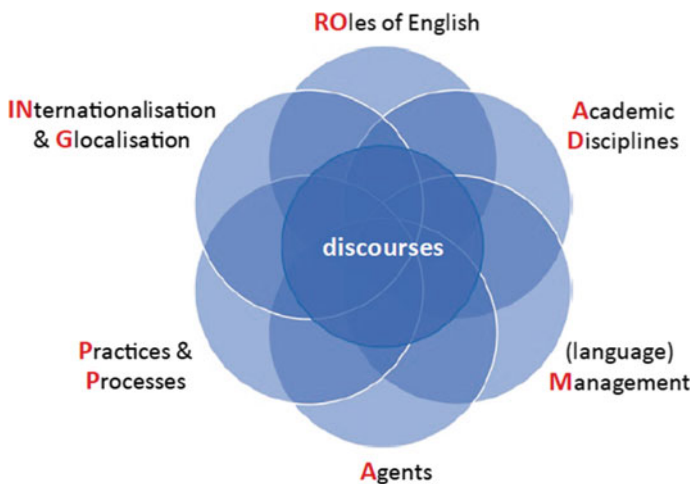

Fig. 2.1 The ROAD-MAPPING framework (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 404)

leaders, industry stakeholders, the media, community members, teachers, students, or academic researchers. Discourses are therefore placed at the centre of the ROAD-MAPPING framework, indicating that they function as a point of access to information about each dimension and also as a channel for the intersection of those dimensions. Discourses related to EMI can be identified in written documents—such as policy, curriculum, assessment guidelines, and research papers—and in spoken form—such as teacher talk, student presentations, and research interviews. In other words, discourses provide a way to understand what is going on in each of the ROAD-MAPPING dimensions and what the connections and disjunctions are. Discourses also provide the data sources and analyses underpinning the accounts given in each chapter of this book.

This chapter draws specifically on the discourses of policy and of recent research into internationalisation and EMI in Vietnamese higher education. The aim is to identify the agency available to and utilised by participants in each dimension of EMI, as well as the divergence of agency and possible reasons for it, indicating potential pathways for moving forward with EMI in Vietnamese universities. At the same time, the chapter sets a broad context for the subsequent chapters, which draw on discourses of policy and practice situated within particular universities, disciplines, classrooms, and individual experiences.

2.2 The Development of EMI in Vietnamese Universities: A ROAD-MAPPING Analysis

The following pages review the historical development of EMI in Vietnamese universities through each of the ROAD-MAPPING dimensions, employing three levels of analysis—national, institutional, and individual—to highlight the importance of different actors and their use of agency in each dimension. The discussion is based on the working definitions of the six ROAD-MAPPING dimensions provided in Dafouz and Smit (2020, p. 60) incorporating an added focus on agency within each dimension. A close understanding of the broad context of Vietnamese higher education is fundamental to the other dimensions, and the sequence consequently begins with the internationalisation and glocalisation dimension before following the sequence of the acronym.

2.3 Internationalisation and Glocalisation

The initiation and development of EMI in Vietnam derived from the country's socio-economic and political integration into the world subsequent to its Doi Moi policy in 1986 and international integration in 1995. At the national level, two key drivers have promoted the growth of EMI in the higher education system. The first is the

country's open-door policy and international integration in which higher education is viewed as a 'key state imperative' to achieve social order and economic development, and to promote the state's capacities (Evans & Rorris, 2010; London, 2010). A number of policy documents were issued during the 2000s which acknowledge the importance of EMI and establish it as an essential part of the country's internationalisation. For example, the *Proposal for Advanced Program Project in Some Vietnamese Universities in 2008–2020 Period* clearly states that:

> The implementation of some undergraduate English-taught advanced programs aims to establish and develop several international and regional level fields of study, faculties, and universities, improve HE quality, and have a number of Vietnamese universities gain the world's top 200 universities by 2020 (The Government of Vietnam, 2008a, p. 15).

EMI in Vietnamese higher education can be viewed as a strategy to attract international academics and students, to promote teaching and research collaboration with international partners, and to promote universities' standing in international higher education rankings (The Government of Vietnam, 2008a). A need for the higher education sector to become both attractive and competitive therefore contributes to the implementation of EMI. In other words, neoliberal ideology also plays a role in EMI in Vietnam as in other countries or jurisdictions.

The second key driver of internationalisation relates to critical changes in higher education governance. The higher education sector underwent a significant structural change during 1987 and 1990 when several educational agencies were merged into the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET), a single ministry responsible for the whole education system in Vietnam under the direct management of the government. Another structural change occurred in 1993 when two national and three regional multidisciplinary universities were established by merging a large number of small specialised institutions (Dao & Hayden, 2010; Hayden & Lam, 2010). Recognition of the role of the private sector in education led to the establishment of the very first non-state university in 1994, with the number of private universities rising to 95 in 2018 (Salmi & L.T. Pham, 2019, p. 104). A further structural development took place during 1995 and 2003 when a line-management mechanism was introduced for universities to report directly to their associated ministries (e.g. the Medical University reports to the Ministry of Health, the University of Industry reports to the Ministry of Industry and Trade). This was followed by the stratification of universities in 2004 and accordingly, top-tier institutions were strategically funded by government resources (Hayden et al., 2010).

Despite these structural shifts, the sector was still in crisis with respect to governance, quality, curriculum, and research (H.T. Nguyen, 2018). Against this backdrop, the government mandated a Higher Education Reform Agenda (HERA) in 2005, in which internationalisation was central to the quality improvement of the sector. HERA considered internationalisation to include (a) the involvement of more international commitments and agreements; (b) improvements in the teaching and learning of foreign languages; and (c) the creation of favorable conditions for foreign investment in the higher education sector (Harman et al., 2010). These structural changes were also reflected and reinforced in the 2005 and 2019 Education Laws, and the 2012

Higher Education Law. All these legal documents, to various extents, have placed the need for EMI at a central position in internationalisation. However, none have highlighted the need for glocalisation in terms of the adaptation of western curriculum and materials to be inclusive of and responsive to local interests and values, and also to counter western-centric perspectives and potential cultural imperialism. This requires a critical stance towards colonial aspects of internationalisation (e.g. Beck, 2013), with implications for the establishment and conduct of EMI programs in Vietnamese universities.

Institutionally, EMI has been seen primarily as a response to three local pressures on universities: financial autonomy, nation-wide competition, and the domestic demand for higher education—a phenomenon that has been termed out-bound internationalisation (Hamid et al., 2013). Granting more autonomy to institutions, including financial autonomy, was one of the primary objectives of HERA in 2005. However, this and the structural changes, including the stratification of institutions, resulted in many universities struggling to be financially independent. A number of senior managers from different universities have clearly stated that the implementation of EMI in their institution was initially a remedy to financial pressures (H.T. Nguyen et al., 2016; M. Pham & Doan, 2020). EMI was seen as a good strategy to generate income by attracting more students, since EMI programs attract higher fees. In addition, universities now can offer both Vietnamese-medium instruction (VMI) and EMI in parallel within one program, which means the number of students enrolled in that program can be increased, resulting in more income.

The nation-wide pressure of competition for students has greatly increased with the entry of the private sector into higher education. Public and private institutions, including foreign universities, are now operating in the same market, and consequently both the programs on offer and the reputation and ranking of each university are important factors in attracting students. Although MOET is in control of the annual student intake for each institution, the more programs an institution can offer, the more students they can accept. Likewise, the more involvement the university has with international institutions, the higher the perceived reputation. On both counts university senior managers often regard EMI as a way to increase collaboration with international partners.

A third pressure for EMI has been the local population's insistent demand to be trained and qualified for rapidly changing employment. The flows of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) and the increasing presence of foreign enterprises in Vietnam, as well as the country's expansion of international relations during the late 1990s and 2000s created an even greater demand for English, often referred to as 'English Fever' in Vietnam (V.C. Le, 2006, p. 172). Additionally, the country's socio-economic development has created a wealthier population in which many well-off families can afford to pay higher fees for their children's tertiary education. There are therefore opportunities for Vietnamese universities to tap into this potential market by providing quality undergraduate programs incorporating EMI.

In sum, the overall objective of institutions' efforts at internationalisation, including EMI, is to boost institutional ranking, to be recognised regionally and internationally, to attract students, and to increase employability for EMI graduates.

Institutions also consider EMI as a response to a market-driven trend in higher education—a phenomenon that has been metaphorically referred to as 'neoliberalism's war on higher education' (Giroux, 2014). The commitment to internationalisation of tertiary education has led to expanded collaboration with external universities to offer joint programs and also twinning programs (both types of program use the curriculum of the external university, with joint programs being located in Vietnam and twinning programs mainly overseas). The number of joint and twinning programs dramatically increased between 2007 and 2018—from 133 to 282 offered in 82 HEIs (L. Hoang et al., 2018, p. 30). Nguyen (2018, p. 121) puts the number at 290, while Tran and Marginson (2019) subsequently put it at approximately 300, giving some idea of the speed of take up. Clearly EMI has been chosen as a multi-purpose strategy for HEIs to diversify their programs, a strategy which is mainly implemented by individual teachers and their students.

Given that EMI lecturers and students operate primarily in the classroom, they are influenced as much by local forces as by global ones, hence the importance of a glocalisation perspective in relation to internationalisation. Such a glocalisation perspective takes into consideration first the achievement of educational outcomes required in the domestic market and second the best use of lecturers' knowledge and skills. While internationalisation in higher education has tended to foster western-centric curriculum (Beck, 2013), the more recent trend towards glocalisation—both from a marketing and an educational perspective—has been an attempt to redress the balance and integrate local and regional concerns. Glocalisation of curriculum not only values such concerns and associated knowledges, but can be directly relevant to industry needs and students' employment prospects, as well as building on lecturers' expertise in the local environment.

For lecturers, taking on EMI teaching is either a compulsory part of their job or a choice made for their professional advancement. However, the move to EMI programs by HEIs has left little space for academics to make their choices freely. Universities use various incentives such as higher payment and workload coefficient to motivate their academics to teach in English. Other incentives can be yearly bonuses and teaching awards for promotion. These motivation strategies have put some academics under pressure to take on teaching in EMI even when they do not feel ready. Other academics perceive EMI teaching as an opportunity to improve their English language, the quality of their course, their international research collaboration, and their ongoing employment prospects. Furthermore, compared to traditional teaching in Vietnamese, teaching in English can give lecturers more flexibility to select teaching materials from global sources, to practise a more democratic teaching and learning environment, and to construct more equitable, sympathetic teacher–student relationships (Hamid et al., 2013). This in itself is a move towards glocalisation. A further move, which requires dedicated time and resources, is the adaptation or tailoring of overseas academic curriculum and materials to be inclusive of and responsive to local and regional interests and values.

While Vietnamese students may struggle to engage with a curriculum and materials that are totally western-centric (L. Tran et al., 2018), they are unlikely to be aware of that aspect when enrolling in an EMI program. Students in Vietnam tend

to view EMI as an opportunity to improve their English language proficiency, to advance their chances of studies overseas, and to facilitate employment upon graduation (Phuong & Nguyen, 2019). Thus employment markets resulting from the country's socio-economic development and international integration have tended to influence students' decision to enrol in EMI programs.

At the individual level of students and teachers we can identify aspects of glocalisation rather more readily than at the national and institutional levels where internationalisation is a much stronger force. What needs to be questioned is the extent to which institutions could exercise agency in support of the kind of glocalisation that would benefit students in meeting their desired educational outcomes. We can also raise questions as to the roles of English in that pursuit.

2.4 Roles of English

The 'Roles of English' dimension in the ROAD-MAPPING framework refers to the position of English vis-à-vis other languages, whether foreign, national, regional, minority, or migrant languages, and to its various functions as a pedagogical and communication tool. At the national level, English has gradually gained a central position in Vietnam compared to other foreign languages such as French, Mandarin, Japanese, Russian, and Korean. Historically, the introduction of a foreign language into Vietnam often reflected the country's diplomatic relations with a particular country in the world. For instance, the introduction of Chinese, French, and Russian mirrored the country's diplomatic relations with China, France, and the Soviet Union respectively in the past. However, English has not followed a similar pathway of cultural politics of language and is an exception in Vietnam. Prior to Doi Moi in 1986, English was regarded as the language of the enemy (Wright, 2002). The return of English to Vietnam after 1986 was not a direct consequence of the country's diplomatic relationship with a particular country but primarily due to its regional and international integration, such as its membership in the Association of the Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), the normalisation of the relationship with the United States, and the developing relationship with the European Union (EU). To integrate into the international community, Vietnam needed a language to communicate with the outside world, and the power of English as the language for international communication made it a logical choice (Sharifian, 2009). One example of such a central position for English is a decree approved by the Prime Minister in 1994 requiring government officials to study English in order to interact directly with foreigners (T.N. Pham, 2014).

The value attached to English can be illustrated by the fact that 98% of school students chose English as a compulsory subject in 2000 (Vang, 2003, p. 458), while at the tertiary level, as of 2006, 90% of students chose to study English among four foreign languages available (V.C. Le, 2006, p. 167). English is now used for communication between Vietnamese and foreigners, and sometimes also among Vietnamese in certain professions and even in daily life. The popularity of English

has led Doan, M. Pham et al., (2018) to argue that English has become an international language in Vietnam, indicating the central position of this language in comparison to other foreign languages. Nevertheless English is yet to become a lingua franca among students and teachers in Vietnamese universities as is happening in some other parts of the world (Dafouz & Smit, 2016), even though the number of international students in Vietnamese higher education institutions has increased dramatically from 1,100 in 2015 to 21,000 in 2020 (T.N. Le, 2020). Together, these developments reflect the role of English in Vietnam.

While English can have multiple functions in higher education settings (Dafouz & Smit, 2020), these functions are understood differently at different levels and among different stakeholders. At the national level, English is considered to serve as an 'instrument for professional and academic purposes' (Tri & Moskovsky, 2019, p. 1334). For instance, the *Proposal for the Advanced Program Project in Some Vietnamese Universities in 2008–2020 Period* documented clearly that the use of English in Advanced Programs aims to:

> …equip undergraduate students with updated knowledge, life skills, professional skills, learner autonomy, research competence, and adaptability to the working environment upon graduation…to improve Vietnamese teaching staff's specialist knowledge, pedagogy, and English proficiency to get engaged in lecture delivery and research collaboration at overseas HEIs (The Government of Vietnam, 2008b, p. 15).

Institutionally, English can also function as an outcome criterion of EMI programs (Dafouz & Smit, 2016); however this outcome has often been taken for granted by Vietnamese HEIs, rather than being recognised as requiring lecturers' intervention or any resource investment. For example, some executives from a university in Hanoi asserted that 'when students studied in one of [stet] EMI programs, they would "naturally" become fluent speakers of English without academics' specific attention to language aspects' (H.T. Nguyen, 2018, p. 131). Vu and Burns' (2014) in-depth investigation of an EMI program offered by a national university in Hanoi reports that, while the English entry requirement for students was 5.5 in the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) and the exit level was to be 6.0, this increase was expected to occur without specific investment into helping students improve their English language. As elsewhere internationally (Rose & Galloway, 2019, p. 195), it was simply assumed that the English proficiency of students would be improved through their immersion into EMI courses, an assumption also identified at the national level in policy documents (Tri & Moskovsky, 2019). In such cases, English as an exit criterion is taken as a by-product, rather than a targeted outcome addressed through resource investment.

Among individuals engaged in EMI programs, English has key functions as a tool for learning and teaching and also for social interaction. These functions are briefly outlined in the section below on Practices and Processes, and are highlighted across the individual studies. At the same time, academics and students hold different perceptions of English development. On the one hand, academics expect a sufficient English proficiency from students before they enter into EMI programs. On the other hand, students see English development as one of the outcomes from their

EMI studies and expect to be supported by their teachers to develop their language proficiency, even though their expectation is often not clearly stated (Phuong & Nguyen, 2019). This difference can form a 'contested terrain' between academics and students and can vary across academic disciplines.

2.5 Academic Disciplines

The dimension of Academic Disciplines in the ROAD-MAPPING framework encompasses two-related notions—academic literacies and academic culture.

> Academic literacies refer to the diverse range of academic products (whether spoken or written) typically developed in an educational setting and conforming to socially conventionalised situated practices. By disciplinary culture we mean more particularly the subject specific conventions, norms and values that define different disciplinary areas (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 60).

Spoken and written 'academic products' vary across academic disciplines, since each discipline has its own English usage. Consequently English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is seen as an integral part of EMI programs (Arnó-Macià & Aguilar-Pérez, 2020; Schmidt-Unterberger, 2018), in addition to English for Academic Purposes (EAP). In regard to 'disciplinary culture', Neumann et al., (2002) point out that teaching and learning practices, curricular designs, and assessment methods in each academic discipline vary according to its epistemological characteristics. Consequently acculturation to the literacies and practices of each discipline is essential for academic success in an EMI program. However, Tri and Moskovsky (2019) reviewed a number of Vietnamese policy documents and found no acknowledgement of disciplinary differences in these documents. On the contrary, they found that such policy documents often presume benefits of EMI programs for learning in the academic disciplines (Tri & Moskovsky, 2019). The use of English as medium of instruction is presumed to enable students to access up-to-date knowledge, original learning materials, professional practices, and skills in their disciplines, while being able to avoid constraints of relying on Vietnamese translations of learning materials which may hinder their learning. Such presumed benefits have no doubt influenced both national and institutional decisions on the introduction of EMI programs across the disciplines. However, the needs of the country for socio-economic development have generated a clear distinction of priorities for EMI between different disciplines. Some disciplines, such as Information Technology, Business Administration, Banking and Finance, Accounting and Tourism, have been given priority precisely because they are believed to meet the current needs for socio-economic development.

At the institutional level, the key factors that underlie priorities given to certain academic disciplines are: government funding, resource availability, student demand, and presumed benefits of EMI courses for graduates' employment prospects. As a general practice, each institution would consider their own resources together with the funding allocation from the government to develop and offer EMI courses or

programs according to their capability in particular disciplines. For example, Vu and Burns (2014) report that funding from the government was a key factor that motivated executives from a university in Hanoi to implement EMI programs in particular disciplines. On the other hand, in a study by Pham and Doan (2020) several university senior managers across the country acknowledged that they would encourage any academics who can teach in English to offer EMI courses. Nevertheless, institutions often prefer to offer EMI courses in disciplines that can attract more students.

There exists a strong belief that the quality of English learning would be improved if it is directly connected to content learning (To, 2010). This, and a specific endorsement of certain types of content, is reflected in a recommendation from a study investigating factors that influence English education at Vietnam National University in Hanoi. The author proposes that.

> the most effective way [to improve the quality of English language learning] is to turn universities into a bilingual environment in which the mother tongue is the means of general communication and instructional medium of *social science subjects* and English is the instructional medium of *science and technology* (V.V. Hoang, 2008, p. 34: emphasis added).

Similarly, Tri and Moskovsky (2019) investigate several documents on pilot EMI programs and find a similar institutional presupposition that students' disciplinary knowledge and discipline-specific language proficiency are believed more likely to be improved through EMI in certain disciplines than in others.

The use of English as medium of instruction can also risk homogenising academic disciplines, resulting in an Anglo-centric monocultural model (Dafouz & Smit, 2016; Smit & Dafouz, 2012). This results from wholesale 'borrowing' from international partners, which has historically been widely practised in Vietnamese higher education in regard to curriculum, reference materials, and personnel training and quality evaluation (T.T.P. Vu & Marginson, 2014). Such 'curriculum borrowing or foreign curriculum transfer' (L.T. Tran & Marginson, 2018, p. 7), without adaptation to the Vietnamese context and without regional forms of glocalisation, inevitably introduced a monocultural model. This has not yet been fully addressed in that currently more and more EMI courses are developed by Vietnamese academics who graduated from overseas as 'westernised' experts in their academic disciplines. Together with their lack of expertise in curriculum design and EMI pedagogies, as well as their expectations of students' English language proficiency, their EMI courses still risk homogenising academic disciplines, which could then bring about counterproductive effects (N. Nguyen & Tran, 2018; T.T.P. Vu & Marginson, 2014). Vu and Marginson (2014) rightly point out that EMI programs need to be localised and Vietnam's identity, strategy needs, values, and goals must be respected and integrated. Together with the differing priorities given to certain academic disciplines, homogenisation of an academic discipline could raise a question as to whether the disciplinary knowledge and academic literacies that EMI students are taught would enable them to function effectively in their future local and intercultural professional contexts.

Individually, lecturers and students hold different perceptions about EMI in academic disciplines. Many content lecturers experience psychological barriers to taking any responsibility for teaching or commenting on language features (Horie,

2018), positioning themselves as 'not language teachers' (Airey, 2012). Their reluctance to comment on language aspects may also reflect a limited appreciation of the particular academic literacies and intercultural variations of their discipline. Unfortunately, there are very few language teachers with the relevant disciplinary knowledge to accomplish this role effectively, and consequently very few EMI courses provide students with such language support. Nevertheless, students expect to improve both their discipline knowledge and their language proficiency from EMI courses, thereby achieving comparative advantages in finding jobs. There is thus a contradiction between academics' and students' expectations with regard to what kind of knowledge academics will provide, and students will be equipped with, in EMI courses. Given the contingency of academic literacies and disciplinary knowledge, without a clear recognition of the different discourses between various disciplines and of the constructive alignment between academic literacies and discipline knowledge, students are less likely to be equipped with sufficient academic literacies and discipline knowledge. This is clearly a matter to be addressed through the national and institutional management of language across the disciplines.

2.6 Language Management

The language management dimension of EMI refers to language policy statements or declarations, whether written, spoken, or internet-based, that are intended to define and control the role and position of languages (Dafouz & Smit, 2020). In both the national and the institutional contexts of EMI in Vietnam, such language statements or declarations are remarkable for either their absence or their vagueness (Kirkpatrick, 2014; H.T. Nguyen et al., 2017) resulting in confusion for individual stakeholders, notably academics and students. National policy documents do not formalise the status of English in higher education, nor do they regulate language aspects in EMI programs.

Despite having 54 distinct peoples living across the entire country, Vietnam can be considered as a linguistically homogenous country, since the Kink or Viet people who speak Vietnamese as their mother tongue account for 90% of the population (Ho & Wong, 2004). Vietnamese has been the language of instruction in the country's school system since its independence in 1945. Since then, the language policy has remained stable and contributed to national identity building and socio-political stability, with Article 7.1 of the 2005 Education Law stipulating that 'Vietnamese is the official language to be used in schools and other education institutions' (MOET, 2005). The 2005 Education Law also assigns to the government decisions on the use of foreign languages as medium of instruction, without specifying English. The 2012 Higher Education Law includes the significant decision to allow the use of foreign languages as medium of instruction in the higher education sector (Vietnam National Assembly, 2012). More importantly, the 2012 Higher Educational Law stipulates that HEIs can themselves decide their use of foreign languages as medium of instruction in accordance with the decisions from the Prime Minister (Vietnam National Assembly,

2012: Article 10). In legal policy documents, the term ‘official language’ has always been reserved for Vietnamese language and ‘teaching and learning activities using foreign languages’ have referred to the use of foreign languages in general. Article 11.1 in the most recent Education Law in 2019 reaffirms that ‘Vietnamese is the official language used in all educational institutions’ and ‘the government will decide the use of foreign languages in teaching and learning’ (MOET, 2020). Thus the use of ‘foreign languages’ as a general term in these legal documents avoids formalising the status of English in the education system.

Specifically in regard to EMI programs, the national management of language falls under the responsibility of MOET. While various EMI language policies have been drafted, issued, and overseen by MOET, they are often criticised as being ‘too general to lead to informed practices’ (H.T. Nguyen et al., 2017, p. 42). English is not clearly and officially regulated as the language of instruction even for EMI programs. Instead, such policy documents typically provide general guidelines for the language eligibility for staff and students in EMI programs.

The *Proposal for the Advanced Program Project in Some Vietnamese Universities in 2008–2020 Period* sets out the entry requirements for lecturers to teach EMI courses. Academics eligible for EMI teaching must (a) complete a postgraduate qualification (e.g. master or doctoral degree) in their discipline area, (b) be proficient in English (equivalent to C1 Level in the Common European Framework of Reference for Language—CEFR) or have achieved a degree program overseas, and (c) have taught the course in Vietnamese-medium instruction for at least three years (The Government of Vietnam, 2008b). In principle, the English requirements from HEIs for their academics should be consistent with the requirements set out in the national policy documents. However, each institution tends to adapt these policies flexibly in order to meet their individual needs. It has been well reported in Vietnamese EMI literature that achieving a postgraduate degree from *overseas* is often assumed by university executives to be a qualification to teach EMI courses regardless of the language of the overseas country. While a likely reason for this is the shortage of academics with sufficient English proficiency, impacts on the quality of teaching must be expected. It is not uncommon that students complain about their lecturers’ English proficiency (see also Chapters 12 and 14 in this volume).

Regarding the English language proficiency required for students to enrol in EMI programs, there is a lack of consistency at the national level. Students in Advanced Programs are simply assumed to have sufficient English proficiency, while those who enrol in Joint Programs have to demonstrate English proficiency equivalent to Level B2 of the CEFR (The Government of Vietnam, 2008b, 2012), which indicates readiness to engage in a variety of academic and professional environments in English, ‘although with a limited range of nuance and precision’ (CEFR, 2001). However students wishing to enrol in High Quality Programs are subject only to individual decisions by their HEIs (MOET, 2014). Thus the national policy function regarding English as student gatekeeper lacks both clarity and consistency, inviting a similar approach at the institutional level.

English proficiency entry requirements for students do indeed vary widely across HEIs. To enrol a sufficient number of students to address their financial needs, some

universities have set overly low English proficiency requirements. For instance, one university accepted a score of 500 out of 950 in TOEIC for entry into its program even though this score is considered insufficient for academic study (Cots, 2018). Furthermore, HEIs often accept non-official English proficiency tests as indicators of students' readiness to enrol in EMI programs. There has been evidence that several universities have either modified a version of an international English test such as the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) or accepted it as an indicator of students' English proficiency (H.T. Nguyen, 2018; H.T. Nguyen et al., 2016). Furthermore, not only individual institutions, but even departments or programs sometimes have their own language proficiency benchmarks whether for entry requirement or exit criterion. Thus English proficiency as a management benchmark covers a wide spectrum, and may not serve its intended gatekeeper function.

Institutions' language policies also vary across a spectrum—in this case from total absence to partial, vague, and semi-official regulation. Some institutions state in their EMI brochures, websites, and introductory sessions that English is the language of instruction. However, M. Pham and Doan (2020) report that academics were often not consulted or informed in writing of their institution's language policy, coming to know it only through meetings and individual verbal communication, such as 'use as much English as possible'. Similarly, one university president did not provide any written form of EMI policy but advised academics that they did not have to teach 100% in English, the priority being that students could understand the lectures (H.T. Nguyen, 2018). Even though national policy documents consider academics, students, graduates, parents, and employers as important EMI stakeholders (MOET, 2014; The Government of Vietnam, 2008a), in the current Vietnamese context, they can exercise little influence on institutional EMI policies. This lack of power reflects the top-down model of policymaking that is typically practised in Vietnamese HEIs (M. Pham & Doan, 2020; L. Tran & Nguyen, 2018; N. Vu & Burns, 2014). It is in contrast to higher education settings internationally, where language policies are often planned, implemented, and assessed by a variety of stakeholders at all levels (Dafouz & Smit, 2016). If such an approach were adopted in Vietnam, given the different rationales, needs, and goals of EMI stakeholders, policy design would have the potential to be more multifaceted and dynamic than it currently is. Meanwhile, the lack of explicit regulations, statements, or policy references to English makes its status invisible and a challenge for individual stakeholders to enact.

Wherever the status of English is not formalised at the institutional level, this is inevitably reflected at the individual level within EMI programs and courses. At the classroom level, English is a pedagogical matter and the aim of teachers and students is to achieve the content goals of the curriculum, so immediately there are decisions to be made regarding how much Vietnamese language may be used and under what circumstances. In terms of language management policy, neither academics nor students have a voice, but instead they are responsible for implementing the policy, if any. They are left to self-interpret the institutional language management policies. Unfortunately, the absolute absence or vagueness of institutional language management policies has led not only to confusion and frustration

among academics but also to lack of consistency in teaching and learning, which consequently affects the quality of EMI programs. Consequently, the management dimension of EMI needs to address the EAP and ESP needs of both students and teachers. More broadly, it needs to operate both at the institutional level through large-scale policy (Kirkpatrick, 2014) and organisational measures, such as student entry requirements and teacher qualifications for EMI, and through decisions made at faculty level and within programs and individual courses, such as curriculum planning and choice of materials. Without policy guidance, the agents involved in EMI are forced to make their own decisions, whether or not they have the expertise to do so.

2.7 Agents

In the ROAD-MAPPING framework, the *Agents* dimension 'encompasses the different social players (whether conceptualised as individuals or as collectives, concretely or abstractly) that are engaged in EMEMUS (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 54). Nationally, the Vietnamese government, acting through the Minister of Education and Training (MOET), is the key collective driving EMI development. MOET is responsible for elaborating the government's education policies by providing policy guidelines, circulars, regulations, and funding schemes to promote EMI. Together with other ministries, MOET is in charge of budget allocation, assessment, and inspection of the outcomes of EMI, especially in Joint, Advanced and High Quality programs under government sponsorship (The Government of Vietnam, 2008a). Despite more than two decades of EMI development in Vietnam, no formal professional association for EMI has been established in Vietnam; MOET remains the key actor at the national level.

At the institutional level, HEIs can be categorised according to the number of EMI offerings they make available and the degree of agency they can exercise in making decisions about program development and offerings. Both features depend largely on economic and locational factors and whether the university is public, private, or international. However, the importing of international programs contributes to usurping the role of institutional policies and agency, acting as their own force of agency. In regard to EMI offerings, MOET's 'strategic mission scheme' (stratification of universities and priority in resource allocation) supported the introduction of full EMI programs, mainly for domestic students, at some Vietnam National University colleges in Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City, and several private universities. These universities consequently have had a head start. Other universities then began to offer either full EMI programs or several EMI courses within a predominantly VMI program, also attracting some international students. Nowadays, more and more universities offer EMI programs and courses, either in collaboration with international partners or independently, and with varying quality. Nevertheless, some universities especially in provincial areas still do not offer any EMI courses.

Each HEI tends to have a steering committee in charge of EMI, often headed by the President or Vice President of the institution, which was usually the case

for those universities selected by the MOET to implement EMI programs under the 'strategic mission scheme'. These committees follow the national guidelines to develop and design curriculum, select and collaborate with international partners, recruit or select staff members and students, and provide support for academics teaching in EMI programs (MOET, 2014; The Government of Vietnam, 2008a). In principle, each committee has to report their EMI implementation processes and outcomes to their higher equivalent committee at the national (ministerial) level. In reality, the institutional committee can exercise strong autonomy with regard to many aspects of EMI such as curriculum design and development, selection of international partners and materials, and recruitment of academics and students. HEIs also have the power to develop and implement overall language policies. This autonomy results from a lack of clear national guidance for language policy management and proper involvement of different agents at all levels, as evident in the policy review study conducted by Tri and Moskovsky (2019). In addition, HEIs can prioritise different goals in EMI programs and thus design their policies towards achieving these goals. An example can be found in a study by M. Pham and Doan (2020) which highlights that institutional managerial stakeholders may be more interested in commercial than educational goals in EMI. HEIs therefore are powerful agents in these regards.

Despite being powerful agents, institutions are still hardly ready for effectively exercising their agency educationally. Management readiness is a factor of how well and how rapidly institutions can respond to the changes required by the pedagogical innovation, namely the need for appropriate policy and explicit guidelines for implementation (M. Pham & Doan, 2020; Tri & Moskovsky, 2019), as well as recognition of the readiness issues among students and staff, and plans for addressing those issues. Given the speed with which EMI programs were introduced into higher education, there was little time initially for management to develop a true understanding of what is involved in learning and teaching through a foreign language. Without such understanding, explicit identification of needs and appropriate responses to those needs is not possible. In sum, management readiness includes the provision of clear institutional guidelines for implementing EMI, suitable initial preparation and ongoing support for students, professional development in EMI pedagogies for faculty staff, and material resources to support EMI within the disciplines.

At the individual level, a variety of actors may exercise some degree of influence on EMI development: lecturers, whether content or language specialists and whether domestic or international; providers of EMI professional development; students, whether local or international; parents; alumni and local employer bodies. Administrative or professional staff are also involved in EMI development but they are typically under direct guidance or instruction from senior managers and are best seen as part of the institutional collective. In contrast, academic staff and students have clear individual agency.

EMI academics can be classified as either content teachers or language teachers. Content lecturers carry the responsibility for EMI course design and delivery, while language teachers carry responsibility for credit-bearing English courses undertaken within an EMI program, as well as preliminary English coursework. Until now the tendency has been for the two to work independently, but there are strong reasons to

work collaboratively (Airey, 2020; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2018). In the early days of EMI in Vietnamese universities, EMI courses were mainly developed in collaboration with foreign partners and therefore international lecturers were closely involved in EMI course development. In some cases, international academics were also expected to provide professional training for their Vietnamese peers in delivering content courses in English. This continues to some degree at present; however, international academics are now often on short-term contracts and thus lack voice in the wider institutional community. In addition to Vietnamese and international academics, there may be some teaching assistants who are expected to help both teachers and students in their respective tasks. Language teachers are mainly responsible for designing and delivering preparatory or intensive English language courses for EMI students who need to improve their general and academic English proficiency. In some universities, they also provide English related to specific disciplines in parallel with students' content courses, a highly recommended approach (Q. Tran & Phuong, 2019). At this level, both content and language educators have considerable agency over the courses they teach in terms of curriculum design, materials, delivery, and assessment. This means that, given the prevalent lack of institutional guidance, the quality of EMI programs is to a very great extent determined by the decisions of such educators and what subsequently takes place in classrooms.

Nevertheless, such decisions and practices are dependent on the EMI preparedness of the educators and their readiness to enact their agency. Readiness in the teaching faculty is a concern both internationally and in Vietnamese higher education (Le, 2020; Nguyen et al., 2017; Vu & Burns, 2014; Fenton-Smith et al., 2017). In the first instance, English language competence is often a challenge for local teaching staff, especially the English required for classroom activity such as leading students to an understanding of new concepts (Barnard, 2014). This raises the concern that EMI affects the depth of teaching possible. For example, lecturers across disciplines in two Spanish universities have indicated that limited English proficiency conditions the degree of detail in their explanations, and reduces their capacity to paraphrase and to spontaneously improvise, thus affecting rapport with their students (Doiz et al., 2019, pp. 158–159). Lecturers' lack of EMI pedagogies is also an issue (M. Pham & Doan, 2020; Vu & Burns, 2014), as lecturers need to know 'how to modify their input, assure comprehension via student-initiated interactional modifications and create an atmosphere where students operating in an L2 are not afraid to speak' (Dearden, 2014, p. 23). However, across the world suitable professional development has taken time to emerge (Lauridsen, 2017; Macaro et al., 2018).

Students are also important agents regarding what takes place in classrooms, as their approach to learning through English and the level of English they bring to that task have direct influence on teachers' agency. Currently students enrolled in EMI programs are mainly Vietnamese and account for only a small number of the student population in most institutions. Nevertheless these students can influence the practice of EMI through their course feedback and evaluation, as well as through their day to day levels of engagement in class, which committed teachers tend to respond to. Parents can also influence EMI programs through providing feedback on their children's learning experience, while domestic EMI graduates who have completed

their EMI studies and are currently employed can use their work experience to feed in to EMI curriculum development, as can their employers.

As Tollefson (2008) emphasises, planning for any educational innovation needs to consider and productively respond to a range of contextual factors, including the readiness of management, teaching faculty and students. This is precisely where the challenges for EMI have been noted both internationally (e.g. Airey et al., 2017) and in Vietnamese universities (Nguyen, 2018; Nguyen et al., 2017; Vu & Burns, 2014; Tri & Moskovsky, 2019; Fenton-Smith et al., 2017). Overall, the key agents in the implementation and practice of EMI are those people who actually engage in it – the content lecturers and to a lesser degree the language lecturers and the students. These individuals not only influence the enactment of EMI courses, but have the potential to also usefully influence future institutional EMI policies. For this, they need to be given a seat at the table to ensure a voice in policy decisions for the actuality of practices and processes at the classroom level.

2.8 Practices and Processes

In regard to in Vietnamese higher education, the 'Practices and processes' dimension in the ROAD-MAPPING framework refers to the administrative, research and educational activities (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 60) that construct and are constructed by local realities, include participants' ways of thinking and doing EMI. As we have seen, the realities of EMI in Vietnamese higher education are heavily shaped by the exercise, or lack of exercise, of both national and institutional agency, which therefore has a strong influence on what can happen in classrooms, regardless of the strength of teacher and student agency.

At the national level, the Vietnamese education system has long been influenced by external factors, with foreign language policy and higher education changing according to the country's socio-economic and political shifts. The initiation of EMI in Vietnam occurred subsequent to the country's 'open-door' foreign policy, especially in the late 1990s and early 2000s, but the influence of the Soviet model of management was still dominant in Vietnam's education system (Hayden & Thiep, 2007; Welch, 2010). The model reflects the state's centralised control over the performance of all HEIs, which is implemented through a number of ministries: MOET, Ministry of Planning and Investment, Ministry of Science and Technology, and Ministry of Home Affairs. Some ministries assume responsibility across the system while others are responsible for different universities and colleges. Broadly speaking, all HEIs are under the management of MOET but some specialised-discipline universities are under the authority of other ministries. For example, Hanoi University of Industry is under the management of the Ministry of Industry and Trade while the Banking Academy belongs to the Vietnam State Bank. The control of the state is also manifested in the compulsory inclusion of courses in political ideology as part of EMI programs.

The centralised management underpinned by the Soviet model has exercised considerable agency in the development of HEIs and their program offerings, including EMI. One common practice from such a model of management is the issuing of top-down policies lacking a basis in empirical evidence from the lived realities of teaching and learning. EMI policies are no exception. For example, some policy documents often presuppose that EMI promotes learner critical thinking (The Government of Vietnam, 2008a; Tri & Moskovsky, 2019). However, such policy intentions may not necessarily be smoothly translated into institutional practices, particularly when these concern professional development of staff and learning support for students.

Although HEIs are responsible for implementing policy documents from the government, their institutional autonomy generates different ways of thinking and doing with respect to their own context and priorities. As previously pointed out, universities do not see EMI simply as a means of adding educational value. More importantly, for many universities, EMI is a multi-purpose strategy for income generation, student enrolment and international ranking. In order to realise these intentions, HEIs utilise the current availability of resources to develop and offer EMI programs, sometimes prematurely. Various strategies have been employed to support implementation, such as providing incentives for academics to develop and teach EMI courses, collaborating with high-ranking international partners, and providing some EMI courses in programs that are mainly VMI (H.T. Nguyen, 2018; Nhung, 2019; M. Pham & Doan, 2020). Such ways of thinking and doing EMI have had several consequences. One is that academics have been confused about how they are expected to carry out various aspects of their job, notably curriculum design and delivery of EMI courses, how to conduct lectures and tutorials in English, and the differences between VMI and EMI teaching practices. Another consequence is the lack of effective collaboration between content and language teachers. Content academics have to work with students who have diverse and limited English proficiency but often do not have the training or inclination to integrate language development. Third, students accepted into EMI programs with limited English language proficiency hinder the progress of teaching and learning activities and lead to student complaints and frustration. Fourth, there exists a lack of language support for students to develop their English language skills for learning through EMI. Last, and very significantly, there is a dearth of professional development opportunities for teachers to build up necessary EMI practices. Together, these undesired outcomes of the lack of clear policy guidance, regulation, and support manifest in challenges for successful learning and teaching activities in the classroom.

At the individual level, EMI lecturers and students have encountered complicated realities constructed not only by national and institutional agency but also by the local context of learning and teaching. For example, one factor that influences both academics' and students' 'ways of doing' is Confucianism, arising from the historical relationship between Vietnam and China (Huong & Albright, 2019). This ideological model assigns teachers a central role in teaching and learning, which can result in students' passive acceptance of their teachers' knowledge and thus a lack of critical thinking.

EMI students have themselves reported particular 'ways of thinking' about their programs and academics. First, students expect their teachers to be fluent in English and able to convey their disciplinary content effectively (Duong & Chua, 2016; V. Hoang, 2008; Phuong & T. Nguyen, 2019). When expectations are not met, students, both domestic and international, have expressed disappointment or frustration about their teachers' English proficiency, sometimes referring to feelings of powerlessness and frustration (H.T. Nguyen, 2018). Second, some students expect a proficient level of English competence from their peers in EMI programs, whereas proficiency in EMI programs can cover a wide spectrum, due to low entry requirements. Local students with limited English proficiency are reluctant to use English in class, so resorting to Vietnamese is their best choice, even though it renders the learning environment exclusive to international students. The diverse level of English proficiency among both academics and students is a reality that students generally encounter and must learn to manage through various 'ways of doing' in class.

Many content lecturers struggle to teach classes with diverse English proficiencies, especially since they expected students enrolled in EMI programs to be proficient in English (Hamid et al., 2013; H.T. Nguyen et al., 2016; H.T. Nguyen et al., 2017). One academic reported that 50% out of the 60 students in her EMI course were actually incompetent in English and should have enrolled in a VMI program (H.T. Nguyen et al., 2016, p. 676). Vietnamese content academics often regard students' English language incompetence as a matter either for students themselves or for language teachers, and it is not uncommon for them to repeatedly affirm that they are not language teachers (M. Pham & Doan, 2020; N. Vu & Burns, 2014). Second, discipline academics understand that teaching a course using English as the language of instruction should be different from teaching a VMI course. Nevertheless, they are unclear about the differences, as institutions have not provided adequate professional development in terms of EMI curriculum design and delivery, pedagogies and assessment. Finally, EMI lecturers also struggle with their own English proficiency. Not all academics teaching EMI programs, including those who have achieved their degrees overseas, are confident about their own English in terms of conducting EMI courses (M. Pham & Doan, 2020). Both lecturers and students have reported a lack of English proficiency from academics to affect their capacity to scaffold learning and to be creative and flexible in teaching (H.T. Nguyen, 2018; H.T. Nguyen et al., 2016). All of this reveals institutional under-preparedness in terms of personnel and resources to implement EMI programs and a 'specific reality' in which academics are caught between their own beliefs about EMI and their responsibilities to support students to achieve their learning goals.

To address these challenges, and in the absence of institutional commitment to their EMI professional development, EMI lecturers have employed a variety of strategies for curriculum design, materials selection, assessment, and language use in class activities. For some academics, designing an EMI course has simply meant translating their existing courses from Vietnamese into English without significant changes in content, assessment, and teaching sequence (M. Pham & Doan, 2020). Others have

made changes to the best of their ability within the limited time and resources available to them. Many academics are reluctant to comment on student language problems and therefore often provide no feedback or just general comments on this area. With regard to the use of English and Vietnamese in class, academics have practised a variety of strategies. Some employ code-switching between Vietnamese and English when explaining discipline-specific terms while others give each part of their lecture in English and then translate it into Vietnamese to make sure that students can comprehend the content (H.T. Nguyen, 2018; N. Vu & Burns, 2014). Another strategy to make a course EMI-like is to select materials in English for the course reference list, but choose primarily ones that have been translated into Vietnamese (M. Pham & Doan, 2020), or to provide supplementary materials in Vietnamese. Such discursive practices employed by academics aim to ensure student access to course content, but can be perceived differently by students themselves. At the same time, the effectiveness of these strategies on student learning is questionable.

In short, as individual agents, these two most important stakeholders—teachers and students—have developed particular ways of thinking and doing EMI teaching and learning, largely in response to specific national and institutional contextual realities. We see this throughout the studies reported in this volume. Each individual exercises their own agency in designing or selecting practices and processes to achieve their goals.

2.9 Conclusion and Implications for Moving Forward with EMI

The ROAD-MAPPING framework applied here to the historical development of EMI in Vietnam has confirmed the contextually bound and dynamically interconnected nature of all six dimensions in the framework, as well as their importance to understanding agency in EMI and its implications for moving forward. In this Vietnamese setting of EMI, most notable is the divergence of agency across national, institutional, and individual levels within every dimension. Government actors at the national level have exercised powerful agency in the policy aspect, while institutional actors have tended to manifest agency through semi-official regulations rather than coherent policies. Meanwhile individual lecturers and students have had their agency restricted to the classroom level, unable to contribute to policy development. Those actors at national and institutional levels appear to prioritise non-educational goals over educational goals, thereby potentially compromising educational outcomes. On the other hand, at the individual level, lecturers and students try to do what they believe best for achieving course and program goals but are often held back by national and institutional constraints.

Some factors responsible for the misalignment of agency between different levels of actor are (1) the top-down model of policymaking and management at the national and, to a lesser extent, institutional level, (2) the dominance of non-educational goals

at the institutional level where institutions have to respond to a variety of factors undermining their academic operation, (3) the lack of policy guidance, EMI professional development and practical support for lecturers, and (4) the quality, disciplinary focus, and ongoing curriculum support for students' English language development. These factors not only indicate a discursive and premature development of EMI in Vietnam, but also call for a closer investigation of what is actually happening at the classroom level if EMI is to achieve its ultimate goal—to equip learners with content knowledge while also developing English language proficiency.

The analysis of EMI development in Vietnamese higher education in this chapter has clearly indicated an asymmetry of agency among the various stakeholders at all levels in every single dimension of the ROAD-MAPPING framework, and with consequent effects. Importantly, government and universities are, to a very great extent, more powerful than teachers and students in policy decision-making and in directing the development of EMI. Nevertheless, these powerful stakeholders have often prioritised non-education objectives over educational ones, whereas the ultimate objective of EMI in classrooms is educational in nature—to equip students with discipline knowledge and English language competence for their future profession. To achieve this ultimate educational goal depends on the teaching and learning practices that occur on the ground. As a result, for EMI in Vietnam to move forward in a sustainably educational way, an inclusive approach is required, one which can not only address the imbalance of agency but also provide space for all stakeholders to exercise their agency and negotiate their goals and strategic actions. The ROAD-MAPPING framework offers a means of identifying and creating such spaces in every dimension of the EMI project and therefore can itself be considered a tool for moving EMI forward.

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Min Pham is a lecturer in language education at the University of South Australia. He has completed graduate studies in TESOL and digital education and a PhD in International Studies from the University of South Australia. Min Pham has extensive experience in teaching English as an additional language/dialect in various higher education institutions. His main research interests concern English as medium of instruction, content and language integrated learning, enabling pedagogies and digital technology. He is also experienced in collaborating with international colleagues on research projects relating to EMI and the use of human technology in teaching English.

Chapter 3
Faculty-Level Enhancement of English Medium Instruction at a Vietnamese University: Combining Non Curricular, Curricular and Extra-Curricular Approaches

Nguyen Thi Anh Thu, Pham Van Tuan, Ho Vu Khue Ngoc, Nguyen Thi Tu Trinh, Dinh Thuy Vy, and Nguyen Thi Kim Thoa

Abstract A key issue facing Vietnamese universities at this time is enhancing the quality of undergraduate EMI programs and related student learning outcomes. This chapter describes the EMI enhancement process developed by one university faculty which adopted a combination of non-curricular, curricular and extra-curricular approaches. These approaches evolved over time, building upon each other and upon participants' experiences. They comprise: (a) intensive first-year non-credit courses in academic English, (b) compulsory credit-bearing courses in subsequent years going 'beyond language' to develop EMI-related soft skills, and (c) extra-curricular EMI activities including engineering projects for community services. The development of this combination of enhancement activities was undertaken as a pilot project by the Faculty of Advanced Science and Technology (FAST), University of Danang—University of Science and Technology (UD-DUT). Using student outcome data and feedback from students and industry stakeholders, it is clear that such enhanced EMI equips students with a wide range of competencies and self-confidence for better presenting themselves in regional and global markets. Consequently the combination of these three approaches to EMI enhancement is highly recommended for those concerned about moving forward with EMI in terms of educational quality.

N. Thi Anh Thu (✉) · P. Van Tuan · N. T. T. Trinh
University of Da Nang—University of Science and Technology, Da Nang, Vietnam
e-mail: ntathu@dut.udn.vn

P. Van Tuan
e-mail: pvtuan@dut.udn.vn

N. T. T. Trinh
e-mail: ntttrinh@dut.udn.vn

H. Vu Khue Ngoc
University of Da Nang—University of Foreign Languages Studies, Da Nang, Vietnam

D. Thuy Vy · N. T. K. Thoa
Academy English Center, Da Nang, Vietnam

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3.1 Introduction

Although Vietnam's higher education system has developed significantly since 2000, in comparison to the country's socioeconomic development and international integration requirements there have been ongoing shortcomings in terms of curriculum, teaching and learning methods, teachers and management staff, learning materials, and internationalisation. As part of the effort to improve higher educational quality, the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) resolved in 2005 (Resolution No. 14/2005/NQ-CP) to encourage Vietnamese universities to partner with overseas universities to offer Advanced Programs (APs) in different fields. This was followed up through the MOET project for 'Implementation of Advanced Programs for 2008–2015 period', which was approved by the Prime Minister under Decision No. 1505/QD-TTG dated 15/10/2008. Essentially, the Advanced Programs project was intended as a pilot for promoting an international approach in higher education, aiming to reform undergraduate programs and lift the quality of teaching and learning to an internationally recognised level via cross-border curriculum partnerships. By 2012, there were 23 universities nationwide implementing 35 undergraduate programs of 22 foreign universities over three phases of the Project, therein 18 programs in the fields of Engineering and Technology (Le, 2016).

English Medium Instruction (EMI) plays an important role in such internationalisation of education, not only as the means to deploy educational programs but also as the requirement for their quality standardisation, from curriculum to teaching methods, materials and assessment. As such, EMI has been recognised as one of the key factors in the successful implementation of Advanced Programs in Vietnam, and also as one of its biggest challenges (Walkinshaw et al. 2017). This relates not only to the limitations of student English proficiency for pursuing EMI courses and of faculty capable of teaching effectively in English, but also to issues for students studying fully through English yet living in largely non-English environments. These issues include: instructional pedagogy to support students in achieving learning outcomes through English; moving students from passive knowledge recipients to active learners and co-constructors of complex knowledge and skills; and developing learning environments to enhance soft skills, practical knowledge and exposure to real-life experiences in the discipline. Consequently, effective enhancement of EMI needs to address such issues, as well as the more obvious one of English language competence.

At the Faculty of Advanced Science and Technology (FAST), University of Danang—University of Science and Technology (UD-DUT), the first AP was launched in 2006. This was in Electronic and Communication Engineering. The second AP, launched in 2008, was in Embedded Systems. Both of them are fully taught in English with their curricula having been imported from partner universities—the University of Washington and Portland State University respectively.

Both programs have served as pilots for full EMI implementation in Vietnamese universities generally as well as UD-DUT in particular. As pilots, they demonstrated particular issues and invited efforts to address those issues and propose solutions to enhance EMI. While we do not claim to have found all the solutions, we do highly recommend the combination of the three approaches described in this chapter for moving forward with EMI educationally.

3.2 Options for Enhancing EMI

While various undergraduate EMI program models show some advantage in providing a much needed workforce having good discipline knowledge, fluent English ability and even relevant soft skills, they have mostly met many challenges in operating due to the English ability of students and instructors (Nguyen, 2018; Nguyen et al. 2017; Tri & Moskovsky, 2019; N. Vu & Burns, 2014). For example, because all courses in Advanced Programs (APs) in Vietnam are intended to be taught in English, this requires both students and academics to have a relatively good command of the language. However, English competence is still a big barrier for students, both as a required condition for entrance as well as a means of study, and there is a high drop-out rate from many EMI advanced programs (Hoang-Yen Dang, 2019). At the same time, the lack of adequate academic English competence among lecturers and lack of formal training in appropriate pedagogical techniques have hindered the progress of EMI programs, as recently noted by the Vietnamese lecturers in four universities (Le, 2016). However, universities have experienced great difficulty in finding academics who are experts both in their discipline and also in their English competence. Furthermore, the solution of sending faculty members abroad for short training courses or inviting foreign experts to come and teach for two or three weeks leads to unacceptably high costs (Tran et al., 2018).

Across all 35 undergraduate programs in the government's *Advanced Programs Project,* many options for enhancing EMI were tried out in order to help students improve their listening skills and knowledge acquisition. Most universities offered preparatory English courses for first-year students enrolled in APs; many universities invited native English-speaking lecturers to teach students English; and a number of universities allowed students to obtain international English certificates before studying specialised EMI programs (Quyen, 2017). Initially no university offered curricular credit-bearing courses, and only limited English-based extra-curricular activities. Thus, the main process of EMI enhancement was a preliminary English training program intended to prepare students with adequate English competence and confidence in heading to their professional training through EMI. However, interpretations varied in regard to how such a program should relate to the particular HE programs that students planned to pursue, how to cater for different student levels, and how to operate this training effectively. English language teachers were not ready to offer discipline-specific programs, and tended to offer General English

programs, whereas recent studies in the Engineering field (e.g. Aguilar, 2018; Arnó-Macià et al. 2020) demonstrate the importance of English for Specific Purposes. In addition, the best methods of teaching English in such courses have not yet been seriously reviewed across multiple institutions.

Options include three recent learning approaches that we consider have particular benefits for engaging in EMI: Neurolinguistic Programming, Personalised Learning and Inquiry-based Learning. Neurolinguistic programming encourages students to explore language learning strategies known to be successful and to try and apply those that suit them. Personalised learning involves a degree of student goal-setting and self-direction, with teachers supporting students to facilitate their learning plans. This is also the case in Inquiry-based learning where students investigate topics of their own choice, using a range of resources, and then present their work to others. These latter two methods offer the potential to relate the teaching of English to students' particular HE disciplines, building disciplinary English. All three methods also indirectly support the development of the soft skills necessary for using English as a lingua franca in multinational enterprises, whether with ASEAN partners or partners from more distant locations (Kirkpatrick, 2012). This includes a focus on intercultural communication competence (ICC), its challenges and its implications for crossing cultural borders in educational practices. As far back as 1998, Byram and Fleming affirmed that 'successful cross-cultural communication depends on the acquisition of abilities to understand different modes of thinking and living' (p. 11), which includes different pedagogical practices and assessment demands. Teaching ICC involves soft skills beyond language, as, despite having some common ground with communication competence in general, ICC also has many unique characteristics related to culture and variations between cultures (Liddicoat, 2009).

ICC is also relevant to EMI-supportive extra-curricular activities, for which project-based learning (PBL) is one of the most effective active teaching–learning methods. Founded on Vygotskian Social Learning and Constructivist ideologies (Elam & Nesbit, 2012, p. 114), students experience learning and practice through multi-collaborative tasks in multiple aspects in a project basically solving a real-life problem. As argued by Poonpon (2018, p. 2), and El-Henawy and Ali (2015, p. 414), PBL could be described as having the following characteristics: a content learning focus rather than a focus on specific language patterns; the student at the centre of learning; collaborative encouragement; an important role for language and communication skills in processing information; and presentation of learning results. Daniel Park (2015) has shown that such extra-curricular activities definitely help in improving learners' English competence since the opportunity they provide for one-to-one interaction with peers and instructors makes language development natural and meaningful. PBL activities usually provide a safe learning atmosphere with minimal stress for learners to practice their English communication skills. Also, working in teams helps build a sense of togetherness and reduces students' social anxiety.

Adopting teaching methods that are expected to serve the purposes of EMI enhancement is a first step in fulfilling a university's obligation to students when offering Advanced Programs. However, to the best of our knowledge, little attempt

has been made to discover and analyse the effects of the various EMI enhancement options. Therefore, this chapter is a step in that direction, contributing some on-the-ground data extending over several years.

3.3 Research Design

This chapter reports a longitudinal case study of the active practices of EMI enhancement put in place over time for the two Advanced Programs at the Faculty of Advanced Science and Technology (FAST), at the University of Danang—Danang University of Technology (UD-DUT). The case study draws on data obtained over a period of five years for the purpose of timely evaluation and providing direction for the ongoing improvement of the FAST's EMI enhancement offerings.

3.4 Context of the Study

Four-year curricula for two Advanced Programs were imported by DUT from two prestigious American universities: the University of Washington and Portland State University. These programs are taught almost entirely in English, by expert Vietnamese lecturers and by foreign visiting professors from the two partner universities and other prestigious universities around the world. In the effort to operate such world-class programs while taking account of the Vietnamese circumstances, DUT has been paying particular attention to EMI implementation supports. Considering English competence of instructors as an important requirement of EMI implementation, DUT hosted up to 2016 more than 65 visits of foreign professors and experts from around the world coming for consultancy and teaching, and 69 episodes of program managers, lecturers and staff going abroad for training in curriculum development, teaching and learning methodology. In addition, students have been supported administratively to attend some international events run by universities and other organisations in neighbouring countries and the United States. However, due to the limited budget from the Vietnamese government for program operation, mobility is not seen as an effective key EMI enhancement practice. Another more cost-effective practice is developing an English-friendly learning environment in the locale itself. At DUT this has involved combining non-curricular, curricular and extra-curricular approaches, and supporting these with a library of specialist books in English for both lecturers and students.

In this combined approach to EMI enhancement the non-curricular approach occurs first. It involves intensive first-year non-credit courses in academic English, as well as the disciplinary English related to the field of Engineering. In the second and third years, credit-bearing courses are included in the compulsory curriculum, going 'beyond language' to develop EMI-related soft skills and writing skills. Then in the final year, there is a capstone project course involving English medium study and

Table 3.1 EMI enhancement model in Advanced Programs at DUT

<table>
<tr><th></th><th>Non-curricular</th><th>Curricular</th><th>Extra-curricular</th></tr>
<tr><td>First year</td><td>Intensive Academic English to IELTS 5.5</td><td>–</td><td>Oral communication focus</td></tr>
<tr><td>Second and third years</td><td>–</td><td>Academic and Technical Writing (9 credits)
‘Beyond-language’ Soft Skills (7 credits)</td><td rowspan="3">Project-based learning (disciplinary English)
– Learning Express
– Undergraduate Research Initiative program
– Engineering Projects in Community Services program
– Maker to Entrepreneur program
– English clubs</td></tr>
<tr><td>Fourth year</td><td>–</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Fifth year</td><td>–</td><td>Capstone Project (professional English)</td></tr>
</table>

communication. All these curricular courses are a requirement for graduation. The third, extra-curricular, approach is voluntary, since students self-select to engage in project-based EMI activities. This can occur at any stage across the five years of the program and includes engineering projects for community services. These practices were not originally integrated into our Advanced Programs but were generated in response to the challenges encountered, then gradually put to the test and evaluated through output results and feedback. Table 3.1 gives a visual overview of the three approaches currently in place, and the year levels in which they occur.

Staff contributing to these three approaches to EMI enhancement were from various sources. In the implementation of intensive English courses, from 2015, the FAST chose ACADEMY English Centre (AEC) as a partner to design the specific English curriculum and deliver the courses to Advanced Program students, because AEC itself is a top prestige and quality English centre in Danang city. Since 2015 the first-year intensive English courses and associated extra-curricular activities have thus been delivered by the expert Vietnamese and foreign English lecturers of the AEC. The implementation of the curricular skills courses (applied from 2016) and DUT extra-curricular activities (applied from 2019) have been taught in English by the FAST's own lecturers or by invited lecturers from elsewhere in DUT and internationally.

3.5 Research Method

Data for the case study were generated by the FAST between 2015 and the start of the COVID-19 pandemic in Vietnam early in 2020, using the following methods:

- observations, including teacher–researcher participant observations;

- student feedback;
- documentation of non-curricular, curricular, and extra-curricular activities, including progressive improvement and scale-up in response to feedback;
- assessment figures; and
- feedback from industry stakeholders.

Surveys of AP students for feedback on intensive English courses were conducted from 2015, while surveys of AP students and industry employers regarding curricular skill courses were conducted from 2016, and from 2019 for extra-curricular activities involving DUT students generally. The number of students participating in surveys reflects the entrance selection for APs across the years, as well as the relatively recent implementation of extra-curricular activities.

Data were analysed progressively by the present authors and their colleagues with the aim of evaluating the effectiveness of each approach to EMI enhancement and informing the design of ongoing improvements. Thus the analysis was consistent in terms of the particular intentions of each approach, as identified in the following sections.

3.6 EMI Enhancement Practices

In the following sections the FAST's practice and experiences to enhance EMI at DUT are first described and then expanded on with student outcomes and evaluation data. These EMI enhancement practices are threefold: first-year non-curricular intensive English training, compulsory curricular courses in subsequent years and extra-curricular project-based activities.

3.7 First-Year Intensive English Program (Non-Curricular)

To evaluate their freshmen's English proficiency, universities and colleges apply various assessment tools, notably CEFR, TOEIC, TOEFL and IELTS. With thoughtful consideration, DUT has chosen IELTS Academic as the most suitable and efficient program to assess students' abilities in English in terms of undertaking university studies and appropriately utilising the four skills of Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing. IELTS is recognised as one of the most reliable academic English tests, and is also a real challenge for learners coming from general English classrooms. AP freshmen in the FAST must achieve at least IELTS Academic band 5.5 (or equivalent) across Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing, before starting on the AP itself. To date, all students have been required to take the intensive English course provided by the AEC in order to improve their English as much as possible.

The intensive English course spans a five-month period and is specifically designed to develop students' academic English, including the use of the kinds of

higher order thinking (HOT) that are essential for undergraduate studies. The IELTS Academic Writing Skills tests, for example, require learners to analyse, evaluate charts and data or give their own views and make predictions. Speaking tests also require the ability to express different perspectives, compare and contrast, synthesise ideas and justify attitudes. The AEC courses focus on the IELTS Academic 4C's of twenty-first-century skills—Communication, Collaboration, Critical Thinking and Creativity. They also tailor the choice of topics and activities to reflect the science and technology interests of FAST students. Importantly, the courses are not only designed with IELTS in mind, but also address the need for students to be able to study their discipline through English and do their university assignments, some of which, in the FAST, involve creating models and giving instruction to others on their underlying principles and use. Thus students' learning is directly designed to serve their needs as FAST undergraduates—developing competence not only in English but also in some of the 'beyond-language' soft skills necessary to begin studying through EMI.

To this end, the course uses several forms of teaching to help the student develop comprehensively. Key among these are 'Method NLP' (Neurolinguistic programming), 'Personalised Learning' and 'Inquiry-based Learning', briefly outlined earlier in this chapter as useful options for enhancing EMI. Combined with regular extracurricular activities and IELTS workshops such as 'IELTS DRAGON' or 'What does IELTS mean to you?' as well as some other programs specially designed for FAST students, these methods have proved highly efficient in stimulating students to learn and practice English as well as to achieve the University requirement in the concluding IELTS assessments.

Most AEC teachers were originally lecturers from universities and colleges and have highly specialised knowledge and skills. They are all familiar with the ways of teaching and testing in the university credit system, and are constantly updating their teaching and student care practices with the use of technology, such as visual aids in teaching, online teaching and progress tests, online follow-up support, and so on.

One of the fundamental factors that has contributed to program efficiency is the Student Care service from AEC. Besides the specially designed syllabus, teachers from the Testing and QA Department of AEC provide intensive testing and consistently follow the progress of each student and give them immediate English language support when needed, via various ways of communication and interaction such as the Class Group Facebook, email or phone. This is highly valued in student feedback. Student evaluations of the AEC program overall are also consistently positive, with frequent comments on the enthusiastic teachers, well-designed syllabus and materials and academic support.

3.7.1 Learner Outcomes from the AEC Intensive English Courses

Since the start of DUT-AEC cooperation in 2015, four successive English courses have been organised with the aim of giving students the best opportunity to achieve the goal set by the University for first-year students. Input and output test results for the years 2015–2019 are shown in the following two graphs (Fig. 3.1).

(a) IELTS Input test results.

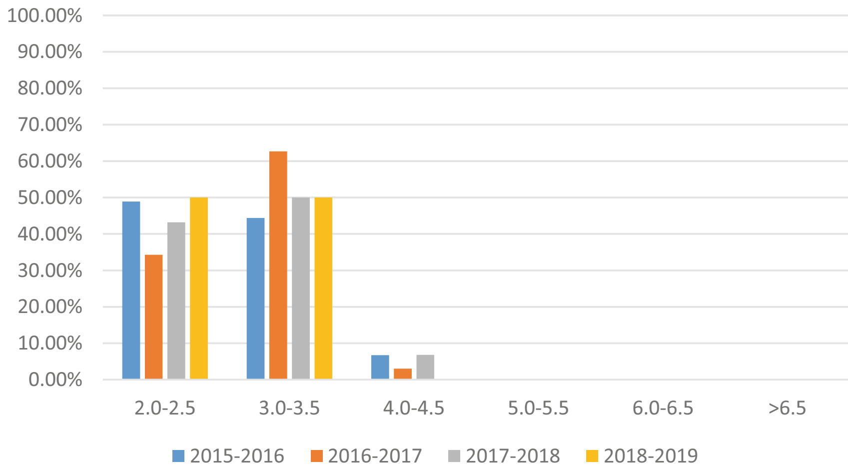
(b) IELTS Output test results.

As regards the input tests, it is noticeable that a majority of students across all courses were ranked at rather low IELTS levels—from 2.0 to 3.5—with under 10% of students ranked at band 4.0–4.5 and none at higher bands. However, when it comes to the output tests, students' results changed very positively over the five-month period. On average across the four cohorts, over 50% of students reached IELTS levels from 5.0 to 5.5 or above, up to 6.5 and over, with just a small number of students course still ranked at level 2.0–3.5 and thus unable to continue into the EMI program.

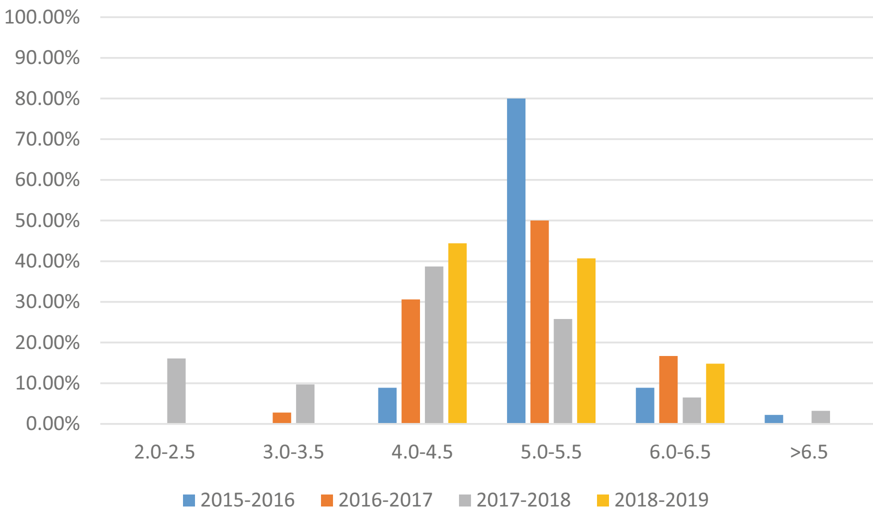
In the years 2017–2018 and 2018–2019, FAST students wishing to enroll in an AP were required by the university Department of Academic Affairs to additionally take the internal IELTS format test designed and co-organised by the AEC and DUT. This gave students an additional month to improve their English, and, unlike the IELTS test, included the kind of technical English taught during the intensive program in preparation for the chosen AP. The results from this test were used as the official means of deciding whether or not a student had passed the first-year requirement for entry into the AP. If not, then students were required to move to a standard program using Vietnamese as the medium of instruction (Fig. 3.2).

The results in Fig. 3.2 indicate that students benefitted from reliance on this test rather than the earlier IELTS, since considerably higher results were achieved, with a 20% increase for the 2017–2018 cohort and a 10% increase for the 2018–2019 cohort. This increase could be attributed to various factors: the extra month of study; building on the AEC coursework; or possibly, in the case of the 2017–2018 cohort, the fact that the AEC staff had not previously been required to design such a test and built on that experience when designing the 2018–2019 test.

In any event, based on both the IELTS and the internal tests, it can clearly be concluded that the intensive English program for AP students had a positive impact on all students' English competence, enabling the majority of them to reach the required output target in quite a short period of time. Nevertheless, FAST staff in the AP programs soon became aware that students achieving IELTS 5.0–5.5 continue to need targeted support to study successfully through EMI.



(a): IELTS Input test results



(b) IELTS Output test results

Fig. 3.1 IELTS (academic) input and output test results

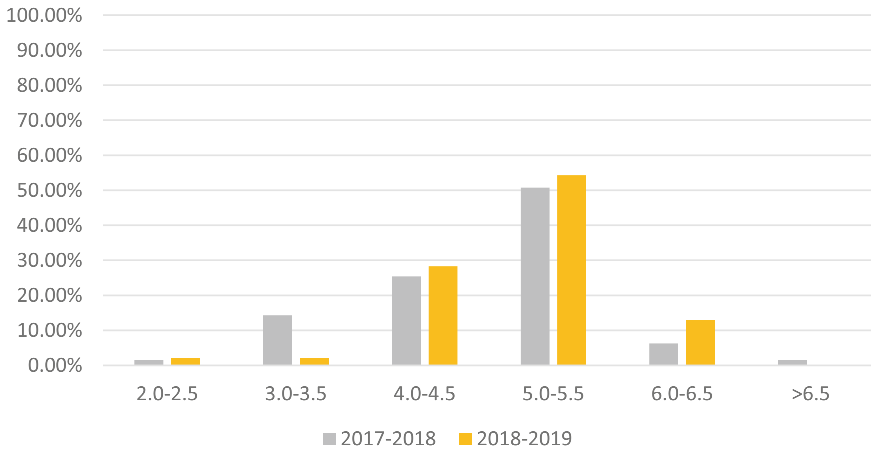


Fig. 3.2 Internal IELTS results

3.8 Curricular Courses Enhancing EMI

3.8.1 Second and Third Year Curricular Skills Courses

To further boost learners' development of academic and disciplinary English language competence, compulsory curricular courses totalling 16 credits were specifically designed to respond to the demands of the EMI curriculum for AP students in years 2 and 3. These courses focus on two themes: (a) academic and technical writing, and (b) 'beyond-language' soft skills, such as managing discussion in small groups, as shown in Fig. 3.3.

The academic and technical writing courses—English Composition, Introduction to Technical Writing and Advanced Technical Writing—equip students with academic writing skills to use English for writing technical reports such as lab reports, case studies, internship reports, essays and graduation papers. On the other hand, the 'beyond-language' soft skills courses concentrate on communication and intercultural communication competence (C&ICC) to enable students to have an in-depth understanding of communication processes and strategies, English-speaking cultures and their leadership styles, and the relationship between English language and its cultures. In the small group communication and discussion leadership courses, students become fully aware of five factors that have effects on communication: personality, cultural, gender, generation and religion. Recognising these factors and related differences across cultures helps learners develop effective communication strategies and make adaptations when working in groups in multinational corporations. Together these 16 compulsory credit courses offer optimal conditions for developing students' capacity to accomplish the overall goal, that is, to boost students' content acquisition and potential for its professional application.

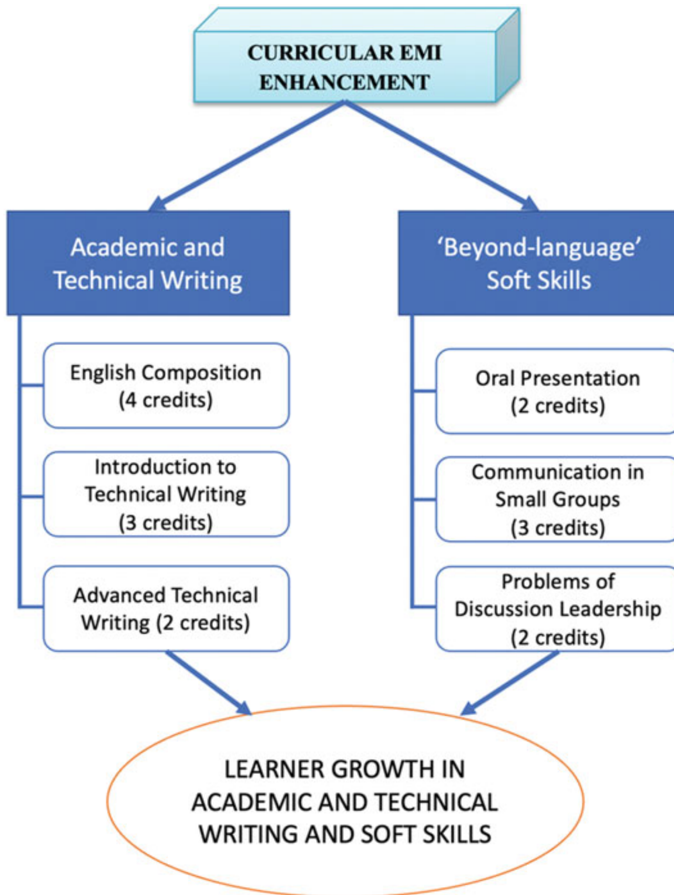


Fig. 3.3 Credit courses and goals for EMI enhancement

3.8.2 Fifth Year Curricular Capstone Project

Capstone projects are generally designed to encourage students to think critically, solve challenging problems and develop skills such as oral communication, public speaking, research skills, media literacy, teamwork, planning, self-sufficiency or goal-setting.

The final year capstone project in the two DUT Advanced Programs is the last credit course (6 credits) of the program and requires students to engage with real-life situations and engineering problems in industry and apply the knowledge and skills, including English communication and intercultural communication skills, that they have accumulated over the previous four years. This course lasts for a semester, involving two initial months for an internship and three more months for preparing their final thesis on a topic raised by the internship host and co-guided by industrial

experts and academic instructors. Students need to submit written reports in English for all stages of solution development following the design process and orally present their work, also in English, for evaluation by a guidance committee. This capstone project forces students to develop and apply English skills in a real multi-cultural working environment involving industrial engineering problem-solving through team work. In this way, their English can improve naturally and rapidly. Students can also take advantage of this course for their employment portfolio, while enterprises have found it a good preparation for recruiting their qualified workforce.

3.8.3 Learner Outcomes Related to Emi Enhancement Curriculum

While academic English language development is the main focus in the first-year intensive program, in subsequent years the curricular focus is on the application of English and English medium soft skills within the discipline and within professional intercultural situations. In regard to learning outcomes of the capstone project, survey data on satisfaction of students and industry enterprises, carried out by DUT in 2015, showed that most students and enterprises agreed on approximately 3.0 out of a 4.0 point scale regarding the achievement of students after their capstone project in terms of soft skills, including communication skills and teamwork. Student feedback on the development of both communication skills and soft skills across their whole Advanced Program was obtained in the academic year 2018–2019 from 280 graduating students in two APs, using a paper questionnaire with a five-point Likert scale (Brace, 2008) (Table. 3.2).

These consistently high student ratings were supported by feedback from employer representatives on our AP graduates, such as being good at English, soft

Table 3.2 Student feedback on their development of communication and soft skills across the program

	Development of communication and soft skills within the Advanced Programs						
	Inter-personal	Verbal	Non-verbal	Problem-solving	Critical thinking	Oral presentation	Team work
1. Very dissatisfied	3%	3%	3%	1%	1%	3%	2%
2. Dissatisfied	8%	3%	2%	1%	2%	6%	4%
3. Neutral	18%	15%	16%	14%	13%	16%	15%
4. Satisfied	54%	58%	65%	55%	57%	58%	60%
5. Very satisfied	17%	22%	14%	29%	27%	16%	19%

skills and working attitude (Viettel Company), good at English and communication skill with foreign (eSilicon, Danang), having effective and clear communication skill (Bosch, Ho Chi Minh).

3.9 DUT Extra-Curricular Activities

Moving into active educational methods, DUT has recently applied a variety of project-based learning activities for students, such as Learning Express LeX (in collaboration with Singapore Polytechnic), Engineering Projects in Community Services (EPICS), Women Engineering Project in Community Services (WEPICS), and eProject with Industry (in collaboration with Arizona State University, USA). These programs/activities have been designed and organised to leverage an active and student-centric learning method covering multiple disciplines and multiple skills. Therefore, the student plays the main role in all stages of the activities, from identifying, engaging with and analysing real-world problems, to proposing their solution, managing their team to implement the project and finally reflecting on their own participation as part of the evaluation and presentation phase. In this case, the teacher adopts a role as facilitator. All of these activities have been deliberately designed as a meaningful way for students to keep improving and consolidating their English language and related beyond-language competences and to increase their confidence in communicating interculturally in English.

In recent years extra-curricular activities for all DUT students have begun to be systematically developed from years 1 to 4 for the purpose of enhancing multi-disciplinary collaboration, through which students learn from others in different disciplines. Some degree of English is always required, and participating AP students therefore gain the opportunity to expand their English to encompass topics outside their specialisation. Generally in the first stage of these activities, team members have to together develop specific innovative engineering idea(s) to help solve an existing problem in their community. Following the design thinking process, and gathering training knowledge from international and national institutional and industrial experts, as well as considering feedback from all stakeholders, they have to work in a team to design and build their prototype products to meet the requirements. Students then receive certificates of participation in these activities.

3.9.1 Learner Outcomes from Dut Extra-Curricular Activities

Table. 3.3 shows the data collected from 30 students (AP students and others) who participated in these activities at DUT in 2019 as regards their motivation and improvement of communication skills.

Table 3.3 Surveys on student satisfaction of extra-curricular activities

Questions	Answers (%)	
	Yes	**No**
1. Improvement in personal motivation and expectation for self-contribution to social innovation and development	100	0
2. Motivation to propose innovation ideas to solve community problems	100	0
3. Improvement in self-confidence in communication between team members, with experts, and with community people	100	0
4. Improvement in English competence	92.9	7.1
5. Improvement in self-confidence to communicate in English through project activities	89.3	10.7
6. Improvement in international approach (thinking, opportunity, activities, etc.*)*	100	0
7. Better understanding about self-responsibility for society	100	0

The high results for improvement in communication in English, overall English competence and intercultural communication competence bear witness to the value of these activities in enhancing EMI, while the 100% rating for improvement of personal motivation, responsibility, innovation and international reach reveal the effectiveness of this type of learning in general, using English as an important means to leverage students' personal and interpersonal skills. The data reveal that, through these extra-curricular activities, there has been a natural improvement in students' activeness and communication skill in general and their English competence in particular. Unfortunately data could not be collected for the 2020 year due to COVID-19 restrictions, but the 2019 data certainly supports the continuation and expansion of these extra-curricular activities.

3.10 Conclusion and Implications for Moving Forward with EMI

In the attempt to enhance EMI in response to both its advantages and challenges in Advanced Programs, DUT and the Faculty of Advanced Science and Technology (FAST) have implemented a variety of processes including improving human resource quality, facilities, learning and teaching methods, coursework and extra-curricular activities. In this chapter, we have indicated our EMI challenges and have shared our practices of applying non-curricular, curricular and extra-curricular approaches to effectively enhance EMI quality. These practices are threefold: (a) initial training—an intensive non-credit five-month English program—to prepare students with adequate language skills before heading to the EMI program, (b) the implementation of compulsory curricular courses (16 credits in total) offered

during years two and three to foster English language competence and 'beyond-language' soft skills, plus a one-semester 6-credit capstone project in the fifth year (final semester) and (c) extra-curricular project-based activities in concurrence with the EMI program to build and consolidate practical and professional communication skills in English.

The training in English before starting EMI courses is clearly necessary, given that very few students have any prior experience of using English for content learning. The course offered by the AEC not only provides a focus on academic English, but incorporates topics and activities that are specifically relevant to the scientific and technological interests of the enrolled students. This is in contrast to some other university preliminary courses which offer only General English (see, for example, student comments in Chapter 12 of this volume). The AEC course thus gives students a solid basis for absorbing and strengthening specialised knowledge in English language in the coming semesters as well as strong self-confidence in communication which boosts their English skills day by day. In other words the course has a domino effect.

This domino effect is further extended through the 16 compulsory credit-bearing courses taken across the second and third years of the Advanced Programs, which validate intercultural communication skills as an integral part of the undergraduate program. An important feature of these courses is that they not only have an English language and intercultural focus but also provide 'beyond-language' soft skills training. The courses are directly linked to the particular needs of FAST students in each year, thus adding more meaning to the study. These courses support successful content learning by deepening students' English language and communication competence in intercultural, teamwork, technical writing and discussion management.

Extra-curricular activities involving practical project-based activities similarly enhance the EMI aspect of the programs. In these extra-curricular activities English language development happens in an active, learner-friendly and exciting way in situations where students apply the knowledge acquired through their major to solve specific real-life problems. The problems are chosen to require the application of inter-disciplinary and multiple interpersonal and personal skills, including all four skills of English communication. In turn, the projects allow students to work together with their peers, their instructors and other stakeholders, and also to find motivation to communicate in English, to share their interests and to overcome their fear of making mistakes. In this way, students move from being passive knowledge recipients to active learners and co-constructors of new, complex knowledge and skills. Through such experiential learning activities, students' communication skills are developed naturally to meet their own personally motivated needs without undue pressure. This creates a mutual strengthening impact among the learners, building social and emotional well-being and self-confidence while also strengthening their professional experience and resulting in strong academic and social performances.

Our own evaluation data on these three approaches to enhancing the quality of EMI indicates definite strengths and reasons to continue them. The course assessment of preliminary intensive English training shows the clear improvement of students' English capacity—from 95% of students below band 3.5 IELTS Academic at the

input test to approximately 65% above band 5.0 at the output test after the five-month training. In regard to the curricular EMI enhancement practices, an average of 80% of students participating in the 2018–2019 survey indicated satisfaction in regard to their development of interpersonal, verbal, non-verbal, problem solving, critical thinking, oral presentation and teamwork skills. In addition, feedback from employers indicates particular appreciation of the quality of student communication skills. Finally, nearly all students participating in project-based extra-curricular activities in their fifth year in 2019 agreed on their improvement in communication skills, including English, self-confidence and motivation, as a result of these projects. Although the data is still limited, it does reveal the effectiveness and usefulness of these activities for the 30 students involved.

Given the evaluation data on all three of our approaches to enhancing EMI, our university has been expanding these learning models to a larger scale and plans to collect ongoing systematic feedback from stakeholders. We highly recommend these practices to other EMI programs who also confront the challenges of improving student English proficiency and learning methods to enhance the quality of their EMI offerings. While the execution of such a model of non-curricular, curricular and extra-curricular activities occurs at the program level, great support is needed at faculty and university level. In order to purvey these effective practices to other programs, a system of strategic plans and policies needs to be set up by the institution to provide resources and guidance to support the process of moving forward educationally with EMI.

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Nguyen Thi Anh Thu obtained her doctoral degree at the Catholic University of America (2013) and is the Vice-dean of the Faculty of Advanced Science and Technology at the University of Danang—University of Science and Technology (UD-DUT). Her research interests are in eHealth, Medical Imaging and related fields. She is co-founder of the Digital Innovation Laboratory, DUT and a vice-director at Danang International Institute of Technology, UD, which leads studies in IoT, AI engineering solutions for smart city, health care, etc. She is a senior vice-president at Fablab Danang focusing on innovation programs in STEAM (STEM+Art) for K-12 students and community.

Pham Van Tuan has worked in higher education for more than 20 years. Associate Professor Tuan is Director of the Educational Testing and Quality Assurance Department, University of Science and Technology, University of Da Nang, Vietnam. He has been promoted to AUN-QA as Lead Assessor and certified as Vietnam quality accreditor. Besides the field of specialized research on Digital Signal Processing and Artificial Intelligence, he deeply develops a professional QA career focusing on the CDIO innovative engineering education framework, outcome-based education (OBE) and internal quality assurance (IQA). He is interested in strengthening the governance performance of the Viet Nam HE sector.

Ho Vu Khue Ngoc works at the University of Da Nang—University of Foreign Languages Studies. In 2014, she was a post-doc educational researcher and visiting scholar at the National Taipei University of Education, Taiwan (NTUE). She obtained a double Ph.D. degree in Education and Asia Pacific Studies from Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University, Japan (APU) in 2010, following a Master degree in TESOL from the University of Queensland, Australia (UQ) in 2003. Her research interests are globalization of education, education management, assessments and reforms, second language teaching methodology, English as medium of instruction (EMI) and international standardized English tests.

Nguyen Thi Tu Trinh is English lecturer at the University of Science and Technology—the University of Da Nang, Vietnam. Her teaching focuses on areas of English teaching and communication skills. She obtained her doctoral degree from the University of Foreign Language Studies—the University of Da Nang and worked as a visiting scholar at Southern Connecticut State University, USA. Her research interests are linguistic theory; its application to classroom teaching; functional grammar; and technology-assisted teaching. She has presented and published nationally and internationally, and has acted as an active peer reviewer for the journal International Linguistic Research.

Dinh Thuy Vy is concurrently the Academic Manager and the Testing and QA Manager at the Academy English Center, Danang City, Vietnam. She graduated from the University of Da Nang—University of Foreign Language Studies where she gained her Master Degree in English Language in 2020. During those years at the University, she won two prizes in Scientific Research Contests and wrote several scientific articles, representatively 'University students' behaviors and attitudes towards school cultures. What are the solutions?' Her aim is to contribute more to the community of EFL learners with inspiring, motivating and effective learning methods.

Nguyen Thi Kim Thoa is CEO's Personal Assistant at ACADEMY English Center (AEC) with the duty to assist the CEO in different aspects of operation. She is a soft skills teacher and conducts extra-curricular activities for learners at ACADEMY English Center. She graduated

from the University of Foreign Language Studies—the University of Da Nang with a Bachelor of Arts in International Studies. She is a former chairwoman of the International Relations Club. She also took part in academic programs aiming to study regional issues and achieved awards from these programs' contests such as Outstanding Delegate in Model ASEAN Summit 2017; Third Place in ASEAN Writing Contest co-organised by the Diplomatic Academy of Vietnam and Konrad-Adenauer-Stiftung in 2018.

Chapter 4
Mediating Job Satisfaction Among English Medium Instruction Teachers in Vietnamese Universities

Thi To Loan Pham, Khac Nghia Nguyen, and Thu Ba Hoang

Abstract On the basis that EMI teachers' job satisfaction is integral to the successful implementation of EMI within universities, we believe that institutions need to consider this aspect more closely when attempting to move forward educationally with their EMI offerings to students. Consequently, this qualitative research investigates factors influencing EMI teachers' job satisfaction at one Vietnamese university, using (Hagedorn, Hagedorn (ed), New directions for institutional research, Jossey-Bass, 2000) framework of faculty job satisfaction. In-depth interviews with 16 content teachers were conducted with the subsequent utilisation of Nvivo 11 for data analysis. The results showed particular factors functioning as 'motivators' in promoting EMI teachers' job satisfaction, namely achievement, recognition, and advancement. On the other hand, some factors were shown to produce demotivating effects, and could be constructed as what Hagedorn refers to as 'hygienes'. Hygienes identified were: unsatisfactory payment, inadequate teaching resources, lack of research-related support, students' English deficiency, lack of professional training and support, and the impossibility of translating beliefs into practices due to the strength of other 'hygienes', a new finding. Overall, these research results offer significant implications for fostering EMI teachers' job satisfaction both at the host university and other institutions of similar context, with the ultimate goal of promoting sustainable development for EMI teachers and EMI university programs in Vietnam.

Keywords English medium instruction · EMI · Vietnam · Higher education · Job satisfaction · Teacher beliefs

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T. T. L. Pham (✉) · K. N. Nguyen · T. B. Hoang
Thuongmai University, Ha Noi, Vietnam
e-mail: loanptt@tmu.edu.vn

K. N. Nguyen
e-mail: nghia.nk@tmu.edu.vn

T. B. Hoang
e-mail: hoangthuba@tmu.edu.vn

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4.1 Introduction

The goals of EMI programs are associated with improving educational quality, attracting domestic and international students, increasing university ranking on national, regional and international scales, generating institutional revenue, and enhancing the employability of graduates in national and global labour markets (Dang et al., 2013; Duong & Chua, 2016; Nguyen et al., 2016, 2017; Tran & Nguyen, 2018; Trinh & Conner, 2018; Vu & Burns, 2014). However, in practice, the quality and availability of qualified EMI teachers pose enormous challenges for actual implementation (Kirkpatrick, 2011; Nguyen, 2011). According to Le (2012), lecturers have limited English language skills and constrained professional knowledge which leads to decreasing effectiveness of programs. Not only this, but teachers' classroom practices are influenced by factors such as student performance, institutional support, professional elements, working conditions, academic and curricular issues, all of which exert significant impact on teachers' job satisfaction (Praver & Oga-Baldwin, 2008; González-Riano & Armesto, 2012 as cited in Fernández-Costales, 2015).

As teachers are key agents in the learning process, they are crucially important in moving forward with EMI in terms of students' educational outcomes. Consequently, this chapter is an attempt to explore factors influencing EMI teachers' job satisfaction, with the aim of providing information for appropriate policy development and timely support from institutions to maximise the effectiveness of EMI programs at higher education institutions (HEIs) in Vietnam. Data involving a cohort of 16 EMI teachers were collected through a case study at a single public Vietnamese university.

4.2 Literature Review

4.2.1 Workforce Concerns Regarding EMI in Vietnamese Higher Education

For the past two decades, Vietnam's membership of ASEAN (Association of South East Asian Nations) in 1995, APEC (Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation) in 1998, and WTO (World Trade Organisation) in 2006 has resulted in the demand for a high-quality workforce with proficient English and well-educated people (Nguyen et al., 2017; Pham, 2011). The need to promote English language proficiency for human resources is articulated explicitly in the National Foreign Language 2020 Policy (NFL, 2020), and Higher Education Reform Agenda (HERA) (Vietnam Government, 2014). Central to these policies is the implementation of EMI programs at HEIs to foster students' English competence, generate a well-qualified workforce, and subsequently enhance graduate employability in the international workforce (Le, 2012, 2019). In other words, EMI programs promote students' global linguistic capital and global cultural capital to achieve their aspiration for career prospects and employability in the labour market of Vietnam's fast-growing economy (Tran &

Nguyen, 2018). The implementation of EMI is therefore a strategic approach for HEIs in Vietnam to keep pace with regional and international developments and ultimately strengthen the nation's labour workforce in the process of economic and cultural integration (Pham, 2011; Tran et al., 2014).

However, there is a debatable question about the effectiveness of these programs in improving educational quality at Vietnamese universities (Hoang et al., 2018; Le, 2012). Indeed, as Le (2012) points out, in 2008 the Advanced Programs project was considered a failure by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) after only three years of implementation in 13 top universities across the country. Advanced Programs (Chương trình Tiên Tiến) had been promoted by MOET in partnership with high-ranking overseas HEIs, and recruited high-achieving students with the ultimate goal of placing a Vietnamese HEI among 200 leading universities by 2020 (Marginson et al., 2011). Joint Programs (Chương trình liên kết) partnering with medium-ranking overseas HEIs are also causing concern, as are domestic High Quality Programs (Chương trình Đào tạo Chất lượng cao), which are characterised by cooperation between Vietnamese HEIs and foreign partners with reference to curriculum, materials and assessment of foreign counterparts.

There are several reasons put forward for the issues with EMI implementation. For example, as stated by Nguyen (2018), admissions to Joint and High Quality programs generally do not have entrance exams and the entry requirements are often very low to maximise the intake of enrolments, with the result that students' English proficiency is frequently inadequate for content learning through EMI. Additionally, quality assurance of such programs is ill-regulated which leads to low academic credentials (Nguyen, 2018). Yet perhaps the most important reasons stem from teacher capabilities, materials, methodology and facilities. Specifically, the main causes hindering the successful implementation of the programs are teachers' limited English competence and professional knowledge, one-way knowledge transmission from teachers as part of traditional teaching methodology, and inadequate or unsuitable materials (Le, 2012). As such, it can be concluded that teachers play a vital role in boosting the effectiveness of the EMI courses at HEIs in Vietnam. Consequently their levels of job satisfaction are a matter of concern and merit investigation. However, there is a paucity of research for sustaining the effectiveness of EMI implementation on the part of lecturers. Specifically, for over the past 20 years, little attention has been paid to the exploration of job satisfaction among EMI academics which would enable institutions to take necessary and timely measures to generate sustainable conditions for EMI lecturers and thus increase the likelihood of successful educational outcomes of EMI among students.

4.2.2 Factors Influencing Job Satisfaction

It is generally accepted that people with a high level of job satisfaction demonstrate positive attitudes towards their work, while those who are dissatisfied demonstrate negative attitudes. In turn, these attitudes impact on productivity and, in the case of

university education, on student outcomes. For this reason, it is vitally important to understand factors that influence job satisfaction. Building on the work of Herzberg et al. (1993), Hagedorn (2000) differentiates two constructs influencing job satisfaction for university academics, namely: *mediators* and *triggers*. Mediators refer to the broad context of a working academic life, while triggers refer to events in an individual's life, such as a promotion or giving birth. As such, triggers are not relevant in this study, whereas mediators, which apply to whole cohorts of teachers, are highly relevant.

For Hagedorn, mediators are factors that can function either positively, as *motivators,* or negatively, as *hygienes*. Motivators lead to increased satisfaction; hygienes lead to dissatisfaction. A neutral mediator may act as a preventative hygiene, not exerting any motivating or demotivating effect, but possibly preventing dissatisfaction. Hagedorn (2000) lists the following factors able to function as either motivators or hygienes: achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, advancement, and salary. A subsequent study by Bentley et al. (2013) found these all to be applicable, and added one more—institutional resources—on the grounds that a lack of physical, human, and financial resources hinders performance, just as other hygienes do. In this study we looked for evidence of all these factors, functioning either as motivators or as hygienes.

Hagedorn (2000, pp. 6–7) refers to two additional types of mediators: demographics and environmental conditions. Demographics relate to individual factors, such as gender, professional ranking, and academic discipline, which we chose not to address in this study given the small sample and our concern with factors applicable to the group rather than to individuals. Environmental conditions relate to whole cohorts of academics, and comprise collegial relationships, student quality or relationships, administration, and institutional climate or culture, which we did choose to address. Based on our experience in the EMI field, we argue that there is another environmental condition that deserves consideration, namely the degree to which teachers are able to translate their pedagogical beliefs into actual classroom practices. On the one hand, ability to translate pedagogical beliefs into practice might be seen in the same way as Hagedorn (2000) sees the 'stress' factor, namely as 'a consequence of negative responses to the mediators' (p. 9). On the other hand, while stress tends to be associated with nearly all aspects of the job (Hagedorn, 2000), ability to translate pedagogical beliefs into practice is directly related to the teaching process and is not so much a personal response (feeling stressed) as an outcome of environmental conditions affecting pathways for moving forward educationally with EMI. For these reasons, and because of its apparent importance to our colleagues in EMI, we decided to investigate it as an independent mediator related to the teaching environment.

4.2.3 Beliefs and Their Translation into Practice

Beliefs encompass people's opinions, conceptions, ideas, or views. They are judgements and evaluations that we make about ourselves, other people, and the world around us (Kunt, 1997; Wang, 1996). In education, beliefs can be defined as teachers' ideas and viewpoints on teaching and learning (Haney et al., 1996; Khader, 2012). Such beliefs play a pivotal and influencing role in teachers' classroom practices and their professional development (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2017). In the context of EMI teaching, research has been conducted to investigate teachers' beliefs about teaching, and about students, content, and problem-solving strategies for classroom teaching (Kagen, 1990 as cited in Henriksen et al., 2018). Widely held beliefs about the benefits of EMI include intercultural understanding, global perspectives, strengthened economy, greater competitiveness, enhanced employability, and improved educational opportunities for students (Briggs et al., 2018; Hu, 2019).

However, some studies reveal that beliefs may not be reflected in teachers' practices for reasons of contextual constraint (Akbulut, 2007; Farrell, 2008; Urmston & Pennington, 2008). In other words, contextual factors such as school and classroom environments can constrain teachers in translating their beliefs into practices (Fang, 2006). In EMI, for example, it has been noted that actual practices of EMI are constrained by the English proficiency of both teachers and students (Hu et al., 2014a, 2014b). Specifically, inadequate English capacity leads to students' challenges in comprehending lessons and materials; teachers' inability to teach interactively, which is a feature of intended EMI pedagogy; and teachers' provision of merely superficial instructional content (Hu, 2019; Simbolon, 2016). In order to cope with such challenges, teachers resort to strategies such as: simplifying the content, avoiding interaction and improvisation with students, minimising spontaneous discussions, code-switching from the new language (L2) to the national language (L1), and translating instructional content from L2 to L1 (Hu, 2019). These coping strategies are said to have had negative impacts on the teaching and learning of subject content and the development of English language competence (Hu, 2019). We argue that this environmental condition is a matter of concern in regard to EMI teachers' job satisfaction in Vietnamese universities and needs to be specifically attended to in research.

4.3 Research Design

4.3.1 The Research Questions

With a view to understanding institutional responsibilities in regard to EMI programs, this study investigates the following three questions:

1. What factors influence the job satisfaction of EMI teachers in a Vietnamese university?
2. What factors constrain EMI teachers when translating their pedagogical beliefs into practices?
3. What correlation is there between teachers' beliefs, achievable practices, and job satisfaction?

4.3.2 The Research Context

University G is a prestigious HEI in Vietnam which offers business-related courses such as Finance and Banking, Business Administration, Accounting, Marketing, International Trade, and Economics, for undergraduate and postgraduate students. It has established cooperation with 50 HEIs from different countries across the world and officially has Joint Programs with many well-established and renowned universities from Canada, Austria, France, China, and Taiwan. EMI programs at University G are taught by overseas lecturers and university academics who have obtained postgraduate qualifications from various countries, including America, England, Japan, Sweden, Germany, and Taiwan. The students in such programs are both undergraduate and Master of Business Administration (MBA) students. Undergraduate students pursue a High Quality Program with higher tuition fees than the standard program. MBA students pursue English-taught Joint Programs between University G and its counterparts from France, Canada, Taiwan, and Austria.

Having initiated EMI programs in 2005, the university has currently achieved remarkable outcomes in training high quality graduates with high English proficiency and excellent professional knowledge. However, although the programs have shown signs of considerable success, there still exist several issues that need to be tackled. As in many other institutions in Vietnam, the implementation of EMI in University G is still fragmented, ad-hoc, inconsistent, and unsustainable (Tran & Marginson, 2018).

4.3.3 Data Generation and Analysis

The three researchers conducted individual interviews with 16 content lecturers at University G. Their EMI courses involved Business environment, Start-up, Human resource management, Accounting, Financial management, and Corporate finance. The EMI teaching experience of these teachers ranged from 5 to 15 years. Most of them had obtained postgraduate qualifications overseas, while those lecturers who achieved a postgraduate degree in Vietnam had to meet a required overall score of 6.0 IELTS to teach EMI courses.

Each interview was conducted in Vietnamese and lasted between 30 and 45 minutes. All the conversations were audio recorded, transcribed in Vietnamese,

Table 4.1 Categories for data analysis

Mediators in university EMI teachers' job satisfaction	
Motivators and hygienes	Environmental conditions
Achievement	Collegial relationships
Recognition	Student quality or relationships
Work itself	Administration
Responsibility	Institutional climate
Advancement	Opportunity for translation of beliefs into practice
Salary	
Institutional resources	

and translated into English in preparation for later analysis. With the support of NVivo 11, a thematic data analysis approach enabled researchers to interpret meaning from the content of the interview transcripts through coding and identifying emerging themes (Creswell, 2012). These themes in turn could be closely associated with the key research question regarding factors influencing job satisfaction. Hagedorn's (2000) conceptual framework of motivators, hygienes, and environmental conditions then enabled deeper data analysis. We see this framework, as Hagedorn (2000, p. 17) does, as 'an aid to better understand the commonality that faculty share and provide a structure on which institutional analysis of job satisfaction can be based'. For our data analysis purposes in this study (see Table 4.1), we have included the two additional mediators identified in Sect. 2.2, namely: institutional resources—identified in Bentley et al., (2013)—and translation of beliefs into practice—proposed by us as a potential mediator in current Vietnamese university settings and a key focus in this study.

4.4 Findings: EMI Teachers' Job Satisfaction

The interview data revealed that there were several factors influencing teachers' job satisfaction—comprising both motivators and hygienes, as well as environmental conditions.

4.4.1 Motivators

The teachers reported benefitting in several ways from teaching EMI at their university, notably improvement of English competence and the development of professional knowledge. Teacher 10 provided an example of this view:

> When teaching EMI, I have to read many materials in English. Those state-of-the-art materials are very up-to-date and stimulating so they help me to improve my English and simultaneously widen my professional knowledge. This gives me a sense of professionalism, self-improvement and advancement.

Noticeably, several teachers reported that lecturing in EMI programs accommodated enhancement of their professional profile. Apart from teaching at their university, they receive many offers to lecture in other prestigious higher education institutions, helping them to expand their professional network and gain increasing recognition. This finding contrasts with the study by Briggs et al. (2018) whose results only reported on challenges to teachers of EMI. Indeed, benefits to EMI teachers are not widely referred to in the EMI literature internationally.

While recognition and advancement of EMI teachers appear to function as direct motivators for job satisfaction, benefits to the institution and to students could be seen as indirect motivators or perhaps as 'preventative hygienes'. In these teachers' view, the implementation of EMI at their institution is now a mainstream approach that enhances the prestige of the university in the context of profound globalisation and internationalisation. Teacher 15 commented:

> I believe that the university's implementation of EMI programs definitely helps to increase our ranking because these programs are associated with well-selected curriculum and well-qualified teachers which lead to the enhancement of educational quality. It is a sure-fire way to catch up with the development of HIEs domestically, regionally and internationally.

Many teachers also held the belief that in order to survive in the increasingly competitive higher educational environment, the institution's adoption of EMI is an inevitable trend to attract more domestic as well as international students. As Teacher 3 said:

> Currently, the labour market seeks highly skilled graduates who have both English and professional competence. So, a large number of parents and students in Vietnam desire to have bilingual education. Accordingly, they favour English-taught courses to ensure their success in the future. Moreover, the programs also allow the university to recruit international students and faculty.

These statements endorse the findings of Briggs et al. (2018) and Hu (2019) in regard to EMI as a factor in institutional competitiveness, as well as providing improved educational opportunities for students.

With regard to student benefits from EMI programs, teachers stated that students had the opportunity to access internationalised curricula and global perspectives as against the outdated perspectives in Vietnamese-medium programs. They also benefited from creative, communicative, and collaborative teaching styles from well-qualified teachers. Additionally, graduates from EMI programs have good career prospects because their English proficiency and expertise are expected to exceed those of students who pursue standard programs. Teacher 6 illustrated this point:

> Vietnamese family and students are now very practical-minded. More and more students study EMI to look for employment opportunities in the future. They also hold the view that great English skill accompanied with good expertise will ensure a high status in society.

This finding is once again in line with studies by Briggs et al. (2018) and Hu (2019) reporting the positive employment prospects for students pursuing EMI programs.

4.4.2 *Hygienes*

Hygienes working against teachers' job satisfaction were considerably more numerous than motivators, indicating an overall low level of job satisfaction. Hygienes primarily related to the following areas of concern:

- remuneration and workload
- research-related issues
- teachers' low English competence and lack of EMI training
- students' low and disparate English competence
- teaching-related issues, including teaching and learning resources

While the first two areas of concern relate to teachers' professional life in general, the last three relate directly to the classroom practice of EMI. It is noteworthy that our data set gave no information about two potential mediators identified by Hagedorn (2000), namely responsibility and collegial relationships. None of the participants mentioned responsibility for managing EMI teaching processes as either a motivator or a hygiene, which may mean that they took for granted the degree of responsibility they experienced. Similarly, none mentioned collegial relationships, neither within their discipline nor with English language specialists with whom they might have been collaborating in some way. This suggests either that such collaboration was not occurring or was not expected. However, we can only be certain of participants' views on the following factors.

4.4.2.1 Remuneration and Workload

Concerning the pay rate for EMI classes, almost all the teachers affirmed that the payment was far from satisfactory given the workload. Even though English-taught courses require tremendous effort in preparing classes, according to these teachers the rate per hour for EMI programs is only just slightly higher than for standard programs. As a result, teachers lack motivation for EMI teaching. Teacher 9 said:

> Normally, teachers must spend a lot of time reading various materials to prepare for each lesson, but the payment is not satisfactory. If the rate is a lot higher than for the standard programs, I think I will have more motivation and devotion to the course. However, with the current payment and heavy workload at school, I do not invest properly in the lectures.

Low payment is perceived as the main source of dissatisfaction with EMI teaching by most of the lecturers, who consider that policy pertaining to financial incentives should be established and implemented.

4.4.2.2 Research-Related Issues

Five of the teachers explicitly stated that another factor leading to dissatisfaction was the inadequacy of research-related conditions at institution level, including heavy

workload, lack of a private room, and shortage of academic resources. Workload was critical as 'in order to teach EMI successfully, it is necessary to do research in English to improve English skills and broaden content knowledge at the same time' (Teacher 16). Teacher 11 further illustrated the disadvantageous conditions for engaging in research:

> I don't have time for doing research to enhance English competence and disciplinary expertise due to the heavy workload. Also, due to a limited personal budget along with the lack of a resources-support policy from the university, we have very rare opportunities to access journal articles and books from world renowned and prestigious publishers such as Springer, Wiley-Blackwell, Taylor & Francis, etc. This inhibits our engagement in research. Moreover, teachers at our university do not have our own office so as to work free from the possibility of interruption. We need our own office with adequate facilities to do research.

Teacher 16 considered that 'the university should take decisive actions to accommodate EMI teachers' needs to promote their teaching and research activities in order to foster sustainable professional development'.

4.4.2.3 Teachers' Low English Competence and Lack of EMI Training

The limited English language skill of teachers along with the lack of EMI training and English language development courses were given as a major cause of many teachers' low level of satisfaction. There was a disparity in language competence between teachers who pursued their studies in English-speaking countries and teachers who obtained their postgraduate degree in Vietnam and elsewhere in Asia and Europe. The former hardly had any challenges in regard to giving lectures in English, while the latter confessed to struggling to lecture in English due to their limited proficiency. Even those with fluent English still argued that it was necessary for the institution to organise frequent teacher support programs to sustain the ongoing development of EMI methodologies as well as the development of linguistic competence related to teachers' subject area needs. Teacher 12 said:

> The institution needs to provide teachers with courses focusing on English support, pedagogical strategies, and best practices to teach disciplinary content knowledge effectively in English.

This recommendation clearly distinguishes three needs to be addressed: the development of teachers' English language competence; guidance on pedagogical strategies that reflect the active learning approach of programs imported from overseas; and guidance on achieving the content goals of the discipline through effective EMI practices.

4.4.2.4 Students' Low and Disparate English Competence

Teachers believed that students' low and disparate English competence was a severe constraining factor hindering the effectiveness of the EMI courses and their own

sense of job satisfaction. A number of studies indicate that, generally, EMI courses conducted only in English pose a great challenge to Vietnamese students, given that they are non-native English speakers (Le, 2012; Nguyen et al, 2017; Tran & Nguyen, 2018). While a small number of EMI students are excellent in both English and expertise, many others struggle desperately in every lesson. Teacher 9 illustrated this point:

> There is a divergence in students' English proficiency. Some have excellent English due to their favourable conditions for learning intensive English at school, at home and at English centres. However, those who come from less advantaged areas are not proficient enough to follow the programs.

The concern about students' inadequate English competence confirms previous results such as in Beckett and Li (2012). The task of trying to teach content through English to students lacking sufficient English clearly raises a student quality factor that impacts on teachers' job satisfaction.

> Teachers considered that General English classes did not provide adequately for undergraduates' needs in their disciplines. They therefore saw needs analysis as a necessity as input for designing suitable and effective student language support programs.
>
> Currently, there is a misalignment between students' General English classes and the actual English needed for EMI classes. This problem should be addressed by the institution to have proper measures in promoting English skill for accommodating EMI learning. (T12)

Noticeably, the misalignment between students' General English class and their actual need for English in particular EMI courses acted as hygiene which produced demotivating effects in teachers. The problem can be tackled by the institution's provision of a language-support program that embraces not only discipline terminology but also academic English and other related soft skills.

4.4.2.5 Teaching-Related Issues

In fact most teachers complained about how students' inadequate English proficiency hindered their instructional strategies. For example, due to the poor English proficiency of students and some of the lecturers, there could be little interaction between teacher and students during the lesson, as well as between students and students. While the teachers believed EMI required a creative, communicative, and collaborative teaching style, this was not possible in the circumstances. Also, apart from some highly proficient students, the rest found it hard to comprehend the lectures fully, so teachers used a range of practices in attempting to respond to that situation, taking into account also of their own command of English.

Typically, these proficiency challenges led to frequent code-switching and also to reducing the content of the lecture due to the extra time needed for explaining in both English and Vietnamese. One experienced teacher who held a doctorate from an English-speaking country commented:

> Although I know that EMI means "English-only" lessons, when it comes to teaching practices, the reality is different from what I thought earlier. The limited English ability of students

> prevents them from fully understanding the lecture if I use English most of the time. So I switch to Vietnamese very often to make sure that they catch up with the lesson.

Switching into Vietnamese also occurred in response to teachers' own insufficient English language proficiency. As one teacher admitted:

> I am not very confident about my English so it is very hard for me to lecture continually in English during the lesson. Thus, I use both English and Vietnamese to make it easier for me and I think students also have better understanding when I teach a new concept or new matter in Vietnamese.

These teachers' comments are in line with Hu's (2019) findings, where code-switching as a result of limited English level is identified as a common phenomenon for non-native EMI teachers.

Such teachers had slides displaying in English while lecturing in Vietnamese; they avoided interaction with students for fear of revealing their limited English; and were concerned about their inability to give an in-depth, content-rich lesson. As a result, typical features of their EMI classes were: one-way knowledge transmission from teachers; lack of connection between teacher and students; insufficient interaction between students and students in negotiating subject matter; and very few opportunities for student involvement in the construction of knowledge. Thus, teachers' practices differed from their pedagogical beliefs in three overlapping ways: language use, instructional strategies, and classroom interaction.

As one step towards addressing this gap between beliefs and practices, Teacher 9 recommended that:

> Actually, we need training courses for effective EMI teaching which train us how to conduct EMI lessons successfully, how to interact with students and how to encourage student-student collaboration. In fact, our university rarely sends us to those courses, so we don't have any opportunity to improve EMI pedagogy.

This reference to lack of training courses supporting EMI teachers to translate beliefs into practice is an indication of dissatisfaction, and can be considered an environmental condition related to the institutional climate for EMI teachers.

Another problematic issue affecting the enactment of pedagogical beliefs, and one encountered by a majority of teachers, was access to suitable teaching resources. As mentioned earlier, teachers affirmed that EMI programs offered them the opportunity to read updated content materials. However, in practice, there was no official and systematic provision of up-to-date resources at their university. In addition, because the selected textbooks and curricula were imported or adapted from overseas countries, the content was somewhat unrelated to the current context of Vietnam. Teacher 6 elaborated:

> Up-to-date teaching resources enormously facilitate teaching and learning in EMI courses in my field. We have put forward recommendations for the university to purchase newly published textbooks and reference books from prestigious publishers around the world; however, due to financial reasons and some other reasons, we are still not provided with what we require.

It appears that the lack of up-to-date academic discipline-based materials and learning materials suited to EMI and relevant to the Vietnamese context is a hygiene factor relating to institutional resources that hinder the performance of both teachers and students. To sum up, there evidently exist many challenging and constraining factors in regard to translating teachers' beliefs into practice, which together exert a significant impact on their job satisfaction.

4.5 EMI Teachers' Job Satisfaction: Summary

Using Hagedorn's (2000) approach, the investigation has uncovered a range of mediators relating to EMI teachers' job satisfaction with EMI jobs. Table 4.2 is presented as a simple summary of the key findings drawn from the interviews with EMI teachers at University G. While Hagedorn (2000) identified responsibility and collegial relationships as mediating factors, our data set gave no information about either of them, and they are consequently excluded from the Table 4.2 summary of findings, even though we recognise their likely validity across this and other EMI settings. On the other hand, we did find evidence of institutional resources (Bentley et al, 2013) being a factor, as well as the degree to which teachers were able to translate their pedagogical beliefs into actual classroom practices, as we had anticipated.

4.6 Conclusion and Implications for Moving Forward with EMI

As Table 4.2 summary indicates, achievement, recognition, and advancement all function as motivators conducive to increasing job satisfaction among EMI teachers. Most noticeably, by participating in EMI teaching programs, teachers consistently tend to gain improved English competence and enhanced professional knowledge. Further, as teaching another discipline in English is a demanding task for non-native teachers in Vietnam, EMI teachers are highly respected and well-recognised. As mentioned earlier, the invitation to deliver EMI lectures in other institutions has opened up the opportunity to expand their professional network and advance their career. These latter findings are novel in the sense that previous studies rarely document such motivators in EMI.

Acting as hygienes in this study are features of the work itself, as well as inadequate salary and institutional resources, leading to diminished satisfaction among EMI teachers. Specifically, as far as the work itself is concerned, the challenges from the limited English capacity of students and/or lecturers have constrained teachers' instruction, students' comprehension, students' performance, and peer and teacher–student interactions, all of which negatively affect the practice of EMI and consequently teachers' job satisfaction as well. Further, the lack of available research time

Table 4.2 Mediators influencing EMI teachers' job satisfaction at University G

Mediators	Functioning as motivators	Functioning as hygienes
Achievement	Improvement of English competence and development of professional knowledge	
Recognition	Being sought after by other institutions	
Work itself		Difficulty of EMI teaching and preparation compared to national language teaching and preparation Heavy workload Insufficient research support
Advancement	Enhancement of professional profile and employment opportunities	
Salary		Insufficient reward for the extra workload
Institutional resources		Lack of: - up-to-date academic discipline-based materials - teaching materials suited to EMI & relevant to the context - office space
Student quality or relationships		Low English proficiency
Administration		Lack of: - an English entry requirement - EMI professional development - relevant English preparation for students
Institutional climate or culture		Unrealistic expectations of EMI teachers and students Failure to adequately support EMI teachers and students
Translating beliefs into practice		Impossibility of implementing beliefs about EMI pedagogy

was reported as hindering teachers from meticulous preparation for their lectures, as well as expansion of their own content knowledge and improvement of their English skills.

At the same time as pointing out these various hygienes, participants put forward proposals for ameliorating them. For example, they advocated English language-support programs for teachers and students as well as ongoing training in EMI practices for teachers. They called for supportive research policy and resourcing. They also proposed that the institution should increase payment for those who deliver

lectures in English-taught programs as this task is demanding in terms of both subject matter knowledge and English competence. The interview data suggests that commensurate payment would enhance their motivation, dedication, and satisfaction. Along with payment, participants also called for access to institutional resources such as updated discipline-based materials, suitable learning materials relevant to the Vietnamese context, and personal office space. These were expected to facilitate moving forward educationally with EMI and thus enhance student experience as well as job satisfaction among teachers.

In regard to environmental conditions, strong predictors associated with job dissatisfaction are: student quality in terms of English proficiency, the absence of an English entry requirement for admission into EMI programs, heavy teaching load yet lack of professional development opportunities, and the impossibility of translating EMI beliefs into related pedagogical teaching practices. This last is a new finding not previously identified as a factor affecting teachers' satisfaction, and we have added it as a fourth environmental condition. Given that the capacity to translate EMI beliefs into practice is closely associated with several of the other identified mediators, it resembles to some degree the stress factor in Hagedorn's (2000) finding, in which she perceives stress as an all-inclusive factor that overlaps with nearly all aspects of the job and as 'a consequence of negative responses to the mediators' (p. 9). However, we believe the translation of EMI beliefs into practices needs to be marked out as a mediator in its own right because it is so directly related to the educational effectiveness of EMI. Marking it out may also alert institutions to its importance and encourage them to acknowledge and actively respond to it by addressing other mediators within their power.

As mentioned earlier, we share Hagedorn's (2000, p. 17) view that a framework of mediators provides 'a structure on which institutional analysis of job satisfaction can be based'. Consequently, drawing on both the literature review and the case study presented here, we propose in Table 4.3 a tool for analysing EMI teachers' job satisfaction in Vietnamese universities, which we believe may also have application in other countries with similar EMI settings. The tool provides a set of mediating factors that universities need to monitor in order to assess job satisfaction among their EMI staff, and which they can use as guidance for responsive institutional policy and actions that could be taken.

EMI teachers at University G are non-native English speakers and encounter the same challenges as non-native teachers elsewhere across the globe to implement effective EMI teaching, including limited linguistic and pedagogical competence (Dearden & Macaro, 2016). Therefore, it has been critical to investigate the factors influencing their job satisfaction, with a view to sustaining them in such a way that EMI programs simultaneously become more successful in terms of student outcomes. The study revealed that some mediators—such as achievement, recognition, and advancement—promoted job satisfaction, whereas a larger number of other mediators were demotivating factors—unsatisfactory payment, inadequate teaching resources, lack of research-related support, students' English deficiency, lack of professional training and support, and the impossibility of translating

Table 4.3 Monitoring job satisfaction among EMI lecturers

Motivators or hygienes	
Achievement	Degree of success in EMI teaching, improved English competence, and development of professional knowledge
Recognition	Degree of institutional appreciation and support for EMI endeavours Degree of interest from other institutions
Work itself	Ease of EMI teaching and preparation compared to national language teaching and preparation Workload Available research time
Advancement	Likelihood of enhanced academic profile and employment opportunities
Salary	Payment for EMI teaching in relation to payment for teaching in the national language
Institutional resources	Availability of up-to-date academic discipline-based materials Availability of teaching materials suited to EMI and relevant to the local context Office space
Environmental conditions	
Collegial relationships	Quality of relationships among EMI lecturers and between EMI lecturers and English language specialists
Student quality and relationships	Measure of satisfaction with students' English language proficiency and academic literacy as evidenced in their capacity to understand lectures, ask and answer content questions, discuss content, and prepare assignments
Administration	Measure of satisfaction with administrative decisions, such as: - appropriate student entry requirements - support for students' English language development - manageable workload
Institutional climate or culture	Measure of satisfaction with institutional support for EMI, including provision of: - professional development opportunities - appropriate resources and teaching materials - incentives

(continued)

Table 4.3 (continued)

Translation of beliefs into practice	Measure of satisfaction with capacity and opportunity to translate EMI beliefs into representative pedagogical practices

beliefs into practices. Together, these demotivating factors wield considerable influence on teachers' job satisfaction. At the same time, some of them are the very same factors that typically constrain the educational effectiveness of EMI programs internationally.

Accordingly, universities should make every effort to accommodate teachers in teaching-related support, research-related support, adequate remunerations, and through student-centred provisions that will facilitate the translation of pedagogical beliefs into viable practices. We recommend immediate and ongoing professional development projects for EMI teachers to create a transformative impact on EMI practices among academics, thereby enhancing the educational effectiveness of EMI programs. This requires effort from EMI teachers and strategic support from the institution. Supportive policies in relation to professional development courses could possibly help to prevent job dissatisfaction and gradually foster a high level of satisfaction. As such, the satisfaction and sustainability of EMI implementation could be achieved with the enhanced professionalism of teachers. Professional activities such as language-support programs, study tours in English-speaking countries, scholar exchanges, travel grants for international conferences (Ball & Lindsay, 2012), discussion forums, and collaborative action research to deal with pedagogical issues in the EMI classroom (Burns, 2010) are among possible effective measures to improve the capability of EMI teachers, which in turn may increase teachers' sense of job satisfaction. In addition, facilities to support research, and financial incentives are among the important considerations for universities to enhance teacher satisfaction and sustain ongoing development. However, to fully enable the translation of teachers' pedagogical beliefs into viable practices, universities must also enact student-centred provisions that will adequately prepare them for EMI and support them through their EMI disciplinary learning. This includes sufficiently high entry levels of English proficiency, effective preliminary and ongoing language-support courses, as well as available and updated EMI course books and materials. We believe all these proposed measures would serve as important motivation to boost teachers' dedication to EMI programs and to allow them to move forward with their EMI pedagogies.

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Thi To Loan Pham is a lecturer of English at Thuongmai University, Hanoi, Vietnam. She holds an MA degree in English Linguistics from University of Languages and International Studies—Vietnam National University. She is currently pursuing a doctoral degree in Linguistics at the University of Social Sciences and Humanities—Vietnam National University. She has experience in teaching business English and general English. Her research interests include teacher professional development, student development, English as a medium of instruction, intercultural communication, and language pedagogy.

Khac Nghia Nguyen is a lecturer of English and Economics at Thuongmai University, Hanoi, Vietnam. He holds a PhD degree in Development Economics from National Cheng-Kung University, Taiwan. He has experience in teaching business English, English as a medium of instruction programs and general English. His major research interests include development economics, English as a medium of instruction, international relations, human development, creativity and entrepreneurship, economics of small and medium enterprises (SMEs).

Thu Ba Hoang is a lecturer of English with 14-year teaching experience in general English and business English at Thuongmai University, Hanoi, Vietnam. She holds an MA degree in English language teaching from University of Languages and International Studies—Vietnam National University. She is currently a PhD student in Linguistics Contrastive Analysis at the Graduate Academy of Social Sciences. Her research interests are English for Specific Purposes and computer assisted language learning.

Chapter 5
Commentary: EMI in Vietnamese Universities—The Importance of Institutional Preparation, Consultation and Support

Andy Kirkpatrick

Abstract This commentary reviews three chapters which describe the experiences of implementing EMI programmes in Vietnamese universities. It is clear from these chapters that, while success is reported in specific cases, the topdown nature of the implementation of EMI policies means that, in most cases, these are being undertaken with insufficient support for the students and staff involved. The commentary concludes with a checklist of questions that policy makers might consider before implementing EMI policies or programmes.

Keywords English medium of instruction · Top-down policy making · Challenges in the implementation of EMI programmes

We can draw two main conclusions from reading these informative and well-researched chapters. The first is that, to do EMI well, a great deal of thought, preparation, consultation among the stakeholders and ongoing support for both the teachers and students involved is necessary, as is some form of quality assurance. The second is that, with rare exceptions, universities in Vietnam have attempted to implement EMI courses without the necessary preparation, consultation and support. In this, they are not alone, as many researchers report similar findings from different parts of the world (e.g. Dearden, 2014; Macaro, 2018).

One reason for this lack of preparation, consultation and support in the Vietnamese context may be the top-down way in which the decision to implement EMI courses is made. We must be careful, however, about using the term 'top-down' for a Head of Department requiring staff to implement EMI can also be classified as a 'top-down' system of management. Here, however, 'top-down' refers to the Vietnamese government, primarily in the form of the Ministry of Education and Training, deciding on a policy and requiring universities to implement it. As Min Pham points out, the Vietnamese government has passed a raft of laws aimed at internationalising

A. Kirkpatrick (✉)
Griffith University, Brisbane, Australia
e-mail: a.kirkpatrick@griffith.edu.au

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Vietnamese universities. As has been the case with all moves towards the internationalisation of universities since the adoption of the Bologna Process of 1999 and the establishment of the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), universities have adopted EMI programs as the most obvious way to internationalise. EMI programs allow staff and student mobility between universities in different countries, a key part of internationalisation. The initial aim of the Bologna Process and the establishment of the EHEA was to make European universities more competitive and to encourage staff and student mobility, rather than to set up EMI programs as such (Hultgren, 2015). However, it soon became apparent that EMI programs would be needed in order to fulfil the objects of the EHEA, consequently European universities rapidly increased the numbers of EMI programs they offered and these numbers continue to increase (Wachter & Maiworm, 2014). Parallels can be seen with the current Vietnamese experience. As Min Pham makes clear, it is the government's desire to internationalise the universities that have led to the uptake of EMI programs. These have also been adopted in response to three local pressures, namely national competition, the desire for universities to achieve financial security and local demand for higher education conducted in English. This demand is hard to overestimate. For example, while Vietnam's first private university was established in 1994, by 2018 there were 95 private universities. Joint training programs with international partners have also increased dramatically, from 133 in 207 to 282 in 2018. These all provide EMI courses. This, in turn, has led to a 20-fold increase in the number of international students in Vietnamese universities, rising from a mere 1100 in 2015 to 21,000 in 2020.

In short, the adoption of EMI programs is inextricably tied to internationalisation. Yet, the major motivations for internationalisation have been political—the perceived need to compete with other universities—and financial—the need for universities to attract funding. By offering EMI programs, universities can charge higher fees for both local and international students. The pedagogical aspects of EMI programs appear not to have been considered. Indeed, it is assumed that students undertaking EMI programs will not only learn the content matter of the subject being taught, but will also develop English language proficiency, as if by osmosis. Lecturers on EMI courses consider themselves subject specialists and do not believe that the teaching of English is their responsibility. Yet a common complaint emanating from EMI lecturers is that many of the students in their courses do not have an adequate level of English proficiency to be able to succeed in their classes. It is also common for students to report dissatisfaction with their lecturers' level of English. There is therefore a mismatch in expectations between lecturers and students. Lecturers expect the students to have adequate levels of English. Students expect the EMI courses to develop their English proficiency as well as teach the content matter. Given this, it is not surprising that so many EMI courses fail to meet the expectations of staff and students and result in frustrations and anxiety among all stakeholders.

What then, can be done? In their chapter, Nguyen et al. report findings from research conducted at the Danang University of Science and Technology. The university's Faculty of Advanced Science and Technology teaches (at least) two EMI

'Advanced Programs', one in Electronic and Communication Engineering (established in 2006) and the second in Embedded Systems (established in 2008). The Electronic and Communication Engineering program is taught using a curriculum provided by the University of Washington and the Embedded Systems program uses a curriculum imported from Portland State University.

The authors recount the measures the Faculty undertook in order to ensure the successful implementation of these EMI courses. These measures comprised three distinct strategies. First students, in their first year, undertook a 5-month non-credit bearing intensive course in academic English related to engineering. Second, they took credit-bearing courses in the second and third year of the courses. These courses were designed to develop EMI-related soft skills. In their final year, the students complete a capstone project involving English medium study and communication. The third measure is voluntary, as students self-select to engage in project-based EMI activities; this can occur at any stage across the five years of the program and includes engineering projects for community services.

The authors have evaluated these measures and report that they are successful and should therefore be maintained, if not extended. The evaluation of the non-credit bearing intensive academic English courses showed that students could raise their IELTS band scores by 1.5 or 2 bands. 95% of the students scored an IELTS band of lower than 3.5 at the start of the courses, with 65% of students scoring about IELTS band 5 at the end of the intensive course. This seems impressive, although it must be noted that an IELTS band 5 would not be considered adequate to undertake an undergraduate degree in an Australian university, where IELTS band 6 is the usual requirement for direct entry into a program. In a study of EMI in Japanese higher education, students with an IELTS band of 6.5 'experienced fewer challenges learning content through English than those below the threshold' (Rose et al., 2019, p. 10). Importantly, however, the authors also noted that targeted ongoing support in the academic English of the relevant discipline was of benefit to students with lower levels of English proficiency.

The students' evaluations of the other measures were also positive. In the authors' own words, students indicated 'satisfaction with the development of interpersonal, verbal, non-verbal, problem-solving, critical thinking, oral presentation and teamwork skills. In addition, feedback from employers indicates particular appreciation of the quality of student communication skills. Finally, nearly all students participating in project-based extracurricular activities in their fifth year agreed on their improvement in communication skills, including English, self-confidence and motivation, as a result of these projects'.

The above research surveyed students taking an EMI program. The chapter by Thi et al. surveyed 16 Vietnamese EMI lecturers working at a prestigious university and investigated to what extent they were satisfied with their role as EMI lecturers. They found that the positive aspects of the job far outweighed the negative aspects of it. The positive aspects of their job as EMI lecturers were that reading English language materials kept them up to date with developments in their discipline. Reading these English language materials also helped develop their own English language skills. They also reported that, being an EMI lecturer enhanced their personal profile, and

that the presence of EMI courses increased the prestige of the university which, in turn, improved the career prospects of their students. Against these positive aspects, they listed a large number of negative ones. These are listed below:

- Remuneration and workload (pay only slightly higher than teaching VMI courses);
- Research-related issues. As one lecturer reported, 'I don't have time for doing research to enhance English competence and disciplinary expertise due to the heavy workload'. Lecturers also reported they had poor or no access to international journals;
- The low English competence of some lecturers and the lack of EMI training was given as major cause for dissatisfaction. As one lecturer argued, 'The institution needs to provide teachers with courses focusing on English support, pedagogical strategies, and best practices to teach disciplinary content knowledge effectively in English' (see Le et al. for ideas of building English language teaching capacity in Vietnam);
- The students' low and disparate English competence was seen as a severe constraining factor hindering the effectiveness of the EMI courses and their own sense of job satisfaction; the general English classes did not meet the needs of students in EMI classes. The low levels of students' English made interaction difficult. As one teacher reported, 'I switch to Vietnamese very often to make sure that they catch up with the lesson'.

Given these results, it is not surprising that the authors conclude that, despite having offered EMI programs since 2005, the implementation of EMI programs at the university remains 'fragmented, ad-hoc, inconsistent and unsustainable'. The authors thus recommend 'immediate and ongoing professional development projects for EMI teachers to create a transformative impact on EMI practices among academics'. In addition more resources and access to journals and up to date books must be provided. Perhaps above all, students must be adequately prepared.

As noted at the beginning of this commentary, the three chapters in this section of the book make clear how important preparation, consultation and ongoing support for both students and staff is for the successful implementation of EMI programs. They also illustrate how little preparation, consultation and support is actually provided in all but exceptional cases. The major cause of this is the severe disconnect between the government's understandable desire to internationalise education and the practical needs of the institutions and stakeholders who are required to implement this policy. The top-down nature of decision-making in the Vietnamese context only serves to widen this disconnect as stakeholders are not consulted and thus cannot make their needs known. This is a shame. As the findings from the research reported above show, the needs of the institutions and stakeholders are known and could therefore be acted upon in a systematic way.

Given the top-down nature of the internationalisation policy in Vietnam, I add, in closing, key questions that a colleague and I formulated for national authorities to ponder and answer before moving to implement EMI courses (Kirkpatrick & Knagg, fthc). The questions are:

- What research has been done in this country and internationally on the prevalence and the success of EMI? What extra research is needed to understand the situation?
- What benefits might EMI bring to the country? What are the risks of EMI if not implemented well?
- Is EMI legal? Should there be any restrictions on which institutions can have EMI programs and courses? In which circumstances and to which students?
- What effect will policies related to HE have on secondary school language use and learning?
- What effects will EMI have on ability, including professional ability, in national and local languages, with reference to employability in-country.
- To what extent should HEIs attract international students (who might not speak the national language)?
- What English teaching provision (which might include EMI) or English proficiency requirement should exist in HEIs?
- What Quality Assurance mechanisms related to EMI should or must exist in HEIs?
- What extra resources are available to institutions and teachers to support EMI?
- To what extent are all these questions decentralised to HEIs?

We also formulated four more general questions which we feel should be discussed at the institutional and departmental level before the implementation of EMI programs. These are:

- Is one aim of the EMI course to improve English proficiency? If so, how do we know that EMI courses develop the English proficiency of students?
- Do we know that EMI courses impart content knowledge as least as well as courses taught in the students' own first language?
- Will EMI programs add to the division between students from privileged backgrounds and those from poorer disadvantaged backgrounds or will they help those from poorer backgrounds improve their life chances?
- Will EMI programs undermine the role and status of local languages as languages of education and scholarship? If so, what steps can be taken to ensure that local languages remain as important languages of education and scholarship?

I am aware that answering these questions requires much thought and contemplation. But, if the implementation of EMI programs in the overall drive to internationalise education is to be successful, I feel that these are questions that need to be discussed and debated among all stakeholders.

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Andy Kirkpatrick is Professor Emeritus at Griffith University, Brisbane, and a Fellow of the Australian Academy of the Humanities. His research involves study of the development of Asian varieties of English and the role of English as a lingua franca in ASEAN, language education policy in Asia, and Chinese rhetoric. Recent publications include Is English an Asian Language? (CUP 2020), The Routledge Handbook of World Englishes (Routledge 2020, second edition, editor), The Routledge Handbook of Language Education Policy in Asia (Routledge 2019, co-editor with Anthony Liddicoat) and the Wiley-Blackwell Handbook of Asian Varieties of English (Wiley-Blackwell 2020, co-editor with Kingsley Bolton and Werner Botha).

Part II
Practitioner Perspectives on EMI Practices in Vietnamese Universities

Chapter 6
English-Medium Classroom Practices in Action: Facilitating Student Learning and Engagement in a Vietnamese University

Tue Hoang and Duyen Tran

Abstract In Vietnam, English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) is widely implemented in higher education institutions as a strategic approach to internationalise institutions and improve graduates' employability in the globalised labour market. However, implementation of EMI has been beset with challenges: the incompatibility between macro-policies and institutional capacities, teachers' and students' insufficient English language competence, and pedagogical conflict with traditional education. There is currently little information about successful EMI pedagogies to support learning and student engagement in Vietnamese higher education, and this chapter therefore reports an exploratory study on classroom EMI practices carried out at one multidisciplinary university. Data derives from eight classroom observations, survey questionnaires with 275 students and one-to-one interviews with eight teachers and eight representative students. Data presentation highlights strategies facilitative to student learning and engagement, such as grouping techniques; providing detailed self-study guidance; judiciously using students' first language; employing diagrams, short video clips, and drawings; integrating practical exercises within theoretical lessons; frequently reviewing previous lessons and recapping at the end of lessons. The chapter offers a detailed explanation of the teachers' practices for moving forward educationally with EMI and a full account of students' reflections on the usefulness of the practices to their learning.

Keywords English-medium instruction · EMI · Vietnam · Higher education · Pedagogy · Student engagement

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T. Hoang · D. Tran (✉)
Hanoi University of Industry, No. 298, Cau Dien Street, Bac Tu Liem District, Hanoi, Vietnam
e-mail: tranthiduyen@haui.edu.vn

T. Hoang
e-mail: hoangngoctue@haui.edu.vn

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6.1 Introduction

The growing role of English as the world lingua franca and the intense global competition for internationalisation and marketisation of higher education over the past couple of decades have resulted in English increasingly being adopted as a medium of instruction (EMI) at universities in various non-native English speaking countries worldwide. In Vietnam, EMI delivery has been promoted as one strategic approach to internationalise Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) and improve graduates' employability in the globalised labour market (Vietnamese Government, 2005). The introduction of EMI in higher education can be traced back to the early 1990s, starting with cooperative programs between Vietnamese and overseas HEIs, often referred to as foreign or advanced programs, with (almost) all of the courses in the programs designed and delivered in English by staff of the foreign HEIs (Nguyen et al., 2017; Vietnamese Government, 2008a). After that come the so-called high-quality programs which are developed and delivered by staff in domestic HEIs with at least 20% of the courses delivered in English (MOET, 2014). In the meantime, the national foreign language project also requires some courses in the last years of tertiary study to be delivered in English (Vietnamese Government, 2008b). Against that backdrop, the intensifying competition among HEIs nationwide and region-wide for students, teachers, and revenue has resulted in an increasing number of EMI courses having been developed and delivered at Vietnamese HEIs over the last decades (Nguyen et al, 2017; Rahman et al., 2018).

The rapid development and nationwide implementation of EMI courses in the Higher Education (HE) system does not mean that the courses have been unproblematic. Research has revealed that implementation is presented with various problems and challenges at different levels (Nguyen et al., 2017; Tran & Nguyen, 2018; Tri & Moskovsky, 2019; Vu & Burns, 2014). At the macro (national) level, a mismatch has been noted between the traditional education culture featuring teacher-centeredness and textbook-based transmission, and the EMI-focused pedagogy characterised by learner-centredness and autonomous learning. In addition, EMI is seen to pose a potential risk in creating inequity of cultures and educational opportunities—through promotion of EMI programs using nomenclature such as foreign, advanced, high-quality, through high tuition fees, and through the required level of English proficiency at entry. The lack of detailed guidelines on EMI implementation at HEIs is identified as another macro-level problem. At the meso (institutional) level, HEIs are challenged by the discrepancy between the content and aims of imported curricula in foreign or Advanced Programs and the sociocultural and economic context in Vietnam. Meanwhile the high-quality programs designed by Vietnamese HEIs often suffer from a lack of reference materials in English. Additional obstacles include absence of institutional guidelines on classroom practices, shortage of qualified eligible staff capable of delivering EMI courses, inadequate attention paid to the differences between academic disciplines, and poor infrastructure. At the micro (classroom) level, the most commonly reported problems are students' limited English competence and seemingly passive learning styles, together with teachers'

insufficient English ability and lack of training in EMI delivery. It is worth noting that many of the problems at meso and micro levels in Vietnam, including the teachers' and students' low English competence, the lack of professional development for teaching staff and the shortage of learning materials for students, are also found in studies taken in other countries in the region and over the world (Al-Bakri, 2017; Byun et al., 2011; Hu et al., 2014; Kim et al., 2018; King, 2014; Kym & Kym, 2014; Walkinshaw et al., 2017).

Despite the recognition of numerous problems and challenges, EMI has continuously been implemented in various HEIs nationwide with various aspects of the implementation insufficiently researched. In particular, there is a paucity of research on implementation at the classroom level. In educational contexts outside Vietnam, only a few studies have been conducted on the issue, with diverse findings. For example, in UAE, King (2014) reported teachers' use of such strategies as simplifying teaching content, shortening reading materials, pre-teaching relevant vocabulary, selecting activity-based learning, building teacher–student relationships to facilitate student learning. Meanwhile, in Oman, Al-Bakri (2017) found that the teachers' delivery methods were mainly restricted to reading the handouts and staying close to the textbook with limited classroom interaction, discussion, or critical engagement in constructing knowledge. In China, the case study carried out by Hu et al. (2014) revealed that the EMI teachers demonstrated a tendency to reduce course content to the most basic matter, appropriate the language of the textbook, stay close to the pre-prepared teaching notes, minimise improvisation, code-switch to the students' first language, repeat explanations, and assign pre-lecture readings. Research also reveals that students' engagement in the lessons is seriously impeded by the use of EMI (Al-Bakri, 2017; Byun et al., 2011; Sultana, 2014). However, little is known as to whether the use of different teaching strategies could alleviate the problems to any extent.

In Vietnam, there is a dearth of information about teaching practices in EMI courses, especially regarding facilitative impact on students' learning and engagement. This, therefore, is the focus of the present chapter. It reports an exploratory study investigating the teaching practices carried out by teachers in EMI courses at a public university in Vietnam and highlights the strategies which are facilitative to student learning and engagement in that particular EMI context, thus offering directions for moving forward educationally with EMI.

6.2 The Study

6.2.1 The Research Site

Our focal university is a public and multidisciplinary university (pseudonymously named CAU) in Vietnam with an enrolment of more than 24,000 full-time students. CAU is a medium-ranked university in Vietnam, i.e. its students are not those with the

highest study results in high schools or in the national university entrance exams and many of them are from rural areas with limited opportunities to develop their English competence for communication purposes. CAU offers 36 undergraduate programs, one of them being a High Quality Program. The university plans that by 2022 about 10% of the discipline-specific courses in the 3rd or 4th years of the standard programs and 20% of the courses in the High Quality Program will be delivered in English. Faculties consider their own resources such as teaching staff, learning materials and equipment, etc., to decide which courses in their programs can be delivered in English, but only courses with more than ten students registered will eventuate.

At the time of data collection (October 2019–January 2020), there were eight newly developed EMI courses at CAU, four courses belonging to the High Quality Program and four others in standard programs. Those courses are also the first courses to be conducted in English at CAU. In preparation for the delivery of EMI courses, since 2015 CAU has organised three EMI pedagogy courses for the potential teaching staff. CAU also offers free-of-charge English courses for potential EMI teachers, focusing on developing oral skills and pronunciation. However, not all the EMI teachers are attending those professional development courses due to lack of time or the limited space in the EMI pedagogy courses since there were maximum of 20 participants in each course.

6.2.2 The Participants

The study involved eight teachers delivering the EMI courses and the 275 students participating in them. Of the participating students, all were Vietnamese; most were in their 3rd year, the rest being in either their 2nd or 4th year of tertiary study. Teachers 1–4 taught Business Management courses, while teachers 5–8 taught technical courses. All of them met the English requirements to teach EMI courses, i.e. having either completed undergraduate or postgraduate studies overseas using EMI or obtained English proficiency equivalent or above C1 in the Common European Framework of Reference for languages (MOET, 2014). Except for the two teachers who had about ten years' experience working as assistants for foreign teachers in cooperative programs, none of the teachers had any experience teaching EMI courses. All participants gave their consent before taking part in the study. The participants were anonymised and numbered consecutively. Information about the participating teachers and students is provided in Table 6.1, where Courses 1 and 3 have two groups of students and Teacher #1 teaches two groups in Course 1 while Teacher #2 works with a group in each of Courses 2 and 3.

Table 6.1 Participating teachers and students

EMI course No.	Group	Faculty	Teacher			Students		
			Code	Gender	Degree	No	Year	Student code
1	Group #1	Business Management	T#1	Female	MA	16	3rd	S#1
1	Group #2	Business Management				22	3rd	
2	1 group	Business Management	T#2	Female	Ph.D	30	3rd	S#2
3	Group #1	Business Management	T#2	Female	Ph.D	16	3rd	
3	Group #2	Business Management	T#3	Female	Ph.D	16	3rd	S#3
4	1 group	Business Management	T#4	Male	Ph.D	24	2nd	S#4
5	1 group	Electronics	T#5	Female	Ph.D	47	3rd	S#5
6	1 group	Mechanical Engineering	T#6	Male	Ph.D	37	4th	S#6
7	1 group	Mechanical Engineering	T#7	Male	Ph.D	14	3rd	S#7
8	1 group	Information Technology	T#8	Male	MA	53	4th	S#8
Total			8 teachers			275 students		

6.2.3 Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

Data collection instruments employed in this study were classroom observations, individual interviews with the teachers, survey questionnaires to the students, and individual interviews with 8 representative students who indicated their willingness to take part in the follow-up interviews in their questionnaire responses. First, in the middle of the coursework, classroom observations were conducted for one 45-min period in each of the eight EMI classes. After that, near the end of the course, semi-structured interviews were carried out with the eight teachers, centering on their practices of delivering EMI courses and factors influencing their practices. The questionnaires were delivered to the students right in the last lessons, focusing on the students' EMI learning experiences including teachers' practices, student learning difficulties, learning strategies, learning achievements, and suggestions for improvement. Finally, semi-structured interviews were carried out with one representative student from each course after all the coursework had finished and the students had been informed of their end-of-course assessment results. The student interviews particularly concentrated on their learning difficulties, learning strategies, teachers' practices which are facilitative to their learning and self-assessment of their learning outcomes.

The data collected from observations, questionnaires, and interviews was analysed consecutively. First, content analysis was applied to examine data from classroom observations and interviews. After that statistical analysis was utilised to handle quantitative data gathered from the questionnaires. Results from different data sources were triangulated, compared, contrasted, and synthesised to find out what practices were carried out by the teachers in the EMI courses and how those facilitated student learning and engagement.

6.3 Findings and Discussion

6.3.1 Overview of the Teaching and Learning in EMI Classes

Data from classroom observations show that the EMI lessons were generally characterised by teachers' monologue for more than half of the lesson: introducing and explaining new terms and concepts, repeating main ideas, highlighting key words, and recalling related knowledge. However, two-thirds of the students indicated that they could comprehend only about 50–60% of the lessons. Although the teachers often stopped to ask questions to check comprehension and elicit contributions from students, only some students responded, and usually briefly in chorus, which reflected the cultural value of face-saving. When the teachers invited individual students to give their answers, many of them refused by shaking their heads and only a few, always the same, students responded, generally with incomplete sentences and long additional explanation to make their ideas comprehensible. In the questionnaire, 43% of the students responded that they hardly or never responded to the teachers' questions during lessons. The main reasons given included the students' low English proficiency, lack of confidence, low learning motivation, and lack of related disciplinary knowledge as demonstrated in the following extracts.

> I am not good at English so I never responded to the teacher's question [during lessons]. Some friends of mine sometimes responded, they even asked questions when they did not understand but I could not express myself so I just listened. (S#7)

> My English is not too bad and I could understand the teacher but I hardly responded partly because I was a bit shy and partly because I am not quite sure about the answer... my disciplinary knowledge was not good… (S#4)

Fifty-five per cent of students self-assessed that they were not competent enough to study in English, and many students indicated in their survey responses that they registered 'by mistake' or because they were 'in the high quality program'. In contrast, most of the teachers were found to be effective English speakers. Although they sometimes made mistakes in pronunciation, sentence stress, and grammar, they could express their subject matter fluently and clearly enough for comprehension. Two of the teachers were less effective English speakers and tended to use incomplete sentences and frequent self-correction, even though their reading and writing skills were highly advanced.

The level of frequency with which teachers employed various teaching activities in the EMI courses was estimated by their students using a four-point Likert scale ranging from '1 = never' to '4 = often' as shown in Table 6.2. The strategies are categorised into in-class and out-of-class activities.

Classroom observations and interviews with the students and the teachers show that other strategies including organising group work, giving bonus marks, and developing rapport with students were also adopted by the teachers. These are included in the following account, which focuses on the potential support of the activities for student learning and engagement in the EMI courses.

6.3.2 In-Class Strategies

6.3.2.1 Frequently Repeating and Reviewing Main Ideas

As can be seen in Table 6.2, the teaching practices vary from one teacher to another. However, the most commonly employed strategy was frequently repeating and reviewing main ideas, with the average mean values at 3.8 out of 4 points. These results are consistent with those from classroom observations where most of the teachers spoke at length to re-explain new concepts, repeat main ideas, and recall related knowledge. In the interviews, teachers also expressed that 'it is more energy-consuming teaching in English' (T#5) and they had to 'explain more' (T#2) because 'the students' English is not good and the teaching content is heavily discipline-specific which is new and difficult to comprehend even when taught in Vietnamese' (T#5) and that they 'often repeat and re-explain if the students did not seem to understand the teaching content' (T#6). However, as indicated by the students in the interviews this practice 'sometimes made the lessons boring since the teacher keeps repeating something we could not understand' (S#6). Nonetheless, as pointed out by the students in the following extracts, the two practices of wrapping up the lessons and recalling the related knowledge when giving feedback were particularly helpful for them:

> At the end of the lesson, the teacher often summarised the main ideas and linked them to those in previous lessons. That practice assisted us to systematise the learning content and if we still did not understand he would explain again, sometimes in Vietnamese if we required, so our comprehension was generally OK. (S#7)

> When the teacher gave feedback on our mistakes, he often revised the related content to explain why we were wrong. It [the revising practice] helped us understand the lesson thoroughly so that we do not repeat the mistakes. (S#4)

All these comments indicate that in EMI courses where the students' limited English competence impedes their comprehension, traditional extensive lecturing delivery would be unfavourable. Instead, succinct and logical presentations of the disciplinary knowledge with well-timed review and revision would be more desirable.

Table 6.2 Mean values of students' responses on the frequency of their teachers' practices

Teaching practices		Business management courses				Technical courses				Average mean
		T#1	T#2	T#3	T#4	T#5	T#6	T#7	T#8	
In-class strategies	1. Repeating and frequently reviewing main ideas	3.7	3.8	3.9	3.6	3.8	3.9	3.9	3.8	3.8
	2. Using visual aids such as images, graphs, pictures, photos, flowcharts…	3.9	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.7	3.2	3.6	3.5	3.5
	3. Code-switching to Vietnamese	3.6	3.6	3.7	3.4	3.5	3.3	3.2	3.4	3.4
	4. Drawing demonstrative graphs, flow charts, typology, etc.	3.0	3.0	3.4	3.3	3.6	3.4	3.8	3.0	3.2
	5. Using video clips	3.7	3.2	3.4	3.3	3.0	1.9	2.9	2.9	3.0
	6. Emphasising key words	2.2	2.9	3.1	3.5	3.2	2.4	3.0	3.3	2.9
Out-of-class strategies	1. Providing detailed study guidelines	3.6	3.5	3.8	3.5	3.6	2.9	3.6	3.7	3.5
	2. Providing easier-reading materials	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.2	3.6	3.6	3.5	3.7	3.4
	3. Setting up online groups for class discussion	4.0	2.9	3.8	3.7	3.0	3.9	3.9	2.6	3.3
	4. Organising consultation sessions outside lessons	1.6	2.0	3.3	2.8	3.0	3.4	3.5	2.4	2.6
	5. Providing extra reading materials in Vietnamese	2.1	2.2	2.9	2.8	3.7	1.4	3.1	2.3	2.5

6.3.2.2 Using Visual Aids

The second most commonly used strategy in the list is using visual aids such as images, graphs, pictures, photos, etc., with the average mean value at 3.5 out of 4 points. Classroom observations also indicated that some teachers (T#1,5,6,7,8) included images, pictures, diagrams, and drawings in their powerpoint slides to illustrate the teaching content. These results are in line with the teachers' and students' accounts of the practice in the interviews. Some teachers also reported using short videoclips to illustrate 'the operation of CNC machine' (T#7) or the procedures of 'career planning steps' (T#1). One teacher (T#7) was observed taking a small shaft to the class as a realia in his lesson. According to the teachers, such visual aids helped save presentation time since otherwise 'it would take so much time explaining everything in English' (T#7). The practice of using visual aids, videos, and realia was particularly acknowledged by the students in the interviews as enhancing their comprehension of the teaching content, as reflected below:

> The teacher often spoke and demonstrated at the same time so we could understand [the subject matter] easily. Sometimes we could not comprehend the academic English that he used but when we looked at the diagrams or drawings we could understand [what he meant]. (S#7)

Visual aids have long been recognised as providing massive support for teachers in clarifying, establishing, and correlating precise conceptions and understandings, and making learning more actual and motivating (Shabiralyani et al., 2015). In EMI contexts, when verbal communication is hindered, the practice of utilising visual aids would be a wise choice for the teachers.

6.3.2.3 Code-Switching to Vietnamese

Code-switching to Vietnamese was another delivery strategy undertaken quite frequently by the teachers with the mean value at 3.4 out of 4 points, and interviews revealed that it was in recognition of the students' limited comprehension.

> In the lessons at the beginning of the course I used English throughout the lessons. However, I found that there were only a few students who understood my teaching content, many others could not. Thus, I changed my practice, i.e. teaching in English first and then explaining in Vietnamese to make sure that the students understood the disciplinary content. (T#2)

> I turned to Vietnamese whenever I found that students did not understand my instruction… they looked uncooperative or disengaged… (T#4)

The teachers also indicated that they gave priority to the disciplinary learning rather than English language development and therefore their use of the students' first language when the use of EMI endangered the students' comprehension was reasonable. However, the students found excessive use of Vietnamese undesirable. In particular, they did not want the teacher to 're-explain the lesson in Vietnamese' (T#5) and found bilingual 'devastating' since they 'would ignore the English instruction and

wait for the time when the teacher used Vietnamese' (S#3). This finding supports the results of previous studies (Lo, 2015; Nguyen et al., 2016) which underscore the judicious use of the students' first language in the EMI context to ensure that both disciplinary and language learning is facilitated.

6.3.2.4 Emphasising Keywords

The figures presented in Table 6.2 are consistent with the results from the interviews and observations that some teachers (T#3,4,5,7,8) often paid close attention to emphasising keywords during the lessons. Some teachers (T#4,7) pre-taught the key words at the beginning of the lesson and highlighted the words in the PPT slides. Others (T#3,5,8) underlined the keywords during the lessons, explaining the meanings thoroughly and providing the equivalents in Vietnamese. Teachers #5 and #7 also introduced synonyms commonly used interchangeably with the keywords and required each student to have a vocabulary notebook. Teacher #4 stressed that he tried to elucidate the keywords in both English and Vietnamese but avoided translating the words into Vietnamese since the translation 'sometimes cannot convey the full meaning of the words'. All the representative students acknowledged that the teachers' practices helped them 'remember the words more easily' and sometimes gain deeper understanding of the related concept.

> When the teacher assigned the readings at home, I noted the keywords and looked them up in the dictionary and learned the Vietnamese words, but I did not understand them thoroughly until after the teacher explained. (S#5)

While 74.6% of the students indicated that they knew more discipline-specific vocabulary after the courses, only two of the eight teachers (T#7,8) were reported teaching the pronunciation and formation of the keywords while other teachers did not, due to the shortage of teaching time. As deep vocabulary learning requires instruction in both semantic and morphophonological form (Xanthou, 2010), it is believed that more attention on the morphophonological aspects of vocabulary instruction would enable students to not only recognise and understand the specific vocabulary but also use the vocabulary effectively in both oral and written discourse.

6.3.2.5 Organising Group Work

Six teachers reported using group work regularly, either to diversify the learning activities or to enhance peer learning by intentionally assigning group members, building inter-dependence among group members and monitoring individual contributions. For example, they 'include at least one student good at English in each group' (T#2), require group members to exchange ideas with one another and each participate in preparing the group presentation so that they are all 'able to answer any questions raised about their work' (T#4), to avoid deduction of marks. T#4 and T#5

also required group members to self-assess and peer-assess and took the students' assessment results into consideration when deciding individual members' marks.

According to the students, such practices of organising group work enhanced their learning from peers, motivated them to prepare for the lessons, and to invest more effort in learning.

> I prefer the teacher assigning group members since there are some good students [in the group] who can help us learn better. If we choose group members ourselves we often select our close friends who are no better than us [in learning] … (S#2)

> All of us had to prepare for the lesson since the teacher called us randomly …if I could not answer [the teacher's question] correctly, my group would be [negatively] affected and it's very shameful. (S#7)

Groupwork is a familiar practice in Vietnam to enhance students' collaborative and active learning in tertiary education (Pham, 2014; Tran, 2015). It also reflects actual practices at the workplace where professionals do not work in isolation (Gol & Nafalski, 2007). Thus, in the context of EMI delivery at tertiary level, the use of group work with a combination of various techniques to maximise effectiveness appears to be both necessary and valuable.

6.3.2.6 Giving Bonus Marks

Five teachers (T#2,4,5,7,8) reported the practice of giving bonus marks to encourage students' learning engagement. In particular, they gave good marks to those students who gave a correct answer to questions during lessons or volunteered to perform on the stage or presented a good solution to a problem raised by the teacher. The marks were recorded, publicised, and sometimes 'converted into a bonus mark to add to the students' progress test results' (S#4). According to the teachers, practice was aimed to motivate student learning and to encourage their participation in the lessons since 'they mainly pay attention to marks' (T#2). As indicated by the representative students, the aim seemed to be achieved. The following extract is one example.

> When it came to the application sessions, I was overwhelmed [but] I tried very hard because I would like to pass the subject…The teacher always created opportunities for us to gain good marks, encouraging us to try our best to do the exercises on the blackboard…I did try…going to the board to get good marks. (S#4)

The practice of giving bonus marks was also reported in Tran's (2015) study on language assessment practices at tertiary level which attributed the practice to the exam-oriented educational tradition with the ubiquitous use of marks and scores for important decision-making processes in Vietnam. However, in that study, the practice was not adopted in the public university but only in the private one where the teachers were under more pressure to engage students and ensure their learning outcomes. It seemed that the discourse in EMI lessons required teachers to put in more effort to engage students in learning. It is worth noting that although the practice had the potential to encourage students to involve themselves more in the lessons, it could

disadvantage unresponsive or introverted students and negatively affect the validity of student assessment results. Thus, the practice should be used with meticulous care to minimise its impact on the validity of the assessment data and ensure its benefits to all students.

6.3.3 Out-of-Class Strategies

6.3.3.1 Providing Support for Student Self-Study

As indicated in Table 6.2, the out-of-class practices most commonly undertaken by the teachers were providing the students with detailed guidelines and easy-reading materials for self-study. The teachers reported sending shortened materials summarising the key points of the lessons in advance, together with a table of related sources or pages of further reading. The aim was to assist students to preview and prepare for the lessons by looking up the key words and/or reading the related parts/chapters in the course books or reference materials. Some teachers (T#2,3,8) also sent powerpoint slides of the lesson in advance together with the specific questions the students needed to answer during the lessons 'in case the students cannot catch my oral questions [during lessons], they can look at the written ones and discuss with their peers' (T#3). Two teachers (T#4,7) recounted giving the students 'parallel reading materials in Vietnamese' (T#7) for reference. One teacher (T#5) reported her practice of first sending PPT slides summarising a small part of the lessons in Vietnamese and then requiring the students to work in groups to prepare similar PPT slides in English and present them in class. Two teachers (T#3,4) sent sets of test questions or chapter revision questions after a lesson and required the students to prepare to answer in the next lesson or to submit their answer in written form. Accompanying detailed guidelines, the teachers also followed and monitored the student self-study by checking individual or groups of students at random, asking questions to elicit their understanding and explain further, or marking their presentations or written submissions.

It is worth noting that those practices were not normally carried out in VMI courses. As demonstrated in the following extracts, teachers undertook such practices in their EMI courses to tackle the problem of lacking suitable learning materials and to assist students to change their learning methods to be more effective.

> The [course] books are 500-600 pages long and do not fit our 60-period syllabus… Moreover, our students do not know how to [self-]study… the teachers need to show them how to study effectively. (T#4)

As reflected by the students, the practices encouraged their self-study and enhanced their engagement in and comprehension of the EMI lessons.

> It is quite useful, if the teacher did not require, few of us would prepare for the lesson… During the lesson, if we cannot understand the teacher, we look at the slides in Vietnamese. (S#5)

> The teacher asked us to study the materials in advance so it was easier to understand and catch up when she taught the next day. (S#3)

The teachers' practice of providing easy-reading or shortened materials raises concerns about the quality of student learning outcomes, which have also been raised in previous studies (Galloway et al., 2017; King, 2014; Nguyen et al., 2017). Their strategies of imposing specific requirements on students' self-study with frequent checking of their progress also sound heavily teacher-centred which might not be appropriate to adult learners at tertiary level. However, given the unavailability of appropriate learning materials and the students' lack of prior experience with self-directed learning, such practices of deconstructing instruction guiding students towards specific task completion, also reported in King's (2014) study, can be considered necessary and helpful.

6.3.3.2 Setting up Online Groups for Further Interaction

As presented in Table 6.2, another activity carried out by the teachers was setting up online groups for class discussion. Five teachers (T#1,3,4,6,7) emphasised their intentional use of social networks such as Zalo and Facebook to create additional virtual discourse for students to interact with them and with other peers. The following extract is an example.

> I created a Zalo group for the whole class, if students had any questions or concerns, they posted on the group, if their peers knew the answers they would respond, if none of them could, I would reply. I also commented on the students' responses showing them if they were right or wrong. (T#1)

The students themselves reported sending questions and draft versions of their assignments via Zalo for the teachers' further explanation or feedback for improvement. They consistently agreed that the teachers were very 'enthusiastic' and 'responsive' and provided 'loads of timely feedback'. The virtual discourse enabled the teachers to extend their lesson time to accommodate the students' diversified needs.

Interactions among students and between students and teachers play a crucial role in activating cognitive mechanisms and generating learning opportunities for students (Vygotsky, 1978). In EMI contexts where student learning needs are too great or diverse to be met in-class by traditional methods, utilising the virtual environment for further class discussion with teachers' timely feedback could enhance meaningful interactions and provide tailored support to student learning; such practices should therefore be highly recommended and promoted.

6.3.3.3 Developing Rapport with Students

Five teachers (T#2,4,5,6,7) and their students referred spontaneously to the practice of teachers building rapport with students. The aims of these rapport practices

were several: to elicit feedback on teaching, reassure students, investigate learning difficulties, and encourage more interaction between students and teacher.

> In lessons at the beginning of the course, the students looked quite anxious. They were worried and wondering if they could complete the course. Thus, I had to talk with them, told them not to be too stressed and if they do not understand they could ask questions even in Vietnamese... (T#2)

> After the first lesson, I talked with the whole class, asking how many of the students understood my lesson. Only around 20 [out of 47] raised their hands. Some of them shared that they did not understand the [English] words I used… (T#5)

Some teachers had short conversations with the students either during the session breaks or after lessons, while Teacher #7 organised 'one consultation session every Sunday morning' to discuss with students in Vietnamese and provide them with additional support to understand the lessons. As a result of these interactions, all the teachers reported adjusting their teaching practices, for example: slowing down the speaking pace, using more common words, sending reference materials in Vietnamese, emphasising key words and sometimes code-switching to Vietnamese. It was also recounted that after such conversations more students asked questions of the teachers inside and outside class time. One student proposed that 'the teacher needs to establish a close relationship with students to help them get over the shyness barrier and actively seek teacher support in learning. Otherwise, they would be too shy to ask questions' (S#8).

The teachers' practices of having consultation sessions and informal talks with students enabled them to gain more understanding of student learning (Murphy, 2008), and to adjust their teaching accordingly. Teacher–student rapport also helps reduce tension and anxiety and encourage classroom interactions (Frisby & Martin, 2010), which is important in EMI classrooms, where teacher–student reciprocal interactions are hindered by their limited English competence.

6.3.4 Summary of Findings

To summarise, data from classroom observations, questionnaires, and interviews consistently show that the teaching and learning in EMI courses at the university were seriously challenged by the students' insufficient English proficiency and unavailability of appropriate learning materials, as reported in previous studies (Al-Bakri, 2017; Walkinshaw et al., 2017). The cultural value of face-saving and the exam-oriented educational tradition also profoundly impacted on the students' involvement and participation in lessons. Against that backdrop, the EMI teachers employed a range of strategies to facilitate students' learning both inside and outside classroom contexts. In particular, when delivering subject knowledge, they utilised visual aids, emphasised keywords, code-switched to Vietnamese, and repeated and reviewed frequently to enhance students' comprehension. They also organised students to work in groups and gave bonus marks to encourage students' involvement in the

lessons. Out of class, they provided detailed learning guidelines for students' self-study, set up online groups for class discussion, and established rapport with students to gain more understanding of their learning needs for further support. As reflected by the representative students, the adoption of such practices could help improve students' comprehension and encourage their active involvement in learning. It is worth noting that these strategies are not necessarily ideal for ongoing EMI education but are coping strategies to mitigate problems arising in the implementation of EMI in this particular context. Use of the teaching strategies depicted in this study confirms the findings of previous studies (Nguyen et al., 2017; Tran & Nguyen, 2018; Vu & Burns, 2014) on the challenges facing EMI implementation at HEIs in Vietnam.

The results of the current study share considerable similarities with the findings of King (2014) in the UAE, which reported teachers' practices of regularly checking for concept understanding, using visual aids, PPT slides and group work activities, deconstructing instruction, using easier materials, pre-teaching key words, and building relationship with students. This study also corroborates some findings of other international studies (Galloway et al., 2017; Hu et al., 2014; Vu & Burns, 2014; Yildiz et al., 2017) documenting EMI teachers' practices, especially with regard to the teachers' use of learners' first language. It is worth noting that despite the use of various practices to facilitate learning, student comprehension was limited to about 50–60% of the lessons. Consequently, this study is in agreement with previous studies (Al-Bakri, 2017; Nguyen et al., 2017; Tran & Nguyen, 2018) which expressed deep concerns about EMI education quality.

6.4 Conclusion and Implications for Moving Forward with EMI

Several implications for enhancing EMI education can be drawn from the research findings. First, the most important factor that needs to take into consideration when implementing EMI is the students' English proficiency. It is crucial to establish a threshold level and ensure that all the participating students have obtained adequate English competence to study in English. Second, more careful attention needs to be paid to the teachers' English ability, especially speaking skills. Together with the requirements stipulated by MOET, HEIs need to reassess the EMI teaching staff to guarantee that they possess sufficient language competence to effectively deliver lessons in English. Third, meticulous attention needs to be placed on the design and development of teaching and learning for EMI courses and programs to make sure that the subject content delivered meets the standard of the tertiary degree. Fourth, with regards to teacher professional development, included in EMI pedagogy courses should be topics such as effective presentation and feedback to enhance comprehension and engagement, teaching of keywords, employing visual aids and group work in lesson design, code-switching, utilising virtual discourse for

further interactions and individualised instruction, establishing rapport with students, and supporting students' self-study. Finally, given the entrenched influence of the exam-oriented education culture on the students' learning attitude and behaviours, it is necessary to develop appropriate regulations on assessing students' participation in online and offline classroom interactions to legitimise and control the use of bonus marks for learning encouragement.

Since EMI implementation is context-dependent and its success is multifactorially determined, the research results of this small-scale and context-specific study on classroom practices cannot be generalised to other educational contexts. However, its detailed insights and significant implications for successful EMI implementation could serve as a useful source of reference for EMI practitioners and institutional policy makers in similar educational contexts.

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Tue Hoang is the Dean of the Faculty of Foreign Languages, Hanoi University of Industry, Vietnam. He has been working as an English teacher and an educational administrator at his university for more than 20 years now. He has conducted many studies and projects to improve the quality of English language education at tertiary level. He received his Doctor of Education degree from Queensland University of Technology, Australia in 2015. His research interests include ICT in education, blended learning, English for Occupational Purposes, English as a Medium of Instruction and Teacher Professional Development.

Duyen Tran is the Director of the Testing and Assessment Center, Hanoi University of Industry, Vietnam. She has many years of experience working as an English teacher at her university. She has been actively involved in designing and conducting teacher professional training courses, especially in English language teaching and assessment. She received her Ph.D. degree from Queensland University of Technology, Australia in 2015. Her research areas include language teaching and assessment, teaching methodology, the employment of ICT in language education, English as a Medium of Instruction and English for Special Purposes.

Chapter 7
Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Perspectives in a Vietnamese Undergraduate Electrical Engineering Course

Ngo Dinh Thanh and Jenny Barnett

Abstract Under country-wide initiatives such as the Higher Engineering Education Alliance Project (HEEAP), the University of Science and Technology in the University of Da Nang has been implementing active learning methods to help create an engaging and effective learning environment. In adopting English-medium instruction (EMI), lecturers were concerned about how to achieve engagement while teaching through English, and chose to apply aspects of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL). CLIL supports students to simultaneously gain knowledge of the discipline, engage in language learning, and enhance a variety of soft skills such as teamwork, project management, and presentation and communication skills. This chapter reports on one lecturer's successful application of 'CLIL-ised' methods in an Electrical Engineering course. The chapter presents some of the activities and pedagogical practices that were designed to support both EMI and active learning for these students. It shows how using CLIL-ised methods has supported adaptation of the program to the Vietnamese context and enabled students to hone their critical thinking skills, design thinking skills, and collaboration skills to promote positive attitudes towards language learning, as well as developing their English skills to prepare them for their capstone project with industry in their final year. It is concluded that CLIL-ised methods present a powerful pathway for moving forward pedagogically with EMI in Vietnamese universities.

Keywords English-medium instruction · EMI · Vietnam · Higher education · CLIL-ised pedagogy · Student engagement

N. Dinh Thanh (✉)
Department of Electrical Engineering, University of Science and Technology—University of Da Nang, 54-Nguyen Luong Bang Street, Da Nang, Vietnam
e-mail: ndthanh@dut.udn.vn

J. Barnett
University of South Australia, Adelaide, SA, Australia
e-mail: jenny.barnett@unisa.edu.au

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7.1 Introduction

At the University of Da Nang, English-medium instruction (EMI) is tied to a pedagogical transition from a traditional teacher-centred approach to a student-centred and more interactive approach that both facilitates and activates learning (Hattie, 2014, p. 247). This has involved project-based learning, flipped classrooms, using technology and social media, game-like and competitive activity, and hands-on activities, all geared towards achieving competence to solve real-world issues. In the Faculty of Advanced Science and Technology, this pedagogical transition has been building over some years through participation in projects such as the Higher Engineering Education Alliance Project (HEEAP) and BUILD-IT, using technology and STEM resources that are mainly in English. The more recent adoption of EMI has led to the introduction of some Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) pedagogies, which can be closely aligned with the active learning pedagogies already in place as part of the broader pedagogical transition.

This chapter presents a case study of one lecturer's successful application of selected CLIL methods in a fourth-year undergraduate course on Microprocessor Interfacing and Embedded Systems. The course is offered within an Advanced Program imported from Portland State University, with all materials and instruction in English. In teaching this English-medium course in the Vietnamese context, the lecturer sets a high priority on achieving student engagement, in the sense of students being 'actively involved in activities designed for learning [through] behavioral, cognitive, emotional, and social patterns of behavior, which, in combination, contribute to learning and to developing successful learning habits and attitudes' (Meyer et al., 2018, p. 244). To achieve such engagement, the course pedagogies highlight an active learning stance and aim to enhance a variety of soft skills such as teamwork, project management, presentation, and English communication skills. Drawing on CLIL perspectives is a key component of these pedagogies. Consequently the research focus is on how CLIL perspectives featured in the lecturer's pedagogical practices and how they shaped student engagement in the learning activities and team project. This is with a view to identifying ways of moving forward pedagogically with EMI in Vietnamese universities.

Perspectives on Content and Language Integrated Learning Graddol (2006, p. 86) makes the point that CLIL 'differs from simple English-medium education in that the learner is not necessarily expected to have the English proficiency required to cope with the subject before beginning study'. This suggests its relevance for use in Vietnamese university programs where the policy expects students to have the required English proficiency, but in fact they do not. In tertiary institutions, CLIL is frequently referred to as 'integrating content and language in higher education' (ICLHE) to distinguish it from the approach taken in schools where the curriculum allows for equal value to be placed on content and language learning outcomes, which is not the case within university disciplines. ICLHE varies in the degree of emphasis placed on English language development, ranging from no assessment of English outcomes to a small percentage (perhaps 10%) of assessment allocation. ICLHE

also varies in terms of staffing: generally content teachers provide language input along with their content, but in some cases 'language teachers and content teachers can cooperate and share teaching responsibilities' (Airey, 2016).

Unlike many EMI lessons, a CLIL/ICLHE lesson is not simply a subject lesson taught in English, it is a subject lesson that intentionally teaches the language of the subject and the necessary ways of interacting to achieve the purposes of the discipline and particular learning tasks. This is reflected in the original 4Cs curriculum (Coyle, 1999), which involves a planned combination of content, communication, cognition, and culture. Subsequently, Coyle et al. (2010) identified five characteristics of effective CLIL: building knowledge, skills, and understanding of content; engaging in higher order thinking; interacting in purposeful ways; developing appropriate communication skills; and building a deepening intercultural awareness. Thus engagement with students must be a key commitment (Ball & Lindsay, 2012; Meyer et al., 2018). Sancho Guinda (2013) draws on a range of sources to identify three components of such engagement: 'efficacious metadiscursive and metalingual guidance to assist comprehension, […] democratic and dialogic classroom dynamics, [… and] pedagogical adjustments' (pp. 76–77). Translating these components of engagement into the quality design and teaching of a CLIL course, 'can only be achieved when all of the four Cs are considered in lesson planning and materials construction' (Meyer, 2013, p. 307). To facilitate this, Meyer proposes planning units of work that start with media deliberately selected to scaffold input and build study skills, followed by task design that highlights cognition and communication and incorporates output scaffolding, then concluding with review of both content and language.

Studies of student participation in ICLHE courses show generally positive outcomes. For example, a recent study in Spain found that students who had taken four or more CLIL subjects at university had significantly higher linguistic self-confidence than those who had taken only one or two—students found strategies to cope with the challenges, started to intervene more, and enjoyed study more (Moratinos-Johnston et al., 2019). Also in Spain, Aguilar and Muñoz (2014) found that less proficient students obtained higher gains in listening and grammar skills than more proficient students. In Taiwan, learners' satisfaction with CLIL courses was greatly affected by their level of language proficiency (Yang, 2016), and significant reverse association between learning anxiety and achievement or motivation occurred when pedagogy did not facilitate students' comprehension (Huang, 2015). Issues have also been encountered among lecturers who have resisted or not felt competent in taking on an English language development role (Airey, 2012), refusing 'to inhabit an English-language teacher identity' whilst nevertheless providing 'glossaries and translation' (Moncada-Comas & Block, 2019, p. 1).

Schmidt-Unterberger (2018, p. 529) rightly argues that achieving 'equal importance of content and language learning aims is extremely difficult to apply to higher education'; however, as this chapter will demonstrate, a range of CLIL principles can indeed be applied within a university course to great benefit, while not attempting a full CLIL approach. By adopting CLIL perspectives in their practices, content lecturers can scaffold and support their students learning, without taking on the role

and obligations of a language teacher. This is illustrated in Block and Moncada-Comas (2019) and Moncada-Comas and Block (2019), who studied what they refer to as the 'CLIL-ised EMI practices' of STEM lecturers at a Catalan university—practices designed to support students' English language development without such development being a formal or assessable goal. This chapter adopts the notion of CLIL-ised EMI pedagogy, using it to demonstrate and analyse classroom activities and materials designed to achieve successful content learning and engagement, by incorporating a lesser but still definite focus on students' English language development.

7.2 Research Context and Design

This chapter represents a case study of the use of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) pedagogies within an EMI program in a university setting where the local setting, lecturer, and the students were all Vietnamese. The 10-week course ECE 372 'Microprocessor Interfacing and Embedded System' is offered within an Advanced Program imported from Portland State University (PSU) at the University of Da Nang—University of Science and Technology. This course is taught in English and students are required to use English in class, although for the team project that starts in the second week students may use some Vietnamese when discussing technical aspects of design activities.

Participants in the study were the 20 students enrolled in the class (all male), with the class lecturer as practitioner-researcher. Based on a class survey, a composite student persona can be drawn, as follows:

> He is a fourth year student and he wants to be a successful person in a future. He realises that English plays an important role in his future career and he has to achieve 6.0 IELTS to graduate from this program, so he would like to improve his English. He also wants to enhance his soft-skills that are required by potential employer industries. He is interested in high-tech products. In his free time, he enjoys participating in social activities as well as social networks.

The lecturer-researcher is an experienced member of the university's Faculty of Advanced Science and Technology, who has actively participated in the Higher Engineering Education Alliance Project (HEEAP) and BUILD-IT. Like many other content specialists (Hung & Lan, 2017; Moncada-Comas & Block, 2019), he does not see himself as an English teacher and is not fully confident in his own English proficiency. Nevertheless, he does see himself as having a role to play in both facilitating and activating learning through English and developing students' communicative capacities in the language of the discipline.

The case study draws on data generated throughout the 10-week course, notably: the lecturer's planning documents, the course teaching and learning materials he designed, his practitioner-researcher observations, student presentations on PowerPoint, assessment records, and student evaluations. Data analysis seeks to identify instances of the following six principles for quality CLIL (Meyer, 2013):

- Rich input, using materials that are 'meaningful, challenging and authentic' (p. 297)
- Scaffolding learning, which includes scaffolding input, building learning strategies and study skills, and scaffolding output
- Rich interaction and pushed output, supported by authentic communication through task design involving information gaps, reasoning gaps and opinion gaps
- Adding the (inter-)cultural dimension
- Make it H.O.T., which requires consistently eliciting higher order thinking and modelling the language needed to apply that level of thinking
- Sustainable learning, which includes creating connections for students, providing clear structures of learning, a balance of cooperative student-centred activities and teacher communication.

Meyer acknowledges that not all of these principles can be applied in every lesson, but suggests that they can and should be applied across whole units of work. They do therefore offer a useful tool for analysing classroom activities and materials across a university course.

7.3 CLIL-ised Pedagogy in Action

The starting point for the CLIL pedagogy and materials design in this course was the specific learning needs of the subject, as set out in the Portland State University curriculum and as interpreted in light of the Vietnamese context. From there, the lecturer identified multimodal input to provide to students across the course, in order to model the English literacies and study skills needed by the students. This addresses Meyer's (2013, p. 308) recommendation for 'differentiated materials which accommodate different learning styles and activate various language skills'.

For the course lecturer in this study (first author), adopting a CLIL-ised approach involves building in a language focus by:

- identifying and explicitly teaching new vocabulary items essential to the topic and task
- exposing students to progressively more complex levels of language and thinking within a lesson
- modelling speaking skills, and
- creating opportunities for students to construct meaning together in interaction.

In brief, the lecturer's CLIL-ised role is to help students acquire the language while learning the content. His pedagogical priorities reflect concerns about how to teach a technical subject through English and simultaneously engage students in class. For him, the role of the instructor is to guide and advise, monitor, inspire students, and keep in touch with all students. He firmly believes that CLIL-ised teaching can increase students' motivation to learn what they are being taught, and to engage them in talking and learning in English.

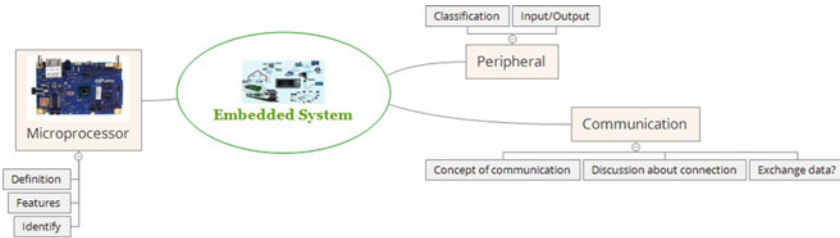

Fig. 7.1 Student mind map of an embedded system

In the course on Microprocessor Interfacing and Embedded System, the use of CLIL-ised activities is central both to the regular classroom lessons and to the team project. Activities in classroom lessons are illustrated in this section mainly through a 90-min lesson given in a Computer Skills class to 20 fourth-year students. This is followed by an account of CLIL-ised pedagogy within the team project, and some student evaluations of the course.

7.3.1 Lesson Activities

7.3.1.1 Using Mind Maps

Mind maps were used in several ways. At the start of a class, students might be given a mind map with all the key content items for the lesson, and the lecturer will run through it to provide pronunciation practice as well as explaining/translating/illustrating new vocabulary. Another activity requires students to work in a team to describe the features of a particular item or process using a mind map tool of their choice. Figure 7.1 is one team's product when asked to provide an embedded system overview.

Each team shares their product and introduces it to other teams. In this way, students have an opportunity to explain and illustrate their idea in a visual manner. Through this warming activity, students can use English meaningfully with new vocabulary and technical terms as well as practising their pronunciation.

7.3.1.2 Provision of Relevant Information Spoken as an Informal Video Presentation with Visual Realia

Combining spoken and visual information is a useful first step in order to give an overview of a new micro-processing item. For example, the video of the Intel Edison board at https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HDo8F7mJ6aE provides an overview of both hardware and software features. Students hear speaking patterns typical of presentations they may expect to hear and perform themselves in their professional

lives. They become accustomed to a fast speaking pace for enthusiastic introductions and a slower speaking pace for higher content density. They also become accustomed to American pronunciation and speech styles. After the first listening, the teacher asks some content questions concerning the information in the video. Then students go to the second listening to extract some missing information, followed by a quiz game to summarise what they have learned from the video.

7.3.1.3 LOTs and HOTs ('Skinny' and 'Fat' Questions)

Providing a pre-prepared handout of Lower Order and Higher Order Thinking questions (LOTs and HOTs) based on previously provided information not only gives students an opportunity to check and consolidate learning, but gives them the content and language they will need for subsequent discussion. The Lower Order Thinking questions can be quickly answered by all students, while the Higher Order Thinking questions require more consideration since they involve concepts, schemas, inference, evaluation, problem-solving, and so on. The LOTs and HOTs used early in this lesson are shown in Table 7.1.

At the end of a lesson, students are ready to go more deeply into the topic, and are given both 'skinny' and 'fat' questions that serve not only as a review and application of lesson content, but as a basis for reflection and study outside of class. In fat questions, students think at higher level in English compared to the short answers that suffice for skinny questions. The following questions were used at the end of this particular lesson (Table 7.2).

For skinny questions, students answer through a quiz game using Kahoot individually on their smartphones. They try to complete all questions as fast as possible

Table 7.1 LOTs and HOTs to start the lesson

LOTs	HOTs
What kind of CPU does Intel Edison have? Does Intel Edison include Wifi and Bluetooth?	Please tell me some real-world applications with Intel Edison? Why do many people use Intel Edison?

Table 7.2 Skinny and fat questions to conclude the lesson

Skinny questions (lower order thinking skills, short answers)	Fat questions (higher order thinking skills, longer answers)
What is a microprocessor?	Could you tell me the difference between microprocessor and microcontroller?
What is a peripheral?	Why do we need peripheral? How can you classify peripheral?
Describe some features of Intel Edison board?	Which one do you think important?
Tell me some sensors that you know?	Why are some sensors for industry expensive?

to win the game, enjoying the competition. The lecturer can see each student's answer on the Kahoot report, which allows him to help each student go on to the second round with the fat questions, which require higher order thinking. It is challenging for students to come up with ideas when crossing to higher order questions such as ones involving how and why. This leads students to engage and creates an interest-in-learning journey.

7.3.1.4 Focused Pair Work

Pair work is highly valued in a CLIL approach as it gives opportunity for each student to use English at their own level on a topic they have already been introduced to and have vocabulary for, and to do this in a supportive space with a partner. We use Think-Pair-Share tools to encourage students to use English to express their ideas on a given discussion topic over a limited time. First, a discussion question is given by the teacher for students to independently think about, then students find a partner nearby to share their answers. When the time is over, students share what their partners think about the discussion question with other members in the class. Students find this activity fun as partners must check whether a student forgets or misses out information, or presents his own idea instead of sharing his partner's idea.

Of the many types of pair work possible, problem-solving and information gap are the most frequently used. A simple example of problem-solving involves building on information previously provided on video or by the lecturer, and using the vocabulary previously practised and available on a mind map handout. Information gap activities are particularly helpful for content revision and using new terminology. In the example below each student has a handout with missing information and must ask his partner to provide that information orally, without showing the handout (Figs. 7.2 and 7.3).

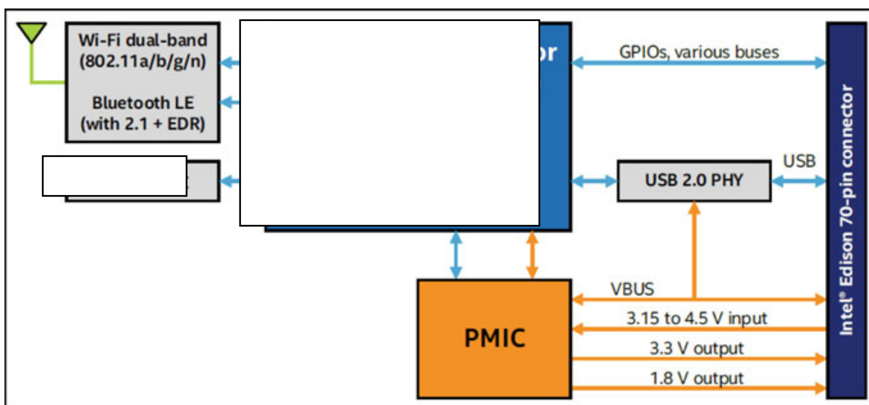

Fig. 7.2 Example of learner A's handout

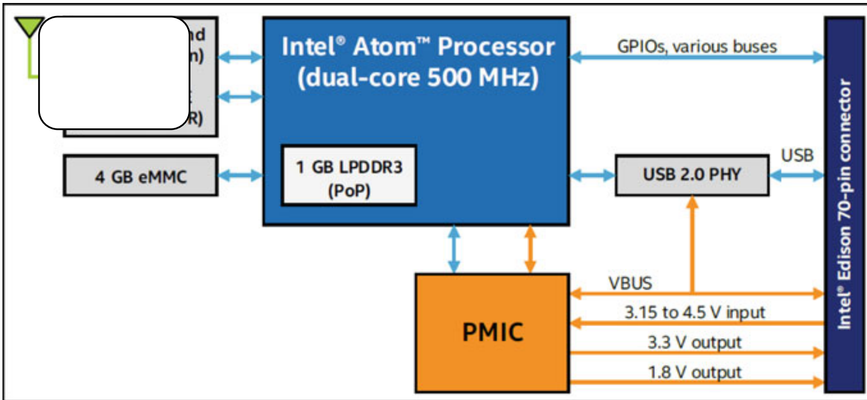

Fig. 7.3 Example of learner B's handout

After obtaining the missing information orally, students exchange their handouts to revise the written forms of vocabulary and technical terms.

7.3.1.5 Provision of Relevant Information Written in a Non-academic Style

Students are asked to access written online information that is informal in style as well as highly informative. This has two purposes: it provides a first step in learning new content through fairly straightforward English, and it provides an opportunity for students to consciously or unconsciously absorb the writing style. The excerpt below is taken from an online review of a new product.

> Intel and Arduino's announcement about the new Galileo board is big news. It's a Linux-based board that I've found to be remarkably compatible with the Arduino ecosystem based on my first few steps with a pre-release version of the board. Here are some of the best features of this ground-breaking collaboration between Intel and Arduino:
>
> **Shield Compatibility**
>
> The expansion header on the top of Galileo should look familiar since it's compatible with 5V and 3.3V Arduino shields designed for the Uno R3 (also known as the Arduino 1.0 pinout). This means that it has 14 digital I/O pins, 6 analog inputs, a serial port, and an ICSP header.
>
> **Familiar IDE**
>
> The Intel-provided integrated development environment for the Galileo looks exactly like the Arduino IDE on the surface. Under the Boards menu, you'll see addition of the Galileo under 'Arduino X86 Boards.' The modified IDE also is capable of upgrading the firmware on the board.

It is noticeable that the language is user-friendly, and encouraging, with the information presented in short bites suited to students' attention span.

7.3.1.6 Hands-On Activities

Hands-on activities are central to courses in this field, and also support CLIL as students use English to give advice to each other about how to manage the task and also when completing associated written work. The activity used in the lesson reported here was to connect an Intel Edison board to a computer; other hands-on activities are central to the team project described in the next section.

7.3.1.7 Closing Activities

In closing the lesson, a link may be given to an English language online resource that is more challenging than links given during the lesson, providing more complex information. It will also usually be in more complex English and in a different style of writing, such as product documentation and user guides, as at http://www.intel.com/content/www/us/en/do-ityourself/edison.html given in this lesson. Such reading may reinforce and extend understanding of the topic and guide potential application. In addition, as mentioned earlier, a set of 'skinny' and 'fat' questions may be provided to review content and challenge creative ideas.

7.3.2 The Team Project

In this course, there is a team project which requires students to create an authentic product to solve a real-world problem that is personal and meaningful to them. This project runs across the semester, concluding with a PowerPoint presentation in English that contributes to the final assessment. It requires that students work in a team (usually four people) to design and build a transformable robot that can recognise and avoid obstacles in a maze. Figure 7.4 shows the design features of the student project set within a curriculum document proforma.

The completed model has to be tested with obstacles in different positions, and students are expected to evaluate both the product and their design process. These requirements are made very clear to the students through a project brief and discussion with the lecturer, leading to team agreement on roles, tasks, responsibilities, and funding contribution. All teams are required to use a design thinking tool with six steps: define problem, generate possible solutions, compare and analyse solutions, select the best solution, implement the solution, and evaluate the solution. Each step involves considerable discussion, as well as a report and class presentation in English. In this way the design thinking process serves as an encouragement for students to engage with English so that they can learn from others and progress with their project.

Managing team activity is a key feature of the project, and students are supported to organise their teamwork through an online record sheet. This sheet requires them first to give themselves a team name and make a plan, working out their specific

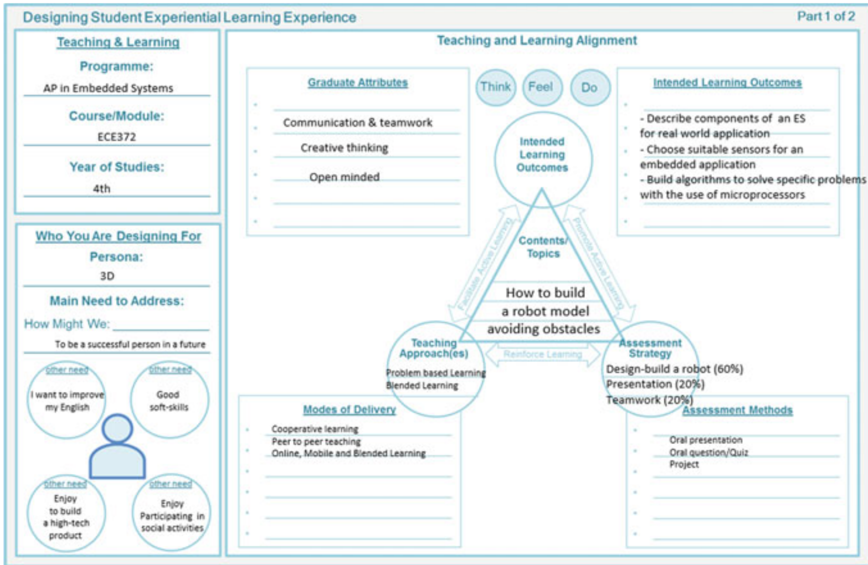

Fig. 7.4 Curriculum document extract for student project

objective, problems to be solved, the skills involved, and team roles. It then requires them to reflect on and document work in progress—the challenges, solutions, future work, and variations in team roles. It also requires them to identify their industry and supply links to other online properties (portfolio/website/blog), as well as email, twitter handle, phone, and linked-in URL, just as they would in professional practice. This reflects core principles of both quality CLIL practice and active learning.

The students' final PowerPoint presentation requires a range of written text types, including:

- detailed description of the product
- instructions to use the product (tutorial dot points in step by step sequence)
- summary of challenges and solutions in the design process
- labelled images
- tables and flow-charts (e.g. for project management)
- lists (e.g. software and hardware requirements).

The CLIL approach in this course makes sure that students frequently encounter models of all of these text types through online materials and teacher presentations. This scaffolds their learning of the different features of English required by each, thus preparing them for their eventual Project presentation.

7.3.3 *Student Evaluations of the Course Activities*

The account of course activities given in the preceding sections is necessarily brief, but it nevertheless offers an overview of the types of learning experiences students engaged in, and which students had the opportunity to evaluate both through a standard end-of-semester evaluation sheet for EMI courses and through interview. The standard evaluation sheet includes eight questions on teaching activities, the following four of which can be directly associated with Meyer's (2013) CLIL principles set out earlier:

- Lecturer encouraged students to communicate orally in class
- Lecturer often organises student's activities in forms of active learning
- Lecturer had good methods to let students understand lessons easily
- Lecturer used relevant teaching support equipment to increase the teaching effectiveness (multimedia, web course, e-learning, etc.)

While the overall student evaluation for this course was uniformly high, averaging at 4.19 out of 5, the scores for the above items were all above this average, with encouragement for oral communication coming in at 4.43.

As part of their final presentation, students were required to provide their group evaluation of learning through the project, illustrated here:

> We encountered a lots of electrical problems such as noise, power supply and some mechanical obstacles such as frame, weight, balance. We made one ESP8622 and one LM2596 burnt. However, thank to these mistakes, we understood the robot's nature as well as solving problems.
>
> Moreover, the project teaches us how to work in a team efficiently. At first, our team has many conflicts but then we deal with each team member and give the best solution. We also learnt how to divide time table for the whole project.
>
> Finally, thanks to this project, we achieve many major knowledge and soft skills.

These student evaluations suggest the achievement of Coyle's (2013, p. 248) view of 'successful learning' through CLIL as the 'cognitive, social and personal gains of individuals', whereby the learner gains more than the assessable course content. This is also reflected in the fact that more than 90% of students are offered internships to do capstone projects with industries which require special English and other soft skills.

7.4 Conclusion and Implications for Moving Forward with EMI

As Schweisfurth (2015) emphasises, 'pedagogy cannot be divorced from the social and resource contexts in which it exists' (p. 261), and the use of CLIL methods in this course is clearly responsive to the particular university context, the discipline, and the readiness of the teacher and students to engage with such methods, unlike in some

other university settings (Aguilar, 2017). In keeping with the commitment of the university to a pedagogy of active learning, the design of learning activities and tasks was deliberately intended to foster student engagement. We saw this particularly in the first four activities illustrated in Sect. 7.3 and in the team project, which all meet Meyer's (2013) recommendation 'to trigger both higher order thinking skills and lead to authentic communication/interaction in different interactive formats (solo work, pair work, group work, etc.)' (p. 308).

For a more penetrating analysis, we now take each of Meyer's six principles of 'quality CLIL' (see Sect. 7.2) and consider their application in the CLIL-ised course activities described in Sect. 7.3. The first principle concerns rich input, using materials that are 'meaningful, challenging and authentic' (Meyer, 2013, p. 297). We believe the above account provides ample evidence of this. In particular, the use of the internet as a source of diverse authentic text types is highly engaging and relevant to these fourth-year students' future profession.

Particular examples of Meyer's (2013) second principle, scaffolding learning, occur in a number of ways:

- the use of mind maps and quiz activities for preview and review of content and English language (scaffolding input and output)
- the modelling provided through the PowerPoint slides and authentic materials (scaffolding input and output)
- the provision of guiding documents for project management (building learning strategies)
- the sequencing of LOTs and HOTS (scaffolding output)
- the provision of outline documents for the project final presentation (scaffolding output)
- the progressive complexity of the lesson activities, sequenced to build upon one another in terms of input, output and soft skills (scaffolding input and output).

Such scaffolding is evident here in the selection of materials, the design of activities, and the structuring of individual lessons, and we can report it here as also a feature of lesson sequences.

Rich interaction and pushed output, Meyer's (2013) third principle, are supported by authentic communication especially through the focused pair work, the hands-on activities, and the team project, all of which involve the learning in providing information and reasoning, and sometimes opinions. In addition, the lecturer creates a relaxed atmosphere in class, supporting students meaning making—an important factor in supporting student engagement (Doiz et al., 2019, p. 159).

The (inter-)cultural dimension of quality CLIL is not foregrounded in either the lesson activities or team project, since the focus is on technology, which spans cultures. Nevertheless, incorporated in this course is a variety of text types using diverse cultural references—from sales advertising to instruction manuals. These provide a language-focused aspect of internationalisation and can also lead to intercultural reflections in Think-Pair-Share and group discussion activities about how to interpret visual, verbal, and written varieties. This suggests the potential of such CLIL-ised EMI to strengthen intercultural competence (Aguilar-Pérez, 2021).

In regard to the fifth principle of higher order thinking (HOT), Hu and Li (2017) emphasise the need for EMI teachers to 'become aware of the patterns of questioning and responding in their own classrooms' and then aim for 'a judicious and balanced use of a variety of questions targeting different cognitive processes that are appropriate for particular instructional objectives' (p. 200). Evidence of such judicious and balanced use is apparent in the design of the LOTs and HOTs activity, the concluding 'skinny' and 'fat' questions, as well as through the focused pair work and the team project and its evaluation.

Finally, sustainable learning is catered for through the structured progression of activities and the design of the team project, which together create connections for students as well as a balance of cooperative student-centred activities and input from the teacher and audio-visual resources.

Coyle (2008) presents CLIL as a change agent for sustaining deeper learning, 'defined as the successful internalisation of conceptual content knowledge (meaning making) and the automatisation of subject-specific procedures, skills, and strategies that depend on learner acquisition of disciplinary literacies' (p. 172). The lesson activities and their sequencing in this study, as well as the project, provide clear illustration of the role that CLIL-ised practices can play in achieving such teaching for deeper learning. The study has also shown that CLIL-ised practices can be very manageably integrated into a content-focused curriculum in ways that promote student engagement with learning as well as improving their English. While further research is needed, we believe there is sufficient evidence for the inclusion of CLIL-ised practices in any attempt to move EMI forward pedagogically in Vietnamese universities. We therefore strongly encourage practitioners to explore the use of CLIL-ised practices in their own disciplines, and to personally experience the power of CLIL as an agent in transforming students' EMI classroom learning experiences.

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Ngo Dinh Thanh finished his Ph.D. degree in computer engineering at the University of South Brittany, France, in 2015. Currently, he works as a lecturer in Electrical Engineering, University of Da Nang—University of Science and Technology (UD-DUT). His research interests include run-time mapping techniques for MPSoC (multiprocessor system on a chip), IoT (Internet of Things) and embedded systems. He is an alumnus of HEEAP cohort 2016, and has actively participated in many BUILD-IT Workshops, particularly in teaching, learning and quality assurance. He is interested in teaching methods such as Project-Based Learning, Engineering Projects in Community Services and STEM.

Jenny Barnett worked for 25 years in the School of Education, University of South Australia, Adelaide. She taught undergraduate and postgraduate courses in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), and supervised doctoral students addressing issues in multilingual learning environments. Until recently, her research and consultancy work focused on the learning and teaching of students in Australia for whom English is an additional language or dialect (EALD), with an emphasis on their learning across the curriculum. This focus has subsequently shifted to English medium education in the Asia–Pacific region more broadly, and particularly in higher education.

Chapter 8
Lecturers' Perspectives on the Use of L1 in Vietnamese Undergraduate English-Medium Courses: An Uneasy Acquiescence

Min Pham

Abstract This chapter investigates the tension for lecturers in Vietnamese universities regarding the use of Vietnamese language in teaching and learning within EMI courses. This widespread pedagogical concern is explored through reference to the relevant literature and data collected from in-depth semi-structured interviews with ten EMI lecturers from ten higher education institutions in three cities across Vietnam. The chapter highlights that respondent lecturers often expressed a sense of guilt for letting students use Vietnamese in EMI classes and for encouraging them to refer to materials in Vietnamese. It is argued that this sense of guilt is primarily due to lack of policy guidance at the institutional level. In order to move forward pedagogically with EMI, the author suggests the importance of universities providing suitable professional development training for their EMI lecturers, especially in the area of translanguaging as a source of pedagogical strategies to support students' language and content learning.

Keywords English-medium instruction · EMI · Vietnam · Higher education · Translanguaging · Pedagogy

8.1 Introduction

Although EMI has been an emerging phenomenon around the world, one of the key challenges for the implementation and success of EMI programs is the limited English language proficiency of teachers and students (Dearden, 2015; Macaro et al., 2018). Consequently, the use of first language (L1) in EMI teaching and learning is evident, if not unavoidable. English language proficiency is certainly one of the ultimate goals of EMI programs, in which students are expected to be equipped with content knowledge and English proficiency for their future professions. However, it is important to note that EMI classrooms should not be considered as second or foreign

M. Pham (✉)
University of South Australia, Adelaide, SA, Australia
e-mail: min.pham@unisa.edu.au

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language acquisition classrooms. On the contrary, to move forward pedagogically with EMI requires a focus on strategies that enhance the acquisition of disciplinary knowledge and skills.

Studies in different EMI contexts at the tertiary education level have indicated that content teachers often insist that they are not language teachers and do not consider teaching English language teaching part of their job (Airey, 2012, 2020; Valcke & Wilkinson, 2017). Other studies have highlighted a lack of attention from content teachers to the language aspect of EMI classrooms (Aguilar, 2017; Airey, 2012) whether they teach EMI courses alone or along with language teachers (Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2018). This ironic neglect of the language aspect by content teachers can adversely affect students' learning. Moreover, students themselves have perceived the use of L1 in EMI classrooms differently across different disciplines and levels of studies. Some have advocated the use of L1 to compensate for their limited English proficiency while others favour 'English Only' (Evans & Morrison, 2011; Kim et al., 2017; Pun & Macaro, 2019). Evidently, the use of L1 is a complicated topic given that it plays an important role in EMI teaching and learning and therefore in its success.

This chapter contributes to ongoing discussion in the literature on this topic by particularly investigating how teachers perceive the use of L1 and their practice in class. It is important to note here that language learning and using is a complex social practice that engages the identities of the learners as users of the language (Norton, 2013, p. 4). Therefore, it can be argued that lecturers' perception of the use of L1 in EMI is important in their professional practice, as it could influence the goals of EMI, namely to equip students with content knowledge and English relevant to their future profession.

The two key research questions underpinning this chapter are:

a. *How do lecturers perceive the use of L1 in EMI classrooms?*
b. *How do they use L1 in their teaching practices?*

The chapter utilises the data collected from in-depth interviews with ten Vietnamese EMI lecturers working for public universities across Vietnam. These lecturers often expressed a sense of guilt for letting students use Vietnamese in EMI classes and encouraging them to refer to materials in Vietnamese. However, it is argued that this sense of guilt is primarily due to lack of policy guidance at the institutional level and lack of awareness of the pedagogical strategies and value of translanguaging. As a result, some implications for teacher professional training development will be proposed at the conclusion of this chapter and as a means of moving forward pedagogically with EMI.

8.2 The Use of L1 in EMI

The role of the first language (L1) has mainly been investigated in second language (L2) acquisition educational contexts. A historical perspective on the use of L1 in L2

acquisition can be summarised into two opposing approaches with three main periods of development. The two opposing approaches are the monolingual and bilingual approaches. Before the 1970s, L1 played a major role in second language classrooms; as noted by Auerbach (1999) the use of L1 was a general practice and accepted in L2 classrooms. In these classrooms, L1 was used to provide learners with comparisons between L1 and L2, such as in vocabulary and grammar structures. One particular pedagogical approach in line with this practice was the Grammar Translation Method which, as described by Larsen-Freeman (1986), heavily depended on the use of learners' L1 in teacher-learner interaction. The 1970s and particularly the 1980s witnessed the emergence of the monolingual approach which considered the use of L1 as a hindrance to the second language learning process (Auerbach, 1993; Kocaman & Aslan, 2018). Advocates of natural and communicative approaches to L2 learning strongly suggested L2-only pedagogy or Direct Method as the most effective method of language teaching (Macdonald, 2002; Swain & Lapkin, 2000). This suggestion was echoed by researchers in the field of input, interaction, and feedback (Gass, 2018). An extreme version of this monolingual approach proffered that successful English language teaching should dictate that: (a) English is the only language used in classrooms, (b) the ideal teacher is a native speaker of English, (c) the earlier English is taught, the better, (d) the more use of English in the classroom, the better, and (e) the use of other languages can reduce English standards (Phillipson, 1992). The increasing diversity of students speaking different first languages in L2 classrooms contributed to bolster the monolingual approach.

A general opinion regarding the use of L1 has been challenged since the late 1990s and shifted among scholars and language instructors. There are both theoretical and practical drives behind this shift. Cook (2001) argues that the use of L1 would provide language learners with language competence to complete learning tasks, and that there is a mental link between the first and second languages. Other scholars such as Cummins (2007), Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009) hypothesise that the use of L1 can benefit learners, given that languages, to many extents, are interdependent and that transfer between languages is not always negative. In addition, the use of L1 can motivate learners to be active in learning (Alshammari, 2011; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009). For some language instructors, the use of L1 is a useful tool to teach a class of learners with diverse and low L2 proficiency (Earls, 2016; Probyn, 2006). Despite these two opposing approaches, the mixed use of both L1 and L2 is often the case in language classrooms and the monolingual approach has recently been shaped by the bilingual, if not multilingual, approach.

Unlike the field of second language acquisition, English Medium Instruction (EMI) is a new emerging phenomenon and consequently so has been scholarship on the role of L1 in EMI contexts. A recent report from Oxford University (2019) summarises research evidence on the role of languages in instruction and shows a dearth of research on the role of L1 in EMI, especially in higher education contexts. Research on this topic has mainly investigated the functions of teacher use of L1; teacher and student beliefs in the use of L1; and its effects on students' mastery of language proficiency and academic content. Those who investigate the functions of L1 use have indicated that the use of L1 is often for (a) 'unpacking the field', (b)

'negotiating relationship', and (c) 'making shifts of focus, topic, task, or stage of the lesson' (Cenoz & Gorter, 2015; Tarnopolsky & Goodman, 2012). These functions often determine how much and how often EMI teachers refer to L1 in their teaching.

Studies on the beliefs of teachers and students regarding the use of L1 in EMI classrooms have come to different findings. While teachers often refer to L1 as a practical strategy mainly to cope with limited language proficiency among students and even themselves (Earls, 2016; Haroon, 2005; Probyn, 2006), students hold different beliefs. Some expect to have greater exposure to English when they enrol in EMI programs while others accept the use of L1 as a way to compensate for their limited English proficiency and to ensure their grasp of content (Mokhtar, 2015). Finally, research has found that the use of L1 can have influence on students' content and English language learning. For instance, studies by Kirkgoz (2014) investigated the use of L1 in EMI classrooms in Turkey where students claimed that they found it more difficult to learn content through English than through L1. Other studies have raised a concern that the uncontrolled use of L1 can hinder the gradual progression of English in EMI classrooms (Kim et al., 2017; Mazak & Carroll, 2017; Turnbull, 2011). Given those different findings, and given that the use of L1 is clearly evident in many EMI contexts, this chapter contributes to the current study of L1 in EMI by primarily focusing on teachers' perceptions of the use of L1 and their practices in class. The study of teachers' perceptions and their use of L1 is important for it can shed much-needed light on the implementation and success of EMI programs.

8.3 Design of the Study

Data for this research was collected from individual semi-structured interviews with ten lecturers from ten public universities in three regions (North, Centre, and South) in Vietnam. These lecturers were from different disciplines teaching different types of programs, and all of them have successfully completed at least one postgraduate degree program in which English was used as the medium of instruction. Each lecturer has at least two years of experience in EMI teaching and some have taught more than one EMI course. Three participants were from universities in the North while another three were from institutions in the Centre and the remaining four were from universities in the South of Vietnam. Table 8.1 below provides more details about the participants in terms their gender, experience, disciplines, qualifications, self-evaluated English proficiency, and programs taught.

A set of open-ended questions were developed to interview those lecturers and to ascertain (a) their perceptions of the use of L1 in EMI classrooms, and (b) how they were using L1 in their teaching practices. All lecturers were free to choose either Vietnamese or English for the interview and all decided to use Vietnamese with some references to English whenever preferred. Interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed, and analysed using content analysis. All the interview transcripts were first read and categorised into themes and re-analysed to identify common themes shared by other participants. Some key findings are provided in the next section.

Table 8.1 Participant details

Teacher code	Gender	EMI teaching experience	Disciplines	Qualification	Self-evaluated English	Program/Course
T1	Female	2 years	International Studies	PhD	Proficient	Single Course
T2	Female	3 years	Business Management	PhD	Proficient	High Quality Program
T3	Female	3 years	Tourism Studies	PhD	Proficient	High Quality Program
T4	Male	2 years	Communication	PhD	Proficient	High Quality Program
T5	Male	4 years	Computer Science	PhD	Proficient	Advanced Program
T6	Male	3 years	Information Technology	PhD	(Reluctant) Proficient	Advanced Program
T7	Female	3 years	Economics	PhD	Proficient	High Quality Program
T8	Female	2 years	Nursing	PhD	Proficient	High Quality Program
T9	Male	3 years	International Relations	MA	(Reluctant) Proficient	Single course
T10	Female	2 years	Physics	MSc	(Reluctant) Proficient	Single course

8.4 EMI Lecturer Perspectives and Practices

8.4.1 'Do We Have Choices? I Am Not Sure'

The importance of front-line lecturers who are responsible for delivering academic subjects has long been acknowledged in the literature. With regard to language of instruction policy, lecturers have often been considered as 'gatekeepers' who transform language policy from the macro level to local contexts (Liddicoat & Baldauf, 2008). Studies have also highlighted teachers as recipients and enactors of macro level policy initiatives (Fenton-Smith & Gurney, 2016; Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997). The success of any language policy is therefore believed to rely greatly on the role of lecturers (Hinkel, 2011; Ricento, 2005). Within EMI contexts, research has raised concerns about the English language proficiency of content lecturers who are non-native speakers of English to effectively deliver their subjects and support students (Byun et al., 2011; Dearden, 2015; Hamid et al., 2013). A focus on the language proficiency of lecturers can divert attention from investigation of the voice that they have in developing as well as implementing institutional language policy. Data from the interviews in this study clearly shows that EMI lecturers are treated as mere recipients of their institution policy.

When asked whether they were consulted on the offer of EMI courses in their institution, one lecturer made it very clear:

> If the university says we need to have EMI courses, we have to try our best to do it. If they say we have to use English, we will have to do it. Do we have choices? I am not sure. (T1)

A similar comment comes from T10 who had been teaching in an EMI Physics course for two years. For her, teaching in English was a decision made by the university managers; consequently, as a teacher, she just tried her best to fulfil her work duties.

> The decision belongs to the leadership team. So, if they say the university needs to offer EMI courses, I then try to fulfil my responsibilities. I am a paid teacher, I get a salary from the university. They may have good reasons for that [offering EMI courses], but I do not know about it. (T10)

As a growing global phenomenon, EMI has quickly been taken up by governments and higher education institutions as an effort towards internationalisation, which consequently has led to the adoption of a top-down model (Kim et al., 2017; Rose & McKinley, 2018; Yamagami & Tollefson, 2011). However, the adoption of a top-down model by universities has marginalised the voice of front-line lecturers who are responsible for the delivery of EMI teaching.

Although lecturers were treated as recipients of the institution policy, they did not act passively. Almost all of the participants viewed teaching EMI as an opportunity for their own professional development, which is contradictory to the submissive role that studies in language policy and planning have traditionally shown (Fenton-Smith & Gurney, 2016; Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997). Improving English language proficiency, forcing themselves to keep updated with research in the academic disciplines and career opportunities were often cited as benefits from EMI teaching. Recognising challenges in EMI teaching, the first participant lecturer, who has been both English language and content teacher, considered EMI teaching a chance to learn new things, especially assessment design and pedagogies. Likewise, although T3 was concerned about challenges in teaching in English but also got a sense of pride in teaching EMI.

> I know giving a lecture in front of students is totally different. I may not know how to explain a technical or abstract concept in English. If students' English proficiency is limited, then it would double the difficulty to teach. Very hard and I will need a lot help with this, but it is good to be selected to teach in English – an opportunity to do something new. (T3)

Teaching EMI courses could also enable these teachers to get promoted and advance their career or keep their jobs. Respondents saw EMI as an inevitable trend in higher education, and considered that the sooner they started teaching EMI courses, the better they would advance in their profession. One particular participant even considered EMI teaching as a great opportunity for him to secure his permanency of employment, and expressed a sense of pride when asked to teach an EMI course. Sharing a sense of pride in being an EMI teacher, T9 had another reason to pursue teaching EMI.

> I am a contract staff member in the department but I am very happy because I was one of few teachers asked to teach in English. It is not easy but this is a good chance for me to try best and I may be offered a long-term contract if I do it well. Hopefully. (T9)

From these comments, lecturers appear to have been marginalised in their institutional policy decision-making process with regard to the delivery of EMI courses and the use of language within them. These comments have also highlighted the hierarchical status of institutional roles, in which managers can make decisions on EMI without sufficient and proper consultation with lecturers. However, it is interesting to see that participant lecturers did not simply act as passive recipients submissive to the institutional decisions. Instead, they viewed EMI as an opportunity for professional development.

Studies have found that higher education institutions have various reasons to implement EMI and internationalisation has been one of the key drivers (Dearden, 2015; Macaro et al., 2018). What has been discussed above indicates that such drivers and interests of higher education institutions are, to a large extent, compatible with those of lecturers. However, there are some other factors that influence lecturers' perception of the use of L1 and consequently their practice in classroom.

8.4.2 'It's Not Something That I Found in a Policy Document'

One broad thematic category that emerged from the content analysis of the data with regard to language management is the lecturers' 'assumption' about the use of L1. Participants often had to refer to their own perceived understanding of EMI in order to gauge their use of L1 in classrooms. All participant lecturers reported that they had not seen any policy document that clearly outlined processes for the implementation and delivery of EMI courses, from which it can be inferred that there was no specific policy guideline about the use of L1 in classrooms. One lecturer even commented that:

> There is no official policy document stipulating that lecturers or departments have to offer EMI courses… but I remember that our head of the university has mentioned this a few times in our staff meetings and in his opening speeches to various international conferences. (T1)

This comment was echoed by another respondent who recalled that his university's decision to offer EMI courses was passed on to staff members verbally via the department head.

> I remember one day Mr. A [head of the department] said in our staff meeting that the University Rector wanted to promote EMI courses and he [the Rector] said that since our department has some lecturers who had studied abroad, we should take the lead in offering some EMI courses. But, I have never seen a particular document about this with my own eyes. I am not sure if there is such a document. (T9)

These comments from participants highlight the lack of explicit policy statements and regulations for the use of language. It appears that such policies only exist in verbal form. This could mean that many other lecturers who did not converse with their managers would be left confused.

Instead of providing written guidelines for EMI teachers, some university managers verbalised what they thought EMI lecturers should do. Teacher 2, who had been selected to teach an EMI course, reported her conversation with the university rector:

> I met my university rector after one of our staff meetings and said to him that I am not sure if I can teach an EMI course as I do not know how to teach in English. He told me not to worry and advised that I should use English as much as possible and I just need to translate my course from Vietnamese into English. (T2)

The 'use of English as much as possible' can actually be interpreted as acknowledgement that the use of L1 is 'inevitable' in classroom practice. This is reflected in the experiences of other lecturers, and also has some implications in terms of the perceived applicability and enforceability of the unwritten language policy. For instance, when asked what lecturers were expected to do in EMI teaching, the department head referred to above by T9 responded that lecturers should try their best to at least use English in the lectures while tutorial classes or student group activities could be flexible. Concepts such as 'should', 'possible', 'flexible', and 'try' were often cited when respondent lecturers were asked about the use of L1 in classrooms. These concepts indicate the suggestive and non-binding nature of the institution language policy if any.

The lack of explicit policy statements and guidelines has not only allowed but actually required lecturers to decide their own use of L1 in EMI classrooms. Lecturers are in fact free to interpret their institutions' intentions and goals in EMI, although they do so within their own culturally contextual knowledge framework of what they think is expected of them. In other words, the absence of clear language policy in EMI courses has resulted in these lecturers acting upon their own assumptions about what should be seen as EMI teaching. This has granted them a certain level of autonomy in their practice, as discussed in the next section.

8.4.3 'I Pretend That I Pay No Attention to It'

The content analysis of the data collected for this study has provided valuable insights into the participant lecturers' ways of thinking and doing within their own institutional contexts. From the comments, it is apparent that these lecturers have made adjustments with regard to the use of L1 in three key pedagogical areas: course design, selection of materials, and tutorial activities.

All the lecturers in this study believe that English should be the only language used in EMI classrooms and that this means there should be no room for the use of L1. For instance, Teacher 2 stated: 'I think English should be the only language used in lectures and tutorials, because this is an EMI course. It's a norm, unwritten norm'. This view was shared by another lecturer who considered that 'The goal of EMI is to use English all the time'. Similarly, Teacher 7 commented that 'It is an EMI course and thus all the reference materials should be in English'. Teacher 10 further

illustrated this point by saying: 'My understanding is that EMI means everything has to be in English…lectures, class discussion, materials, and assessments'. The narratives of lecturers on this point illustrate their strong belief that English should be the only language used in EMI classroom and therefore the use of L1 should not occur.

Logically, it might be thought that such views and beliefs would influence their actual practices; however, this is not the case—what they have done in actuality is another story. While lecturers employed different strategies in their teaching, they were typically flexible with the use of L1 but consistent in keeping to the content in their courses. These lecturers supported their students' access to materials in L1 (Vietnamese) as they were well aware of the difficulties that students would face when reading academic materials in English. The interviewed lecturers were committed to responding to their student limited English proficiency. One participant noted:

> I have selected some [English language] academic articles and textbooks…I often have to prioritise a textbook which I know has been translated into Vietnamese so that students can refer to it when needed. I do not include [the Vietnamese version] in the course outline but I suggest to students that they refer to this book. I know it would be very challenging for them to read such an academic textbook in English. (T7)

In the same vein, another lecturer recommended students 'refer to some Vietnamese materials which I know would have similar content, so that they can understand key terminologies in our discipline' (T4). This strategy was also shared by T9, a lecturer in International Relations:

> Because students' English is still limited, I often select some articles which I know are translated and free to access on the Nghiencuuquocte website [a website which provides Vietnamese translations of numerous academic papers in the area of International Studies].

When it comes to teaching activities, these lecturers often accepted the use of L1 in class mainly because they were concerned whether students could achieve the subject content. One lecturer recalled moments of her teaching:

> Sometimes students look confused so I have to ask them to summarise what I have just said in Vietnamese. That's not what EMI is about, but I need to make sure that they understand the lecture content. If not, I have to re-explain it. It's time-consuming. But they have to do assessments so they need to understand the content first. (T1)

This strategy has also been found in other EMI contexts (Luk & Lin, 2015; Pun & Macaro, 2019). Nevertheless, it can be inferred from her comment that this lecturer was caught between allegiance to her own beliefs about EMI and her sense of responsibility to the students. This dilemma was shared by other lecturers such as the lecturer in computer science, who explained:

> The goal of EMI is to use English all the time. But some concepts are very complicated and students sometimes ask me to explain these concepts in Vietnamese. It's good that I can know whether students understand a concept or not but it takes a lot of time while I may not be able to cover all the content. (T5)

Another lecturer in Nursing decided to accept her students' use of L1 in class, considering it a feature of inclusive teaching.

> When I ask students to discuss in groups, I know that some of them speak in Vietnamese but I pretend that I pay no attention to it. I do not want those who use Vietnamese to feel bad about it. I do not want them to be excluded from group discussion. At least, they learn something. (T8)

Despite challenges for students, none of the interviewed lecturers was willing to simplify the course content. They offered various reasons for this practice. For instance, T3 reasoned that she was teaching second- and third-year students and simplifying course content would make it an introductory level course. She was worried about whether students would achieve the course objectives. T9 had a different reason for not reducing the course content to accommodate his student limited English proficiency. He clarified that:

> I cannot leave out some advanced contents of the courses because they [university managers] would think that I teach easy things to their students and may not invite me to teach again next year. (T9)

Clearly these lecturers appreciated the limited language proficiency of their students but they refused to adjust their course content. On the one hand, the interviewed lecturers were to recognise the ideal of EMI, that is, to use English language only. Concepts like 'should', 'English only', or 'everything should be in English' mirror their belief in using English language only, or as much as possible, and might have resulted in them avoiding and discouraging the use of L1, Vietnamese. However, they practised what they thought to be the best possible ways of supporting their students to achieve the course content objectives. The participant lecturers thus found ways to make choices and decisions in their teaching practice.

8.5 Conclusion and Implications for Moving Forward with EMI

This chapter has examined lecturers' beliefs and practices with regard to the use of L1 in EMI classrooms and revealed that lecturers were marginalised in the policy decision-making process with regards to EMI in general and thus also the use of language in the learning and teaching process. This marginalisation was mainly due to the top-down model adopted by universities, as found in other EMI contexts around the world (Dearden, 2015; Liyanage, 2019). Furthermore, in these ten universities, institutional guidelines on language use in EMI only existed in the verbal form, which indicates their suggestive and non-binding nature. This has allowed lecturers to act upon their own assumptions about what should be ideal in EMI. Comments from the participants indicated that the lack of explicit policy statements and regulations on the use of language in EMI classrooms made it not only possible but necessary for them to interpret the university policy in their own ways. Their comments also imply that, while they do not see the use of L1 in EMI classrooms as ideal, it is inevitable due to the limited English proficiency of students.

Respondent lecturers' believed that English should be the only language used in EMI classrooms but found they had to adopt a flexible approach to the use of L1 in a relatively consistent approach to achieving the course content objectives. While the use of L1 in lectures, reference materials, and class discussion was considered as a way of accommodating student limited English proficiency, it was not accepted as a reason to simplify or reduce the course content. This was mainly due to the worry that simplifying or reducing course content would affect students' achievement of the course objectives and damage lecturers' professional reputation. Together, the lack of explicit policy statements and guidelines on the language use and its suggestive nature have left the participant lecturers making their own choices and decisions in their teaching practices.

The investigation of lecturers' beliefs and practices with regard to the use of L1 in EMI classrooms has several implications for university managers and EMI university teachers. First, although lecturers may view EMI teaching as providing career and professional opportunities, this should not be taken as agreement with the university policies or that they are ready for EMI teaching. Their voices should be taken into consideration seriously and they should be consulted properly with regard to developing university EMI policies and ways of moving forward pedagogically with EMI. Studies have consistently indicated that the success of any language policy relies greatly on front-line instructors (Fenton-Smith & Gurney, 2016; Liddicoat & Baldauf, 2008). Consultation with lecturers in the policy decision-making process can help university managers to consider important factors such as students' English proficiency, and teachers' willingness and readiness. It can also help them to explore the educational needs and provide useful professional development support for EMI lecturers. The lecturer comments clearly indicate that they needed professional development for EMI teaching. In addition, the involvement of lecturers in university EMI policy decision-making can contribute to eliminating the disconnection between the macro, meso, and micro levels—a common problem found in other EMI polities (Macaro et al., 2018). As a result, it is important that universities develop explicit and transparent policies for EMI based on contemporary research and experience.

Second, institutions should provide their lecturers with professional development in translanguaging pedagogy. The lack of explicit policy statements and guidelines on the use of language in EMI classrooms, on the one hand, granted participant lecturers certain levels of autonomy to find ways for their own practice such as using Vietnamese to check students' comprehension of content, referring them to materials in Vietnamese and allowing them to speak Vietnamese in class group work. On the other hand, while such practices were seen as accommodating students' limited English proficiency, lecturers were not well aware of translanguaging as a productive EMI pedagogy which recognises students' linguistic and epistemological repertoire and utilises their first language to create class activities that can simultaneously support students' English proficiency and content comprehension (García & Kleyn, 2016; García & Wei, 2014; Heugh, 2015). The judicious use of translanguaging in EMI can support student content and language learning—the primary goals of EMI.

Third, the lack of clear policy statements and guidelines and of professional training for lecturers mirrors the lack of preparedness and readiness on the part

of both institutions and lecturers. Given the limited English proficiency of students, university managers should take an approach which promotes the gradual use of English along with the reduction of L1 use in EMI classrooms. This approach would allow an efficient implementation of EMI with sufficient preparedness and readiness from institutions, lecturers, and students.

This chapter has been limited in scope since it concentrated on public universities and a relatively small number of participants; it nevertheless provides relevant information for institutions in similar EMI contexts. It calls for further research into what kinds of professional development training are needed for lecturers and how university managers can involve lecturers in developing policies that optimise teaching and learning through the medium of English given their institutional contexts.

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Min Pham is a lecturer in language education at the University of South Australia. He has completed graduate studies in TESOL and digital education and a PhD in International Studies from the University of South Australia. Min Pham has extensive experience in teaching English as an additional language/dialect in various higher education institutions. His main research interests concern English as medium of instruction, content and language integrated learning, enabling pedagogies and digital technology. He is also experienced in collaborating with international colleagues on research projects relating to EMI and the use of human technology in teaching English.

Chapter 9
Translanguaging in English-Medium Instruction: Teacher Practices at a Vietnamese University

Ha-Anh Thi Nguyen, Alice Chik, and Stuart Woodcock

Abstract This chapter investigates teachers' translanguaging practice in English-medium instruction classrooms at a Vietnamese university, drawing together teacher beliefs and practices in teaching English as an academic subject. Data collection comprised interview, classroom observation, and stimulated recall interview, the participants being two English teachers in classes of non-English-major students. The teachers' beliefs about the benefits of translanguaging were usually, but not always, consistent with their teaching practice, as observation indicated that the teachers used translanguaging for more functions than they previously thought. In particular, the teachers frequently and strategically translanguaged for content teaching, classroom management, and affective purposes. The teachers did not see English and Vietnamese as in opposition or even as requiring separation; on the contrary, they saw the flexible use of both languages as supportive for the teaching and learning process. This suggests that the promotion of English-only instruction schemes is not suitable in such an English as a foreign language (EFL) context. Additionally, there is a necessity for raising teachers' and policy makers' awareness of the advantages of translanguaging in EFL classrooms. As such, strategic translanguaging should be included in teacher training programs so that teachers will be able to make the most of this practice as a learning aid and a way of moving forward pedagogically with EMI.

H.-A. T. Nguyen (✉) · A. Chik
School of Education, Macquarie University, 29 Wally's Walk, Balaclava Road, Sydney, NSW 2109, Australia
e-mail: nguyenthihaanh@hpu2.edu.vn

A. Chik
e-mail: alice.chik@mq.edu.au

H.-A. T. Nguyen
Hanoi Pedagogical University 2, Vinh Phuc, Vietnam

S. Woodcock
School of Education and Professional Studies, Griffith University, Mt Gravatt Campus, Building M09, Brisbane, QLD 4122, Australia
e-mail: s.woodcock@griffith.edu.au

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9.1 Introduction

The boundaries between the two concepts English-Medium Instruction (EMI) and English-Only Instruction (EOI) are vague, and they have often been used interchangeably in political documents and in the media (British Council, 2013). However, EMI is a broader term involving 'educational programmes in which an academic subject is taught through English in non-Anglophone contexts' (Aizawa & Rose, 2019, p. 1126), such as using English to teach science subjects and mathematics. In contrast, EOI refers only to the use of English as an instructional methodology in EFL classrooms (Lee & Macaro, 2013; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Tian & Hennebry, 2016), also referred to as 'monolingual teaching' (Hall & Cook, 2012), 'teaching English in English' (Freeman et al., 2015), and 'teaching English through English' (Richards, 2017). In Vietnamese higher education, the study of English occurs both as a discipline and a subject (Hoang, 2010). It is a discipline for English-major students who are training to be English teachers and/or interpreters and translators, while it is an academic subject for non-English-major students who study English just as one component of their degree curriculum. In such contexts where English is seen both as medium and content, EOI is considered as 'an integral part of EMI' (Moore, 2017, p. 302). Consequently, in this chapter, the two concepts EMI and EOI are both relevant, as the research context is English as a medium of instruction for teaching English as an academic subject for non-English majors at a Vietnamese university. In this institution, there has been no official instructional policy. However, as in many other Vietnamese universities, the EMI approach has recently been promoted as a result of the National Foreign Language Project 2020 for internationalisation and integration with the global context (Nguyen et al., 2017).

Teachers' enactment of EMI policy has attracted considerable scholarly attention as an educational phenomenon in various contexts where English is not the first language (L1) (Aizawa & Rose, 2019). However, in Vietnam the policy has been dominated by macro-level perspectives as its adoption has been more top-down than bottom-up, and with insufficient attention to the implementation process and the flexible use of students' L1 and target language (TL) as teaching and learning mediators (Tri & Moskovsky, 2021). There exists a seeming paradox between EMI political acts to maximise TL use and the growing body of literature recognising bilingualist ideologies in English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms (Fang & Liu, 2020). Such ideologies suggest the value of translanguaging as a way of moving forward pedagogically with EMI; however, there have been few empirical studies of translanguaging practice in EMI educational contexts (Fallas Escobar, 2019; Fang & Liu, 2020; Grant & Nguyen, 2017; Le & Hamied, 2014). Therefore, this qualitative study reports on the beliefs and practices of two teachers of English to students

of non-English-majors, regarding the extent of translanguaging in their Vietnamese EMI university classrooms.

9.2 Language Use in EMI

In foreign language teaching, maximum use of TL was driven by the Direct Method, Natural Approach, and Communicative Language Teaching as a replacement for the Grammar-Translation Approach (Barnard & McLellan, 2014; Liu et al., 2004). These methods emphasise the great importance of valuable TL input and exposure in order to trigger language acquisition and intercultural competence (Turnbull, 2001). On this basis, the exclusive use of TL dominated English language teaching and learning in the last century and entailed the disparagement of students' L1 in language classrooms (Barnard & McLellan, 2014). Indeed, the English-only position has been widely promoted in many contexts to strive for maximum TL use, especially in polities where teachers are the sole or main source of TL exposure (Hall & Cook, 2012). Consequently, EMI and EOI have been widely endorsed in many Asian educational contexts including China (Fang & Liu, 2020), Korea (Lee & Macaro, 2013), and Japan (Aizawa & Rose, 2019). In Vietnam, there has been no mandatory instructional policy; however, EMI is favoured in some universities through cooperative programs with overseas partners (Nguyen et al., 2017).

The practice of alternating and mixing languages, either spontaneously or pedagogically, both inside and outside classroom contexts has been referred to as both code-switching and/or translanguaging (Barnard & McLellan, 2014; Goodman & Tastanbek, 2020). The distinctions lie in that code-switching conceptualises bilingualism as involving two separate language ideologies, while the translanguaging lens views bilingualism as the 'holistic' and 'hybrid nature of language use' to facilitate 'meaning making and identity formation' (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2020, p. 11).

Recently, language classroom pedagogy has moved from a monolingual approach towards a multilingual one with the recognition that translanguaging empowers both the learners and the teachers to use their full linguistic repertoires for communication (García, 2011; Liu & Fang, 2020; Wang, 2019). Many studies have argued that monolingual norms in EFL classroom are not popular and realistic because students' L1 is an essential linguistic resource for teaching and learning a new language (Cahyani et al., 2018; Goodman & Tastanbek, 2020; Littlewood & Yu, 2011; McMillan & Rivers, 2011; Van Der Meij & Zhao, 2010). In particular, the flexible use of instructional language in foreign language teaching is beneficial for teaching academic concepts, facilitating managerial tasks, building rapport, and improving the classroom atmosphere (Barnard & McLellan, 2014; Fang, 2018; Kim & Elder, 2008; Wang, 2019). For example, Wang (2019) investigated students' and teachers' attitudes towards translanguaging practice in Chinese university foreign language classrooms. Employing a mixed-method approach, the study found that although both teacher and student participants had ambivalent opinions about translanguaging,

observations showed that they translanguaged frequently for meaning negotiation. In particular, translanguaging was used naturally and spontaneously for the pedagogical functions of explanation (e.g., elaborating grammar and vocabulary learning, translating concepts and cultural differences), management (e.g., giving instructions, giving feedback, checking comprehension), and interpersonal strategies (e.g., interacting with each other). Similarly, Fallas Escobar (2019) investigated how students translanguaged in EFL classrooms at a Costa Rican university in which the monolingual EOI approach had been widely promoted. To understand the translanguaging practice, the author presented his students with some pictures of graffiti in the community and allowed them to use their entire linguistic repertoire to discuss the pictures. Taking a discourse analytical approach, the study indicated that students flexibly translanguaged between English and Spanish for a variety of purposes including referencing key content, offering explanations, giving opinions and comments, and expressing emotions. This finding aligns with what was found in Wang's (2019) study.

In Vietnam, research on the use of languages in EFL university classrooms using EMI has been increasingly showing that the students' L1 is an important teaching tool to facilitate TL learning (Grant & Nguyen, 2017). For instance, Le and Hamied (2014) studied the code-switching practice of one Vietnamese university teacher using classroom observations, stimulated recall interviews and teacher reflection as the research tools. The qualitative case study indicated the complexity of L1 use for some major functions such as classroom management, teaching grammar, vocabulary, enhancing students' motivation, and checking their understanding. The code-switching practice, however, was affected by the teacher's mistaken beliefs about the students' English capacity with 'many inappropriate and unnecessary switches to Vietnamese' (Le & Hamied, 2014, p. 130). Recently, Grant and Nguyen (2017) investigated the code-switching practice of 12 EFL teachers at a Vietnamese university and their awareness of this phenomenon. Results from classroom observation, interview, and field notes revealed that L1 use was for both pedagogical and affective purposes. However, some teachers were not fully aware that they engaged in this practice.

Scholars have pointed out that research on the dynamic use of languages in EFL classrooms using EMI is still under exploration both internationally (Fallas Escobar, 2019; Liu et al., 2004) and in the Vietnamese educational context specifically (Grant & Nguyen, 2017; Kieu, 2012; Le & Hamied, 2014; Tri & Moskovsky, 2021). Additionally, little evidence of the relationships between teachers' beliefs about language use and their actual instructional practice has been provided thus far in the literature (Fang & Liu, 2020; Meij & Zhao, 2010). Therefore, this chapter is an attempt to add new insights into how teachers utilise their entire linguistic repertoire to facilitate TL teaching and learning. It examines two university teachers' perceptions about translanguaging as well as how they translated their beliefs in the classrooms.

9.3 Research Context and Design

The study was conducted to address two overarching questions:

a. *What do these Vietnamese university EFL teachers think about translanguaging as part of EMI?*
b. *What are the teachers' practices regarding translanguaging in their EFL classrooms?*

Two female English teachers Hoa and Thanh (pseudonyms) participated: both were under 30 years old and had been teaching non-English majors at the university for up to five years. They both held Bachelor's degrees and at the time of investigation were studying Master's courses in TESOL at a national university.

Hoa taught the English course 1 (Level A2) for Year 1 students, who came from different majors such as Biology, Chemistry, Primary Education, etc. There were 42 students in Hoa's class. As described in the curriculum, the students took four consecutive periods of English per week, each of which lasted 45 min with a 5-min break between periods. This meant students became quite tired by the end of the fourth period of EMI. Thanh taught the intensive English course (Level B2) for 30 Advanced Mathematics students. This English course prepares students for an EMI program in the discipline of their choice. In this intensive English program, the students had 12 periods (approximately nine hours) of English lessons spread across each week.

The data collection tools comprised individual interview, classroom observation, and stimulated recall interview. For the data collection procedure, the participants were first interviewed to elicit their perceptions about translanguaging. After that, each teacher was observed for two 45-min lessons, all of which were in the middle of the afternoon. The observations were recorded and transcribed verbatim to identify the episodes of translanguaging used in the lessons, which were then the focus of stimulated recall interviews. For the data analysis, the thematic analysis method (Braun & Clarke, 2006) was employed to explore the teachers' beliefs about translanguaging and their language practice in class. The findings from the three sources of data were then triangulated for better insights into the phenomena as presented in the next section.

9.4 Translanguaging Practices in Two EFL Classrooms

The data from teacher interviews, classroom observation, and stimulated recall interviews in this study showed that the teachers viewed translanguaging as a practical process to teach a new language in which their entire linguistic repertoire was utilised to facilitate meaning-making and understanding. In particular, translanguaging involved the flexible use of L1 and TL for discursive pedagogical functions encompassing teaching the content, providing operational instructions as part of

classroom management, and humanising the classroom environment as an affective function. These overarching categories of the teachers' translanguaging practice are detailed and illustrated in what follows.

9.4.1 Content Teaching

In EFL education, the subject content refers to linguistic knowledge such as grammar and vocabulary, and also TL countries, histories, and cultures. In the interview before the classroom observation sessions, both teachers reported that they used translanguaging for explaining difficult concepts to facilitate students' understanding of such content. The results from the observations and stimulated recall interviews, however, indicated that their language practices for content teaching were more complicated than that. In addition to explaining difficult concepts, translanguaging was used to emphasise important content and compare and contrast between TL and L1.

For these two teachers, explaining difficult concepts included teaching complicated and abstract ideas, explaining lexical use, and elaborating grammar rules. Among those functions, translanguaging for making abstract ideas/notions/concepts explicit for students was reported the most frequently. In the following extract, Thanh flexibly used different languages to scaffold students' understanding of the word 'tight' in its functions as both a noun and an adjective.

Teacher: Okay, this 'tight' is different. Hai từ này khác nhau nha cả lớp *(The two words are different)*, because this one is a noun. Refers to a type of clothes…It is a noun, nó là danh từ *(It is a noun),* và để chỉ một loại quần tất bó sát. *(and it refers to tights as clothing).* Cái từ các bạn nhìn thấy ở trong sách, *(the word you see in the book),* yes, it's an adjective. (Thanh, Classroom observation)

In this excerpt, Thanh used English and Vietnamese alternately to differentiate the meanings corresponding to the different usage of 'tight'. This alternating mechanism was repeated several times, starting with an explanation in English, followed by an instantaneous translation into Vietnamese. She emphasised the distinctions by referring to 'tight' as a noun meaning a type of clothing for women, while as an adjective, it means the feeling of wearing a piece of clothing. According to Thanh, explaining this only in English was hard for students to understand, and would take too long. This practice reflects her belief in the previous interview:

> I usually use Vietnamese to explain difficult concepts so that it is easier for the students to understand. Like, after using English, I have a mechanism to translate it again into Vietnamese, so students do not get confused. (Thanh, Interview)

For Thanh, resorting to L1 was clearly not a result of limited language competency or knowledge about the teaching content. On the contrary, she translanguaged strategically to ensure students' understanding.

Another translanguaging pedagogy noted during classroom observation was emphasising important content to highlight the foci of the lesson that students need to pay special attention to.

Teacher: The man is wearing a T-shirt. Correct or not?
Student: A shirt.
Teacher: A shirt, not T-shirt, yes. Vậy là các bạn đã biết phân biệt shirt và T-shirt rồi đúng không? *(Now you know how to distinguish between shirt and T-shirt, don't you?).* (Thanh, Classroom observation)

Even though the student gave the right answer, and the teacher confirmed it, she switched into Vietnamese to reconfirm and emphasise the distinction. In the stimulated recall interview, Thanh explained that she wanted to attract the students' attention to the important language point, believing that they would forget the knowledge soon if she had used English only.

> If I had only spoken in English, it would have been forgotten easier. A lot of students mistook between shirt and T-shirt. Therefore, I spoke in Vietnamese. It helps them to remember better. Vietnamese will be easier to remember than English. (Thanh, Stimulated recall interview)

In Thanh's view, for emphasis or driving students' attention to the specific language content, translanguaging was more effective than using English only.

Teachers also used translanguaging for comparison and contrast between TL and L1 to clarify or illustrate the similarities and differences between the languages. In the following extract, Hoa used L1 and TL alternately to point out the dissimilarities in using 'comma' and 'point' in the decimal number '1.2' in English.

Teacher: How do you say it? One, one… Yes? Louder.
Students in chorus: One point two.
Teacher: Okay. One point two. Một phẩy hai *(one point two).* Tuy nhiên là dấu chấm và dấu phẩy của mình và tiếng Anh là khác nhau. Nếu tiếng Anh là dấu chấm, thì tiếng Việt sẽ là một phẩy, được chưa? *(However, the use of point and comma between Vietnamese and English is different. A point in English means a comma in Vietnamese, okay?* (Hoa, Classroom observation)

The teacher elicited the pronunciation of the number '1.2' from the class and they responded to her in a chorus chanting 'one point two'. In Vietnamese culture, students are more responsive to teachers' elicitations for group answers rather than individual ones. However, this did not guarantee that every student who joined the chanting equally understood the point. Therefore, the teacher repeated the answer in English and then translated it into Vietnamese as 'một phẩy hai'. Then she used Vietnamese to make a comparison between TL and L1 ways of using 'comma' and 'point' for decimal numbers. In the interview before the observation sessions, Hoa said that she normally translanguaged to teach grammar conventions because grammatical issues were too difficult for the students to learn monolingually.

> Some grammatical points in Vietnamese and English are different. The students still have difficulties understanding grammatical teaching in Vietnamese. Therefore, teaching grammar in English only is not workable. (Hoa, Interview)

When teachers were dealing with discrepancies between the TL and the L1, translanguaging pedagogy was reported to be convenient in two ways: (1) it provided scaffolding for the teachers to make examples clear to the students (2) it helped students to avoid any misconceptions such as the application of L1 conventions into L2 tasks.

9.4.2 Classroom Management

In the interview before the classroom observation sessions, the teachers reported that they used Vietnamese instead of English for some classroom management functions, including giving instructions or comments, managing discipline, and time management. These beliefs were consistent with the observation data.

Giving instructions or comments was to provide activity instructions, set up tasks or give procedures or comments on students' performance of tasks. It also included asking questions to guide or instruct students in the right direction to complete certain tasks. For example, Hoa said that she usually translanguaged to give instructions because some students did not understand what to do next if she used English only. She reported that:

> Most of the time I use Vietnamese to instruct students to do tasks. Or else, they don't know what to do. Many students don't really understand properly if I use English for giving instructions. (Hoa, Interview)

This report was echoed in her observed lesson when she translanguaged to give task instructions to assist students to complete a 'memory challenge activity'.

Teacher: Okay. Take turns to write all the words. Mỗi người lên viết một từ, cố lên, viết hết đáp án đi, viết nhanh vào. *(Each student writes one word, come on, write them all, quickly).* (Hoa, Classroom observation)

Here Hoa was organising a vocabulary game by showing the new words on the screen and giving students one minute to remember all the words. Then the students from each side were required to take turns to write the words they memorised from their side of the board. Hoa utilised her bilingual language repertoire by using English first, and then clarifying in Vietnamese both to manage the activity and encourage the students' performance.

Managing discipline includes teachers' translanguaging for administrative issues such as managing and commenting on students' behaviour and checking attendance. At this university, regular class attendance is considered important and is counted one-tenth (10%) in the total subject scores together with the mid-term test score (20%), and final term exam score (70%). Hoa reported regularly translanguaging for checking students' attendance at the beginning of each lesson.

Teacher: Hôm nay một bạn sẽ điểm danh cho cô nhá, lớp trưởng không đến đúng không? (Today, can anyone help me to check the attendance? The monitor is absent, isn't she?)
Students: Trang ghi đi. (Trang, can you help?)

Teacher: Okay. (Hoa, Classroom observation)

In this situation, L1 use was not preceded by or translated into an equivalence in English. The students reciprocated in Vietnamese and the communication purpose was achieved quickly.

By contrast, in the following situation, Hoa translanguaged for commenting on students' behaviours, starting with English for appointing one student to answer her question, and then resorting to Vietnamese when the appointed student failed to understand her message. The teacher's language use clearly illustrated that Vietnamese was used to facilitate better understanding and to keep the class communicative.

Teacher: The one in yellow…Hey girl, the one in yellow.
Students: The one in yellow.
Teacher: bạn này hình như buổi đầu đúng không. Nên không biết cách cô gọi. *(Are you attending the lesson for the first time? So, you don't know how I appoint students.)* (Hoa, Classroom observation)

While the whole class understood the teacher, the nominated student was unresponsive because she did not understand that she had been appointed. The teacher then translanguaged, assuming that the student had missed classes for weeks and was not accustomed to her habit of calling on students by mentioning the colours they were wearing. In the stimulated recall interview, Hoa stated that her strategy was a reaction to the student's lack of response. Additionally, she thought that TL use for commenting on students' behaviour was unnecessary and ineffective because it neither involved the teaching content nor were the students familiar with those expressions in English.

Time management refers to the teachers' translanguaging to deal with time constraint issues. The flexible use of instructional languages for saving time was reported by the teachers in the initial interviews and was also observed in their teaching. Hoa admitted that using Vietnamese was expedient because it helped to clearly convey the information to the students in a way that was easier for them to receive and understand compared to using English. It included using translation techniques to convert the preceding utterance in English into Vietnamese to avoid delayed understanding from the students. The excerpt below relates to a reading exercise:

Teacher: Any new words? If my mind serves me right, I have asked you to look up all new words. Cô đã bảo chuẩn bị và tra tất cả từ mới đúng không*? (Have I asked you to look up all new words?)* Are there any new words? Có từ mới nào không. *(Are there any new words?)* Yes or no?
Students: Yes.
Teacher: Yes, okay. Which line? (Hoa, Classroom observation)

In the stimulated recall interview, Hoa said she noticed in class that the students could not comprehend the text, which meant they had not looked up the new words at home as they had been told. Now, to make sure they understood 'look up new words',

she had to translate her questions into Vietnamese to ‘save time for other leftover activities’. Thus, even though translanguaging was to compensate for the students’ lack of English competency, the teacher’s priority concern was for time management. She translanguaged because using L1 consumed less time than conveying the same message in TL. It was likely that her methodology was effective because right after the translation, the students responded ‘yes’ to the teacher’s question.

9.4.3 Affective Functions

This category refers to the teachers’ use of L1 to create a friendlier classroom environment and to release an intense atmosphere due to long lesson duration. Thanh explained that using Vietnamese acts efficiently to release a heavy atmosphere and shorten the psychological distance between teacher and students.

> I think that Vietnamese expressions help students perceive knowledge in a more comfortable way. Vietnamese also humanises the classroom atmosphere and the distance between teacher and students is closer and friendlier. Students love jokes and humorous teachers. (Thanh, Interview)

Thanh’s statement was mirrored in her teaching practice because she repeatedly used Vietnamese to create a friendly environment and a closer relationship with her students.

Teacher:	I also agree with you that the girl is wearing a jacket, a black jacket, thank you. Cô đồng ý với bạn ý nhá, đó là *(I agree with you, it is)* black jacket. Okay, continue. You. Picture five?
Student:	Denim.
Teacher:	Denim, yes. Từ này thì quen thuộc với mình quá rồi đúng không nào. *(This word is familiar to us, isn’t it?).* (Thanh, Classroom observation)

Thanh later explained that the sentences ‘I agree with you’ and ‘This word is familiar with us, isn’t it?’ were very simple and the students absolutely could understand them in English. However, she chose to switch to Vietnamese to reduce the stress in the class and cater to the students’ tiredness, given the fact that they were being exposed to TL over four consecutive periods. Thanh translanguaged regularly in her lessons for tension relief and believed that such simple expressions brought positive changes in the classroom atmosphere and improved teacher and student interaction. It is noticeable that the use of Vietnamese did not affect or reduce students’ exposure to the English language central to the courses nor distort or affect the quality of the previous sentence regarding the black jacket, because it was the translation of the English. Thanh stressed that:

> It was very simple to use Vietnamese to create the closeness between me and the students. They had been studying for quite a long time for a few periods already; that was in the fourth period. It was horribly long and sometimes, the atmosphere was heavy because the students were tired. You can imagine that they had four periods, 45 minutes one period, nearly 200

> minutes in total. So, I needed to be able to communicate with them in a comfortable way. (Thanh, Stimulated recall interview)

In this instance, the selection of translanguaging pedagogy was not to compensate for the lack of English command from the students; it was because Vietnamese was more effective than English to build rapport with students.

> For non-content questions, such as: 'How do you feel today?', 'Is that difficult?' or 'Did you do your homework?' I just use Vietnamese. Although I can use English, I want to use Vietnamese to communicate with students to show my empathy. (Thanh, Interview)

It can be concluded that the teachers actively and strategically resorted to Vietnamese to warm up the classroom environment and to reduce stress and tension caused by long lessons. Translanguaging was also used by the teachers for asking marginal questions, greeting, and rapport building to establish interpersonal relationships with the students. The teachers believed that this practice was advantageous for such circumstances and helped to motivate students to learn and raise their mood, therefore it positively impacted on learning outcomes.

9.5 Conclusion and Implications for Moving Forward with EMI

This study investigated teachers' translanguaging practices in two Vietnamese university EFL classrooms, drawing together teacher beliefs and practices in using EMI to teach English as an academic subject. The findings have confirmed the role of translanguaging as both a natural and strategic condition in bilingual EFL classrooms being taught through EMI. That is, the teachers did not see English and Vietnamese as in opposition or separation but saw the flexible use of both languages as supportive for the learning process. The teachers' perceptions about translanguaging were usually consistent with their teaching practice, although observation indicated that the teachers used Vietnamese for more functions than they had previously thought. The teachers frequently translanguaged for three main purposes: content teaching (explanation of language features, emphasising important content, and comparing and contrasting L1 and TL usage), classroom management (giving instructions, managing discipline, and time management), and affective functions such as humanising the classroom atmosphere. These findings mirror those found in other studies (Bhooth et al., 2014; Cahyani et al., 2018; Fallas Escobar, 2019; Joe & Lee, 2013; Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Tian & Macaro, 2012; Wang, 2019).

Unusually, neither teacher reported nor was observed to use Vietnamese for interpersonal interaction with their students, which has previously been reported in the findings of other studies (Grant & Nguyen, 2017; Wang, 2019). The crowded classroom and heavy curriculum may explain this discrepancy, as both teachers reported that their students became really tired when English lessons continued over long periods. This situation was likely responsible for the absence of interpersonal Vietnamese language communications between students and teachers.

Importantly, translanguaging strategies were utilised by the teachers pedagogically, strategically, and intentionally to facilitate the teaching and learning of TL. Such consistent occurrence of these three features was not present in studies by Le and Hamied (2014), Grant and Nguyen (2017), and Wang (2019) where translanguaging was sometimes done spontaneously and unconsciously. This suggests that the translanguaging practice happens differently for individual teachers in varying tertiary contexts due to their beliefs about the practice and their responsiveness to contextual factors such as student tiredness. On this basis, some implications can be drawn for policy planners and teacher professional development and training in relation to moving forward pedagogically with EMI.

First, in the Vietnamese tertiary context and similar educational polities where the students have limited English command, the promotion of a monolingual approach is unreasonable and ineffective (Le & Hamied, 2014; Littlewood & Yu, 2011). In this regard, it should also be recognised that the English levels of Vietnamese university students are not the same in different geographical areas, being notably lower in rural areas versus big cities (Tien, 2012). However, all students are expected to reach the same level of English competency prior to graduation (i.e., B1 level for non-English majors) within a quite similar number of credits for the English subject. As such, the design and application of EMI policies should take contextual dissimilarities into consideration.

Second, given that translanguaging has been shown to facilitate TL teaching and learning through a variety of functions, there is a necessity for raising teachers' awareness of the advantages of translanguaging in EMI classrooms in all disciplines, as well as the role of L1 in EFL classrooms more specifically (Grant & Nguyen, 2017). Overall, it has been found that EMI teachers do not have clear strategies for optimal use of L1 as a teaching tool to facilitate learning (Macaro, 2001). Therefore, training in strategic translanguaging should also be included in professional development activities and teacher training programs, so that teachers will be able to make the most of this practice as a learning aid.

The third implication of this study is that EMI policies in universities should make clear that translanguaging is considered a valuable tool within EMI programs. The two teachers, like many other teachers, do not feel comfortable in revealing their use of L1 because they feel 'guilty' about not using enough TL (Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Chapter 8 this volume) and afraid of being judged as not being competent enough in English. This accords with the interviews with the teacher participants in this study. If translanguaging strategies are pedagogically valued in both policy and teacher training, classroom teachers will surpass the negative psychological impact and use L1 strategically to facilitate students' meaning-making process and build up successful EMI classes.

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Ha-Anh Thi Nguyen has a Ph.D. from the School of Education, Macquarie University, Australia. She works as an English teacher at the Faculty of English, Hanoi Pedagogical University 2, Vietnam. Her research interests include English-medium instruction, translanguaging, informal language learning, language learning ecology, learning and technologies.

Alice Chik is an Associate Professor in the School of Education, Macquarie University and Associate Director, Multilingualism Research Centre. Her research interests include multilingualism in urban settings, narrative inquiry in language learning and teaching and informal language learning in digital environments.

Stuart Woodcock is an Associate Professor in the School of Education and Professional Studies, Griffith University. Dr. Woodcock's current role is as Director of special educational needs and inclusive education. His main research interests are around inclusion and diversity, teacher self-efficacy, and differentiated practice.

Chapter 10
University Assessment Practices in English-Medium Education in Vietnam: Maintaining Learning Engagement and Encouraging Student Enrolment

Duyen Tran and Tue Hoang

Abstract Although assessment plays an important role in any educational program, little research has been carried out to investigate the assessment practices employed in English Medium Instruction (EMI) programs or teachers' and students' views on those practices. This chapter therefore focuses on assessment practices carried out by teachers and students in EMI courses at a public university in Vietnam. Data were collected from classroom observations, assessment-related documents, a student survey, and one-to-one interviews with EMI teachers and students. Findings illustrate the types of assessment employed in EMI courses, reasons for their employment, and students' views on their helpfulness. Analysis shows that, under the influence of an examination culture, where marks are considered an important goal for learning, and set within an institutional context where most students are unwilling to take EMI courses for fear of not gaining full understanding of their subjects, assessment has tended to become a practical instrument to maintain student learning engagement and encourage enrolment. This chapter also discusses the advantages and disadvantages of identified assessment practices and proposes recommendations to maximise the potential support of assessment for learning in the context of EMI courses, which we see as important in moving EMI practice forward pedagogically in Vietnamese universities.

Keywords English-medium instruction · EMI · Vietnam · Higher education · Assessment practices · Student engagement

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D. Tran (✉) · T. Hoang
Hanoi University of Industry, No. 298, Cau Dien Street, Bac Tu Liem, Hanoi, Vietnam
e-mail: tranthiduyen@haui.edu.vn

T. Hoang
e-mail: hoangngoctue@haui.edu.vn

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10.1 Introduction

The past decades have seen an exponential increase in the employment of English Medium Instruction (EMI) for academic subjects at tertiary level in non-native English speaking countries. Implementation of EMI programs is expected to enable students to develop both the disciplinary knowledge and the English competence to succeed in the knowledge economy and the globalised labour market. Consequently reliable measurement of the extent to which these expectations have been achieved is of vital importance to feed into the educational process. This requires assessment practices that are well designed and properly undertaken. However, to date, few studies have been conducted focusing on EMI assessment in tertiary institutions, and this is also the case in Vietnam despite a growing body of research on EMI programs. This chapter, therefore, reports on the assessment practices carried out in EMI courses at a public university in Vietnam. It explores the assessment methods employed, the reasons for their employment, and the effectiveness of the assessment practices for the purposes they were intended to serve and for the purpose of enhancing EMI pedagogically.

10.2 Assessment and EMI

We take assessment in education as all those activities that involve gathering evidence to inform judgments about a student's knowledge, skills, or ability or his/her attainment of the learning goals being assessed (Green, 2014; Harlen, 2006). The two main roles of educational assessment are to summarise or verify learning achievement for certification, selection, and accreditation purposes and to support learning (Broadfoot, 2009; Little, 1996). Assessment for the purposes of summarising or verifying learning achievement (also called *Assessment of Learning* or *AoL*) prioritises the 'consistency of meaning' of assessment results across contexts and individuals, with the most common forms being standardised tests, exams, or final assignments. Meanwhile, assessment for purposes of facilitating learning (often referred to as *Assessment for Learning* or *AfL*) emphasises the collection and interpretation of learning evidence for use by learners and their teachers to improve learning (ARG, 2002). As an integral part of the teaching and learning process, key areas of AfL practices include questioning, self- and peer-assessment, feedback, and formative use of summative tests (Black et al., 2003). The goals are to make explicit what the students know, how they come to know, what else they need to know and how (Murphy, 2008). Due to the prevalent use of assessment results for making important decisions which could have an impact on students' life chances, considerably more focus has so far been placed on AoL than AfL purposes (Broadfoot, 2009; Little, 1996; Tran, 2015).

Despite the voluminous research on EMI implementation at HEIs, only a few studies focus on assessment; these focus primarily on assessment methods employed, student learning outcomes, and the implementation of AfL practices.

In terms of assessment methods, after surveying 29 teachers delivering various EMI courses at different HEIs in Taiwan and interviewing eight of the teachers, Kao and Tsou (2017) found that most of the assessment was summative. Common methods included written exams, weekly assignments, term projects, and in-class quizzes which aimed to measure the students' learning outcomes at the end of an instruction unit. Almost all of the participating teachers (90%) indicated that the assessment tools employed in EMI courses were basically the same as those used in the parallel non-EMI courses. Spain, Dafouz and Camacho-Miñano (2016) also reported employment of such assessment methods as seminars, mid-term and final exams to measure students' learning outcomes in EMI Accounting courses. Interestingly, students' active class participation was included in the calculation of the course grade, accounting for 10%.

Concerning student learning outcomes, the research conducted by Dafouz and Camacho-Miñano (2016) found that students' participation grades were lower in EMI courses than in non-EMI courses, while Macaro et al. (2018) revealed students' general belief that they studied less well in English than in their first language. However, both the experimental study carried out by Tatzl and Messnarz (2013) and the case study conducted by Dafouz and Camacho-Miñano (2016) showed that there were no statistical differences in the final academic results of the students taking EMI courses and those taking non-EMI courses. What is not known is whether this could be attributed to differences in AoL practices.

Regarding AfL practices, Hu and Li (2017), after observing and analysing the audio recordings of ten EMI lessons in different disciplines, found they were characterised by cognitively low-level teacher questions and responses, with about one-third of teacher questions in English achieving only student silence. Other studies have also reported impoverished classroom discourse in EMI classes with limited student participation (Hu et al., 2014; Yang, 2015) and low-quality classroom interactions (Hu & Duan, 2019; Macaro et al., 2018). After surveying 40 tertiary EMI teachers in Taiwan, Li and Wu (2018) found differences in the assessment practices carried out in EMI and non-EMI classes. In particular, written feedback, group work and pair work, and tests or quizzes were practised less in EMI classes, while selecting textbook-provided test items, using the assessment results to plan teaching, assessing through observation and presentation, and including student engagement into grade calculation were applied more. However, little is known about the enactment of or the reasons for such practices.

In response to the gaps identified above, this study addresses the following research questions:

a. What assessment practices are carried out in the EMI courses at the university?
b. Do the assessment practices fulfil the purposes they are supposed to serve?

10.3 The Study

This study originated from a larger research project conducted in a public university in the north of Vietnam. The university has more than 700 teaching staff and more than 24,000 full-time students. In response to the requirements to include EMI courses in tertiary education programs to promote the internationalisation of Vietnamese higher education (Vietnamese Government, 2005, 2008), the university has recently encouraged Faculties to develop EMI courses, allowing students to register voluntarily. In preparation for EMI implementation, the university has also offered teachers several professional development courses on English language and EMI teaching pedagogy. However, due to various reasons, not all of the teachers attended those professional development courses before starting EMI implementation. At the time of data collection, there were eight EMI courses at the university, all being delivered for the first time and all designed and delivered by existing university staff. One of the EMI courses was newly developed without any equivalent course in Vietnamese, while the other seven courses had parallel Vietnamese Medium Instruction (VMI) courses delivered either at the same time or in previous years.

The study participants comprised the eight teachers delivering EMI courses and the 275 students undertaking them. Courses #1 to #4 were in Business Management, course #5 in Electronics, courses #6 and #7 in Mechanical Engineering, and course #8 in Information Technology. The teachers (coded T#1 to T#8 matching the courses) all met the ministerial requirements to deliver EMI courses, that is, they had either studied post-graduate programs in English overseas or had the English proficiency equivalent or above C1 in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (MOET, 2014). Six teachers held PhD degrees and the other two had MA degrees. None had ever delivered EMI courses before. Regarding the participating students, more than half (58%) were in their 3rd year; one-third of them (32%) in the last year, and the rest (9%) in their second year. Based on their willingness, eight students (coded S#1 to S#8 matching their course affiliation) took part in individual interviews with one of the researchers.

This study employed a mixed-method design, using multiple instruments to collect data from different sources. The instruments included classroom observations; survey questionnaires to students; semi-structured interviews with teachers and student representatives, lasting from 30 to 45 min; and document analysis of the students' end-of-semester test papers and assignments. The classroom observations were conducted during eight forty-five-minute lessons, one in each EMI course, focusing on the classroom interactions between teachers and students and among students. The teacher interviews centred on assessment practices and reasons for adopting them. The student questionnaires and interviews asked about the assessment practices experienced in the courses and the students' perspectives on their usefulness to their learning and the reliability of the assessment results. The students' end-of-semester test papers and assignments in English were analysed in comparison with parallel test papers and assignment questions in Vietnamese in terms of difficulty level and content coverage.

10.4 Findings and Discussion

In this section, the research results are presented and discussed with reference to the results of related studies; assessment for learning and assessment of learning practices are addressed separately.

10.4.1 Assessment for Learning Practices in the EMI Courses

The identified AfL practices can be grouped into four key areas: questioning, feedback, self- and peer-assessment, and formative use of summative tests (Black et al., 2003). The focus here is primarily on how such practices were carried out and how they supported student learning.

10.4.1.1 Questioning

Classroom observations saw few oral interactions in most of the EMI lessons. The occasional teacher questions were predominantly low-level cognition for knowledge recall or comprehension-check purposes and were generally pre-prepared and written on the board or a PowerPoint slide or sent to the students in advance to 'make sure that the students understand the questions in case they could not keep up with the lesson' (T#3). In each class, a few students often volunteered to answer, while others only responded when short answers were required and did so softly in chorus. When no one volunteered, teachers would call on individual students, but responses were often unintelligible due to poor pronunciation and structural errors. One student was observed pointing to the words in the notebook so that the teacher could understand. Few teachers elaborated on students' responses for further evidence of student understanding or meaning negotiation. The following excerpt is one example.

T#8: (Writing the question on board and asking the whole class) What are software product standards?

After a while, one student volunteered to answer.

S: …(incomprehensible, he seemed to be reading from his notes)

T#8: Who has any comments? Is it true or not?

Some students said 'true', some said 'no' softly, the teacher called another student

S: … (incomprehensible)

T#8: Thank you

(Teacher showed the correct answer on the slides and for some minutes read and explained in English and used Vietnamese to explain new terms).

It was noticeable that many students did not respond to teacher questions, or pay attention to their peers' responses. Sometimes even the appointed students refused to give an answer. Also, few students were observed asking the teachers questions.

Table 10.1 Students' difficulties in participating in EMI lessons

Q. No	Students' learning difficulties	Mean	Frequently (4)	Sometimes (3)	Hardly ever (2)	Never (1)
17c	I can't understand the teacher's instruction in English due to my limited English competence	3.0	27.4%	50.7%	16.3%	5.6%
17d	I do not have a thorough understanding of the related content knowledge	2.9	22.8%	49.8%	20.2%	7.1%
17e	I do not feel confident to participate in the lesson	2.7	19.9%	40.8%	28.5%	10.9%
17f	I do not feel interested in the lessons	2.2	8.2%	33.3%	29.6%	28.8%

The reasons for students' low level of participation in question and answer activities, as indicated in the student interviews, comprised limited English proficiency, insufficient understanding of the related disciplinary content, and lack of confidence, which also relates to face-saving concerns.

> Only those who are good at English often volunteered to respond to the teacher questions. Those who are not so good at English like me could answer only easy questions. For more difficult questions we could only respond in Vietnamese since we did not know the English words. (S#5)

> Only when I had prepared to present and understood the subject matter thoroughly, did I participate in responding or asking questions of the teacher. (S#6)

These views are consistent with the survey responses (see Table 10.1).

Analysis shows a statistically significant relationship between the students' learning difficulties and their participation in responding to teacher questions during lessons. Although fewer students indicated having difficulties in learning motivation, there was a statistically significant correlation between students' English proficiency and their EMI learning motivation. In particular, those students who self-evaluated that their English proficiency was not enough to study in English were likely to find themselves not interested in the lessons.

It was noticeable that more students in teacher #7's class responded to teacher questions and asked questions of the teacher during the lesson. Further interview analysis shows that fewer students in T#7's class indicated having difficulties in understanding the instruction in English or having an insufficient understanding of the related content knowledge or feeling unconfident or unmotivated to take part and respond to questions. Teacher #7 used the most teaching aids (picture, video, realia, games), gave the most clear and fluent instruction in English, and insisted on students going to the board to write their ideas instead of standing at their seats since he believed that the practice would 'help students get over the feeling of apprehension and become familiar with communicating in English' (T#7). The students' active

participation in questioning practice indicates the importance of teachers' English competence and teaching methods in engaging students in assessment and active learning in EMI classes.

10.4.1.2 Feedback

Classroom observations showed that most teachers spent little time giving oral feedback on student learning, especially teachers of technical disciplines. After calling on students to give answers to questions or present a topic or do an exercise on the board, the teachers sometimes commented on the students' answers, affirming the correct answers or praising the students. Two teachers (T#1, #7) recast students' responses, emphasising correct word stress and word choice. Two other teachers (T#2, #5) were not observed to give comments but provided further instruction, when necessary, to facilitate student understanding. The following excerpt illustrates the practice.

> (At the beginning of the lesson, teacher #2 asked students to close the book and work in groups of four to write down the key terms learned in the previous lesson. After five minutes, she called five representative students of the groups to write down the keywords on the board)
>
> T#2: (Pointing at the two terms written by one group) are they the same or different?
>
> (One group said 'different' but most other students kept silent)
>
> T#2: Don't you know these two terms or …Speak out, please ... No ideas?
>
> T#2: (*Turning to the only group saying 'different')* How different are they [the two terms]?
>
> *(Pointing to one term)* Which information does this provide?
>
> (None of the students responded)
>
> T#2: OK, I think we need to discuss these terms again. (*Explained the two concepts*) Remember it? Can you see the differences? *(Explained further)*… understand? Do you need me to explain in Vietnamese? No? OK.

In the interviews, students representing two EMI classes recounted their teachers' practices of giving feedback as follows.

> …After our presentations, the teacher summarised the main ideas of our presentation and gave feedback on the weaknesses of our work. We would work on the feedback to revise the work and resubmit for marking. (S#4)

> We have to make chapter reports, summarising the chapter content for marking. If we would like to gain high marks, we could send our written report for the teacher's feedback in advance or ask for her permission to present in front of the class and get feedback to revise before official submission. (S#3)

Little evidence of teachers' written or oral feedback on students' submission was collected so it was unclear whether the feedback could assist students to gain an understanding of their learning goals or what they needed to do to achieve the goal (Tran, 2015). However, as reflected in the students' recounts, the opportunities to resubmit their assignments for grading made the students value and pay more attention to teacher feedback. It was observed that students did not appear to pay as much attention to feedback on pronunciation or wordings or to further instruction.

10.4.1.3 Peer- and Self-Assessment

Interviews with the students and teachers showed that only two teachers (T#4, #5) asked students to assess one another and one teacher (T#3) asked students to carry out self-assessment. Teacher #4 recounted giving students a list of guiding questions to answer in groups out-of-class, calling on one group at random to present in the lesson, asking other groups to assess the presenting group and calculating the student peer-assessment results into the final scores given to the presenting group. Teacher #5 reported a similar practice with the only difference lying in the score calculation: ‘I gave the presenting group a total sum of scores and the group members had to decide who gained which marks themselves and handed in’ (T#5). According to the representative students, such practices made them prepare for the lessons since they ‘did not know which group would be called on to present’ (S#4) but none of them were certain about the assessment criteria.

Different from the peer-assessment practices, the self-assessment practice implemented by teacher #3 was not related to student scores. As reflected by her students below, the practice was helpful for student self-study.

> In every chapter, the teacher gave us a bank of True-False questions on the chapter content to answer and self-assess our understanding. When preparing for the lessons, I often self-tested by answering the questions and looking up the answer keys to see if my understanding was correct. (S#3)

However, no further guidance was provided for students’ self-study and teacher #3 also indicated that she could ‘not have enough time’ to carry out the practice frequently.

10.4.1.4 Formative Use of Summative Tests

During the EMI courses, the students undertook summative assessment periodically in such formats as written assignments, oral presentations, performance tests, and written tests. Based on the students’ mistakes in the tests or signals of students’ misunderstanding in the assignments or presentations, the teachers sometimes provided students with further instruction on the relevant matters. The following extract demonstrates the practice.

> When returning the tests, the teacher often focused on the test items that most of us gave incorrect answers, asking those who answered correctly to write their answers again on the board and explaining why they were correct. (S#4)

However, it appeared that the main focus was on showing the correct answers with little attention to analysing why or how the students made the mistakes or finding out what should have been changed in the teaching and learning to help students avoid such mistakes.

Besides the periodically planned assessments, some of the teachers also assessed students via such activities as asking students to answer questions or do exercises on

the board and giving marks based on the students' performance. As demonstrated in the following extract, the practice aimed to motivate student learning.

> When students have volunteered to do exercises on the board many times, they would be given one or half of a point to add to their scores of the periodical summative assessment. That [the bonus marks practice] motivated them to put more effort into learning. (T#2)

According to representative students, the possibility of gaining bonus marks did encourage them to be more active in participating into the lessons to obtain 'high marks' and 'good learning results'. However, since the (bonus) marks mainly assessed the students' learning attitudes and behaviours, the calculation of the marks into the students' academic results could negatively affect the validity and reliability of the results.

In short, in these EMI courses, the AfL practices were rather limited and largely depended on individual teachers' professional competence. Together with contextual factors such as face-saving concerns and inadequate attention to assessment for learning practices, the employment of EMI hindered the students' demonstration of their learning and impeded their understanding of the learning goals. As a result, the gaps between the students' current and desired level of learning were not clearly identified and student learning was not scaffolded effectively, which endangered the realisation of the dual goal of EMI implementation.

These findings in regard to AfL practices are in alignment with the findings of previous studies such as Hu and Duan (2019), Hu et al. (2014), Hu and Li (2017), and Yang (2015) on the limited student involvement in EMI courses and the low quality of classroom interactions. Regarding feedback practices, similar findings were also documented in Li and Wu's (2018) study, where teachers provided less feedback in EMI classes, especially when class sizes were large. The results of this study are also consistent with the findings reported in the studies carried out by Hu and Duan (2019) and Kao and Tsou (2017) on the influences of teachers' professional competence on their AfL practices in EMI courses.

10.4.2 Assessment of Learning Practices in the EMI Courses

The research results on the AoL practices delivered in the EMI courses focus on three aspects: assessment methods, assessment content, and assessment results. The discussion centres on how these were influenced by EMI and whether they could fulfil the purposes of measuring and certifying student learning outcomes.

10.4.2.1 Assessment Methods

As can be seen in Table 10.2, the EMI courses employed four methods to assess

Table 10.2 Summative assessment in the EMI courses

EMI course	Faculty	Teacher code	No of credits	Periodical assessment			End-of-semester assessment
				Progress test 1	Mid-term test	Progress test 2	
1	Business Management	T#1	2	Assignment	None		Written test
2	Business Management	T#2	4	Written test	Written test	Performance test	Written test
3	Business Management	T#3	3	Written test	Written test	Performance test	Written test
4	Business Management	T#4	4	Written test	Written test	Oral presentation & written assignment	Written test
5	Electronics	T#5	4	Written test	Written test	Performance test	Written Assignment Plus Q & A
6	Mechanical Engineering	T#6	4	Written test	Written test	Performance test	Written Assignment Plus Q & A
7	Mechanical Engineering	T#7	2	Written test	None		Written test
8	Information Technology	T#8	4	Written test	Written test	Oral presentation & written assignment	Written Assignment

student learning: written test, performance test, oral presentation, and written assignment, among which written test was the most common. The level of student participation was not graded in any of the courses, although it was sometimes assessed and unofficially included in the course grades in the form of bonus marks.

Data from the interviews with the teachers showed that the assessment methods in the EMI courses were basically similar to those implemented in the parallel VMI courses except for courses #4, #5, #6, and #8. Notably, in the parallel VMI courses, the progress tests 2 in courses #4 and #8 were written tests and the end-of-semester assessment in courses #5 and #6 were performance tests. As demonstrated in the extracts below, the assessment methods were purposefully adjusted to motivate students to put more effort into learning and to encourage their retention in EMI courses, reasons directly related to their English language competence.

> Due to the students' low English proficiency, studying in English requires students to self-study more than when studying in Vietnamese. However many students do not know how to self-study. Thus, I had to develop a study guide to show them how to prepare for the lessons. To make sure that they followed the requirements, I asked them to present what they have prepared and assessed their understanding. The fact that their presentation scores were calculated into the final results made them pay more attention to the task and learn better. (T#4)

> This is the first time we have offered this course in English. Thus, some students registered because of curiosity or by mistake. However, after registration, they were very anxious about not passing the course and would like to drop out. Therefore, we had to meet with the students and encourage them not to give up. We also changed the end-of-semester assessment format from the performance test into a written assignment so that the students could have more time to prepare for the assessment. (T#5)

There was not enough data to explore whether the assessment methods or the adjustment in the methods employed were appropriate to ensure the validity and reliability of the assessment results. However, the above described practices indicate that the summative assessment methods employed in those particular courses were affected to some extent by EMI, although the level of impact depended largely on the teachers and their perceptions of the need to consider the students' English proficiency.

10.4.2.2 Assessment Content

Analysis of the end-of-semester test papers and assignment questions showed that the complexity and formats of the test questions in the EMI courses were similar to those in VMI courses except for courses #3 and #2. In the course #3 test paper, there were only five True/False questions whereas there were ten in the test paper in the parallel VMI course, and in the course #2 test paper, question 2, tax information was not included as data whereas it was in the parallel VMI version. The interviews with teachers and students showed that not only the end-of-semester tests but the progress tests of courses #2 and #3 were intentionally made easier to take account of the English language demand in doing the tests. Such practice also appeared to be a means to reassure the students about their results when taking EMI courses.

> Due to the language barriers, the EMI students did not have much time to practice doing calculation exercises [during the course]. The test questions in English were a little bit easier since they did not have as much time [to do the calculation] as the VMI students. (T#2)

> At first the students were worried that they could not understand the lessons but then they felt more confident since they all could do well in the [progress] tests. (T#3)

As indicated in the following extract, the students appeared to recognise the teacher's practice of reducing the assessment demand in the EMI course.

> In comparison with my friends studying in the parallel VMI course, I think we studied less. In the EMI course, the content knowledge was not discussed and expanded in further details [as it was in the VMI course]. Those friends of mine learn more knowledge and know more formulas than I do. Our [EMI] course content was just a part of their course but we learned in English so it was more difficult. Because of that reason, the teacher was more generous when assessing our learning and the tests were easier. (S#3)

It was also noticed that in the EMI test papers, the theoretical questions accounted for a small proportion (20–30%) of the total score, with the larger proportion (70–80%) allocated to calculation questions or problem-based exercises which did not require a wordy explanation in English. During the courses, the students were also guided on 'how to respond to theoretical questions in English' (S#2, #3, #4, #7). Such practices

seemed to minimise the impact of English language demand on the demonstration of the students' learning outcomes. However, as indicated by the students below, their test results were still negatively affected by their low English proficiency.

> When doing the tests in English, sometimes we were too hurried to read the test questions carefully so we misunderstood the questions and gave incorrect answers. It would not have happened if we had taken the test in Vietnamese. (S#2)

Overall, it can be seen that the assessment content was in various ways affected by the use of EMI. Although the issue was found only in two out of the eight courses, this finding heightens concerns about possible narrowing of curriculum and lowering of educational standards as a result of EMI implementation.

10.4.2.3 Assessment Results

Table 10.3 demonstrates the students' perspectives on assessment in the EMI courses. As can be seen, most of the students believed that the assessment carried out in the EMI courses was appropriate to the course content and the assessment results reflected truthfully their learning outcomes with 98% and 91% of the students agreeing with the respective statements. However, only about two-thirds of the students indicated that they were satisfied with the assessment results. It was noticed that the EMI courses requiring students to do assignments at the end-of-semester assessment (courses #5, #6, #8) had a higher percentage of students feeling satisfied with the assessment results than the other courses. There was not enough data to examine the impact of the assessment methods on the student assessment results. However, this research result on the students' level of satisfaction with the course grade supports the result reported in Al-Bakri's (2017) study that many EMI students were not content with the assessment results they obtained.

It can also be noticed in Table 10.3 that fewer than half of the students thought they would gain similar grades if they studied the subjects in Vietnamese. In the interviews, when speculating on student learning outcomes if they had taken the parallel VMI courses instead, almost all of the teachers and students believed that the students would have acquired from 10 to 30% more knowledge and achieved higher course grades. The only exception was in course #3 where both the teacher and the student tended to believe that the learning outcomes would have been lower if the students had taken the VMI courses. Interestingly, the reason given by the student for her belief related to the seemingly lower assessment demand set for EMI courses while the reason given by the teacher lay in the better teaching and learning conditions of the EMI classes in comparison with VMI classes: 'There are about 80 students in VMI classes: Only some students study actively, many others do not. Meanwhile, there are only 20 students in the EMI class and the students concentrate more on studying so…they could learn better' (T#3).

In short, these research findings show that EMI did impact the assessment method, content, and results although the impact was not ubiquitous and the level of impact was different in different courses. Given the adjustments in the assessment methods

Table 10.3 Students' perspectives on the assessment of the EMI courses

Q. No	Statements on EMI course assessment	Percentage of students agreed								
		T#1	T#2	T#3	T#4	T#5	T#6	T#7	T#8	Average
14	The assessment activities carried out in the EMI course were appropriate	100%	98%	87%	96%	100%	100%	100%	96%	98%
16	The assessment results reflected accurately your learning outcomes	87%	93%	86%	100%	89%	97%	93%	84%	91%
19e	You are satisfied with the assessment results of the EMI course	71%	64%	50%	58%	80%	80%	57%	71%	69%
19f	Your assessment results would be the same if you studied in Vietnamese	37%	32%	56%	58%	50%	31%	57%	57%	44%

and content and the teachers and students' common belief in the negative impact of EMI on student learning performance, it is questionable whether the assessment practices fulfil the purposes of precisely measuring student learning outcomes.

The results of this study in regard to AoL practices echo the findings of Al-Bakri (2017) in that the use of English could affect students' comprehension of questions and consequent educational performance, which might violate the validity of the assessment result. Up to 46% of respondents in Al-Bakri's (2017) study indicated that they sometimes gave incorrect answers because they did not understand the questions. Coupled with Al-Bakri's findings, the findings in this study highlight the potential impact of students' insufficient English proficiency on teaching and learning, raising concerns about the educational quality of EMI courses and whether the degree the EMI students receive actually meets international standards. Given the research results on the adjustments in the assessment content and methods in EMI courses in consideration of students' low English level, this study supports the claim made by Macaro et al. (2018) that research findings on EMI student learning outcomes need to be interpreted with caution because of the disparate educational contexts and different connotations attached to the assessment results. Furthermore, while the practice of 'giving bonus marks' appears to mirror the practices of assessing students' lesson participation reported in the studies carried out by Dafouz and Camacho-Miñano (2016) and Li and Wu (2018), it raises concerns about creating inequality since individual teachers have their own ways of giving bonus marks and not all students are capable of taking the opportunities to gain bonus marks (Tran, 2015).

10.5 Conclusion and Implications for Moving Forward with EMI

This study investigated the assessment practices carried out in the EMI courses in a particular HE context in Vietnam and explored the reasons for those practices and their capacity to fulfil the two main roles of assessment: supporting learning and measuring learning achievement. The research findings demonstrate that both the AfL and AoL practices largely depended on the individual teachers, particularly on their teaching and assessment competence. This situation can be attributed to insufficient preparation for implementation, especially in terms of students' English proficiency, teacher training, and provision of institutional guidelines on EMI course assessment. The research results also indicate that the assessment practices did not adequately fulfil the purposes they were supposed to serve.

A recurring theme was noted in the analyses of both AfL and AoL practices in the EMI courses, which relates to the increasing top-down demands on EMI implementation and the dominant use of assessment results for important decision-making processes alongside inadequate preparation for EMI implementation. It is that assessment and assessment results were being used as a means to maintain and encourage students' learning engagement and continuing enrolment in the EMI

courses. From the student data, although such strategies appeared to work with a proportion of EMI students, they cannot be regarded as effective solutions, given concerns about the validity and reliability of the assessment results and the fact that up to a third of the EMI students indicated that they would not take part in other EMI courses in the future.

However, the findings presented and discussed above should be interpreted in view of several methodological limitations. First, the classroom observations were carried out only once in each of the EMI courses. Second, only one student from each EMI course was invited to take part in the interviews. Third, data related to teachers' written feedback on the students' assignments during the courses, the content of the periodical assessment and the students' assessment results were not collected. Finally, the research was conducted in only one HE institutional context in Vietnam with a small number of EMI courses having been investigated. Further research should be conducted in more varied educational contexts, with more data on EMI classroom interactions, the teachers' perspectives on EMI teaching and assessment and the student learning outcomes, analysing them in comparison with parallel non-EMI courses for a deeper understanding of the reasons for assessment practices and the fulfilment of the practices for formative and summative purposes.

Despite the aforementioned limitations, this study carries important implications for improving the implementation of EMI at the tertiary level. First, it is vital for the students to obtain adequate English proficiency to study in English and that they also be supported to develop self-regulated and active learning skills. Next, EMI teachers need to be provided with professional development on teaching pedagogy and assessment. Key areas for teacher professional development highlight the importance of AfL and include (i) improving the quantity and quality of classroom interactions via questioning practices; (ii) involving students in assessment-related activities such as responding to teacher questions and peer- and self-assessment; (iii) explicitly communicating the assessment criteria and learning objectives via feedback and guiding students' self- and peer-assessment; (iv) selecting summative assessment methods and content; (v) using assessment data to inform teaching and give feedback on student learning. Third, it is necessary to examine the appropriateness of the summative assessment methods and assessment content delivered in EMI courses to ensure the validity and reliability of assessment results and to monitor the quality of the degree offered to students undertaking EMI programs. Finally, more research needs to be conducted to investigate the effectiveness of EMI assessment practices in terms of realising the dual goals of developing both disciplinary knowledge and English language proficiency. We believe that high-quality EMI assessment practices are an integral part of moving forward pedagogically with EMI in Vietnamese universities.

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Duyen Tran is the Director of the Testing and Assessment Center, Hanoi University of Industry, Vietnam. She has many years of experience working as an English teacher at her university. She has been actively involved in designing and conducting teacher professional training courses, especially in English language teaching and assessment. She received her PhD degree from Queensland University of Technology, Australia in 2015. Her research areas include language teaching and assessment, teaching methodology, the employment of ICT in language education, English as a Medium of Instruction and English for Special Purposes.

Tue Hoang is the Dean of the Faculty of Foreign Languages, Hanoi University of Industry, Vietnam. He has been working as an English teacher and an educational administrator at his university for more than 20 years now. He has conducted many studies and projects to improve the quality of English language education at tertiary level. He received his Doctor of Education degree from Queensland University of Technology, Australia in 2015. His research interests include ICT in education, blended learning, English for Occupational Purposes, English as a Medium of Instruction and Teacher Professional Development.

Chapter 11
Commentary: EMI in Vietnamese universities—The Need for a Glocal Educational Approach

Marta Aguilar-Pérez

Abstract This commentary offers an overview of the five chapters on EMI practitioner perspectives and their research-based findings from an eagle's view perspective. Among the contributions of this part of the volume is the knowledge accrued on the top-down implementation of EMI in Vietnamese higher education, a context characterised by two key realities: students' low proficiency and a teacher-centred pedagogical tradition. In this context, EMI agency to bring about a student-centred methodology while increasing exposure to English is analysed. These five chapters thus offer rich information on the practices and beliefs held by Vietnamese practitioners that are facing the double challenge of implementing both innovations, and their findings point to the need of glocalised and situated studies that contribute to realistic, fair and contextualised EMI implementations.

Keywords EMI · Learning pedagogy · Practitioners' beliefs and practices · Glocal EMI

The five chapters on EMI practitioner perspectives in Part II yield research-based findings that are necessary to comprehend the recently introduced EMI in Vietnamese higher education. In this specific context, according to Barnett and Pham, 'EMI has an integral responsibility to society, whilst also being closely tied to university competitiveness, prosperity and international engagement' (Chapter 1, p. 3). Among the contributions of this volume is the knowledge accrued on the top-down implementation of EMI in Vietnamese higher education, a context characterised by two key realities: students' low proficiency and a teacher-centred, textbook-oriented tradition embedded in a cultural and educational background that clashes with an active learning pedagogy that EMI seems to call for (Dearden, 2014). EMI agency thus appears to be key in triggering a more student-centred methodology while increasing exposure to the English language—albeit the outsider reader is uncertain to what extent EMI and an active pedagogy have been concurrent innovations in Vietnam.

M. Aguilar-Pérez (✉)
Escola Tècnica Superior Enginyeria Industrial de Barcelona (ETSEIB), Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya, Diagonal Ave. 647, Floor 10, 08028 Barcelona, Spain
e-mail: marta.aguilar@upc.edu

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For this reason, the analytical work in all five chapters offers valuable and in-depth information on practices and beliefs held by Vietnamese practitioners facing the double challenge of implementing both innovations.

Going on with the contributions, as most of the studies in this second part draw upon classroom research (Hu, 2005; Nunan, 2005), a high ecological validity can be said to have been attained, implying that the findings obtained may be generalisable in other Asian and East Asian higher education institutions. Indeed, the researchers in the part I have read of this volume offer an external researcher's perspective of classroom practices that they have themselves observed and, after triangulating observation with interviews and surveys, analyse beliefs, difficulties and pedagogical practices that have also been identified in other parts of the world. Studies in this second part consistently reach the overall research-based conclusion that Vietnamese higher education was rather unprepared for EMI implementation and provide evidence on this lack of readiness along three important strands: classroom practices and stakeholders' beliefs (Chapters 6 and 7), translanguaging (Chapters 8 and 9) and assessment (Chapter 10).

In the sixth and seventh chapters, EMI practitioners are observed to resort to practices meant to scaffold learning for low proficient students and simplify output while engaging students with interactive activities. For example, in Chapter 6, practitioners are observed to make use of scaffolding techniques that can also be very useful in European contexts where English proficiency is not very high; hence, the EMI practitioners under study regularly ask and check for understanding, use visual aids, diagrams and video clips, code-switch, pre teach key terminology, frequently review and recap, promote group work and make attempts to promote self-study and build relationship with students via social networks. The seventh chapter showcases CLIL-ised pedagogies (Moncada-Comas & Block, 2019) used by one lecturer to scaffold content (e.g. mind maps, high-and low-order thinking questions, hands-on activities, team projects), mostly to engage and motivate students. In the East Asian educational culture with a tradition of teacher-fronted, textbook-based transmission, student motivation and engagement are sought to be attained by a shift towards student-led methodologies. In this context, learning through the medium of English is equated with a student-centred and interactive instructional pedagogy, which is conducive to the perception of EMI as an agent of modernising and democratising teaching and learning—an assumption that is not always shared in countries where student-centred teaching had been implemented long before EMI. Interaction and active pedagogy are certainly highly recommended to EMI practitioners (Sánchez-García, 2018), usually on the grounds of the extra cognitive demand created by learning content in a foreign language. This added difficulty in processing content in another language can for example be mediated, or compensated for, by means of asking challenging questions (Sánchez-García, 2018), Think-Pair-Share activities and teamwork. Activities of this kind, observed and described in both chapters, are expected to give more time for students to process, internalise and understand content knowledge taught in English while relieving pressure and enhancing involvement. Finally, by pointing to the discrepancies and mismatch between the traditional and EMI-focused pedagogy, the authors also bring to the fore a sometimes-neglected

dimension in EMI, namely, intercultural competence. Going beyond a mere change in language, EMI can somehow also fuel new and different ways of thinking, working and learning, and infuse global thinking. It should however be taken in consideration that for intercultural outcomes to fully develop, local Vietnamese students should have foreign students in their EMI class, so that well-planned interaction with culturally different others occurred.

The practices reported in these chapters seem extremely useful and generalisable across institutions around the world where EMI is offered to low proficient students. Yet, these practices require highly motivated practitioners willing to make a remarkable extra effort to adjust content and motivate students—the Vietnamese teachers under study even engage in virtual discourses to give feedback to students out of class. This extra workload points to these teachers' intense involvement in EMI and mirrors the difficulties and pressures undergone when EMI is implemented top-down and at a rapid pace by policy makers, who besides name EMI programmes 'high-quality programmes'. An external reader cannot help wondering about the sustainability of these practices—whether practitioners will be willing to make this extra effort over a sustained, long period without being institutionally rewarded and fully supported.

The pressure and hurdles for these practitioners, examined in Chapters 8 and 9 on translanguaging, are unveiled when, in the interviews, they voice their sense of guilt whenever they turn to L1 in class. EMI practitioners are depicted as torn between two opposing realities—on the one hand top-down policies pushing towards EMI in a context where the student body is largely unprepared, and on the other hand self-selection for EMI as a career opportunity—and their sense of guilt seems to result from lack of explicit written norms as to what language policy to adhere to. All in all, the underlying motivations to translanguage seem to be (i) to make content comprehensible to low proficient students and (ii) to engage and involve their students. Though the latter (affective) motivation is only mentioned by one teacher in Chapter 8, most teachers believe that translanguaging—or code-switching, the distinction between both concepts is made in Chapter 9—is utterly necessary to make sure students understand content. While the findings in Chapter 8 do not derive from real class observation but from interviews, similar conclusions are reached in the ninth chapter, where data comes from class observation, interviews and stimulated recall. Practitioners in Chapter 9 also hold the tacit assumption that EMI should always be in English, an assumption that is only adding one more degree of unease and pressure, presumably affecting their teaching performance. Two outstanding differences in Chapter 9 are that the two study practitioners teach EFL and that the study draws on a rich, variegated data methodology, as already mentioned. These factors may have a bearing on why the two EMI practitioners analysed in this chapter deploy awareness about the pedagogic and strategic value of making full use of one's linguistic repertories. Analysis of data thus reveals three main reasons for translanguaging: (i) scaffold complex concepts to transmit and anticipate possible misconceptions; (ii) manage comments, discipline and time; and (iii) create a friendly classroom atmosphere and build rapport with students. Because these two practitioners do not see L1 and English as separated or opposed languages, they are claimed to translanguage and not to code-switch. What remains a revealing finding in both studies on

translanguaging is that the practitioners analysed felt guilty for not using English all the time—a negative psychological impact that could be avoided if awareness was raised among these teachers that translanguaging can be a learning aid and if this was made explicit in EMI policy.

Finally, in the tenth chapter, assessment practices are explored via observation and interviews to both students and teachers for a rather unexpected purpose—to engage and encourage student registration. Analysis of the data leads the authors to conclude that assessment for formative purposes does not suffice due to its limited presence (few interactions, few questions and little feedback) and discretional use (i.e. largely dependent on individual teachers' professional competence). As before, this finding hints at lack of proper training offered to EMI practitioners, who were unable to identify the gap between their students' current and desired learning: they missed several methodologies and activities like increasing interaction with questions (resonating with Cots, 2013 or Sánchez-García, 2018), promoting peer- and self-assessment, explicitly communicating the assessment criteria and intended learning objectives, or making an informed selection of assessment methods to give rich feedback on student learning. Making a critical appraisal of the bonus marks practice they observe, the authors in this chapter raise the concern that pervades all chapters in this part, namely, the need to reconsider the effectiveness of EMI when practitioners have not received full support and training and when students' proficiency level is insufficient.

Questioning the effectiveness of EMI in settings like the one described in the volume can also be found in the literature. Carrió-Pastor and Bellés-Fortuño (2021), for example, recommend EMI for settings with proficient students and in international programmes and CLIL for contexts where students' proficiency is low. Likewise, a critical stance on EMI can also be found in Scandinavian settings where the Englishisation of higher education is not always widely welcomed, or where westernisation can be seen as intrusive if only virtues of Western education are seen as desirable (Bradford, 2019). While voices have been heard about the need for screening in EMI—a C1 proficiency level is advisable to embark on EMI, otherwise educational standards may be impoverished—this also raises the not less important question of equity, particularly among state universities, as sometimes only families with a given socioeconomic status can afford opportunities of rich exposure to English and interculturality to their children, in the shape of formal education or study or stay abroad. It is for this reason that policy making and internationalisation measures relative to EMI should always be informed with context-specific research and knowledge.

To conclude with this commentary, I would like to highlight important lessons that can be derived. The first relates to the fact that implementing EMI in the Vietnamese setting entails two pedagogical innovations, an ambitious challenge, particularly if both innovations take place simultaneously. Second, intercultural competence in the setting described seems to be playing a crucial role because of the changes of paradigm and the mismatch with the more traditionally passive pedagogy in Vietnam. This finding substantiates the oft-mentioned connection between foreign language and intercultural competences and the claim that learning and teaching in

a foreign language cannot be seen as a mere change of code (or *interface*, Aguilar-Pérez & Arnó-Macià, 2020; Arnó-Macià & Aguilar-Pérez, 2021). The agency of EMI could extend to instilling new ways of thinking and behaving in class and at work—resonating with key components in intercultural competence, knowledge, skills and attitude, that help individuals behave and communicate effectively and appropriately in multicultural environments (Deardoff, 2009). As the authors in Chapter 1 rightly point out, '*it is not just the language and the content that are imported, but also ways of thinking and understanding the world*' (p. 5). The process of cultural *othering* cannot be ignored in an EMI context; however, Vietnamese teachers seem to be expected to smoothly appropriate a different teaching style and infuse a different way of thinking to students by osmosis, a hard task if no pedagogical intervention is present.

It is for this reason that context-specific research like the one in this volume allows researchers in the field to identify common core problems across continents while bringing to the fore the importance of the local background against which EMI is to be implemented. Such 'glocal' understanding of potentialities, benefits and problems inherent to EMI may help us devise the adequate tools and strategies for different higher education institutions, such as training, language policies, pace of implementation or assessment methods. Because a glocal educational approach to EMI may be more effective, inclusive and fair than a one-size-fits-all EMI, in Vietnam a CLIL-ised approach (Moncada-Comas & Block, 2019), supported by tandem teaching between content and language specialists and pedagogical interventions, may prove a sound decision to accommodate low proficient students reluctant to ask and participate. If quality is to be assured, a CLIL-ised EMI could for example be implemented gradually, timely and selectively, as CLIL-ised approaches may accord well in small and interactive classrooms, less daunting places to learn, speak and interact and where some attention to form can be paid.

A lingering concern is that Vietnamese universities are not yet ready for EMI. For EMI to move forward and to effectively be able to contribute to Vietnamese society with 'competitiveness, prosperity and international engagement', a static picture of EMI—with its portrayed weaknesses and pitfalls—should evolve to become *situated* and accommodated to the context-specific needs. The potential of EMI is seen to pivot on the agency of EMI practitioners, whose task in scaffolding is laudable: they can certainly contribute to teaching disciplinary knowledge and literacy enacting an active pedagogy, even raising intercultural awareness, but one feels that they cannot be made accountable for students' foreign language improvement, which are learning outcomes that fall beyond their professional competence and expertise. Studies like this book are an excellent step towards finding the way to make the most of EMI in a realistic, fair and challenging way.

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Marta Aguilar-Pérez is an associate professor of English for Specific Purposes at Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya (UPC, Barcelona, Spain). Her research has focused on English for Specific Purposes, academic and professional genres, and English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in an increasingly internationalised higher education. She has recently published on English-medium Instruction in higher education and the interplay between ESP and EMI. Her research grows from her passion for empowering students and faculty to develop as professionals who must communicate and operate effectively and appropriately in a globalised world, thus contributing to a better and more inclusive view of internationalisation in higher education.

Part III
Student Perspectives on EMI Practices in Vietnamese Universities

Chapter 12
Student Experiences of Institutional and Practitioner Decision-Making in Vietnamese Undergraduate English-Medium Programs: Agency at the Intersection of Policy, Curriculum and Pedagogy

Toan Pham and Jenny Barnett

Abstract The experiences of undergraduate students in English-medium instruction (EMI) in Vietnam provide invaluable information for the development of evidence-based policy and practice. This chapter reports a study at two public universities in Vietnam, undertaken through focus group interviews with 14 undergraduate students in their 3rd or 4th year of EMI programs in various disciplines. Students were invited to provide their experiences of the implementation of EMI policies and curricula and of learning through EMI. They identified both positive and negative experiences, and the various strategies they and their teachers used to counter the negatives. They also spontaneously discussed the role of the first language in EMI practices, and made suggestions for improvements to the EMI offerings they had enrolled in. Analysis of the data locates the EMI students at the intersection of policy, curriculum and pedagogy, simultaneously highlighting their own agency and that of their teachers in co-constructing policy implementation on the ground. The analysis indicates the broad scope and impact of agency in students' experience of EMI and shows the close relationship between institutional decisions and the role of teachers and learners as agents in regard to moving forward with EMI.

Keywords English-medium instruction · EMI · Vietnam · Higher education · Pedagogy · Policy implementation

T. Pham (✉) · J. Barnett
University of South Australia, Magill, SA, Australia
e-mail: toan.pham@unisa.edu.au

J. Barnett
e-mail: jenny.barnett@unisa.edu.au

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12.1 Introduction

Recent decades have seen a worldwide movement towards English-medium instruction (EMI). This EMI movement shows no signs of slowing down (Dearden, 2016), and Vietnam's higher education institutions have been a vibrant part of it since 2012, building on the National Foreign Language 2020 (NFL2020) project (Doan et al., 2018; Nguyen, 2018). In 2018, a total of 379 EMI programs were coordinated at Vietnamese HE institutions in the form of Joint Programs (290), Advanced Programs (34) and High-Quality Programs (55) and this number was set to rise (Nguyen, 2018, p. 121). However, EMI in Vietnamese higher education is mandated not so much from a research-informed evidence base as from top-down enthusiasm (Vu & Burns, 2014), including what Pham and Doan (2020) refer to as a 'policy of encouragement' on the part of institutions. Yet there exist issues and challenges (Manh, 2012; Nguyen et al., 2017) that call for empirical research with students to inform not only policy-making but also classroom teaching, learning and assessment. With this in mind, this study explores students' perspectives on EMI policies and curricula, their experiences of learning through EMI, and the suggestions they make for improvement in each of those areas. Analysis of the student data suggests an understanding of EMI as poised at the intersection of policy, curriculum and pedagogy, mediated by the agency of learners, teachers and institutional leadership. It highlights the close relationship between institutional decisions and the role of teachers and learners as agents for moving forward with EMI.

12.2 Literature Review

As key stakeholders in EMI practices, students' views on and experiences of university EMI are important pieces in the jigsaw puzzle that is EMI. This brief review indicates both dark and bright pieces of the jigsaw, sketched from the voice of students recorded so far in contexts around the world.

The dark pieces of the jigsaw comprise a series of issues that students experience in EMI. The most commonly reported of these is their own inefficient English competence, which negatively affects their learning (Belhiah, 2015; Chang, 2010; Cho, 2012; Collins, 2010; Ellili-Cherif & Alkhateeb, 2015; Huang, 2015; Khan, 2013; Soruç & Griffiths, 2017; Wu, 2006). For example, they blame their low level of English for understanding only 60% of lectures (Cho, 2012); for their problems in understanding written learning materials including textbooks (e.g. Huang, 2015; Khan, 2013; Soruç & Griffiths, 2017); their high levels of anxiety (e.g. Huang, 2015; Kang & Park, 2005), especially speaking anxiety (Hengsadeekul et al., 2014); their loss of attention in class and an easy fall into day-dreaming (Yung-Ting, 2015); and their difficulty in expressing their thoughts and ideas, thus influencing their in-class presentations and exams (Soruç & Griffiths, 2017). Other issues with EMI that students experience include little improvement in their productive skills (Bozdogan &

Karlidag, 2013), decrease in their academic achievement (Collins, 2010) and a significant mismatch between policy support and their actual needs (e.g. Hu & Lei, 2014; Yıldız et al., 2017). They also level criticism at their lecturers' English language competence, complaining that not all their EMI lecturers are capable of teaching the subject matter in English, and expressing concerns about lecturers' grammatical and pronunciation errors, inappropriate vocabulary and collocations (Werther et al., 2014), including use of simple rather than academic words. Some students even attribute all their difficulty in EMI to the instructor's level of English (Yıldız et al., 2017).

The bright areas of the jigsaw mainly represent students' acknowledgement of considerable gains in their English competence (Aguilar & Muñoz, 2014; Belhiah, 2015; Byun et al., 2011; Hu et al., 2014; Huang, 2015; Rogier, 2012; Soruç & Griffiths, 2017; Yang, 2015). The final-year students in Rogier (2012), Belhiah (2015) and Yeh (2014), for example, recorded progress in all four language skills while those in other studies recorded progress in particular skills: receptive skills after two years of EMI (Yang, 2015), in listening skill after one semester (Aguilar & Muñoz, 2014) and fluency in writing after 18 weeks (Tai, 2015). Students also found EMI valuable in some other respects including easier access to employment and educational opportunities (Hu et al., 2014); expansion of job prospects (Belhiah, 2015; Hu et al., 2014); and confidence for communication in English in future employment (van der Worp, 2017).

In the comparative studies by Dafouz and Camacho-Miñano (2016) and Tatzl and Messnarz (2013) EMI students obtained the same academic results as their L1 medium instruction counterparts, whereas students in Soruç and Griffiths (2017) reported that EMI lowered their performance in exams and presentation. Clearly contextual factors are at play, resulting in shades of grey in some pieces of the puzzle.

Seen from the student perspective, the EMI picture in Vietnamese contexts shares several pieces of the international jigsaw but also has some different ones. The common dark pieces are students' inadequate English competence (Le, 2019; Nguyen, 2018; Vo, 2017), their dissatisfaction with the institutional language support (Nguyen et al., 2017) and their complaints about some of their lecturers' ineffective teaching styles and unclear and incorrectly-pronounced English (Le, 2019; Nguyen, 2018). Besides these international issues, some Vietnamese students also blame their institutions for 'push[ing] them to take EMI courses when they were not ready' (Le, 2019, p. 122), overly high tuition fees (Le, 2019), and English textbooks and teaching materials that are difficult to learn from due to unfamiliar concepts, foreign knowledge and non-Vietnamese context (Le, 2019; Nguyen et al., 2017). The brighter jigsaw pieces for Vietnamese students were that EMI enhanced their professional knowledge and English competence (Vo, 2017), prepared them for working in international workplaces and facilitated their English-medium education overseas (Le, 2019). They also considered EMI programs as special and even élite because they provided well-supported learning and teaching facilities (Vo, 2017), a comfortable learning environment and an association with high-quality education (Le, 2019). This current chapter adds further detail to the Vietnamese jigsaw through a case

study of students' EMI perspectives, focusing on students' experience of policy and curriculum, strategies for learning through EMI and recommendations to improve their experience.

12.3 The Study

The study was conducted at two public universities in Vietnam (Uni 1 & 2). Five focus group interviews were held, involving fourteen 3rd- and 4th-year students taking Advanced Programs (AP) and High-Quality Programs (HQP) in various disciplines; this included three Thai students undertaking a one-semester exchange program (see Table 12.1 for more details).

The participants, selected through a convenience sampling method, were interviewed in small groups of no more than three members to aid discussion and achieve in-depth data. The interviews took place in quiet cafés using English with the Thai students and Vietnamese with the Vietnamese, and were all audio recorded.

Interview data were transcribed and analysed by the researchers according to two main themes: students' experiences of policy and curriculum and their learning through EMI (Sects. 12.4.1, 12.4.2 and 12.4.3). Deeper analysis was facilitated through the application of a dialogical agency perspective (Sullivan & McCarthy, 2004), drawing on the work of Bakhtin (1981, 1993). A dialogic perspective sees a person and their agency from two perspectives. On the one hand, individuals are embedded in their community context and its broad sociocultural relationships, which frame what they see as socially acceptable actions and pathways for agency. On the other hand, each individual is continuously engaging in moment-to-moment interpersonal relationships and feelings, which may prompt a perceived need for agency either within the socially acceptable set of pathways or possibly stepping out of it to some degree. Thus a dialogic perspective questions the pathways for individual agency at the intersection of policy, curriculum and pedagogy.

To illustrate, agency in lived interaction involves engaging with others, having felt experiences and embodying a response to those experiences. For example, in an EMI class, a teacher seeing non-comprehension on students' faces may feel concerned that they are not learning and may embody responsibility and agency

Table 12.1 Student interviewee details

Student ID	Discipline	Year	University & program	Focus group
A1	Accounting	3rd	Uni1 – HQP	V3
F&B1	Finance & Banking	3rd	Uni1 – HQP	V4
T&T1-2	Tourism & Travel	3rd	Uni1 – HQP	V3 & V4
T&T3	Tourism & Travel	4th	Uni1 – HQP	V3
WRE1-6	Water Resource Engineering	3rd	Uni2 – AP	V1 & V2
Thai1-3	Civil Engineering	4th	Uni2 – AP	Thai

by re-expressing a point, perhaps simplifying the English or switching languages. Similarly, a student failing to comprehend and feeling confident in the classroom environment may embody agency by asking for clarification, illustration, or a translation. Viewed from a dialogical perspective, both teacher agency and student agency are shaped by sociocultural roles, but are also shaped by their own characteristics and how they perceive what is happening in the moment. In other words, they 'achieve a felt sense of responsibility' (Sullivan & McCarthy, 2004, p. 296) for their participation in EMI, and embody a 'reaction to the institutional demand in the individual psychological moment' (Sullivan & McCarthy, 2004, p. 297).

12.4 Students' EMI Experiences

Students' accounts of their EMI experiences add missing pieces to the Vietnamese EMI jigsaw and also more detail to the world EMI jigsaw. They not only reported their experiences but offered suggestions, which together have directly informed our concluding analysis.

12.4.1 First-Year Policy and Curriculum Experiences

University policy for all the EMI programs in this study stipulated an initial year of English tuition, followed by three years of studying specialist subjects through English. English competence was not a particular requirement for entry into the programs, but did become a requirement for entry into second year. Thus the first year was intended to improve students' overall English competence, and prepare them for EMI.

The curriculum offered to first-year students differed in the two universities. Uni2, offering Advanced Programs in Engineering, focused mainly on General English with some discipline-specific vocabulary (WRE4). In contrast, Uni1, offering High-Quality Programs in the Humanities, had a more comprehensive curriculum. The main English language teaching component took the form of IELTS preparation, which was particularly 'good for students from rural areas where they have learned mainly grammar and had limited listening and speaking' (T&T3). The ESP component introduced technical terms, which students found useful although insufficient for their subsequent needs.

> Although we had ESP in the first year, in which we learned technical terms we would meet in our EMI major later, that was not adequate. When we were learning many EMI subjects at the same time, there were many technical terms, thus very hard for us. (A1)

In addition, first-year students learned presentation skills, PPT design, writing reports and assignments, note-taking and debating skills.

> These skills and knowledge have helped me a lot in EMI in the later years especially the knowledge of referencing and presentation skills. (T&T3)

However, some students recommended more focus on ESP in the first year, with the comment that IELTS writing is different from writing academic reports and assignments (for example, in IELTS an 'essay' is only 300 words and therefore very simply structured). This reasoning suggests a requirement for a form of ESP that incorporates English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and prepares students to develop academic literacy in English. Another recommendation from an Advanced Program participant was that 'teachers should also introduce learning strategies to the first year students, who are not familiar with Uni learning, especially in EMI' (WRE2).

The English proficiency requirement to enter the start of the EMI Program varied across the two universities. The policy at Uni1 required students entering their second year to have achieved Internal IELTS 6.0 with no band under 5.0, indicating that university leaders believed such a benchmark was necessary for successful learning through EMI. In contrast, the WRE students at Uni2 were only expected to have achieved a minimum Internal IELTS level of 4.5. If students did not achieve this minimum, they would receive a warning and still be allowed to continue with the program without penalties. They were expected to study independently for their IELTS exams, which were held every three months or so. According to the policy, if they received three warnings they would be suspended, but the interviewees had never known this to happen. This variation has also been demonstrated in other Vietnamese universities (Nguyen, 2018; Nguyen et al., 2017; Vu & Burns, 2014).

12.4.2 Second and Subsequent Years Policy and Curriculum Experiences

The WRE students at Uni2 followed a curriculum imported from a foreign university, with all materials relating to that overseas context. In contrast, the students at Uni1 followed curriculum developed by local staff members, who selected all textbooks and materials, potentially allowing for more regionally based and language supportive options. Student A1 explicitly mentioned preferring this latter approach, considering it more relevant for ease of learning and future employment. It might also have been preferable for the students at Uni2 who had considerably lower English proficiency entry requirements (internal IELTS 4.5 as opposed to 6).

From the second year on, neither university provided English language support, although at Uni1 an orientation was organised for those who had just completed the first year, at which some senior students were invited to talk about their experience in EMI. Teachers often explained individually after class what students had not understood, and students contacted teachers through Facebook, email or the class forum. There was also an unofficial face-to-face group learning forum on Facebook for students to assist each other. However, neither university provided any official

language support from the teachers nor the institution after the first year: 'EMI teachers do not give language support to us' (A1); 'we self-study and self-survive' (T&T3), as also reported in other studies (Nguyen et al., 2017).

The assessment policy in both universities was for everything to be in English—written take-home assignments, exams, and individual or group presentations. Some students reported difficulty in doing the end-of-course timed writing exam; they were able to do written reports, projects and assignments but were not able to do the writing under time pressure. Nevertheless, WRE2 asserted: 'We want all assessments done in English in order to force us to use English. This way, we use more English and can improve our English'.

Some courses gave no weight for English language in their assessments, whereas in the Civil Engineering course:

> Teachers also assess language use, which accounts for a small part (10-20%) but they don't usually give feedback on language use. They mainly focus on content knowledge. If someone's language use is actually a problem, they give oral private comments after their presentations. (ThaiCE)

Inconsistency in the weighting of assessments and provision of feedback has also been recorded in other Vietnamese studies (e.g. Manh, 2012; Nguyen, 2018; Nguyen et al., 2017), with some academics giving feedback on students' language use in their assignments and others not.

12.4.3 Students' Experiences of EMI in the Classroom

Many students experienced shock in transitioning from the first year with its main focus on learning English, to the second year, where the focus was on learning content through English. In fact, students' experience of the transition from the first English-focused year to the second content-focused EMI year was typically quite challenging. Even students with high English proficiency levels had difficulty:

> I got IELTS 6.5 and I felt relatively confident with my English, but my first week of EMI was actually a disaster. I was able to hear and understand some bits but it was very unclear and confusing. After one semester, things got better; I felt more relaxed with my study. (T&T3)

> I still remember my first EMI subject, which was Advanced Mathematics. It was hard for me to understand what the teacher was saying. She repeatedly used the word 'function'; I knew this word but didn't understand why she used it in such a context. Later at home when I looked it up in the dictionary, I realised it had another meaning – 'a relation involving one or more variables'. There are so many technical terms we need to look up in the dictionary, which makes it hard for us. (T&T2)

Both quotes indicate problems related to English competence that most EMI students worldwide have experienced, supporting students' suggestion for an ESP focus related to individual majors. Students reported particular challenges related to listening, speaking and reading in English.

At the start of the second year, i.e. the first EMI year, a major hurdle for students was to understand their teachers' spoken English when presenting content, especially in lecture mode, no matter whether the lecturer was Vietnamese or from overseas. There were especially frequent complaints about 'non-standard' or poor enunciation among some Vietnamese teachers (e.g. A1; T&T2; T&T1; WRE1 & 2):

> Some teachers' enunciation is not clear and hard to understand. In many cases, we tried to work out what words they were saying and would miss information. For some lectures, we understood only 30% and had to read textbooks at home. (T&T1)

Such student complaints have also been found in studies in other contexts (e.g. Le, 2019; Werther et al., 2014; Yıldız et al., 2017).

When learning with foreign lecturers, students were not able to take notes on all the content as some apparently 'spoke too fast'. Yet even when they spoke slowly and with clear pronunciation, they could still be hard to understand: 'because our English was not good enough' (WRE1). On the other hand, WRE2 'felt easier learning with the foreign teacher. His English was standard. His speaking was relaxed and it was easier for me to comprehend'. Whether the issue was poor enunciation or rapid speech, students had to develop strategies to help them grasp teachers' meanings:

> First, we tried to work out what they were saying by looking at the slides. Or we asked them after class or messaged them through Messenger. If there was something serious, we asked them to explain in Vietnamese. (WRE1)

Most students developed strategies to support their learning, such as asking the teacher to explain after class (T&T1); watching Vietnamese videos related to the subject, often posted by the teachers (WRE5); watching English video clips on any topic 'to improve my listening and learn the way people communicate' (WRE6); watching 'videos from other resources (e.g. Youtube) in English for the lessons which need preparation before class' (WRE5). Several teachers provided in advance an outline or a set of PowerPoint slides, which students took advantage of in various ways, reading and circling what they did not understand, identifying new technical terms and so on. Clearly, such learner agency was vital to students' achievement of their learning goals.

While lectures were expected to be presented in English from the second year, students commented on teachers' use of Vietnamese alongside English.

> Lectures are delivered in English, but the teachers also use Vietnamese whenever the content is hard to understand. (WRE4)

> Teachers use just a little Vietnamese sometimes in their lectures. Normally when they realise the whole class doesn't understand, they switch to some Vietnamese, but then return to using English. They don't want to lecture much in Vietnamese as this is an EMI program. (F&B1)

Some students found 'it easier to learn with Vietnamese teachers who can use both languages' (WRE4), while others were concerned that the foreign students were disadvantaged when Vietnamese was used.

The students themselves also tended to use both languages in class.

> Interactions between students in class are in Vietnamese. To discuss with foreign students, we use English. We also use English when talking to the teachers (asking questions and answering their questions). We discuss in Vietnamese in groups but when giving answers/presenting in front of the class, we use English. This is compulsory. (WRE4)
>
> In accounting, we use Vietnamese in group discussion but we use English technical terms. We don't normally know what these terms are in Vietnamese. Teachers told us the equivalent terms in Vietnamese when first introducing them, but then they only use the technical terms in English so we only remember the English terms. (A1)

T&T2, in a different discipline, comments that students need to know technical terms in Vietnamese, since they are living and expect to be working in Vietnam. This suggests an interest in having a bilingual list of technical terms, or even a bilingual glossary. In addition, most students said they found it easier to reason, express and interact in two languages simultaneously, and that it saved time.

> It's good as some students have good content knowledge but their English is not good. The use of Vietnamese allows them to contribute more ideas than being forced to use English only. Another advantage is this saves time. Sometimes we have only 5 minutes for discussion, so we discuss quickly in Vietnamese to gather ideas then present in English. (A1)

> Basically, we don't care what language we use and whether or not we speak English grammatically correctly. We just try to express our ideas the best using whatever language resources are available to us at hand at that time. It is an automatic process. (F&B1)

The use of L1 by both the lecturers and students is an example of what is becoming known as 'translanguaging'—meaning not only the act of switching between languages but more broadly 'the act of deploying all of the speaker's lexical and structural resources freely' (Otheguy et al., 2015, p. 297). This is exactly what the last quote above is referring to, as such translanguaging helps students to source knowledge through their L1 resources and eases their classroom discussion process. The aim of translanguaging is to maximise communicative potential, whether it be by students in group discussion or by teachers in their lecture process. Lecturers' translanguaging helps increase the students' comprehension and may also be a solution for them when having instructional difficulties such as not knowing or forgetting a word in English (Macaro et al., 2018; Vu & Burns, 2014). The benefits of translanguaging in EMI have been recognised in several previous studies. For example, up to 73% of the students in Yung-Ting (2015) believed it to be an effective strategy. However, lecturers' translanguaging is not always favourably received by students as, if done in a random way, it can cause them to lose concentration (Nguyen, 2018; Nguyen et al., 2017).

In this study, some concerns were expressed about over-use of the home language during group discussion. Thai3CE would prefer to talk in English 'because I need to learn and practice'; Thai1CE sees English as preferable for the purpose even though 'we have to think more in English'; Thai2CE would like to choose English but in reality does not feel capable. Similar concerns as evidenced in this brief conversation among a group of third-year Vietnamese students:

> I would like teachers to encourage students to use English for discussion in class so that we can use more English. However, I think it's not easy to implement because we are lazy to

> speak English. Students won't do it if they are only encouraged by the teacher without the teacher controlling it. But even forced in that way, I think it may still not succeed for all students. Use of two languages is more effective and reduces pressure for students. (WRE2)

Despite such lack of confidence in their competence and willingness, some students' initial reliance on Vietnamese is overtaken in subsequent years by a wish to develop their English more actively. Focus Group VN2 (comprising WRE1-3) agreed that: 'It's better to aim for English only as we can obtain content knowledge in English and can communicate in English in the future'. At this level there was concern that if Vietnamese was used too much: 'How can it be called Advanced Program and how can students improve their English?' (WRE2). This concern about spoken translanguaging suggests that it might best be used in the early stages of EMI, and subsequently at students' own discretion rather than as a regular teaching pattern across the EMI years.

On the other hand, translanguaging with reading materials was frequently used by learners exercising their own independent agency, when having difficulty understanding the required English language reading materials. ThaiCE2, when she cannot understand, uses the internet to find an equivalent resource in Thai and then comes back to the English resources. Other students look for alternative English materials as well:

> I use Wikipedia to read simple things to understand the background knowledge then come back to read the textbooks. This helps a lot. (T&T2)

> When there's something too difficult, I will use the internet to find similar documents to read, both in English and Vietnamese. I see this as an effective way. (WRE1)

Discussing ideas on an unofficial Facebook learning forum was another strategy mentioned as a way of coming to understand reading materials. Such strategies provide stepping stones not only to understanding content in the English language textbook but also its academic writing style, which in turn provides stepping stones to increased fluency in speaking and writing about academic content.

Despite such strategies, all students had concerns about EMI textbooks:

> Some textbooks are written by foreigners and for students in other countries. They include contexts unfamiliar to Vietnamese students, which is hard for us to learn and also is not good for us in our job later. Teachers should have comparison and contrast between overseas and domestic contexts. In this way, we can have knowledge of the two types of context. (F&B1)

This student is here making two important points: first, that set textbooks should be fit for purpose, and second, that EMI provides a pathway for intercultural learning, which in this case is not being taken up. The first point is backed up by several students in different courses: 'As for reading [EMI] textbooks, sometimes I find it hard to understand as they talk about some companies or enterprises which are unfamiliar and I don't have any background knowledge' (T&T2). This supports the argument that imported curricula and imported textbooks are difficult for local students to learn from because they are unrelated to the Vietnamese context (Manh, 2012) and also that they are seen as irrelevant to those who plan to work in Vietnam (Nguyen et al., 2017). The second point about neglect of intercultural learning is backed up by a

study in seven other Vietnamese universities (Pham & Doan, 2020), and is a factor often overlooked in reports of both EMI introduction and implementation (Kim et al., 2017).

12.5 Conclusion and Implications for Moving Forward with EMI

Through this study the EMI jigsaw image for Vietnamese undergraduate programs emerges with more component pieces and stronger outlines, indicating both the diversity of experiences and the degree of uncertainty over policy and its implementation. We now further detail this jigsaw using a dialogic agency perspective (Sullivan & McCarthy, 2004), highlighting the agency of participants at the intersection of policy, curriculum and pedagogy. A dialogic agency perspective allows us to see how individuals 'answer' (Bakhtin, 1993) the challenges of policy during implementation, and the extent to which institutional policy responds to the lived realities of teachers and students. Agency from a dialogic perspective is thus two-way and involves 'felt responsibility' (Sullivan & McCarthy, 2004) by participating institutions and individuals.

Students' main reported experiences of institutional decisions were threefold: the English proficiency requirement for entry into the second year, a preliminary year focusing on English language development and related academic skills, and the policy that English be the sole medium of instruction from the second year. They had some freedom to exercise agency in preparing for and participating in the implementation of all three, particularly regarding compliance with English as the sole medium of instruction. Other institutional decisions gave no such freedom. Examples include the wide variation in required English proficiency at the two universities (from 4.5 to 6.0 internal IELTS), the fact that students at Uni2 who had not achieved IELTS 4.5 were still allowed to enter the EMI program without penalties, thus undermining both the policy and their own EMI, and finally the variation in assessment weighting for English language use within oral and written assignments. Such variability clearly indicates a place for government agency to achieve quality assurance nationally.

Students emphasised the importance of the preparatory year (1st year) where they not only learned to improve their English competence but also other skills such as presentation skills, PPT design, note-taking and debating skills. However, they pointed out that the preparation was inadequate in terms of the specialised language of their discipline and provision of strategies for learning through English. This suggests a need for institutional and/or government agency in conducting formal evaluations of such preparatory English programs, but none have yet been published, and government has not yet provided guidelines for curriculum.

Students also complained about insufficient or non-existent English language support during their EMI years, which is in line with the findings in previous Vietnamese studies (Le, 2019; Nguyen et al., 2017). Many students experienced a difficult transition into the first EMI year (2nd year), finding it too hard to understand the lectures and the required learning materials due either to their inadequate English competence, the teacher's English competence, or the academic English and amount of assumed foreign cultural knowledge in the imported textbooks. This suggests a place for government and institutional agency in the form of guidance and funding for ongoing support for EMI into 2nd year and possibly beyond.

Teachers and students individually acted as powerful agents in directly shaping or co-constructing the implementation of EMI policy. Teachers' EMI agency was most frequently illustrated through their translanguaging choices when lecturing, which students reported on positively. This duplicates the finding in Yung-Ting (2015) but appears to oppose that of Nguyen et al. (2017), suggesting a need for further research. Other examples of teacher agency included providing lecture outlines or PowerPoints in advance, allowing or disallowing student translanguaging in student presentations and whole-class questions and answers, and deciding whether group discussion should be in Vietnamese or English. Students in programs where discussion was in English indicated advances in their cognitive academic language competence (Cummins, 1979, 2008) and cognitive discourse functions (Dalton-Puffer, 2011), while students who were still having group discussion in Vietnamese in their final year felt that they had made little progress in English since the end of the first year.

The use of Vietnamese by the teachers in class and their rules for student translanguaging appear to be dialogically responsive to students' need for comprehension and engagement, but at the same time lacking consistency and without any policy guidance or oversight from the institution. Related to this, some students had concerns about over-use of Vietnamese language in class especially in later years, as they saw it as casting doubt upon the authenticity of the EMI program. There seems thus to be a quality assurance issue, which needs to be addressed through both government and university agency in order for EMI implementation to move forward pedagogically.

The strategies students employed to help them learn their course content represent a key demonstration of individual agency, both in class and out of class. They used strategies to understand lecturers' English, such as drawing simultaneously on PowerPoint visuals, asking questions in class or after class, whether in English or Vietnamese or emailing to request advice. They also used translanguaging strategies to help them construct their own meanings during group discussion, whether using mainly Vietnamese (or Thai) with English technical terms or switching between two languages. Outside of class strategies used both languages to more readily access course content. On the one hand, students stressed the importance of knowing technical terms in Vietnamese in order to search the internet to find equivalent first language materials. On the other hand, they used English language Wikipedia and video strategically as a stepping stone to understanding more complex English language versions of content. Whether in class or outside of class, their choice of strategies was a factor of their willingness to exercise agency, and was shaped by both their English competence and their motivations.

Adopting a dialogic perspective in discussing the data has allowed us to represent how teachers and students co-constructed the pedagogical implementation of institutional EMI policy and curriculum decisions. It has also allowed us to identify spaces for moving forward with EMI through further university and government agency in response to students' voice and to the lived realities of EMI programs in action. We argue that understanding and responding to the contextual dimensions of EMI for students and teachers will have positive implications for the effective conduct and outcomes of EMI programs.

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Toan Pham is a lecturer in Education (TESOL) at UniSA Education Futures, University of South Australia. His educational background is in English language teaching and applied linguistics and he completed his PhD in TESOL at University of South Australia. His research areas include TESOL, Interlanguage Pragmatics, and Language and Culture in Education. He is particularly interested in English Medium Instruction and Translanguaging pedagogy.

Jenny Barnett worked for 25 years in the School of Education, University of South Australia, Adelaide. She taught undergraduate and postgraduate courses in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), and supervised doctoral students addressing issues in multilingual learning environments. Until recently, her research and consultancy work focused on the learning and teaching of students in Australia for whom English is an additional language or dialect (EALD), with an emphasis on their learning across the curriculum. This focus has subsequently shifted to English medium education in the Asia–Pacific region more broadly, and particularly in higher education.

Chapter 13
English as Medium of Instruction in Vietnamese Teacher Education: Students' Learning Experiences

Vo Thi Khanh Linh

Abstract English as medium of instruction (EMI) in the provincial universities of Vietnam, where there is almost no opportunity to use English outside class, is currently under-researched. This chapter therefore reports on a practitioner-researcher investigation at a provincial teacher training college, investigating students' learning experiences and how they perceive the effects of EMI on the development of their content knowledge construction and English language performance in a Methodologies course for teaching English in primary schools. Participants were 20s-year students and data were generated from pre- and post-tests, learning diaries, videos of micro-teaching and semi-structured interviews, evidencing students' learning experiences as well as their perspectives on the role of EMI in those experiences. The teacher's pedagogical approach was grounded in Sociocultural Theory (SCT), which highlights the role of language in learning. This provided a valuable framework for supporting students to engage with English as a mediational tool for learning, both in terms of knowledge construction and achieved linguistic solutions. The data provide clear evidence of how students built up their learning through teacher and peer scaffolding within their Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which in turn suggests a number of pedagogical implications for valuable EMI practices.

Keywords English-medium instruction · EMI · Vietnam · Higher education · Teacher education · Learning strategies

13.1 Introduction

While EMI is used now in a range of disciplines in tertiary education, it has particular significance in the preparation of English teachers for primary and secondary schools in the provinces of Vietnam. This is due to the fact that future teachers, especially those qualifying as English language teachers, should be able to contribute effectively

V. T. K. Linh (✉)
Nha Trang National College of Pedagogy, Nha Trang, Vietnam
e-mail: vklinh@sptwnt.edu.vn

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to the development of English proficiency nationwide. This chapter therefore reports a practitioner-researcher investigation in a provincial teacher training college where English was used as the medium of instruction for a single second-year course within a Vietnamese medium program. This course was in Methodologies for teaching English in primary schools, and was thus well-suited for an initial step into EMI. The study investigates students' learning experiences in regard to the effects of EMI on the development of their content knowledge construction and their English language performance. At the same time it details the lecturer's pedagogical efforts to respond to students' difficulties while both she and they engaged in their first trial of EMI. Her aim was to move her EMI practices forward and thus enhance students' whole learning experience.

Content knowledge in Methodologies courses relates to various fields of students' psychology, education and society, in which theories and practices of teaching English to students play a crucial role. Methodologies courses primarily focus on teaching activities, enabling pre-service teachers to adjust English education into local practices (Bui & Nguyen, 2016). Thus, the English-major course at this teachers' training college provides learners with theories and practices for teaching English in Vietnamese primary and junior high schools, including knowledge of curriculum, Methodologies and textbooks, and skills of designing, organising and evaluating teaching activities and solving unexpected classroom situations. Traditionally, due to the complex content knowledge and the inadequate level of students' English language proficiency, lecturers in provincial teacher training colleges delivered lessons in Vietnamese in order to provide these teachers-to-be with the optimal understanding of the required knowledge for better application in future. Consequently, little is known about how EMI is implemented in the micro-level context of such courses and what its effect is on students' experiences of content knowledge construction.

This study adopts Dearden's (2014, p. 4) definition of EMI as 'the use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries where the first language (L1) of the majority of the population is not English'. In other words, English serves as the vehicle for content learning and application, and language proficiency outcomes are implicit or incidental. It is nevertheless reasonable to expect that students' English language performance will improve in a Methodologies course focusing on English language teaching, and that students who have chosen to specialise as English language teachers would be motivated to use EMI as a pathway to improving their proficiency. This might be particularly so for the students in this teacher training college who come from Vietnam's rural areas, sometimes remote highland areas, where there is little use of English in daily life and limited access to English resources. There English teaching and learning is not considered important or appreciated, compared with the big cities. As a result, university entrants from these places cannot easily compete with university students from metropolitan areas in terms of English language proficiency. This means that EMI implementation where there are multiple students from such areas has particular challenges, and therefore research is needed to inform EMI curriculum and pedagogy so that benefits occur.

Evidence of educational benefits that EFL students in EMI courses gain is documented in various Asian contexts (e.g. Chen & Kraklow, 2015; Chu et al., 2018; Fujimoto-Adamson & Adamson, 2018; Huang, 2015; Kim & Yoon, 2018; Kym & Kym, 2014) and to lesser degree in Vietnamese higher education institutions (Dang et al., 2013; Le, 2012; Nguyen et al., 2017; Vu & Burns, 2014). Studies in Taiwanese educational contexts offering student perspectives indicate that students find EMI courses helpful and motivate their learning (Chen & Kraklow, 2015; Huang, 2015) and they are satisfied with content knowledge construction and English language learning through EMI despite experiencing some challenges. Similarly, studies on EMI in Vietnam find that EMI is conducive to both content and language learning and the students have good attitudes towards this new model (Dang et al., 2013; Le, 2012, 2018; Nguyen et al., 2017; Vu & Burns, 2014). Research specifically into students' learning experiences with EMI tells us a good deal about the benefits that Vietnamese learners in EMI programs gain (Dang et al., 2013; Le, 2012; Nguyen et al., 2017; Vu & Burns, 2014). Such studies demonstrate that students improve their English proficiency and demonstrate both content and language achievement by overcoming problems they may have initially encountered with EMI. They gain content knowledge through original English textbooks from leading publishers and they gain generic skills, namely teamwork, critical thinking, problem-solving, and communication skills, which would be highly sought after by international organisations (Le, 2018). While potential English teachers in the rural or remote areas of Vietnam may not be invested in the requirements of international organisations, they surely are invested in improving their language proficiency alongside constructing content knowledge.

However, previous studies in Vietnam and other countries also confirm the challenges and negative impacts of EMI on students (Çankaya, 2017; Do & Le, 2017; Hu & Lei, 2014; Le, 2012, 2018; Nguyen et al., 2017; Vu & Burns, 2014; Yıldız et al., 2017; Zumor, 2019). Multi-level EMI classes comprising students of diverse English language proficiency are common (Do & Le, 2017; Le, 2012; Nguyen et al., 2017), with some individuals having insufficient English proficiency to fully access the curriculum, thus placing pressure on teachers regarding the actual conduct of EMI classes and the role of Vietnamese language. In addition, EMI does not consistently lead to English language proficiency development; students even might feel frustrated and demotivated due to their difficulties in understanding the texts or inability to express themselves and participate in classroom discussion (Le, 2018). In response to such issues, translation and translanguaging have become recognised as essential for the better understanding of terminologies (Do & Le, 2017; Vu & Burns, 2014), especially for lower language proficiency students. Finally, EMI students also have to deal with learning challenges due to conflict with their traditional learning methods and other issues of curricula, learning environment, and teaching and learning facilities (Dang et al., 2013; Vu & Burns, 2014). While insufficient English skills are reported to be one of the biggest problems among Vietnamese undergraduate students generally (Le, 2012; Nguyen et al., 2017Vu & Nguyen, 2004), this is even more so in the provincial colleges and universities where students from rural, highland and

remote areas study. Therefore, research into EMI in such settings is greatly needed, especially with the inclusion of student voice to present reflections on their learning experiences.

13.2 Research Methods

The study was conducted at a teachers' training college in a central province of Vietnam, and involved 20s-year students enrolled in an EMI course in 'Methodologies for teaching English in primary schools'. The teacher education program covers three years of theory and skills development, during which time general and specialist Methodologies courses are compulsory. The Methodologies course in this study covered 60 periods (50 min each), with 48 periods working in class with teachers and the rest self-studying at home. The lessons in class were organised in a double period lasting 100 min twice a week. The lecturer used mainly English, but intentionally chose Vietnamese when students had difficulty grasping content; students' use of English was encouraged in group work and classroom discussion, with Vietnamese also accepted. The theory of learning adopted by the EMI teacher in this Methodologies course was Sociocultural theory (SCT), developed initially by Vygotsky and his colleagues, because SCT highlights the role of language in the learning process as a powerful culturally constructed tool (Vygotsky, 1978). Simply put, in learning contexts, learners use language as the key mediational tool to support their cognitive development and to construct knowledge (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). SCT is thus highly suited both to support and assess Vietnamese student experiences when being required to use English as the mediational tool for learning new content and presenting their ideas. Working in students' zone of proximal development (ZPD) was a feature of the teacher's pedagogy, and the data provide various examples of the potential development which can be achieved with the guidance and support of more knowledgeable others, known as 'scaffolding' in SCT theory (Ohta, 2000; Wood et al., 1976).

About 40% of participants consenting to participate in the study were from highland and remote areas while 35% were from rural areas and 25% from suburban districts of small provinces. Six participants were of ethnic minorities. All students had previously taken courses in grammar, listening skills and speaking skills. This Methodologies course was the first profession-related course in the program, and the first EMI course experienced by the students. Consequently the research seeks answers to two important EMI implementation questions:

a. In what ways did students' content knowledge construction develop through EMI in this Methodologies course?
b. In what ways did students' English language develop through EMI in this Methodologies course?

Both quantitative and qualitative data were sourced, achieving some triangulation of methods.

The quantitative data were generated from analysis of the students' pre- and post-test tasks in terms of error frequency, as reflected in the overall marks given for English language (grammar and lexis) and content. The tasks required students to design one-period lesson plans in English, based on textbooks (designed by MOET and Pearson) for teaching English in grades 3, 4 or 5 (Tieng Anh 3, 4 or 5). The assessment aim of the task was to better understand the students' lesson planning abilities and also their English language performance before and after they joined the EMI class.

Qualitative data comprised videos, learning diaries and interviews. Students' ten-minute micro-teaching sessions, with their partners as primary school pupils, were video-recorded on two separate occasions and transcribed to obtain data on their teaching skills and target language use across the course. Learning diaries were a pedagogical practice inherent in the course, written by students in both English and Vietnamese after each lesson to reflect and report on what they learned, what they were unable to discuss in English, what they found difficult to understand due to the lack of translation and what they did not understand. After every two lessons, the teacher collected and studied all participants' learning diaries, modifying subsequent EMI lessons in response. For example, revision of previous content and simplified versions of materials were provided after students reported that they could not understand the content knowledge fully; also the amount of English use in class was adjusted with more Vietnamese explanation and translation in the class sessions that focused on theory. While the intention of the learning diaries was primarily pedagogical, they also served as valuable research data, analysed thematically and grouped in relation to knowledge construction and English language development.

Additional qualitative data were generated through a ten-minute individual interview conducted in Vietnamese at the end of the course with each of the 20 students, and audio-recorded. The interview addressed ten questions focusing on: further understanding of students' self-reported learning; the challenges encountered; and their suggestions on curriculum, teachers' pedagogy, course organisation and EMI application. Once again the data were analysed thematically in direct relation to the student context and the two research questions.

13.3 Findings

The teacher education students' EMI learning experiences in their 'Methodologies for teaching English in primary schools' course have two key dimensions: knowledge construction and English language development. The former relates to students' construction of course content made available to them through EMI, while the latter relates to how they build up their English language proficiency through engagement with EMI. A key feature of all students' EMI experience was the ZPD scaffolding they received from both teacher and peers, and the scaffolding they themselves supplied to others.

13.3.1 Knowledge Construction Through EMI

During EMI lessons, the teacher used English to give lectures, explain new terminologies, give examples and organise classroom activities. In addition to mediating Methodologies content, the classroom language of EMI not only provides linguistic input but helps students shape their ideas of how to use English in their future roles as English teachers, notably through short and simple classroom commands, appropriate language for lesson planning, and the language to explain and justify their teaching. In other words, one of the benefits of EMI in this particular course is that both the content presented and the language used are of future professional relevance. Participants have potential learning opportunities to immerse themselves in English language input, share some of their ideas in English as much as they can and learn from their teacher's and partner's use of English. The subject-related knowledge partly draws on students' cultural and historical prior experience of English teaching methodology during school, but mainly draws on set textbooks and lectures and on the group activities in the EMI classroom. As a result, students can learn from working together with their teacher and their partners in the EMI class and may co-construct more knowledge.

The types of knowledge gained by the students are indicated in their learning diaries, where they noted the ideas for teaching in primary schools that they encountered during the preceding Methodology class, such as a lesson on 'Teaching vocabulary' or 'How to teach in primary: using games, songs and videos'. One type of knowledge concerned content for future teaching—the 'what' of teaching. S12 provided two such entries three weeks apart, indicating improvement in focus as a potential teacher: the first was 'What to teach in general: pronunciation, parts of speech, how to use antonyms, collocation, lexical fields, register and appropriateness', while the second narrowed down to reflect the reality of teaching vocabulary in primary contexts 'What to teach in primary: pronunciation, spelling, meaning and use'. Another important type of knowledge concerned pedagogical practices—the 'how' of teaching. S18, for example, wrote that 'in order to make good interaction a teacher should look into pupils' eyes while talking, raise the pictures to their eye level and make sure the pictures don't cover the teacher's face'. Writing lesson plans combined both types of knowledge, and students gradually became more proficient at this, although a third of the students mentioned feeling constrained by their English proficiency. S12, for example, said 'when writing lesson plans, I wanted to express a lot of ideas but I couldn't because I didn't know how to express my ideas in English'. That was clearly a frustration, and a disadvantage of EMI for such individuals. More broadly, S1 noted that he/she learned how to design lesson plans mixing more than one method and that when observing the micro-teaching of other students he/she learned how to use classroom English from them.

Data from videos of micro-teaching provides valuable evidence that EMI did not hinder students' construction of subject-related knowledge and that the English medium scaffolding from teachers and partners entailed improvement in their teaching procedures. Over the duration of the course, students' micro-teaching

sessions became more contextualised with a focus on the actual level of primary learners and suitable steps of new language presentation, while their experience of solving unexpected in-class situations became more practical. For example, in an initial micro-teaching session on asking and answering about the time, S19 implemented a procedure for teaching a new structure by modeling between teacher and one student, drills of two halves of the class, drills of two students and finally a role play between the teacher and whole class. The lack of pair work and the unnecessary repetition of the last step made the teaching less effective because the 'students' (i.e. the partners acting as primary school students) did not have time for their own practice and the teacher (S19) still controlled the learning till the end of the lesson. However, after being scaffolded by both teacher and partners through English medium comments on both achievements and weaknesses as well as suggestions for improvements, S19's second micro-teaching session on asking and answering about free time activities was improved with more viable steps, namely presentation of new words and structure with teacher-whole classwork, modeling between two more capable students in front of the class, pair work and then role play of the pairs as a way of consolidation at the end.

EMI students also learned how to cope with unexpected classroom situations from experiencing them in micro-teaching. In S8's first micro-teaching session, he/she just smiled and ignored students' wrong pronunciation, wrong answers and misunderstanding of teacher instructions in the accuracy tasks, whereas in the second session he/she knew to repeat or paraphrase instructions, corrected students with smiles and used finger correction. Similarly, in the second micro-teaching session S16 was able to produce clearer verbal instructions instead of using only gestures as in the first session, which caused a lot of incomprehensible situations and laughter. In other words, the use of EMI mediates students' knowledge construction during processes that are focused on learning methodology. Consequently, the EMI learning process per se becomes the artifact which can be exploited by the teacher as a tool of semiotic mediation to develop students' acquisition of new professional knowledge and skills.

Students' knowledge construction through EMI necessarily varies according to the individual, especially in the context of classes with numerous students of low or medium English proficiency, as in this case. For example, in the interviews students admitted that they found fully understanding materials in English difficult, as well as the lecture content. As S12 recalled, 'The lesson content is a lot so even when I had prepared by reading the materials before the lesson, I couldn't understand it fully'. However, the materials were nonetheless artifacts which mediated their learning to an important degree. S8, for example, specifically claimed the benefits of reading materials in terms of acquiring more vocabulary and terminologies, being conducive to classroom learning, and initiating exploration of new knowledge.

The gains in knowledge construction among these EMI students mainly originated from the tasks set and the language encountered, which was slightly more difficult than what they could readily work with alone, but which they could manage with the assistance of more competent others, such as the teacher, classroom partners and use of a dictionary. Assistance of more competent partners and the teacher was provided in the form of group work, classroom discussion and teacher use of

English in lecturing, explaining and elaborating, as well as her appropriate use of L1 to promote understanding of the lesson content and how English expresses that content. The time consumed in using a dictionary and understanding the meaning of various terminologies was an issue for some students, with S19 admitting that he/she skipped the words or ignored them and that this negatively affected his/her understanding of the texts. More broadly, S8 reported that: 'some students couldn't understand the content of entire lessons and there were many new words which meant students were unable to acquire the content knowledge'. However, a contrasting view was put forward by S16, who asserted the advantages of EMI and its mediation of students' thinking because students could 'make use of chances to think in English, which helps prolong their memory and raise the sense of initiative in learning' (S12).

From an SCT perspective, the learning and the tasks that sometimes fall outside the present ZPD of the students, or their level of immediate potential development, can be acceptable for the ultimate purposes of long-term development. In fact, most students were able to complete the EMI course successfully, although the knowledge benefits they gained varied. On the whole, students confirmed in the end-of-course interviews that they now understood the textbooks better and were able to write appropriate lesson objectives to go with them (S1); they had accumulated more experience of teaching English (S18) and of working in the classroom environment in the role of a teacher (S10); they could choose suitable teaching methods (S11) and design better procedures for teaching English to primary learners (S1). The teacher updating herself on students' learning through the learning diaries and her consequent frequent modification of EMI lessons was felt to directly contribute to students' achievements in the course, not only in regard to knowledge construction, but also in regard to English language development.

13.3.2 Language Development Through EMI

During the end-of-course interview, students were asked to rank their current understanding of the English that the teacher used during the lessons and compare it with their level of understanding at the beginning of the course. There were five levels, from level 1 (do not understand) to 5 (totally understand). 14 out of 20 students acknowledged improvement in their understanding by one level while 6 of them remained at the same level—two of these (S2 and S14) reported that they could understand only at level 2 while the others were more confident from the start (S1, S9 and S20 remained at level 3, and S4 remained at level 4). Among those whose understanding of teacher language improved, five students increased from level 3 to level 4 while the others improved from level 2 to level 3. To be more specific, quantitative and qualitative data together from pre- and post-tests, learning diaries and interviews show that students gained linguistic benefits from the EMI process in terms of pronunciation, vocabulary and structures.

Linguistic analysis of a pre-test and post-test involving the design of a lesson plan indicates that students reduced their mistakes involving wrong words, wrong forms

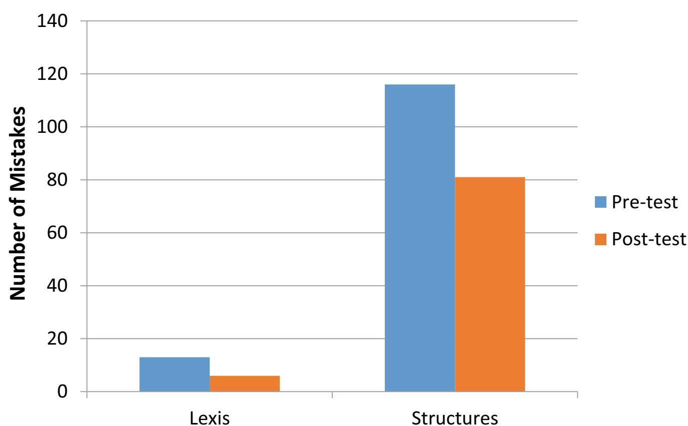

Fig. 13.1 Frequency of English language mistakes in class

of words and inconsistent and non-parallel structures, subject-verb agreement and incorrect tenses (Fig. 13.1).

Most of the students demonstrated more accurate use of English in all their lesson plan writing in the latter part of the course, as well as in their micro-teaching in class, where they had no time to reflect before speaking as they did when writing.

Students reported learning many new words across the course, and a range of specific terminology for teaching English. S12 mentioned that he/she could practice the vocabulary by writing it into the lesson plans. Similarly, S2 recalled, 'I could apply those words to write lesson plans'. S4 said that.

> When the teacher used English in the lessons, I got familiar with the sound and pronunciation of the words. There were many words that I could learn to use as classroom commands in micro teaching and my teaching afterwards. In general, EMI could help me improve my English vocabulary.

The lists of new words and terminologies in students' learning diaries show that students noted down vocabulary according to their language proficiency; in other words each person noted what was new to them. S8, after a lesson on 'Teaching vocabulary', wrote a series of related terms: 'collocation, connotation, lexical sets, productive language, receptive language, synonym and antonym, and finger correction' as well as some new general vocabulary items 'revise, individually, acceptable, random'. S1 mentioned the key terms related to teaching listening skills, namely 'listening with a purpose, listening for gist, listening for specific details, activate background knowledge, connected speech, fillers and predict'. Similarly, S2 wrote the classroom language expressions that he/she learned: 'Are you ready?', 'Open your book at page 75', 'I want you all to join in…' and 'We'll learn how to…'—all of which were then used in micro-teaching. As S12 indicated: 'Learning diaries are very good for learning in this EMI class. Students use them to review the previous lessons, the words, sentences they learned but might forget later'.

Students also reported being required to use all four communicative language skills, although with different frequency. Reading was the least used in class, being limited to working with various textbooks of English teaching, although more technical materials were assigned for reading prior to class. All students found these materials challenging, complaining that they contained too many unfamiliar words, with S12 suggesting the teacher should adapt materials with easy-to-understand language. Some students considered that their reading skill did not greatly improve because they had to translate a lot of learning materials the teacher gave out (S2; S15). However S4 reported improving in skimming technique, and also learning to pick out main ideas and general points in the materials. Students used writing mainly for designing objectives and activities in lesson plans, and writing comments on their partners' micro-teaching. Listening skill was mainly required when the teacher presented content and when peers were micro-teaching. Students mentioned gaining particular benefits when their teacher lectured using simple English language and a slow pace, as they could become familiar with terminologies and absorb pronunciation of new words, which they could then use in similar contexts later. S15 said, 'I improved my listening skill, had more vocabulary to apply into writing lesson plans and could improve my speaking skills'. Speaking, in fact, was reported as the most used English language skill, which is unusual in most EMI tertiary classrooms. However, its high positioning in this course links to two factors (a) the group work focusing on methods for teaching English language, and (b) the course requirement for micro-teaching. Most students commented that they learned to communicate better from working with their partners in group work or answering the teacher's questions, while the micro-teaching directly benefitted their classroom language use.

Videos of successive micro-teaching sessions clearly document such improvements in students' speaking. Over time, the students could produce clearer classroom language, provide more detail and clarity in their instructions to students, and verbally organise the classroom activities more accurately and fluently. Communication apprehension (Horwitz et al., 1986) and attitudes of shyness, embarrassment and lack of confidence in front of the class were gradually overcome through repeated experiences and the encouragement of their partners and their teacher, as with Yashima et al. (2018) results. Microteaching video data confirms that, in general, their pronunciation improved over time. Vietnamese language interference, which entails not pronouncing middle consonants or final consonants when speaking English, was discussed in the course, and became an object of feedback in micro-teaching. Thus, with the assistance of partners and teachers in the form of constructive comments and suggestions precisely in a students' ZPD, they could recognise the issue and reduce their regional accent. After being scaffolded by his/her partner's corrections, S7 reported paying more attention to pronouncing the final sounds of words like 'ask', 'word', 'look' and 'groups' as well correctly sounding 'the' before a vowel. Similarly, S4 reported learning to link sounds to connect two words as in 'what are', 'is it?'

Importantly, classroom language, such as instructions and compliments, was significantly improved, with higher frequency and more complete use in the second

recorded session of micro-teaching. For example, S1 in his/her first micro-teaching session had a very limited approach to setting up an asking-and-answering drill:

> 'Ok, now group A (gesturing a circle and pointing to one side). Ask! (slapping the table twice)' and then 'Ok, now group B (gesturing a circle and pointing to the other side). Answer! (slapping the table twice)'.

The second micro-teaching showed that S1 could produce better instructions as:

> 'Now, we have two groups, Group A (pointing to one side) and Group B (pointing to the other side). Group A asks and Group B answers. Ok, Group A asks (points at Group A)' and then 'Now change. Group B asks and Group A answers.'

Similarly, S3 could use better structures in the second micro-teaching session, namely 'Who can come to the board?' and 'Repeat after me' instead of 'Who can?' and 'Repeat again' as in the first session, while S6 could use more informative instructions like 'Work in pairs. Ask and answer with your partners in one minute about school things'. Students also learned to use a variety of compliments such as 'Good job!', 'Well done!', 'Great!', 'Excellent!' and 'Yes!' instead of just repeating 'Good!'.

The micro-teaching partnerships provided plentiful opportunities for students to scaffold each other's learning, drawn from observing and evaluating the teaching activities, and students commented on the benefits both of receiving and providing such scaffolding at their particular ZPD moment of readiness. In this way, the EMI course pedagogy simultaneously mediated the students' English language development and their knowledge construction.

13.4 Discussion

EMI in this Methodologies course has been shown to have some major advantages in terms of both content knowledge construction and language learning benefits, which is in line with previous studies such as Dang et al. (2013), Le (2012), Nguyen et al. (2017) and Vu and Burns (2014). Students' accounts of their learning experiences show them using English to specify lesson objectives, design suitable classroom activities, plan rational procedures of English teaching for primary learners, organise designed activities flexibly and respond to unexpected situations. This subject-related knowledge was mediated both through EMI and the deliberate scaffolding of partners and teachers within the students' ZPD of content and English proficiency.

Prior knowledge and learning habits played an important role in students' final academic results. Not all students achieved similar satisfactory profession-related knowledge, as was found in the study by Yip et al. (2003) in which EMI students did not fully comprehend terms and concepts. A key factor was students' inadequate English proficiency, causing difficulty with terminology, as in Le (2018) and Kırkgöz (2005), and with understanding lectures, expressing their ideas and applying their knowledge to designing logical lesson plans. Students called for additional sources of input such as Vietnamese textbooks, simplified versions of English reading materials

and teacher translation to help them understand the content in depth. Additionally, students' prior experience of traditional teacher-led teaching in school impeded their capacity to design lesson plans in accordance with communicative language teaching principles, as required by the MOET. Finally, the workload of reading English materials and writing learning diaries was contrary to some students' learning habits and strategies, which kept them from gaining optimal learning benefits.

Linguistic benefits that students saw as deriving from EMI were consistent with findings by Dang et al. (2013), Le (2012), Nguyen et al. (2017) and Vu and Burns (2014). Students believed their improved English performance, especially their classroom language and skills, was directly mediated through the use of EMI, with specific skills improving in accordance with the focus of the coursework (Li et al., 2001). Skills of writing, listening and especially speaking were more developed due to the requirements of writing lesson plans, engaging with lectures, and performing micro-teaching. On the other hand, reading skill was hampered by reliance on dictionary use and translation.

Unlike previous accounts of the negative impacts of EMI classes with multiple levels of proficiency (Do & Le, 2017), this study indicates that setting up opportunities for scaffolding between more capable students and less capable ones can result in improved English language use (e.g. pronunciation and classroom language). Students benefited when being linguistically assisted within their ZPD and in direct response to their micro-teaching. Additionally, the benefits of L1 use when teaching students with inadequate English language proficiency were evident, in line with Shohamy (2012), Mohamed (2013) and Vu and Burns (2014). The teacher's translation when students could not understand the lessons, as well as students' use of Vietnamese in discussing together, helped mediate knowledge construction.

13.5 Conclusion and Implications for Moving Forward with EMI

This study has provided a student view of the benefits and challenges of EMI in a Methodologies course for teaching English in primary schools in a rural Vietnamese province. The perspectives from sociocultural theory (SCT) that were embedded in the teacher's classroom pedagogy also facilitated analysis of students' experiences of English as a mediational tool for knowledge construction and language development, including scaffolding within their ZPD.

The 20 students involved successfully gained the required content knowledge, namely writing lesson plans, designing suitable teaching activities, organising those designed activities and giving comments on their partners' teaching. To varying degrees, students also improved their linguistic performance related to their future profession. For example, improved speaking skills included better classroom commands and informative instructions, while improved writing skills led to

more detailed lesson plans. Thus, the students experienced benefits of both knowledge construction and language development through this new way of teaching and learning their content subject. At the same time, the students also encountered challenges due to insufficient English proficiency, especially in reading professional materials in English and in group discussions.

The students' experiences of EMI, both beneficial and challenging, have several core pedagogical implications for moving forward with EMI in Vietnamese universities, in essence confirming the view of Vu and Burns (2014) that, in order to achieve the objectives of EMI lessons, teachers need to spend considerable time and effort to prepare and adjust lesson plans and design English materials. Consistently, the results also suggest that EMI teachers should focus on preparing suitable English reading materials to guarantee content access, as with Vu's (2017) English textbooks, and on simplifying their English when giving lectures, to support students' language development as well as content access. Teachers need to make frequent modifications of EMI lessons, taking into account students' actual level of English and their immediate learning needs, and design supportive learning activities within students' ZPD. They should also encourage English use as a mediational tool among students, and pair students of different language abilities to maximise learning opportunities. They themselves should use English just slightly above students' proficiency and at appropriate speed, and accept 'imperfect' English from students giving suitable corrections later.

The fact that lesson content in this study was delivered in both English and Vietnamese contributed importantly to students' learning achievements. The use of translation and L1 in some stages of EMI lessons scaffolds the content learning and mediates knowledge construction. This suggests the value of 'a bilingual curriculum' (Belhiah & Elhami, 2015) or a 'hybrid' model (Fujimoto-Adamson & Adamson, 2018) in which the students' L1 is used for discussions, background reading and within some content tasks. Pedagogically, L1 use should be accepted as a mediational tool for deep knowledge learning and the amount of L1 use should be less in practical lessons than in theoretical ones.

This study has also shown the use of learning diaries to be valuable in two important ways: in helping EMI students reflect on their learning and develop learning strategies and initiative for grasping theory and practicing skills, and as a useful tool to keep EMI teachers updated with their students' content acquisition and linguistic problems and thus to facilitate appropriate adaptation as the course proceeds. The use of learning diaries after EMI lessons is therefore highly recommended as a means of addressing potential problems and bridging the gap between teachers' expectations and students' actual levels of English proficiency and ease of content access.

In sum, it is evident from the students' learning experiences reported in this chapter that learner-centred pedagogies grounded in sociocultural learning theory have the potential to facilitate both knowledge construction and English language development within an EMI course, and that a flexible use of Vietnamese language is essential for the achievement of both when students start with limited English proficiency. The pedagogies used in this class all offer ways of moving forward with EMI to achieve the intended educational goals.

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Vo Thi Khanh Linh is a teacher of English in Nha Trang National College of Pedagogy, a teachers' training college in the Centre of Vietnam. Some of her publications focus on teaching English to students of Tourism, teaching English to preschool children and peer interaction in EFL classes. She obtained her Master's degree in Applied Linguistics at Curtin University, Australia and her Ph.D. in TESOL at Hue University of Foreign Languages, Vietnam. She is interested in teaching English methodologies, classroom interactions, EMI and digital technologies in ELT.

Chapter 14
Student Strategies in an Undergraduate English-Medium Business Course: A Vietnamese Case Study

Thi Quynh Huong Luu and Thi Ngoc Diep Hoang

Abstract Calling on data from a university case study in Vietnam, this chapter reveals students' learning strategies used to address their difficulties in taking English-medium instruction (EMI) courses. 36 third-year students majoring in International Business and Logistics completed an open-ended questionnaire, and seven students provided individual semi-structured interviews. Students struggled with six distinct aspects of learning: general language-related issues, language-related issues in understanding academic content, certain types of teaching pedagogy employed by lecturers, assessment, learning resources, and workloads. Their pre-class, in-class, and post-class strategies mainly focused on language-related issues in understanding academic content. The students made pre-class preparation by investigating the given materials, searching for related resources in Vietnamese, or looking up new terminology. In-class strategies aimed to maximise their content understanding, and included taking notes in both English and Vietnamese, guessing the meaning from the context, illustrating abstract theories by examples or diagrams, and consulting lecturers or classmates for clarification. After classes, they listened to their class recordings to gain a better understanding; they also asked for explanations from students in senior years. These strategies are shown to have clear implications for administrators, lecturers, and students in regard to moving forward with EMI teaching and learning practices.

Keywords English-medium instruction · EMI · Vietnam · Higher education · Business education · Learning strategies

T. Q. H. Luu (✉) · T. N. D. Hoang
Vietnam Maritime University, Haiphong, Vietnam
e-mail: huonglq.nn@vimaru.edu.au

T. N. D. Hoang
e-mail: diepthn@vimaru.edu.vn

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14.1 Introduction

Global higher education has experienced a number of changes in the last two decades, of which internationalisation is one of the most prominent and powerful (Rumbley et al., 2012). Related to this, a significant international trend is the adoption of English-Medium-Instruction (EMI) programs in higher educational institutions. In Vietnam, EMI has been implemented at postgraduate levels since the 1990s, and since the 2000s at undergraduate level (Nguyen, 2018). This chapter refers to an undergraduate EMI cohort at one regional public university, and focuses both on the difficulties students encountered and more particularly on the strategies they developed in response to those difficulties.

The participating university commenced its undergraduate EMI engagement in 2009, in cooperation with international universities. The university leadership decided against Joint Programs, which would have involved borrowing whole programs from their international partners, including the full curriculum and teaching resources. Instead, they engaged in Advanced Programs, in which the borrowings could be adjusted or adapted to align with local programs and interests (Nguyen et al., 2017). While Joint Programs offer students an overseas qualification, Advanced Programs offer local degrees. The university is currently running three Advanced Programs: International Business and Logistics, Global Marketing and Administration, and Business Marketing Management. All three programs are imported from co-operating partners, with some changes to adapt to the local context. All materials are entirely in English, and all academic subjects are delivered in English from the second year by both Vietnamese and overseas lecturers. This chapter demonstrates students' ways of moving forward in their engagement with EMI, recognising their difficulties and developing productive strategies.

14.2 Literature Review

EMI programs initially mushroomed in Europe as a result of the Bologna Process (European Commission, 1999), and shortly spread to the rest of the world, resulting in EMI education becoming a considerable research field. On the one hand, research revealed that students could benefit from taking EMI programs, such as having better future career prospects (Kırkgöz, 2005), since these programs provide students with necessary skills and knowledge to enhance their competitiveness in the context of globalisation and internationalisation (Hamid et al., 2013; Jensen & Thøgersen, 2011; Li & Wu, 2017). On the other hand, a number of difficulties have been recorded from the perspectives of learners, teachers, and administrators, of which the former are the focus here.

Research on challenges for students taking EMI programs reveals both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Regarding intrinsic factors, most students report that their inadequate English competence prevents them from achieving lesson comprehension (e.g.

Belhiah & Elhami, 2015; Collins, 2010). Students also find it hard to deal with the range of technical and academic vocabulary (Yıldız et al., 2017) as well as take notes during lessons (Hellekjær, 2010).

Extrinsic factors come from various sources. For example, students complain about the limited English proficiency of local lecturers, which interferes with lecture comprehension (Aslan, 2016). On the other hand, with foreign lecturers who are native English speakers or have high competence in English, students struggle with unfamiliar accents and rapid speaking speed (Le, 2017). Lecturers' style of classroom instruction is another problem reported, particularly by students studying abroad, who have to accommodate a different style of teaching from what they are used to. He and Chiang (2016) report on international students' problems when taking EMI courses in China, where the lecturers often considered themselves as information providers and students as receivers, and where classrooms had few interactive activities and little discussion or explanation about the teaching content. Taking EMI courses means students have to read many materials in English, which increases their workload. In addition, students find difficulties in searching for related reading materials (Yang et al., 2019). As a result of such learning demands, their level of anxiety is high, to the extent that students in some places express resistance to EMI due to the extent of the difficulties they have to cope with (Huang, 2018).

However, there are some reports of students developing various strategies to compensate for their low English level, such as asking lecturers after class, conducting cooperative learning in groups (Yeh, 2014), or preparing lessons at home in advance (Airey & Linder, 2006). Soruç and Griffiths (2017) have identified a variety of cognitive strategies students have applied to overcome difficulties in learning, such as asking questions, visualising, and using prior experience. In order to deal with vocabulary difficulties, students reported frequent usage of strategies such as guessing from context, using a dictionary, or translating. From China, Yang et al. (2019) reported on medical students' strategies to adapt to challenges in EMI programs. For example, students actively managed to find additional reading materials or simplified versions in Chinese to compensate for insufficient or inappropriate EMI teaching resources.

Nevertheless, according to Macaro (2018), there is a dearth of studies investigating strategies used by students to accommodate their EMI learning environment. This is certainly true in Vietnam where, although EMI programs have been widely implemented nationwide, there is limited research in the field, and students' strategies in EMI courses are largely unexamined. A study conducted by Le (2017) into the broad area of students' experience reported students' dissatisfaction with lecturers' inadequate English competence, specifying their difficulties but without any further investigation into students' learning strategies. Aiming to bring out more details on this topic, this chapter reports on a study of students' difficulties in taking EMI courses and their various strategies to cope with those difficulties within the particular setting of one Vietnamese university.

14.3 Research Context, Participants, and Method of Investigation

14.3.1 Research Context

This study took place within a four-year Advanced Program in International Business and Logistics at the public university referred to earlier. In Vietnam, universities admit students based on the scores they achieved in the National High School Exit Exam, and each university has its own benchmark. To be accepted into this university's Advanced Programs, applicants first need to satisfy the cut-off admission score. With a possible maximum score of 30, they need to achieve at least 21.5 in one of the four following groups of subjects: Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry; Mathematics, Physics, English; Mathematics, Vietnamese Literature, Chemistry; or Mathematics, Vietnamese Literature, English.

The English language entry requirements are more flexible, in order to cater for a wide range of proficiencies. Students who have an English certificate of at least TOEIC 600 or IELTS 5.5 or other equivalent are exempted from the first-year preparatory English course. All other students have to take a Basic English course over 30 weeks during their first year. At the end of the first year, those students take a mandatory internal IELTS test to determine if they will be allowed to study specialised subjects through EMI from the second year. The required score for this internal test is IELTS 4.0—considerably lower than the IELTS 5.5 required of students having an international certificate at the beginning of the first year. In the IELTS documentation, the overall description for IELTS 4.0 is 'limited user', with students said to have a basic competence limited to familiar situations, to frequently experience problems in understanding and expression, and not to be able to use complex language (IDP, 2020). This means that such students will need to rapidly improve their English in order to achieve adequate content learning in the discipline.

In their second year, the students start on their content subjects through EMI and continue to take English subjects such as English for Logistics, English Composition, Speech Communication, and Advanced Writing. Those English courses provide students with basic terminologies and study skills related to their major. In the third and fourth years, there are no such English language courses, and students are expected to continue to develop their English through the EMI content courses and through self-study. In order to graduate, the language outcome requirement is IELTS 6.0.

Thirty percent of lecturers in the content subjects in this program are foreigners, either from English-speaking countries or countries widely implementing EMI, for example, Japan, Norway, or Turkey. Vietnamese lecturers need to have at least a Master's degree with IELTS 7.0 or an overseas qualification from an English-speaking country. Some Vietnamese lecturers previously attended a one-semester English language training program at the overseas university from which the teaching program was borrowed. This allowed them not only to improve their English, but to become familiar with ways of teaching in such a university.

14.3.2 Participants and Method of Investigation

This case study of university students' difficulties and responsive strategies was carried out with a class of third-year students enrolled in an Advanced Program at the participant university in Vietnam. Survey data came from 36 students (22 females, 14 males), most of whom were Vietnamese (n = 34), while two were Burmese (n = 2).

Data were generated using an open-ended questionnaire with 36 respondents and individual semi-structured interviews with seven students. Both the questionnaire and the interview were in Vietnamese for local students and English for international peers. The survey comprised three questions. The first background question asked for participants' self-evaluated English proficiency, as a means of better interpreting the next two items that were the focus of the study. The second question asked students to list their difficulties in studying in the EMI environment, while the third one asked for their strategies to deal with those difficulties. The semi-structured interview aimed to explore the story behind the information given in the questionnaire to reach a deeper understanding. The qualitative data in the survey and semi-structured interviews were analysed by adopting a grounded theory approach. Grouping related items enabled coding of all the difficulties and respective strategies. The quantitative perspective is related to the number of students mentioning the same or similar challenges and strategies.

14.4 Students' Difficulties in Coping With Their EMI Program

The majority of students rated their English as Average (72.2%); a small number (16.7%) rated themselves as Poor, while an even lower number (11.1%) rated themselves as Good. No one rated himself or herself as Very Good or Very Poor. As might be expected, students who rated their English proficiency as Poor or Average mentioned more difficulties than those who rated themselves as Good. In fact, the open-ended questionnaires recorded a wide variety of difficulties that the students faced when taking EMI courses. These we clustered into six themes: listening comprehension (38 mentions), grasping academic content (38 mentions), workload (10 mentions), assessment (9 mentions), speaking in English (6 mentions), and teaching method (3 mentions).

Students' emphasis on difficulties related to listening comprehension and grasping academic content clearly reflects a classroom emphasis on the use of language for knowledge transmission from lecturer to students. Difficulties in listening comprehension are illustrated in Table 14.1.

Students who rated their English as Poor (16.7%) or Average (72.2%) identified two contrasting sources of their listening comprehension difficulties: internal and external. In terms of the internal source, students believed that their own inadequate

Table 14.1 Difficulties in listening comprehension

No	Difficulties in listening comprehension	Students N = 36
1	The foreign teachers speak too fast	16
2	Listening and understanding the lesson at the same time	7
3	Understanding the course itself because of my low English level	6
4	Some Vietnamese teachers speak English not very well or fluently	5
5	Foreign teachers' use of idioms or abbreviations	2
6	Understanding foreign students' speech	2
Total		**38**

English was the cause of them having trouble in absorbing knowledge in English (items 2 and 3, totalling 13 mentions).

> S6: My listening skills are bad. I could not understand the foreign lecturers. In addition, my ESP vocabulary is limited, which makes the lesson hard to follow.

> S5: I found it difficult to keep up with the lectures since I could just understand words or phrases in the lessons. However, I could not get the overall meaning of what the lecturers said.

In terms of the external source, some students laid the blame squarely onto their teachers. On the one hand, the international lecturers were blamed for speaking too fast (item 1, with 16 mentions) and using idioms or abbreviations (item 5, with 2 mentions); on the other hand, some Vietnamese teachers were blamed for the quality of their English and lacking fluency (item 4, with 5 mentions).

> S5: I have problems keeping up with the speaking pace of foreign lecturers. I can understand single words or phrases but not the overall meaning of the ideas.

> S4: Lecturers speak different types of English, such as Australian English or American English, with different accents, and I do not understand, especially with elderly lecturers.

> S3: Vietnamese lecturers sometimes do not pronounce correctly; therefore, I did not pay much attention to their lessons. I prefer to do self-study to comprehend the lessons.

From these statements, it can be inferred that such students learn little from the lectures they attend, adding to their self-study workloads.

The specific difficulties students mentioned regarding grasping academic content were mainly related to the number and meaning of technical terms (23 mentions), which also links to the difficulty of the content itself.

> S2: There are too many technical terms, which are hard to find equivalents for in Vietnamese. When I search on the Internet, those terms are explained in English. Thus, it is not easy to understand.

> S7: I always have to spend lots of time looking up all technical terms in revising and preparing for lessons.

Once again we see the additional self-study workload associated with EMI classes. This finding that technical terms are hard to understand, and yet essential to achieve a full understanding of content, is consistent with previous studies (Yıldız et al., 2017). The vocabulary difficulty is exacerbated because the materials reflect international settings unfamiliar to Vietnamese students, making it difficult for them to process the key concepts.

Students also reported a heavy workload integral to the course itself, which included a lot of reading materials to digest, as well as homework and short deadlines. This was exacerbated when international lecturers visited just for a short period, meaning that students had to complete a subject within a tight time frame, with continuous deadlines and tests, as well as intensive preparation for classes. The students mention becoming stressed and not having sufficient time to digest the knowledge.

The next problem area revealed by the student questionnaire concerns assessment, which is not mentioned in previous research on EMI learner difficulties but was mentioned by 9 of the 36 students. The interviews suggest that the primary assessment challenge relates to the emphasis on questions requiring higher order thinking rather than memory alone.

> S1: Tests require students' understanding of the classes, synthesising all the content of the subject rather than learning it all by heart. Thus, sometimes I do not know whether I answered the question correctly or not.

While Vietnamese students are used to memorising knowledge for assessment (Luong, 2015), they have not been taught how to synthesise knowledge and apply it in unfamiliar contexts. Therefore, both the language and the expectations of assessment were obstacles for them.

Concerning speaking skills, students found it hard to use English when answering questions (2 mentions), even if they knew the content.

> S5: When the teacher asks me questions, I always find it difficult to express my ideas in English even though I understand the questions and know the answers. However, I try as hard as I can to answer in English, but I think I can express only 40–50%. Then the teacher adds more information or asks other students to give additional ideas.

Students also needed to give presentations in English, which they found stressful.

> S4: I often feel nervous when making a presentation because I am not confident about my English or the presented content.

While it is natural for students to be nervous about the quality of their presented content, when EMI is at play students not only are uncertain about their spoken English but carry an additional uncertainty about whether or not they have fully understood the input provided.

The last area of difficulty, teaching method, was identified by only three students, perhaps reflecting a cultural unwillingness to criticise the teacher or because of uncertainty as to whether their own English proficiency was the problem rather than teaching method. It was reported that some lecturers simply read out the content of prepared slides with few explanations or questions for students, so students just

passively listened and took notes in a low-interactive environment. Additionally, students reported being unhappy with a fast teaching pace since too much knowledge is given in a short time (S7).

Across the six categories of difficulty, students indicated both intrinsic and extrinsic factors as causally involved. Intrinsic factors were mainly rooted in students' English competence, notably their inadequate listening ability and their limited vocabulary knowledge. Extrinsic factors were various: the technical or academic language associated with course content, lecturers' use of English, a tight and demanding learning schedule, challenging assessment, and boring teaching methods. It can also be seen that the difficulties reported by students interact with each other. Students' limited language ability contributed to their problems in understanding the content, which in turn impacted on their workload since they needed more time and effort to study.

14.5 Students' Strategies to Cope With Difficulties

To address both intrinsic and extrinsic sources of their difficulties, students referred to 23 strategies they used (56 questionnaire mentions), both personal and interpersonal, aiming to enhance their English competence and improve lesson comprehension. Oral communication (listening and speaking) was a key focus (Table 14.2).

Most students believed that direct study was essential (items 1 & 2 with 13 mentions). This included practicing IELTS-oriented tests, reflecting the value placed by the university and student peers on achieving a high IELTS score, and the belief that a high score was directly related to the level of fluency.

In order to sharpen their listening skills, students employed various personal strategies while at home, such as practicing IELTS listening tests or watching films without subtitles. At university, the students adopted both personal and interpersonal strategies, such as concentrating during lectures, sitting near the teachers, or asking classmates.

Table 14.2 Strategies addressing oral difficulties

No	Strategies addressing oral difficulties	Students n = 36
1	Enhancing language competence through self-study or taking English courses	7
2	Improving listening skills through self-study	6
3	Communicating with international students and other English language users	3
4	Doing presentations	2
5	Being confident in communication	1
6	Practising speaking skills	1
7	Seeking help from friends good at English	1
Total		**21**

Table 14.3 Strategies addressing difficulties with academic content

No	Strategies addressing difficulties with academic content	Students n = 36
1	Enlarging their repertoire of technical terms	8
2	Reading academic materials related to subjects in Vietnamese	7
3	Paying attention to the lectures	4
4	Asking senior students for advice on content or assignment preparation	4
5	Discussing with friends after class	3
6	Taking notes during the lessons	2
7	Discussing with lecturers after class	1
8	Translating all the content into Vietnamese	1
9	Finding key elements, summarise the course content	1
10	Preparing the lesson in advance	1
Total		**32**

S6: In classes, if I do not understand what the lecturers said, I often ask my classmate(s) next to me during lessons or break time.

S5: I found keeping up with lectures is difficult. In that case, I like asking my desk mate or the teaching assistant. However, very few subjects have a teaching assistant.

Students also employed many personal strategies to enhance their speaking skills: from specific strategies such as doing presentations (2 mentions) to more general statements, for example, being confident in communication, practicing speaking skills (1 mention each). Some also referred to interpersonal strategies such as communicating with international students and lecturers (1 mention) and seeking help from students with good English (1 mention).

To overcome difficulties in understanding and learning academic content, students' questionnaire responses indicated a very different set of personal and interpersonal strategies, as shown in Table 14.3.

The students proposed both personal strategies (Items 1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 9, 10) and interpersonal strategies (Items 4, 5, 7) to deal with obstacles in accessing and understanding academic content. These strategies are related to moments either before class (Items 2, 10), during class (Items 3, 5), or after class (Items 1, 4, 7, 8, 9). Before class, students prepared in advance by reading given slides and looking up new words in the dictionary or searching for technical terms on the Internet. During class, students tried to take notes in English and/or Vietnamese for later revision. After class, they would ask friends or lecturers to explain some ideas they were uncertain about, as well as ask senior students for advice on dealing with difficulties in studying. Students also tried to read supplementary materials or find reading sources in Vietnamese for an intensive understanding of the lesson content. Generally, students considered self-study as the critical element to acquire knowledge—seven out of ten mentions were personal strategies.

> S6: I print out the slides that my lecturers sent in advance and find the meaning of specialised vocabulary

> S2: I often record the lesson and take notes. If the lecturers speak too fast, I will note in both English and Vietnamese. I will replay the lessons and look at the notes to clarify parts that I did not understand.

> S4: With unfamiliar terminology, I often note down then search Google for the meaning or explanation. If it is hard to understand, I try to find illustrations…

In regard to assessment, students mentioned few strategies to cope with challenges, the most common way being to study hard for the final test. Also, although the students complained about the busy schedule, once again nobody suggested any ways of dealing with this problem apart from working hard, especially prior to the exams. Concerning 'lecturers' ineffective teaching method', the students did not give any formal feedback to the lecturers or institution but responded during class in a negative way by choosing to play games rather than attempt to actively engage.

Nevertheless, a few students did make suggestions for external strategies on the part of the institution. One was to have more bilingual teaching assistants in classes taught by international lecturers, so students can ask for explanations, clarifications, or a Vietnamese equivalent if necessary.

> S6: I hope that there are more teaching assistants in classes given by foreign lecturers. They can help us to interpret technical terms or 'lecturers' instructions.

> S5: I would like to have a teaching assistant in some difficult subjects or to tutor homework because I feel embarrassed when asking lecturers so many questions.

The other external strategy was twofold: to improve and update the first-year ESP course and to provide an ESP subject in the second year:

> S4: I think the ESP subject should be revised to provide students with more related terminology. It also can be an optional subject for students in the second year. Students could either choose to take the ESP subject or not depending on their confidence in their knowledge of technical vocabulary.

As mentioned earlier, there are four second-year English language courses offered: English for Logistics, English Composition, Speech Communication, and Advanced Writing. While English for Logistics is targeted towards students' broad discipline area, the other three are not, indicating a possible gap in provisions.

14.6 Conclusion and Implications for Moving Forward with EMI

Consistent with previous studies on students' experience of EMI (e.g. Jiang et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2019), language competence is the main difficulty that the students faced in this study, causing them trouble in understanding both lectures and learning resources. Additionally, students complained about the local lecturers' inadequate

English speaking skills, including inappropriate pronunciation; this too has been found in other studies (Byun et al., 2011, and this volume, Chapter 12). Students also encountered difficulties in understanding native speakers due to their unfamiliar accents or fast speaking speed.

Regarding extrinsic factors such as lecturer language delivery, lecturers' pedagogy, academic content, teaching schedule, or assessment, students proposed a number of suggestions. To deal with lecturer language delivery, students showed a preference for being taught by native English speakers. With non-native and Vietnamese lecturers, the students requested that the School be more selective in recruiting lecturers with a high level of English fluency, especially in pronunciation. To improve teaching quality, the students suggested that lecturers should have more interactive activities that can attract students to engage in the lesson. Also the given knowledge should be more specific with more explanations as well as meaningful application and practice. Vietnamese lecturers should explain technical terms or difficult content in English. The students also preferred lecturers to slow down their pace. Difficulties regarding pace and understanding course content have also been noted as issues in first language undergraduate classes (Hellekjær, 2010), with these being intensified in EMI settings. In terms of assessment, the students suggested that English grammatical errors should not be included in the evaluation. They believed that lecturers should be more generous in giving marks, and tests should be easier to suit their level. They wanted the number of presentations and assessments to be reduced.

To address intrinsic factors related to language, especially in understanding academic content, the students mostly turned to internal cognitive strategies such as self-study or hard work, including practicing at home via IELTS practice tests, watching TV programs or series in English with or without subtitles, taking English courses at language centres, reading materials in English and looking for similar reading sources in Vietnamese, and translating new words into Vietnamese. In the same vein, some committed to paying more attention to the lectures by focusing closely during class hours and taking notes. All the students primarily mentioned personal strategies like these, but some also referred to a few interpersonal strategies, mainly for achieving a better understanding of content. These included discussing with lecturers and classmates after class or asking senior students about their experience in learning, taking exams, or preparing assignments.

These strategies indicate the students' sense of responsibility for solving their difficulties themselves. However, no students mentioned seeking formal solutions through the intervention of university administrators and the establishment of institutional support systems, although some students did mention ideas for institutional change. Thus, while they saw a need for some institutional actions to improve EMI offerings, they had not to date made their voice heard by program administrators through the student feedback pathway. This suggests that the students did not see that as either their right or their responsibility, which in turn suggests that the institution should more actively seek out student feedback. Implicit feedback from this study of student perspectives suggests a number of implications for moving forward

with EMI pedagogically, whether on the part of students, lecturers, institutional administrators, or policymakers.

First, since English competence is the main problem reported by students, it is suggested that universities should review the English language entry requirements for future EMI students, to reflect the cognitive expectations of the disciplines involved. As mentioned above, the current minimum requirement for students to commence EMI coursework in the institution where this study took place was 5.5 IELTS for those who were exempted from the preliminary English language courses and 4.0 IELTS for those having taken the one-year English preparation courses. This level of competence clearly did not allow students to readily engage with the cognitive challenges involved in their undergraduate EMI coursework, especially lessons taught by overseas lecturers and with international learning materials.

Second, while some supporting English classes were available for second-year students at this university, there is a clear need for English development related directly to students' actual studies within their discipline. Such a focus would highlight skills for listening and speaking in class, and the language related to the content of the discipline. This need is implicit in the strategies developed by students in this study, which mainly served the purpose of understanding the lectures, in other words accessing the knowledge for which they had enrolled. However, connecting English development to students' disciplinary studies requires content and language teachers to work closely together, which in turn requires policy direction and resourcing from university management.

Third, the internal strategies reported by the students denote their current learning capability, which is still at a low level in terms of the cognitive processes involved and does not reflect the higher order thinking and academic literacy required to succeed in an EMI program. To benefit from the Advanced Programs that they are attending, students should be helped to gain some additional meta-cognitive strategies and step further into acquiring, synthesising, evaluating, and applying knowledge. EMI lecturers and EMI program administrators need to carefully consider this issue, given that teaching, learning, and assessment hold a reflexive relationship. The institution should provide students with some additional training through tutorials or workshops to introduce them to the nature of undergraduate EMI study, making clear that EMI is not just a language shift but also a learning shift. Learning is not solely to remember knowledge but also to become a critical thinker.

Fourth, students struggled with technical terms in learning academic subjects in English. It is therefore recommended that lecturers regularly provide students with glossaries of terms in their subjects, using English with Vietnamese equivalents. It is important for students to have the necessary knowledge of technical terms before studying each new topic (Airey & Linder, 2006; Hellekjær, 2010). It is also suggested that universities should not only provide students with intensive General English courses in first year, but also courses in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses introducing specialised terminology related to their proposed majors. Additionally, ESP courses provided for EMI students should be constantly updated to reflect ESP teaching materials with reference to ongoing teaching and learning resources in EMI courses; this would enhance the

authenticity of the ESP experience for students. To this end, a collaboration between content specialists and English language specialists would be highly beneficial.

Fifth, students have complained about busy and unstable learning schedules and workloads with large amounts of reading to be done in a short space of time. This calls for institutional consideration of arranging suitable learning schedules and workloads, so the students can deal with learning academic content effectively in a foreign language.

Sixth, it is evident that students' difficulties are partly caused by some lecturers' ineffective teaching methods, which lead to negative reactions among students, as reported in this study and elsewhere (e.g., Huang, 2018; and Chapter 12 in this volume). Therefore, EMI lecturers should be provided with in-service training related to EMI teaching. Currently, limited professional development of EMI lecturers has been conducted, and at the time of writing there was no official EMI preservice teacher training in Vietnam.

The seventh and final implication is that students should not only be encouraged to develop strategies to deal with intrinsic factors causing difficulties in undertaking EMI courses, but also to give feedback to the institution to let them know about extrinsic factors affecting their learning situation. Universities should actively encourage feedback and also invite suggestions about dealing with specific problems. For example, implicit feedback from students in this study indicates that institutional responsibility lies in improving its own processes, including regulation and support for students' English language proficiency, appropriate selection and training of lecturers, localising program and teaching content, and either adjusting assessment or actively scaffolding students' transition into EMI types of assessment.

This study has also raised some implications for further research, especially in the context of tertiary institutions in Vietnam. First, future studies into student difficulties and responsive strategies should involve various types of universities in different settings and include a range of disciplines. Second, research into EMI learning could investigate strategy variation among students on the basis of gender, discipline, home language, English entry levels, and grade point average scores. Third, a longitudinal study could be conducted to see how effective are the strategies employed by students and in what ways their strategies change over time.

To conclude, such research studies, as well as the student reflections in the present study, can provide valuable input for moving forward with EMI as an educational enterprise, whether for policymakers, institutional administrators, or designers of professional development programs for EMI lecturers. Such input can inform decisions regarding EMI processes and practices to effectively address real EMI issues in particular contexts.

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Luu Thi Quynh Huong is a lecturer at Vietnam Maritime University. She received her Bachelor's degree at the College of Foreign Language and International Studies, Vietnam National University, Hanoi, and her Master of Arts degree at Northumbria University, UK. She is currently a PhD student at the University of Newcastle, Australia. Her research interests include teaching pedagogies and strategies, English for specific purposes, culture in language education, and English-medium instruction.

Hoang Thi Ngoc Diep is a lecturer at Vietnam Maritime University and currently a PhD student at Vietnam National University, Hanoi. She has been involved in teaching English, English for Specific Purposes and some content subjects through the medium of English. Her research interests include language education, genre analysis, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English as Medium of Instruction (EMI).

Chapter 15
Commentary: EMI in Vietnamese Universities—The Value of a Socio-ecological Perspective

Anne Burns

Abstract This chapter responds to research studies carried out by the authors in this section and comments on critical issues and key insights from their research at the macro, meso and micro levels. The three chapters make an important contribution to debates on English Medium Instruction (EMI) in the South-East Asian, and more specifically Vietnamese, context. First, in EMI research in general, it is much less common to hear the perspectives of students experiencing this form of instruction than those of teachers/lecturers, academics/researchers and policy makers. Second, the authors have, rightly, gone beyond local individualised views of students, to locate them within socio-ecological systems that enable explanation at the intersection of macro (policy and institutional), meso (program and classroom) and micro (individual) levels of policy, research and practice. Third, the authors have used a wide range of mainly qualitative methods, which are able to uncover not only the cognitive but also the affective experiences of the students. Together these perspectives offer powerful implications for forward movement in EMI in this context.

Keywords EMI · Student perspective · Socio-ecological system · Macro, meso, and micro levels

The three chapters in this section make an important contribution to debates on English Medium Instruction (EMI) in the South-East Asian, and more specifically Vietnamese, context. First, in EMI research in general, it is much less common to hear the perspectives of students experiencing this form of instruction than those of teachers/lecturers, academics/researchers and policy makers. As Luu and Hoang point out in their chapter, 'there is a dearth of studies on student experiences and the learning strategies they use to cope'. Second, the authors have, rightly, gone beyond local individualised views of students, to locate them within socio-ecological systems (Pham & Barnett) that enable explanation at the intersection of macro (policy and institutional), meso (program and classroom) and micro (individual) levels of policy,

A. Burns (✉)
Curtin University, Perth, Western Australia, Australia
e-mail: anne.burns@unsw.edu.au

Aston University, Birmingham, UK

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research and practice. These nested social systems facilitate deeper understanding of the issues that interact and affect student experiences. Third, the authors have used a wide range of mainly qualitative methods, which are able to uncover not only the cognitive but also the affective experiences of the students. Thus, there are important insights into the strategies students use to cope in EMI classes, which would otherwise be unobservable. Together these perspectives offer powerful implications for forward movement in EMI in this context.

In this brief commentary, I will draw out my main insights from my reading of these chapters at these different ecological levels, and comment on what forward directions could be considered by those most directly affected.

15.1 The Macro Level

One of the most striking aspects of the research is that EMI policies in the contexts concerned are still very much under transition. It is clear from all three chapters that universities, and those making the key decisions within them, have grappled, and still are grappling, with effective models whereby to initiate and maintain EMI.

Variously differentiated policies, curriculum, content and testing/assessment practices are in evidence within and across educational sites. Underpinning them are 'folk' assumptions, rather than empirical evidence, of language improvement through EMI courses and self-study (Pham & Barnett), with students being taught and tested not in relation to discipline specific language knowledge and skills, but through generalised content and tests, which are mandatory for graduation regardless of subject area.

There are also variations in models used to support student English skills, some institutions front-loading the course of study with general English but no further support (Vo) and others providing classes related to course of study only for the second of four-year courses (Luu & Hoang). In each case the question must arise of how effectively EMI can continue to be experienced by students, and to what extent their individual lecturers are left to struggle with imparting content effectively in another language. In each of the chapters there is little mention of training for lecturers. While this is understandable, since the research focused on students, one is left with an impression of a substantial gap and one to which universities need to pay more attention.

From my reading at the macro level, a number of themes for forward movement emerged. One related to course structure and content. Rather than relying on 'preformed' curricula and materials from overseas universities unfamiliar with local conditions, Vietnamese institutions could consider working with these universities to revise content to target subject-specific English more relevantly.

Having Vietnamese and overseas colleagues work together would help to contextualise curricula within familiar and local settings. Moreover, it would provide professional development opportunities for both sides. Local lecturers could benefit from exposure to increased linguistic knowledge of their subjects and new ways to scaffold students' acquisition of technical terms in English. Rather than teaching short

courses, visiting lecturers could team-teach or conduct Action Research (AR) with Vietnamese colleagues to increase their local knowledge of the EMI issues involved and to develop joint publishing opportunities. This approach would provide deeper forms of professional development for both.

15.2 The Meso Level

At the meso level, a recurring theme was the challenges experienced by students arising from lecturers' pedagogical teaching styles. Teaching with EMI requires heightened awareness and abilities on the part of lecturers not only of pedagogical content knowledge (how teachers synthesise what they know and believe about teaching and learning with their pedagogical actions), but also of language awareness regarding their own subject areas.

There was evidence of students' frustration with traditional styles of teaching, where lecturers simply held the floor using pre-prepared content, or failed to vary their pedagogical strategies (Luu & Hoang), and their need for greater knowledge from their lecturers about what learning strategies they could use for university study (Pham & Barnett). It appeared too, that few lecturers received any substantial form of feedback from their students on their teaching, whereby they could have reflected more on their practices and how they might adapt pedagogically for EMI. It seemed that where students did experience more learner-centred practices, with content and materials that effectively mediated their interactions with the teacher, learning was enhanced (Vo).

A further notable strand is the extent to which the use of English proves to be effective in mediating learning. From students' perspectives, some lecturers were clearly challenged in the way they used the language to impart new knowledge to their students. While they were generally very skilled in their own knowledge of their subject areas, and could also draw on pre-prepared materials, they did not always seem to appreciate the linguistic challenges for their students in using English. Difficulties related to a range of areas of classroom spoken discourse—the general competence of the lecturer, the structuring of information, the pace of speech and the introduction of technical terms, that may be taken for granted. In this respect, the preparatory year of English provided to some students seemed to be of limited use when it came to entering subject-specific discourses. The major strategy on the part of the lecturers to overcome student incomprehension was to resort to L1, which sometimes further disadvantaged students from non-Vietnamese backgrounds.

A valuable approach to enhance students' experiences would be for lecturers to be offered professional development courses where they could be introduced to a greater variety of pedagogical approaches, and also be sensitised to the linguistic demands of their own disciplines. Where institutions are adopting EMI, subject specialists could be introduced to learning theories such as socio-constructivist concepts which could help them to scaffold new knowledge students are encountering and mediate their learning.

In relation to pedagogical language use, professional development workshops or courses could take an ‘English-for-teaching’ (Freeman et al., 2015) perspective on language awareness, whereby a form of English for specific purposes is adopted and teachers are introduced to the kind of classroom language that will scaffold and support new learning. In contrast, to the currently reported ad hoc use of L1, the courses could include awareness-raising of when and how translanguaging might be most valuably deployed pedagogically (Vo).

Variations of such courses could also assist native-speaking lecturers who may well be the least aware of the linguistic areas where students are experiencing major challenges. In particular, these lecturers could be made aware that their style of using English, with too rapid speech and over-use of idiomatic expressions or abbreviations, may cause students to struggle.

Finally, teams of lecturers working together could be supported institutionally to conduct AR. An obvious source for topics to research could come from student feedback. Lecturers interested in AR could identify some of the major areas that challenge students and conduct research on their own practices (preferably in collaboration with their students) to find ways to enhance them. These kinds of studies would also provide resources from which lecturers could do conference presentations or publish research to contribute to their own scholarly output.

15.3 The Micro Level

A noticeable strand in all of these chapters was the agency of the students who find themselves having to operate in an EMI context. It was impressive to read about the lengths students go to in finding ways to cope with any difficulties. Despite their sometimes previously high scores on testing systems, such as IELTS or TOEFL, on entering their courses students could be surprised, or even shocked, to realise the extent to which the EMI classroom challenged them.

As a result, they used innovative strategies to overcome their problems—from more obvious ones like using a dictionary, carefully studying their textbooks or taking notes, to others like recording and replaying the lesson, using Wikipedia, Facebook or the Internet for pre-preparation and self-study, expressing ideas in both languages in class, using discussion to understand technical terms, and practising the language out of class with friends or international students. Students proved themselves to be strategic and agentive in working out different techniques that suited them personally. The strategies also contributed towards the development of their identity as university students as they became more familiar with the demands of the EMI context.

Students were self-aware and self-reflective about their own language competence, identifying the particular English skills where they felt they were most challenged. Of these, the demands of listening were noticeably pronounced and underestimation of this skill on the part of their teachers seemed also to affect their ability to engage in

the spoken discourses required of them in their various subject areas. Students typically blamed what they saw as their own shortcomings in meeting English language challenges, rather than the macro or meso level factors interacting with their learning.

From the three studies, it seemed that students would benefit from improved orientation to their EMI courses. Some of the students indicated they did not feel ready for such courses (Pham & Barnett), suggesting that suddenly finding themselves 'forced' to be in EMI contexts was an institutional culture shock. While in the early stages of learning, institutions could consider generic orientations for students, initiating them into the structures, expectations and content of their courses, ongoing yearly orientations could be discipline-specific, introducing them to the curriculum and staff concerned, and potentially, students who have completed the previous years.

A further strategy that institutions or subject area lecturers could consider to support students would be to introduce a 'buddy system'. One student respondent in Luu and Hoang's study mentioned that talking to senior students was valuable. This model proved very effective at one of my own former university workplaces. Beginning students could be paired in the early semesters with those in more senior years. Not only would this assist new students to get to know what to expect of their EMI classes and teachers, and the possible challenges they might face, but more senior students would have an opportunity to review and consolidate subject-specific content and gain skills as mentors, which could prepare them for future workplace collaboration.

15.4 Final Thoughts

Reading these three chapters proved to be thought-provoking and I thank the editors for the opportunity. While some of the evidence from EMI research is becoming increasingly well-established across different contexts, these studies add further light and shade to what is known about the experiences of Vietnamese students. It is clear that present evidence of the effectiveness of EMI in Vietnam is mixed—and in this commentary I have so far mainly highlighted challenges. But there is also a strong sense in these chapters of what can be celebrated through the adoption of EMI. It is evident that many students value the opportunity to study in English, pointing to the way it feeds into their personal language development, knowledge and competency. They see the skills they have gained as carrying them beyond the immediacy of their course of study and opening up opportunities for future careers, both in Vietnam and overseas. Their accounts also show a level of excitement that they are being initiated into a more internationalised world in their chosen areas of study.

Macaro has referred to EMI as 'an unstoppable train' (e.g. Macaro, 2018) and Vietnamese universities are now noticeable among the passengers. While the journey is still very much in progress, as these chapters show, much more must continue to be learned about what EMI students experience. My own overarching conclusion is that if students, like those portrayed here, are to truly thrive in the EMI classroom, a major priority must be for Vietnamese universities to offer substantial and targeted

professional development to their teachers. Simply requiring generalised English proficiency, usually measured through existing testing systems, will not suffice. New forms of professional development are urgently required, focusing on the kind of issues raised in this commentary, which will equip EMI teachers pedagogically and linguistically to enhance their students' learning experiences.

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Anne Burns is a professor at Curtin University, Perth, an honorary professor of TESOL in the School of Education, University of New South Wales, Sydney and professor emerita in Language Education at Aston University, Birmingham, UK. She is also a honorary professor at the University of Sydney and The Education University, Hong Kong, and a member of Academic Advisory Board at the Kanda Institute for International Studies, Japan. She has published extensively on action research and teacher education. She is an academic adviser to the Oxford University Press Applied Linguistics Series. Her most recent book (2020) is *Sustaining Action Research* co-authored with Emily Edwards and Neville Ellis.

Chapter 16
From English Medium Instruction to English Medium Education: A Forward Direction for Vietnamese Universities

Min Pham and Jenny Barnett

Abstract This chapter brings together key themes from across the institutional, practitioner and student perspectives presented in previous chapters. We argue that their collective perspectives indicate closer alignment with the concept of English Medium Education (EME) than with the more restricted notion of instruction that is inherent in the top-down EMI concept. The chapters also demonstrate that an EME approach can help to address significant issues in the implementation of EMI programs and individual courses. We therefore further argue that a way to move forward with EMI in Vietnamese universities is to actively adopt an EME approach, both in policy and practice. Using the Dafouz and Smit (2016; 2020) ROAD-MAPPING framework for analysing EME in multilingual university settings, we bring together the various EME themes presented and advocated across the chapters. These themes, in conjunction with the principles inherent in the Dafouz and Smit's (2020) conceptualisation of EME, provide an illustration of what an EME approach might look like in Vietnamese universities and how it could help move Vietnamese tertiary education forward in a sustainable and equity manner.

Keywords English-medium instruction · EMI · Vietnam · Higher education · Educational policy · ROAD-MAPPING

M. Pham (✉) · J. Barnett
University of South Australia, Adelaide, SA, Australia
e-mail: min.pham@unisa.edu.au

J. Barnett
e-mail: jenny.barnett@unisa.edu.au

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16.1 Introduction

Together, the chapters in this edited volume present important perspectives on how particular stakeholders in particular Vietnamese university settings have been engaging with the English-medium instruction project. The research studies have consistently foregrounded students' content learning as the key concern, as well as the importance of institutional, practitioner and student agency in successfully addressing that concern. They have highlighted the role of language(s) in learning and teaching, and ways of facilitating student learning in particular disciplines and learning environments. We see this as pointing towards a shift in direction from EMI to EME—English-Medium Education—which we therefore argue is a way to move forward with EMI in Vietnamese universities, both in policy and practice.

The concept of 'education' is much broader and more learner-centred than 'instruction', validating learners and their learning just as much as teachers and their teaching. EME is a more inclusive concept than EMI in other ways as well. For example, it includes diverse 'pedagogical approaches and different types of education' (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 4), rather than prioritising transmission of knowledge and skills through 'instruction'. This is important given that active learner-centred pedagogies and assessment types are integral to many imported English-medium programs, yet are unlike traditional Vietnamese practices. Furthermore, the concept of education also includes all the resources accessed by students, from set reading materials to individual use of the internet and joint knowledge construction with fellow students. This inclusivity of EME provides affordances to involve all relevant agents, practices and processes in the introduction, implementation and development of English-medium activity in universities, which has been featured as an urgent need (Kirkpatrick, 2017; Macaro et al., 2018). An EME approach has implications for the full range of stakeholders and their activities: for policy makers and policy making, administrators and administration, society and socialisation, as well as employers and employment.

Not only does the concept of EME suggest a way forward for achieving quality in Vietnamese higher education, so too does the encompassing notion of English-Medium Education in Multilingual University Settings (EMEMUS). This concept:

> explicitly describes the sociolinguistic setting in question, which is understood as 'multilingual' in the widest sense, be it as a reflection of top-down regulations or bottom-up practices. This in turn also recognises that English as medium goes hand in hand with other languages that form part of the respective multilingualism. (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 3)

On this basis, a Vietnamese university conducting EME would recognise itself as a multilingual setting of education, becoming a place 'where students, using the languages they know and those they are getting to know, are enabled to succeed' (Van der Walt, 2013, p. 12). Adopting an EME[1] approach would involve educationally-directed agency nationally, institutionally and individually.

[1] Like Dafouz and Smit (2020), we use the term EME to stand in for the longer acronym of EMEMUS.

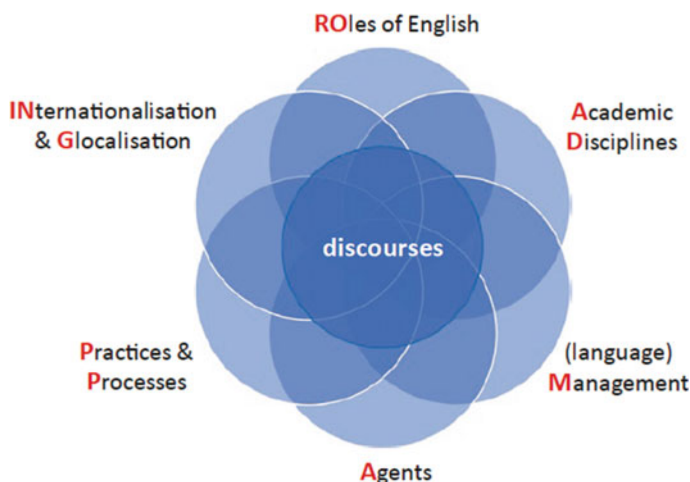

Fig. 16.1 The ROAD-MAPPING framework for EMEMUS (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 404)

In what follows we consider what might be the key features of an EME approach that enables undergraduates to succeed in Vietnamese higher education. To do this, we conducted a meta-analysis of the reported studies using the six dimensions of the ROAD-MAPPING framework developed by Dafouz and Smit (2016, 2020), and the EME principles they associate with each dimension. This has allowed us to highlight potential ways that an EME approach could address some existing obstacles to the sustainable and effective development of EMI in Vietnamese higher education. The meta-analysis clearly supports the analyses of the three commentators reviewing different sections of this book, which they summarise respectively as: the importance of institutional preparation, consultation and support (Kirkpatrick, this volume); the need for a glocal educational approach (Aguilar-Pérez, this volume); and the value of a socio-ecological perspective (Burns, this volume).

Figure 16.1 represents the six independent but interconnected dimensions of the ROAD-MAPPING framework, which we use in this chapter to suggest some key features of an EME approach in Vietnamese undergraduate education.

Central to each of the six dimensions, and linking them together as lived realities, is 'discourse', seen as 'the means through which members of society build the events they participate in and how they constitute social order and organisations' (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 44). The researchers represented in this book provide many illustrations of how institutions, practitioners and students use discourses to build learning and teaching events and also to reflect on those events. Here we link their discourses to each of the dimensions in the framework as a way of bringing together the core themes related to adopting an EME approach. We begin with the broad contextual framing of *Internationalisation and glocalisation* and then follow the acronym sequence to conclude with the classroom context of *Practices and processes.*

16.2 Internationalisation and Glocalisation: An EME Approach

In regard to an EME approach, the well-known definition of the internationalisation of higher education by Knight (2004) is strengthened by incorporating the notion of intention and purpose as in the following definition by de Wit et al. (2015, p. 29). From this viewpoint, internationalisation of higher education is:

> the *intentional* process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education, *in order to enhance the quality of education and research for all students and staff, and to make a meaningful contribution to society.*[2]

This definition clearly identifies the internationalisation of higher education as carrying educational and social responsibility, without denying the existence of other intentions—such as financial gain, enhanced institutional reputation and student mobility—that have been well documented (e.g. Macaro et al., 2018). We argue that an EME approach in Vietnamese universities would focus on achieving socially valuable educational outcomes while not ignoring other non-educational ones.

Due to the country's socio-economic and political circumstances, it can be said that Vietnam did not formally start the process of internationalising universities until 2005, with the Higher Education Reform Agenda (HERA). During this time, there was a global shift in internationalisation in higher education, seeing it not so much as a strategy to promote student, staff and scholarship exchange but as one to promote high quality and innovation in higher education (Knight, 2013). Nationally, the Vietnamese government saw EMI as an internationalisation strategy that would improve quality in higher education in response to its embedded structural problems, as discussed in Chap. 2. Institutionally, however, implementation was sometimes undertaken as a means of addressing financial needs and competing for domestic students, without due concern for staff and student readiness (Nguyen et al., 2017; Tri & Moskovsky, 2019), as evidenced in several chapters in this volume. One consequence of this was the widespread intake of students with insufficient English language proficiency for academic study through English (see *Management of language*). An EME approach would address such lack of readiness in a timely and relevant way.

An EME perspective in higher education is necessarily framed by the need for 'present day HEIs to remain relevant in their respective societies' (Dafouz & Smit, 2020, p. 60). Our authors and their research participants saw relevance of the HEI in several ways: in terms of status and performance outcomes of the institution, the employment expectations of students and their families and the ability of the institution to provide learning programs responsive to both. They were little concerned with the globalisation of society or with the 'local political, economic and social structures, systems and cultures' of the internationalisation of higher education (Jones et al., 2016). In fact their chief concerns align with a new period in the internationalisation

[2] Italics indicate the component added to Knight's 2004 definition.

of higher education globally, which Coelen (2016, p. 40) defines as learner-centred internationalisation. This involves:

> the provision of an environment containing such elements that a learner is given the opportunity to attain achieved learning outcomes associated with international awareness and intercultural competence.

This way of conceptualising the internationalisation of higher education shifts the focus from the activities of an institution to the transformation of individual learners (Coelen, 2016), which necessarily involves glocalisation. Such transformation we see as a fundamental goal of an EME approach, and one demonstrated in diverse ways across this book.

We turn now to internationalisation of the curriculum (Leask, 2009, 2015), and the extent to which it encompasses 'the purposeful integration of international and intercultural dimensions into the formal and informal curriculum' (Beelen & Jones, 2015). On this question the situation represented in this volume varies across the different types of EMI offerings. The curricula offered in individual EMI courses set within VMI programs (Chaps. 6 and 13) appear to be more concerned with English as medium than with integrating international and intercultural dimensions. In contrast, the curricula imported for the Advanced Programs referred to in Chaps. 3, 7, 12 and 14 emphasise international dimensions but may lack attention to intercultural and local dimensions (as noted by a student in Chap. 12). Our view is that the locally developed High Quality Programs and the locally adapted Advanced Programs have the best opportunity to adopt an EME approach incorporating glocal and intercultural perspectives.

Teachers and students in this volume share two views on internationalised curricula. On the one hand is appreciation of the opportunities to expand horizons through access to international materials; on the other hand is concern about the absence in the curriculum of local knowledges, settings and practices. There is concern that international materials include some information irrelevant in Vietnam and difficult to grasp without having lived experience of the international context. Conversely, there is concern that students may graduate without sufficient knowledge of locally relevant situations, concepts and information. In such situations an EME approach would advocate attention to 'glocalisation of the curriculum'. Nationally, the country's socio-economic and political development requires a new generation of graduates who can engage in a working environment that calls not only for professional knowledge but also for glocal knowledges and intercultural competence. Institutionally, therefore, an EME approach in Vietnam would aim for student learning outcomes in English that are 'applicable to the next phase of a graduate's lifelong learning quest' (Coelen, 2016, p. 37), which in all probability would call for English as a lingua franca in intercultural communication.

16.3 Role of English: An EME Approach

The term 'English medium instruction' allocates English a clear instructional role in teaching, but at the same time obliterates its other teaching functions, and more importantly its role in learning. In contrast, an EME approach can comprehensively reflect the role of English in the context of Vietnamese higher education, incorporating its role in learning and assessment and in the diverse pedagogies connected with 'learner-centred internationalisation' (Coelen, 2016). Because an EME approach recognises all national languages as languages of education, scholarship and the world of work, it would necessarily reflect the relationship of English with the national language and the languages of those who do not speak Vietnamese as their first language. This is important since it is arguably pointless to educate graduates who can function academically in English while struggling to use their national language in the workplace. At the same time, an EME approach takes account of students' and teachers' need to know English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in relation to their particular discipline and future profession. It acknowledges that the level of English required for higher education is much higher than that required for general interaction, while it also takes account of the dynamic interplay of various levels of English language proficiency to suit different purposes (Dafouz & Smit, 2017).

For students, English plays a role far beyond that of simply receiving 'instruction'; it carries weight in all aspects of their education. Initially English acts as a gatekeeper for entry into programs and, later on, sometimes for exit as a graduate. Throughout the years of study, as Chaps. 6–10 and 12–14 demonstrate, English plays a vital role in first accessing the curriculum and then constructing, demonstrating and applying knowledge. The undergraduates referred to in this volume use English to access the curriculum through listening to lectures, reading set materials and self-selected online materials (Chaps. 6, 7, 12, 13 and 14) such as Wikipedia (Chap. 12), which they use as a stepping stone to understanding content presented in more complex English. Students often partner this process with reading related materials in the national language, building comprehension across the two languages. At the same time, students use English to participate in collaborative learning activities (Chaps. 6, 7 and 13), either solely or in partnership with their home language, and to demonstrate and apply knowledge through project work and associated oral presentations (Chaps. 7, 10, 12 and 13). All these essential educational needs for competence in academic English are currently minimised at the level of national policy, whereas an EME approach would make them highly visible and indicate ways of addressing them.

For practitioners, the role of English is directly related to students' educational needs, their own research interests and their beliefs about the relationship between curriculum, pedagogy and language(s). Teachers across the chapters used English to lecture, choose reading materials and visuals, design and grade assessment tasks, and engage with students to support their conceptual development, give feedback, and further their English language use. This pedagogical role for English was frequently

partnered with use of the home language (Chaps. 6, 8, 9 and 13). In regard to the role of English, an EME approach would support teachers to develop academic English proficiency, intercultural competences and informed pedagogical use of translanguaging, as well as the writing skills needed to communicate their research internationally.

For policy makers and university administrators, the role of English in EMI programs is less directly present, which consequently may affect the degree to which they engage with it as an educational imperative. On the one hand they promote English as a key component of internationalisation; on the other hand, they struggle to support teachers and students to develop their English proficiency to the levels needed for educational functions. We saw in Chap. 3 a strong commitment by one university faculty to supporting students in their English development, and in subsequent chapters we saw the commitment of individual practitioners to do likewise in their own disciplines (see *Practices and Processes* below). Chapters 4 and 6 also referred to what we and our commentators see as the imperative for staff to have accessible and ongoing opportunities for professional development in EMI pedagogies, and that these should be illustrated through their own academic disciplines.

16.4 Academic Disciplines: An EME Approach

An EME approach recognises that acquiring academic and disciplinary cultures when entering the university community is one of the most demanding aspects of university studies (Dafouz & Smit, 2020), reflecting a general consensus that knowledge construction is contingent on disciplines and contexts (Trowler, 2014). This is noticeable in the studies across the book, where the academic discipline is central to the goals of all EMI lecturers and their students, as well as the faculties and programs within which they are located. Perhaps because of this, in writing about EMI, most chapter authors have taken the academic discipline as a given rather than as a focus. In other words, the disciplines and their associated cultures and literacies have tended to merely provide a backdrop to research participants reflections on EMI.

Nevertheless, it is noticeable from several chapters that the discipline not only controls the conceptual and technical vocabulary of EME, but also shapes the choice of which genres of English are presented to students, as well as which genres students are expected to produce themselves. For example, in Electronic and Communication Engineering (Chap. 3), certain types of technical writing are required as well as the professional language and intercultural skills needed for a capstone project in an industry setting. In the Chap. 7 course on Microprocessor Interfacing and Embedded Systems, students were consistently exposed to manuals, specifications, product reviews and advertising, as well as being required to write a report and present a class presentation on the development of their own team creation. For the students in the Chap. 13 teacher education course, the requirement was to write lesson plans and learning diaries, as well as to produce spoken English suited to classroom management in primary schools.

An EME approach overtly combines content learning and the language learning necessary to achieve it, integrating specific discipline knowledge and transferable skills to promote 'deep learning' (Dafouz & Smit, 2020). This means that content and language learning and teaching should be addressed in an integrated way, as we saw for example in Chaps. 3 and 6, and in the 'CLIL-ised' pedagogies in Chap. 7. To further such integration, an EME approach would support content and English language teachers to work collaboratively and would provide the 'substantial and targeted professional development' recommended by Burns (this volume). At the same time, students would be offered English language development courses directly related to the content of their discipline as well as in general academic English. All disciplines represented in this book required students to gain competence not only in the technical English of the field but also in general academic English, such as managing lecture comprehension, oral presentations, group discussion, assignment writing and assessment formats. In such activities, the level of English proficiency inevitably impacts learners' knowledge construction. However, this impact has not yet been fully recognised and acted upon by all Vietnamese HEIs in their entry-level requirements and support provisions. An EME approach would address the issue both nationally and institutionally as a factor of language management.

16.5 Management of Language: An EME Approach

Nguyen (2018) sees the management of EMI as the 'missing piece in the internationalisation puzzle of Vietnamese higher education' (p. 119)—a piece which includes 'student entry requirements, students' English support, teachers' training, etc.' (p. 121). An EME approach to language management in Vietnamese multilingual university settings would attend to this piece of the internationalisation puzzle through explicit policy and guidance. Meanwhile, as indicated in Chap. 2, such regulatory measures are somewhat limited in Vietnamese HEIs, and national policy provides little overt guidance.

None of the chapters in this book mention formal institutional policies related to EMI. Instead, they demonstrate policy emerging informally through administrative decisions, such as setting up preliminary English programs (Chaps. 3, 12 and 14), and through the active implementation practices of teachers and students (Chaps. 6–15), as has been found in previous studies (e.g. Nguyen et al., 2017; M. Pham & Doan, 2020). In other words, the lack of clear national policy guidance has resulted in faculties and lecturers self-interpreting policy. In time this might come to function as a bottom-up force in the development of national and institutional policies, since an EME approach advocates the concurrency of top-down and bottom-up forces in shaping policy and practice. However, as yet there is no evidence of this management process eventuating in Vietnamese universities.

Adopting an EME approach nationally would support the characterisation of an appropriate regulatory model specifying language management across different levels. For example, national policy documents would classify HEIs with EMI

programs as multilingual environments and require HEIs to establish explicit institutional language policies reflecting their particular multilingual characteristics and the need for developing intercultural competence. These policies would address what languages are expected to be used in what contexts—for teaching and learning, for production of academic work and for institutional communication (Dafouz & Smit, 2020). Recognising the multilingual environment, an EME approach would characterise English as a lingua franca in Vietnamese EMI settings—it would reject an English-only position, reject a native speaker standard for EMI (Kirkpatrick, 2014, 2017), and validate use of a variety of Englishes (Kirkpatrick, 2017).

Building on such national language policy, HIEs could make the status and use of English visible and transparent for individual stakeholders to enact, and could regulate relations between English and other languages. This would reflect the importance attributed to the national language in the achievement of content learning in EMI programs that has been prominent throughout this book, supporting the EME perspective that 'teachers and students should be encouraged to use and embrace their multilingual resources, including the entirety of their linguistic repertoires' (Sahan & Rose, 2021, pp. 1–2). In other words, strictly English-only pedagogies are not endorsed.

EME policy would also explicitly acknowledge the importance of students developing academic literacies and registers in Vietnamese as their first language (Bernini, 2015). It would recognise that developing bilingualism or dual literacy:

- assists individuals' intellectual development by refining their own ability to think, understand, and internalise information in two languages;
- develops flexibility of mind and a positive approach towards other languages and cultures, and
- prepares individuals effectively for situations where they need to use both languages and transfer from one language to the other (Estyn, 2002, cited in Lewis et al., 2012, p. 646).

Within the curriculum itself, a belief in dual literacies also involves management of cultural content related to the internationalisation of each discipline, as well as its associated requirements for intercultural competence.

In contrast to the dearth of formal policy for managing language in Vietnamese HEIs, statements of English language proficiency requirements for students are much in evidence across this volume. Nevertheless entry levels are not standard, ranging from IELTS Academic 4.0 to IELTS Academic 5.5. This is in contrast to the undergraduate entry requirement of IELTS Academic 6.0 in most Australian universities, suggesting that many entrants to Vietnamese EMI programs will not be ready to engage successfully. Some universities rely on results from English language tests other than IELTS Academic, including internally designed tests, as mentioned in Chaps. 3, 12 and 14. Regrettably, some institutions allow students to start their EMI coursework without having achieved the required level, and give them considerable time to then achieve that level (Chap. 12). This adds further challenges for classroom teaching and learning, leading to impacts on teachers' level of job satisfaction (Chap. 4). This is because students' low English proficiency, as well as diversity of

proficiencies within a class, prevents teachers from putting their pedagogical beliefs into practice.

In view of this situation, and as Nguyen (2018) indicates, institutional support for students' English language development is a fundamental necessity. In the present volume, an EME approach to this necessity is reflected specifically in the management decisions of those institutions offering full EMI programs, notably in their provision of non-credit-bearing preliminary English development courses. Chaps. 3 and 12 indicate the value of such preliminary programs providing English for Specific Purposes (ESP) related to particular disciplines as well as soft skills related more generally to English for Academic Purposes (EAP). At the universities represented in Chaps. 3 and 14 some second-year credit-bearing courses were also provided to further enhance students' disciplinary learning through English. Such management strategies are clear indicators of an EME approach in process of development.

Management provisions for teacher learning are also critical in an EME approach, since teachers need to upskill their professional practices to support diverse learners to access and effectively engage with the curriculum through English. If lecturers are not trained to adjust their practices to the required educational changes, they may struggle to implement those changes and perhaps question or resist them (Dafouz & Smit, 2020). Professional development in an EME approach is responsive to lecturers' reasons for engaging with EME and includes, as appropriate, English language development for academic purposes, development of intercultural competence in regard to both explaining curriculum content and relating to people of other cultures, and finally the pedagogies associated with EME in higher education (Dafouz & Smit, 2020). Furthermore, according to Vu (2021, p. 302), EMI teacher development in Vietnam requires learning 'new principles for integrating language and content, understanding their learners, adapting their practices, and creating new meanings to their own practices'.

Previous research has not identified professional development for EMI educators as a strong commitment in Vietnamese universities. However, Chaps. 5, 7 and 14 in this volume refer to professional development opportunities that either have been or could be undertaken by institutions. These mainly focus on English proficiency and learner-centred pedagogies, with the development of intercultural competence implicit in their processes. Clearly, an EME approach demands systematic investment from HEIs in their staff members' professional development and recognition of how this relates to their readiness and willingness to teach in EMI courses. As this book testifies, teachers are the prime agents in the implementation of national and institutional decisions to introduce EMI.

16.6 Agents: An EME Approach

The picture of EMI in Vietnamese higher education, as painted across the chapters in this volume, foregrounds the agency of the EMI teacher, positioning it, uneasily, between the top-down expectations of national and institutional stakeholders and the

bottom-up expectations and learning challenges of student stakeholders. This reflects one of the key issues identified across the chapters, namely the lack of coordination and consultation between stakeholders at different levels. An EME approach would help to address this lack of coordination and consultation by incorporating social structures and individual actors into a dynamic and holistic conceptualisation of EME. Such an approach would bridge top-down and bottom-up forces in shaping EME implementation. At the same time, it would support the new definition of internationalisation of higher education that emphasises transformation of individual learners (Coelen, 2016).

In this new version of internationalisation, the students and their learning dominate the exercise of agency at all levels, indicating the importance of understanding the student cohort as a starting point in an EME approach. In this volume, and reflecting the early stage of EMI in the country, the majority of students represented are Vietnamese, having studied English as a school subject and sometimes privately as well. Those growing up in major cities had some opportunity to use English in natural settings, whereas those in smaller cities and coming from rural or remote areas generally had none (e.g. Chap. 13). No matter their origins, few were initially confident in their ability to learn through English and to manage western expectations of undergraduate learning practices. Exercising individual agency, they developed various strategies for achieving satisfactory content learning outcomes (e.g. Chaps. 6, 12, 13 and 14), focusing on their personal English-medium education rather than merely on the instruction they received. An EME approach would build on such student agency and incorporate the teaching of EME learning strategies, as suggested in Chap. 14 and by a student in Chap. 12.

An EME approach would also acknowledge and support the teacher's agency in responding directly to students' challenges in EMI while simultaneously negotiating their responses around the requirements of the institution. In this volume, it is EMI content lecturers who clearly stand out as the agents most involved in the day-to-day lived realities of EMI implementation. On the one hand, they enjoy some freedom to design course pedagogy and materials in ways they consider supportive of content learning (see *Practices and processes*). On the other hand, their work is clearly fraught with challenges, whether due to students' low and variable English competence, practitioners' own insufficient academic English competence, workload pressures or self-interpreting institutional requirements.

Demonstrating their own individual EME approaches, these teachers have actively used individual agency to support students' transformative learning within their immediate sphere of influence as educators. However their sphere of influence would be expanded in an EME approach adopted nationally and institutionally as there would be interactive processes across the hierarchy of agents rather than a top-down approach. Student voice too would have an extended reach in an EME approach. Individually, students, lecturers parents, and end-users such as professional communities and industries would be collaboratively involved in developing EME policies and practices.

Agency of the national government and its ministries has been mentioned across the chapters as a background to EMI in Vietnamese universities, but the onus has

been on other agents to bring about successful implementation on their own initiative. An EME approach at the national level would identify how different forces operate at different levels, with what roles and in what settings. It would highlight the importance of taking all agents into consideration and providing space to involve representatives of all agents in decision-making. This mirrors ideas presented in several Chapters (e.g. 4, 8, 12, 14) indicating that universities need to listen to and take account of what teachers and students can tell them about their experiences of the implementation of this pedagogical innovation, and how to move forward with it.

16.7 Practices and Processes: An EME Approach

Most of the chapters in this book have been concerned with the social practices of teachers and students at the micro-levels of university learning and teaching (e.g. group work in Chap. 6, translanguaging in Chap. 8 and 9, teacher feedback in Chap. 10, CLIL-ised pedagogies in Chap. 7, student learning strategies in Chap. 12 and 13). Such practices are integral to an EME approach. According to Dafouz and Smit (2020, p. 56), this dimension also includes social processes that lead to long-term change within social institutions and that traverse micro- and macro-levels. Such potential social processes are referred to in Chaps. 3, 4, 8 and 10 in terms of language management, and we argue that there is a social process of EME emerging through the interaction of students, teachers and curriculum. To support this argument, we briefly review some key student and teacher practices reported in this book that we see as contributing to EME as a social process and as having the potential to lead to long-term change in the management of EMI implementation in Vietnamese universities.

As discussed in various chapters in this volume, teachers and students have often practised 'translanguaging'—sometimes in a fragmented and uncertain manner (e.g. Chap. 8) and sometimes quite systematically (e.g. Chap. 9), but always present. This suggests that 'translanguaging practices should be embraced as a pedagogical tool and a natural feature of multilingual communication' (Sahan & Rose, 2021, p. 2). Participants' frequency of reference to translanguaging (TL) practices, both pedagogical and communicative, suggests a potential social process in Vietnamese universities that would reflect 'the interdependence between TL practices and top-down language policies and how they mutually influence one another' (Smit, 2021, p. 175). An EME approach would engage with translanguaging as a pedagogical process to be encouraged and its practices taught to both teachers and students for their optimal use. This would free both teachers and students to draw on a variety of resources and on their full cultural and multilingual repertoires.

Pedagogical practices based on learner-centred theories of learning are also strongly in evidence (e.g. Chaps. 6, 7 and 13), contributing to the shift in focus away from the emphasis on instruction and towards EME. Such practices consistently

involved scaffolding of input and student output through lesson design, translanguaging, repetition, visual aids, modelling academic and industry related activities, providing opportunities for pair work and group problem-solving and project work, and moving students progressively from lower to higher order thinking. Out-of-class practices included: choosing to set reading materials previously translated into English, referring students to related Vietnamese language information, setting up online study groups for further interaction, and various extra-curricular activities. Such practices clearly suggest affiliation with an EME approach, since they recognise the importance of providing multiple pathways for learners to construct both content knowledge and subject-specific academic literacies, and to develop appropriate localised practices.

Students' personal and collective learning strategies are another important set of social practices that are responsive to the challenges of EMI and to students' own commitment to accessing the disciplinary content for which they have enrolled. For example, committed students seek out and refer to similar content written in Vietnamese (Chaps. 12–14) or in non-academic English such as that in Wikipedia (Chap. 12); they use their first language when working in groups before turning the outcome into English; they seek help from the teacher or other students; they use technology for translation, and so on. Such strategies, like teacher strategies, may eventually power a social process that builds in institutional support for them, including the use of their multilingual repertoires and creative use of the internet for accessing content across languages.

The chapters in this book have also identified EME practices at the institutional level, practices linked mainly to the management of student language relevant to the academic disciplines and professional futures of students. This occurs through curricular, non-curricular and extra-curricular opportunities made available to students to support their development of relevant English language competences and associated soft skills (Chaps. 3, 6, 12). Relevant competences include English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Specific Purposes (ESP), tertiary level soft skills, and intercultural competences for study, socialisation and employment. Chapters 2, 4 and 14 also make clear that institutions have a responsibility to support teachers with similarly relevant attention, both for their effectiveness in EME and for their willingness and readiness to engage in it. Such institutional EME practices have the capacity to influence the full hierarchy of agents and thus bring about a social process of long-term national change in enacting internationalisation through English.

16.8 Conclusion

In this chapter, we have developed two distinct but related arguments on the implementation of EMI programs and courses in Vietnamese universities. We argue first that the accounts throughout this volume demonstrate a clear focus on achieving transformative educational goals and, in so doing, illustrate many features of a distinctive English-Medium Education (EME) approach in Vietnamese higher education.

Building on that understanding of a nascent move towards EME, we argue that an EME approach adopted at the national and institutional levels would help to address some critical issues in the implementation of EMI courses and programs.

To support this latter argument, this chapter has reviewed many of the moves reported in previous chapters that respond directly to such issues—whether related to internationalisation and glocalisation, the role of English and other languages, the requirements of academic disciplines, the institutional management of language, the agency required, or the practices and processes involved. The review and meta-analysis makes clear that institutions, practitioners and students can move forward by adopting a focus on achieving intended educational outcomes. This suggests the value of explicitly adopting an EME approach at all levels—from national policy to classroom interaction.

By placing learners at the centre of the process, an EME approach would advance the internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam. It would promote an understanding of agency that is educationally oriented, potentially involving interactive processes across the hierarchy of agents rather than a primarily top-down approach from government or local institutions. This in turn would address the lack of coordination and consultation among stakeholders at different levels, which has led to a disconnection between policies and practices as well as confusion among lecturers and students.

A national EME policy would 'explicitly acknowledge the difference between teaching and learning through English for L2 lecturers and students' (Dafouz & Smit, p. 119), requiring HEIs to be responsive to the role of language(s) in learning and teaching. It would provide guidance to HEIs on improving academic and discipline-specific English language and intercultural competences among students and teachers. It would specifically encourage HEIs to develop their own EME policies and language management practices, to make explicit the value of using a full multilingual repertoire and to validate and train teachers in transformative EME practices. For all these reasons, we do strongly propose an EME approach as a way forward to achieving true quality in Vietnamese higher education.

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Min Pham is a lecturer in language education at the University of South Australia. He has completed graduate studies in TESOL and digital education and a Ph.D. in International Studies from the University of South Australia. Min Pham has extensive experience in teaching English as an additional language/dialect in various higher education institutions. His main research interests concern English as medium of instruction, content and language integrated learning, enabling pedagogies and digital technology. He is also experienced in collaborating with international colleagues on research projects relating to EMI and the use of human technology in teaching English.

Jenny Barnett worked for 25 years in the School of Education, University of South Australia, Adelaide. She taught undergraduate and postgraduate courses in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), and supervised doctoral students addressing issues in multilingual learning environments. Until recently, her research and consultancy work focused on the learning and teaching of students in Australia for whom English is an Additional Language or Dialect (EALD), with an emphasis on their learning across the curriculum. This focus has subsequently shifted to English medium education in the Asia-Pacific region more broadly, and particularly in higher education.

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