UTS UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY SYDNEY

English-Medium Instruction Practices in Vietnamese Higher Education: A Positioning Theory Perspective

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Certificate of Original Authorship

I, *Hong Trang Hoang*, declare that this thesis is submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy in Education, in the *School of International Studies and Education, Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences* at the University of Technology Sydney.

This thesis is wholly my own work unless otherwise referenced or acknowledged. In addition, I certify that all information sources and literature used are indicated in the thesis.

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Abstract

The focus-on-content movement in English language education and the globalisation and internationalisation of higher education (HE) has brought about the global rise in English-medium instruction (EMI). While EMI is expanding globally, a question arises as to how lecturers should be prepared to implement such programs. A comprehensive understanding of EMI classroom practices is thus necessary to design effective, contextualised professional development schemes for EMI lecturers. Although there have been several studies into EMI teaching practices worldwide, the number of similar studies in the Asia-Pacific region (except China, Korea, and Japan) has been scarce. This situation, coupled with the dearth of a theoretical perspective in EMI pedagogy research, results in a limited understanding of EMI lecturers' pedagogical actions, and thus cannot facilitate EMI lecturer development effectively. In Vietnam, while the local culture has been demonstrated to impact classroom EMI implementation, none of the EMI studies conducted in this country has explicitly examined the culture factor in Vietnamese lecturers' EMI pedagogy.

This study addresses these contextual, theoretical, and empirical gaps by investigating Vietnamese EMI lecturers' teaching practices, particularly their instructional adaptation, under the theoretical lens of Positioning Theory. Adopting a qualitative multiple-case study methodology, six lecturers from two disciplines were interviewed and audio-recorded in both their EMI and Vietnamese-Medium Instruction (VMI) lessons. Data were also generated from the relevant literature related to Vietnamese educational culture, key EMI policy documents at the national and institutional levels, and the lecturers' teaching materials.

Positioning analysis of the Vietnamese educational literature, national and institutional policies, and interview data uncovered several tensions across the macro- (i.e, cultural, national), meso- (i.e., institutional), and micro- (i.e., classroom) levels. Lecturers' perceptions of their EMI rights and duties (or their self-positionings) aligned with their academic disciplines and Vietnamese educational culture, but misaligned with national and institutional policies. These misalignments brought about EMI classroom practices out of tune with policy expectations. Without proper guidance and support, the lecturers simply acted out their beliefs and their personal sense of duty towards their teaching jobs and students. Although the lecturers' self-positionings did not change in EMI when compared to VMI, they still made instructional adaptations to accommodate their and their students' challenges in the process of teaching and learning in a foreign language. This study argues for disciplinary-specific EMI policy-making and a student-centred approach to EMI lecturer development to provide culturally-appropriate, systematic, and ongoing professional support for lecturers in Vietnamese HE and similar contexts.

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List of Abbreviations

APs   Advanced Programs

CEFR   Common European Framework of Reference for languages

CLIL   Content and language integrated learning

ELP   English language proficiency

EME   English-medium education

EMEMUS   English-medium education in multilingual university settings

EMI   English-medium instruction

ESP   English for specific purposes

HE   Higher education

HEIs   Higher education institutions

HERA   Higher Education Reform Agenda

HQPs   High-Quality Programs (Circular 23)

ICLHE   Integrating content and language in higher education

ICT   Information and communication technology

L1/ L2   First language/ Second language

MOET   Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training

MoI   means (or medium) of instruction

MOLISA   Vietnam's Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs

MOST   Vietnam's Ministry of Science and Technology

NFLP   Vietnam's National Foreign Language Project

PT   Positioning Theory

VMI   Vietnamese-medium instruction

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Classrooms are places where educational policies are realised in practice. Lecturers as classroom managers play an important role in transforming policies into realities. To better understand classroom practices, it is therefore vital to examine lecturers' beliefs underpinning their pedagogical actions. This study seeks to obtain an in-depth understanding of English-medium instruction (EMI) practices in Vietnamese higher education. It does so through exploring Vietnamese EMI lecturers' beliefs about their rights and duties in EMI, and how these beliefs impact their EMI classroom practices. This chapter introduces the study by presenting the researcher's personal motivation for studying EMI, the background of the study, and the research problems. The chapter then clarifies the research aims, research questions, and significance of the study, before ending with an overview of the thesis organisation.

1.1 Rationale: Personal motivation for this study

Upon graduation from my university's English language teaching (ELT) program in Vietnam, unlike my peers, I decided not to enter the recruitment examination of the same faculty to become an English language teacher educator. Instead, I registered for the recruitment examination of the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) Faculty within the same university, with a view to becoming a lecturer of English for Law. As someone with what I believe to be an inquisitive mind, I have always endeavoured to know more than just the English language, to master some "content" area and use the former to develop the latter, and vice versa. I was among the few successful applicants, so I taught general and legal English until 2010. During these four years, with the high hopes and full zeal of a young, competent ESP lecturer, I finished my MA in TESOL and my second BA degree in International Law.

Not long after I completed the second degree in Law, much as I was confident and eager to develop my ESP teaching career with the newly-acquired legal knowledge and skills, my professional dream was shattered by the then Rector's decision to abandon ESP

teaching in my university. It was not until much later that I was aware of the basis of his decision. The Rector supposedly foresaw a bleak prospect for ESP teaching because it was losing ground to the emerging EMI phenomenon. In the Rector's view, ESP lecturers were at a disadvantage alongside EMI lecturers because their understanding of the disciplinary content and skills, especially technical terms, was not comparable to their content counterparts who are also competent in English. Therefore, it was assumed that the EMI lecturers would do a much better job teaching technical English than we, the language lecturers. Unfortunately, this assumption currently persists, with ESP teaching in all "content" faculties of my university still covered by each faculty's content specialists.

I was unaware at the time of the constraints and tensions in EMI regarding English language proficiency enhancement; however, this "loss" of teaching duty triggered my professional interest in the practice of teaching content subjects in English. I was left wondering whether and how EMI can replace ESP.

Not long after the ESP termination in my faculty, I was transferred to the Faculty of English Language Teacher Education, where I had taken my undergraduate ELT program. Now that I have become involved in pre-service and in-service English language teacher education, I have come to realise the potential impact of different bilingual education approaches such as English Across the Curriculum, and Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) on my students as English-teachers-to-be. I was concerned about what my students should know and what I should do to prepare them for their future workplaces, given that the ELT business appeared to be shrinking as a consequence of the growing number of bilingual schools in Vietnam. A recurring question was whether and to what extent bilingual education could replace English language education.

My professional background and concerns have inspired me to conduct this study into bilingual education practices, or EMI to be exact, in the Vietnamese tertiary education context, with which I have been familiar for the last 20 years. I wanted to explore how and to what extent the use of English as a medium of instruction has impacted the way my content counterparts have been teaching their subjects. I saw research in this area as incredibly useful in answering my questions about the future of ESP and ELT in Vietnam.

1.2 Background to the study

As I embarked on this doctoral research, the EMI literature revealed that EMI is "a growing global phenomenon" (Dearden, 2014) and "the most significant trend in educational internationalisation" (Chapple, 2015, p. 1). EMI is commonly believed to be rooted in globalisation and internationalisation in higher education (HE) (Altbach & Knight, 2007). Originating from the Bologna Declaration by the European Union in 1999 (Hultgren, Jensen, & Dimova, 2015), EMI has spread all over the world, but has the most substantial presence in Europe and Asia (Macaro & Aizawa, 2022). Reasons for the adoption of EMI vary, but the most common are increased institutional reputation, more income generation through international students, competition between the public and private education sectors at the tertiary level, and the dominating role of English in academia (Macaro, Curle, Pun, An, & Dearden, 2018). Additional reasons often cited in developing countries include enhancing English language learning, and producing a regionally competitive workforce (Barnard & Hasim, 2018).

Being one of the fastest-growing research areas in applied linguistics (Dafouz & Smit, 2023), EMI has been intensively researched over the last decade. However, the majority of EMI research has been conducted in Japan, Spain, China, Hong Kong, and Italy, leaving EMI issues under-theorised in other parts of the world due to insufficient research evidence (Macaro & Aizawa, 2022).

While the literature indicates a complex picture of EMI implementation that has both advantages and disadvantages (Macaro et al., 2018), challenges and tensions seem to prevail (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2012; Kuteeva, 2023). The most significant challenges appear to be the lack of English language proficiency (ELP) of students and, sometimes, even lecturers, the lack of professional training and development for the EMI teaching staff (Macaro, Curle, Pun, An, & Dearden, 2018), and non-transparent and inconsistent EMI policies (Kirkpatrick, 2014). Since EMI policies are often issued top-down, without proper consultation with grassroots stakeholders such as lecturers (Coleman, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2014), the tensions between the macro- (i.e., national), the meso- (i.e., institutional), and the micro-level (i.e., classroom) regarding language practices are commonly cited (Pun, Fu, & Cheung, 2023). All these issues, together with socio-political, economic, and cultural differences among nations, create such wide

variations in EMI practices that there can be no universal, one-size-fits-all solution to EMI problems (Hultgren, Jensen, & Dimova, 2015).

The change in the language medium of instruction has been found to impact many lecturers' content teaching (Bailey, Burkett, & Freeman, 2008). For example, some lecturers deliver their lessons more slowly (Goodman, 2014), with less ability to improvise or use humour (Vinke, Snippe, & Jochems, 1998), or lack detail and precision in their explanation (Airey, 2011). As a result of the challenges in teaching in a less proficient language, lecturers have been reported to depend more on teaching notes, visual aids like PowerPoint slides, or code-switching (Jiang, Zhang, & May, 2019; Sahan & Rose, 2021). These pragmatic strategies not only help the lecturers but also assist their students in content comprehension in English. Nevertheless, the strategies do not seem to be used without consequences, because content quality in EMI is often reported to be poorer than that in the first language medium classrooms (Werther, Denver, Jensen, & Mees, 2014; Yang et al., 2019).

Despite the policy assumption of students' English language enhancement in EMI (Macaro, 2018), most EMI lecturers are reported to reject the identity of language teachers (Block, 2021), nor would they consider it their duty to help students improve their ELP (Airey, 2012). Rather, the lecturers view themselves as content specialists, who perform language explanations as part of their content teaching (Soren, 2013). The lecturers' viewpoints reflect the realities of EMI classrooms where language-focused episodes containing explicit language instruction, if found, are often rare, spontaneous, and meaning- rather than form-focused (Basturkmen, 2018; Costa, 2012). Therefore, these strategies are arguably not very useful for enhancing EMI students' English language competence. A question thus left open is how to persuade content lecturers to take on more of the language teaching duties to promote both content and language learning in EMI (Macaro, 2018). Questions like this have not been easily addressed, given that research into EMI teaching practices is often not theoretically situated (Curry & Pérez-Paredes, 2021).

In Vietnam, the internationalisation process of its HE system is strongly associated with EMI (Tran & Nguyen, 2018). In fact, EMI is not only regarded as an important internationalisation strategy to innovate the country's outdated tertiary education, but also

a key means to enhance Vietnamese students' English language proficiency (Government of Vietnam, 2017). It also acts as an income-generating scheme for HE institutions (HEIs) (Nguyen, Hamid, & Moni, 2016).

Despite ad hoc benefits to small groups of HEIs, EMI lecturers, and students (Tran & Marginson, 2018), EMI implementation in Vietnam is generally "fraught with difficulties and challenges" (Hamid, Nguyen, & Baldauf Jr, 2013b, p. 11). These implementation challenges first derive from top-down, non-transparent, and short-sighted national EMI policies (Nguyen, 2016b). For example, the Vietnamese government names EMI programs as "special", "Advanced", or "High-Quality" programs to attract local students, but this practice unfortunately stigmatises Vietnamese-medium programs, their enrolees, and teaching staff (Nguyen, Walkinshaw, & Pham, 2017). Vietnamese EMI policies are particularly criticised for their lack of cultural sensitivity, such as importing foreign curricula without adequate consideration of the local contexts, resulting in "a huge waste of resources" (Nguyen & Tran, 2018, p. 28). There are also reported ideological, pedagogical, and cultural clashes between the Vietnamese educational system, based on Confucianism and socialist ideologies, and the Western ideologies based on democracy and neo-liberalism (Nguyen et al., 2017; Tran, Ngo, Nguyen, & Dang, 2017). In fact, cultural norms and beliefs have been found to filter out foreign practices inappropriate to the local culture, when Vietnamese HEIs, their academics, and students interact with foreign practices (Tran, Nghia, Nguyen, & Ngo, 2020). These clashes exacerbate the quality of EMI offerings in the country, causing implementation inconsistency at the institutional level.

Due to the lack of national and institutional guidelines for EMI implementation, Vietnamese EMI lecturers are reported as playing a key role in enacting EMI policies at the classroom level (Hamid & Nguyen, 2016; Nguyen, 2016b). Despite being important policy actors, the lack of systematic and adequate professional training causes many academics to be confused about their roles and duties in EMI classrooms (Pham & Doan, 2020). Hence, EMI lecturers in many Vietnamese contexts are reported as performing their classroom teaching out of their willingness and sense of moral duty to their workplace (Nguyen, 2016b; Pham & Doan, 2020). This "divergence of agency" at the national, institutional, and individual levels (Pham, 2022) results in fragmented

implementation, and ad hoc changes and improvements, rather than systematic institutional reforms (Tran et al., 2020).

The heterogeneous EMI practices in the Vietnamese tertiary context require more research evidence to gain a comprehensive understanding of the local implementation of EMI, in order to generate locally-relevant solutions. EMI research in Vietnam is still in its infancy (Tran, 2020). Studies into EMI lecturers' classroom practices are rare, and often lack a theoretical foundation to gain a deeper insight into lecturers' "ways of thinking" and "ways of doing" in EMI (see, e.g., see, e.g., Tran & Hoang, 2022; Tran, 2020). Given the country's unique socio-political and cultural characteristics, Pham (2022), after reviewing Vietnamese EMI policies and recent research into internationalisation and EMI in Vietnamese HE, has called for "a close investigation of what is happening at the level of individuals in actual classrooms" (p. 15).

This multiple-case study seeks to address the contextual and theoretical gaps identified above. In particular, it aims to investigate Vietnamese EMI lecturers' teaching practices, particularly the possible changes they make as they transition from Vietnamese-medium to English-medium teaching. The following section will explain in detail the research problems that provide the foundation for this study.

1.3 Research problems

This study is motivated by three major research problems: (1) the paucity of research on EMI teaching practices in the Vietnamese tertiary context, (2) the lack of a theoretical stance in most research into EMI teaching practices, and (3) the lack of studies that directly examines the impact of the culture factor on lecturers' classroom practices in EMI. The following section will elaborate on each research problem.

First, there is a paucity of research on EMI teaching practices in the Vietnamese tertiary context. EMI in applied linguistics is an emerging research area, witnessing "a surge in academic interest from 2011" onwards (Macaro et al., 2018, p. 45). The EMI literature is dominated by research conducted in a limited number of countries in Europe and Asia such as Spain, China, and Korea (Macaro & Aizawa, 2022). In Vietnam, the first governmental initiative to launch EMI programs was endorsed in 2008, but this was only

for selected universities and programs nationwide (Government of Vietnam, 2008b). It was not until 2014 with a Circular issued by Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training that EMI programs became more widespread. With less than ten years of the large-scale development of EMI, EMI research in Vietnam is thus still in its infancy, with most studies conducted so far examining the country's language policy planning (see, e.g., see, e.g., Nguyen, 2016b; Tri, 2020). In 2017, Fenton-Smith, Humphreys, and Walkinshaw (2017), in a book on EMI in Asia-Pacific HE, called for more empirical research into EMI classroom practices in the region, to map a clearer global picture of EMI implementation. Pham's (2022) review of the most recent literature on the internationalisation of Vietnamese HE and EMI implementation in Vietnam also raises the need for more research into individual lecturers' classroom practices.

Second, studies into EMI teaching practices so far have often lacked a theoretical stance (Curry & Pérez-Paredes, 2021). As Curry and Pérez-Paredes (2021) argue, this methodological weakness renders the findings of those studies "fragmented", and hence they "add little to the understanding and development of teachers in contexts like EMEMUS [English medium education in multilingual university settings]" (p. 125). Curry and Pérez-Paredes (2021) invite other EMI researchers to "move beyond initial descriptive accounts toward more theoretically and practically impactful research" (p. 125). The few studies into EMI teaching practices in Vietnamese HEIs in the last three years have also encountered the same methodological problem. Two studies that adopted a conceptual frame to explore Vietnamese lecturers' teaching practices are Ngo (2019) and Vo, Gleeson, and Starkey (2022), both of which employed Dafouz and Smit's (2016) ROAD-MAPPING framework. This framework is useful for understanding the dynamic nature of EMI in multilingual higher education settings, and helps locate lecturers' practices in an interrelationship with other dimensions of discourse (e.g., roles of English, academic disciplines, language management). However, the "horizontal" understanding of teaching practices that this framework generates provides limited insights into teaching practices as a human action, making it unable to theorise them beyond EMI contexts.

Third, although research has indicated the influence of the national culture on EMI teaching and learning (Hu & Li, 2017; Zuaro, 2022), the exact nature of this impact remains a question. In Vietnam, while the country's societal culture has been reported to affect EMI implementation at the institutional and classroom levels (see Section 2.5.2 for

details), none of the EMI studies conducted in this context has directly examined the culture factor in EMI practices. This knowledge gap necessitates a theoretical framework that gives culture an explicit focus. The ROAD-MAPPING framework, though used increasingly in EMI research (Dafouz & Smit, 2023), is arguably not particularly helpful in this regard. This framework's "internationalisation and glocalisation" dimension points to the interaction between international/foreign forces and local features, and the presence of local features in different agents' (including lecturers') practices and processes. However, the framework fails to explain this interaction.

Against the discussion of these contextual, theoretical, and empirical gaps, this study attempts to fill those gaps by employing Positioning Theory to explore Vietnamese lecturers' teaching practices. Positioning Theory (Davis & Harré, 1990) is a theory in discursive psychology. It provides a framework for understanding human actions in the moral landscape of rights and duties. In other words, Positioning Theory is concerned with the relationship between people's perceptions of their rights and duties, or their self-positionings, and their actions.

Under the lens of Positioning Theory, the EMI lecturers' instructional practices are investigated in relation to their perceptions of their rights and duties (or their self-positionings) in EMI, as compared to their self-positionings in Vietnamese-medium instruction (VMI). This study, therefore, moves beyond the mere description of lecturers' EMI implementation. It also adapts the positioning triangle, the analytical framework of Positioning Theory, to directly examine the relationship between the local culture and EMI classroom practices. The following section will clarify this study's research aims and research questions.

1.4 Research aims and research questions

This study's ultimate aim is to explore tertiary lecturers' EMI teaching practices in the Vietnamese HE context. In examining lecturers' practices, this study takes a closer look into the lecturers' possible instructional adaptations, which are conscious cognitive and/or behavioural acts of departure from the lecturers' usual teaching practices in Vietnamese. This study does not view instructional adaptations as the lecturers' professional expertise, as research into teachers' instructional adaptations often does (Parsons et al., 2018).

Instead, adaptations are considered people's natural reactions to new and changing circumstances (Martin, Nejad, Colmar, & Liem, 2012). Since the literature indicates the impact of lecturers' perceived duties in EMI on their EMI practices, this study adopts Positioning Theory as a theoretical lens.

To achieve the aim of exploring EMI classroom practices, underpinned by the Positioning Theory perspective, the study is guided by two research questions:

1. How do Vietnamese lecturers position themselves in their accounts of English-medium instruction practices?

2. How do Vietnamese lecturers' self-positionings interact with their teaching practices, particularly their instructional adaptations (if any), in English-medium instruction?

To address these questions, this study employs an embedded multiple-case study research design, with a view to obtaining an in-depth understanding of lecturers' EMI practices in the Vietnamese tertiary context (Yin, 2018). Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, data are generated online via semi-structured Zoom interviews with two groups of lecturers (three from the Chemistry and three from the Law discipline), and two Program Coordinators of the two EMI programs concerned. Lesson recordings, documentation such as national and institutional policy documents, curricula, course guides, and lesson PowerPoint slides are also sources of data. The teaching practices examined relate to content, pedagogy, and assessment.

It is important to note that the concept of self-positioning refers to the lecturers' assignment of rights and duties to themselves. Rights and duties are the focal concepts through which this study investigates EMI lecturers' instructional practices. This study, therefore, does not explore the lecturers' self-positionings or positions from the professional identity perspective, as in some other EMI studies (e.g., e.g., Block, 2021).

1.5 Significance of the study

The significance of this study is in its potential contributions to enhancing understanding of EMI classroom practices. Especially, via the adoption of Positioning Theory, the current study aims to generate insights into the relationship between EMI lecturers' perceived duties and their EMI implementation. It thus provides a coherent explanation for EMI lecturers' unwillingness to assume language teaching duties. In the Vietnamese EMI context, understanding the duty-action relationship is necessary, as the Confucian Heritage Culture attaches a high moral sense to the teaching profession (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010), and lecturers are thus often guided by a strong sense of duty to their students and their work.

Via the adaptation of the positioning triangle, the analytical framework of Positioning Theory, the study also seeks to contribute a framework that can clarify the interconnection among multiple contextual layers and between these layers and lecturers' EMI implementation. This helps close the gap between macro- and micro-discourses, which is a known weakness of Positioning Theory (Kayı-Aydar, 2019). More importantly, this analytical framework sheds light on the relationship between the local culture and EMI classroom practices. Thus, it might have implications for developing culturally responsive training programs for Vietnamese EMI lecturers. This is particularly important in the Vietnamese tertiary context where lecturers are practising "pedagogies of assumption" (Pham & Doan, 2020) due to the lack of professional training (Nguyen et al., 2017) and the absence of guidelines for EMI implementation at the national and institutional levels (Tri & Moskovsky, 2019).

1.6 Structure of the thesis

This thesis is organised into ten chapters. Following this introductory chapter, Chapter 2 describes the context of this study, including the socio-economic, political, and cultural features of Vietnam, especially key features of its higher education system, its foreign language education policies, and its EMI policies. It is also in Chapter 2 that previous EMI studies conducted in the Vietnamese context are reviewed. Chapter 3 synthesises the relevant literature on EMI in international contexts, focusing on EMI lecturers and their

instructional practices. Chapter 4 discusses key tenets of Positioning Theory, arguing its relevance to the research aims and research questions, and elaborates on the adaptation of the positioning triangle as the analytical framework for this study. Chapter 5 explains the methodology employed and the methodological procedures undertaken to find answers to the two research questions. Chapters 6, 7, and 8 present the findings of the study. Chapter 6 analyses EMI lecturers' rights and duties (or the lecturers' positionings) as stipulated in policies and related documents at the cultural, national, and institutional levels, and thus displays the normative background of EMI practices in Vietnam. Chapters 7 and 8 then analyse the Chemistry and Law lecturers' perceptions of their rights and duties (or their self-positionings) and their EMI teaching practices respectively, drawing on the interview and classroom data. Chapter 9 summarises the research findings and discusses them with reference to the current literature and Positioning Theory. This thesis ends with Chapter 10, which highlights the study's theoretical and empirical contributions, discusses the implications of its findings for EMI policy-making and teacher development in Vietnam, acknowledges the study's limitations, and proposes areas for future research.

Summary

As an introduction to this thesis, this chapter presents the rationale, background, research problems, research aims, and research questions that provided the foundation for the study in this thesis. The discussion of the background and the research problems suggests that more studies with a theoretical base are needed to understand EMI teaching practices, especially in the Vietnamese tertiary education context.

The following chapter describes the context of the study in detail, focusing on the socio-political and cultural features of Vietnam, its HE system, and its foreign language education policies, before discussing EMI studies conducted in the Vietnamese context.

CHAPTER 2: THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

Introduction

This chapter outlines the basic socio-economic, political, cultural, and educational features of Vietnam, the site of investigation, to contextualise its foreign language education policies, and its English-medium instruction (EMI) implementation in higher education. This contextual information assists readers in understanding the complexities around educational reforms in Vietnam, and the internationalisation of Vietnamese higher education via the use of English as a means of instruction.

2.1 Socio-economic, political, and cultural context of Vietnam

Being the third largest country in South-East Asia, Vietnam is, on the surface, a multilingual nation with 54 ethnic groups and eight language systems (Tran & Nguyen, 2018). However, in reality, Vietnam is quite linguistically homogenous. One ethnic group, the Kinh people, makes up approximately 90% of the whole Vietnamese population (Le, 2012). Demographically, Vietnam has a large number of young people, with about 70% of the approximately 97 million population (General Statistics Office of Vietnam, 2019) being under 35 years of age (World Bank, 2022). This means there is a significant need for education resources for all levels of education, and for tertiary education in particular.

Economically, Vietnam has witnessed remarkable economic growth in the last 30 years and is currently "one of the most dynamic emerging countries in the East Asia region" (World Bank, 2022). From one of the world's poorest countries, Vietnam has risen to the middle-income country group with the poverty rates reducing from 14% in 2010 to 3.8% in 2020 (World Bank, 2022). Vietnam's open door policy since 1986 has meant expanding its political presence, establishing more relationships with other countries, and participating in international organisations and associations. Such a global integration process has necessitated the need to internationalise the Vietnamese education system, especially its tertiary level, to build a strong workforce with English language competence and the capability to modernise and develop the country (Welch, 2010).

In terms of politics, Vietnam is one of a few countries led by unitary Communist one-party governments. Regarding political orientation, socialism is one of the three ideologies (i.e., socialism, neoliberalism, and Confucianism) influencing Vietnamese society. According to Furtak (1986), one major feature of socialism is the central governance of all socio-economic, cultural, educational, and political activities. This centralisation of power and the public ownership of resources and means of production generate a more equitable society, ensuring equal distribution of wealth and resources among all citizens, and equal opportunities for everyone. Competition, privatisation, and self-interest have no role in socialism, so the State covers social welfare and basic necessities of life, and every person is encouraged to work for the collective good. Socialism is also closely related to the long-lasting Vietnamese tradition of collectivism, which unites the Vietnamese people and strengthens community solidarity. In addition to centralised power, socialism is characterised by bureaucracy and subsidisation (Pham & Goyette, 2019). This cumbersome administrative apparatus slows down the rate of innovation, hinders socio-economic and educational development, and results in inefficient and ineffective State management. This, together with State subsidisation, significantly reduces the competitiveness of Vietnamese institutions and the economy in the international arena.

Despite this political tradition, socialism in Vietnam has broken from the original paradigms. This is an outcome of the adoption of the *Doi Moi* (Renovation) policy in 1986 (Mok, 2008), marking Vietnam's transformation from state socialism to market socialism. This ideological modification results in the increasing privatisation of the social welfare system. One of these privatisation strategies is the user-pay or "socialisation" schemes (Nguyen, 2018b). The public is requested to share with the government the costs of health care and education, which are theoretically free or low-priced, to provide better service quality. This reality is indeed associated with neoliberalism (Nguyen & Tran, 2019), the second ideology operating in modern Vietnamese society.

As Vietnam applied its *Doi Moi* policy in 1986 and has claimed to be a socialist-oriented market economy since 2001 (Dang, 2021), neoliberalism has officially found its place alongside socialism in the country. Neoliberalism emphasises free trade, a free market, and an unregulated economy, which seems to weaken the centralised power advocated by

socialism. While the government still maintains its management role by providing conditions, laws, and necessary institutions for market operations (Olssen & Peters, 2005), the welfare state and the role of collective responsibility are to some extent weakened, or even destroyed. The loss of universal public health and the privatisation of education via the "socialisation" or cost-sharing mechanisms are some of the major features of the *Doi Moi* policy in Vietnam (London, 2004).

Other features of neoliberalism are also evident in Vietnamese society. One is the popularity of the market law of supply and demand in several previously purely public sectors. This law regulates the market value of a product or a service. If a product or service is not desired, it becomes valueless in the market, no matter how much money has been invested in producing it. Another is the increasing presence and influence of globalisation in Vietnam, as a result of the promotion of free movement of goods, services, capital, and money across borders under neoliberal ideals (Kotz, 2002).

Additionally, growth, productivity, competition, and the maximisation of self-interest are goals of neoliberalists' actions, as compared to the goals of unity, harmony and the collective good of a socialist. Neoliberalism and individualism therefore coexist in Vietnam, producing ideological complexities and identity conflicts. Due to the paradoxical co-existence of two competing ideologies in Vietnamese society, i.e. socialism and neoliberalism, policy compromises are common, for example, in education (George, 2005; Mok, 2008). This also means that implementation inconsistencies are widespread. Remarkable economic growth under neoliberalism has led to changes in the values system, with a large proportion of Vietnamese youth now respecting material over spiritual values and individual over community benefits (Nguyen, 2016a). Ideological chaos and identity fragmentation (Nguyen, 2019) have brought about several social problems in contemporary Vietnamese society.

Despite an increasingly global outlook, Vietnam is inherently still very much characterised by a Confucian Heritage Culture (CHC). Confucianism is the third and longest-lasting ideology influencing the society as it is believed that Confucianism was introduced to Vietnam during the one thousand years of Chinese domination (Nghia, 2005). Confucianism supports an hierarchical society in which age is an asset, not a liability (Nguyen, 2019). Old people are generally respected as the more knowledgeable,

experienced, and wiser. Therefore, it is not easy for the seniors to accept the initiatives, opinions, or critiques of younger people.

Confucian societies also value education because of its social mobility value and harmony maintenance (Kim, 2009). Teachers and the teaching profession are positioned at the top (Nguyen, 2019). Teachers' social status is considered higher than students' parents, only lower than the ruler of the country (as evidenced in "*quân, sư, phụ - the King, the teacher, the father*") (Tran et al., 2020). In a Confucian education system, teachers' roles are expanded to include "a model of correct behavior" (Phuong-Mai, Terlouw, & Pilot, 2005, p. 406). As senior knowledge holders and knowledge transmitters, teachers are treated with respect and students are supposed to obey their teachers without question. CHC somehow does not allow a view of teachers as erroneous, imperfect human beings, whose knowledge is, in fact, limited. Students "must be taught the correct knowledge, not to question it" (Ho, 1994, p. 287).

Furthermore, there seems to be a causal relationship between Confucianism and the Vietnamese people's longing for academic achievements. In fact, this desire is deeply imprinted in the Vietnamese social mentality (Nguyen, 2019). The resulting obsession with examinations means students' exam performance is considered the most accurate indicator of teaching and learning quality, rather than students' academic activities or teachers' professional practices. Test scores (and achievements) are almost the only thing that educational stakeholders look at and care about (Phuong-Mai et al., 2005), which in reality may even lead to these results being manipulated to take academic advantage and/or to conceal different teaching and learning problems (Ha, 2019).

Closely related to test scores is the status of diplomas in society. According to Hofstede et al. (2010), "[t]he social acceptance that comes with the diploma is more important than the individual self-respect that comes with mastering a subject" (p. 119). Consequently, parents are willing to sacrifice physically (i.e., time and effort) and financially for their children to get the best and the most prestigious diplomas they can.

Due to the incontestable nature of the knowledge imparted by teachers in Confucianism, knowledge in Confucianism can be rigid, impractical, and out of tune with the requirements of workplaces (Tran & Marginson, 2014). The Confucian view of teachers

as the main source of knowledge in the Vietnamese education system results in learners being positioned as passive receivers, and their critical and creative thinking skills are traditionally not promoted. Also, since Confucianism views everyone as educable, the role of effort is emphasised in learners' academic success (Hayhoe & Li, 2017). It is a Confucian belief that with effort, learners can make progress and succeed in learning. This contradicts the Western view of capability as the main factor in learners' achievements (Hayhoe & Li, 2017).

In the following section, the Vietnamese higher education system, and its relationship with Vietnamese traditions and culture, particularly the three competing ideologies - Confucianism, socialism, and neoliberalism, are described in detail.

2.2 The higher education system in Vietnam

Education is a respected activity in Vietnam and educational development is considered the government's top priority (Government of Vietnam, 2019). Higher education (HE) in Vietnam follows upper secondary schooling, occurring at junior colleges and universities and awarding diplomas and bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degrees.

Organisational structure

Universities and colleges in the Vietnamese HE system are categorised into public or private institutions (National Assembly, 2018). Among these there are junior colleges (awarding three-year bachelor's degrees and diplomas), universities and academies (awarding undergraduate and postgraduate degrees), and PhD-granting research institutes (National Assembly, 2012) (see Figure 2.1 below for details). HE in Vietnam used to be organised according to the Soviet model, with mono-disciplinary institutions, teaching-focused universities, and research institutes (Le, Nguyen, Trinh, Le, & Pham, 2022). However, the country's HE system moved away from the Soviet model in the early 1990s, reintroducing multidisciplinary HE institutions from 1993 onwards (Pham & Hayden, 2018).

Figure 2.1: Structure of the education system in Vietnam

(Do & Do, 2014, p. 38)
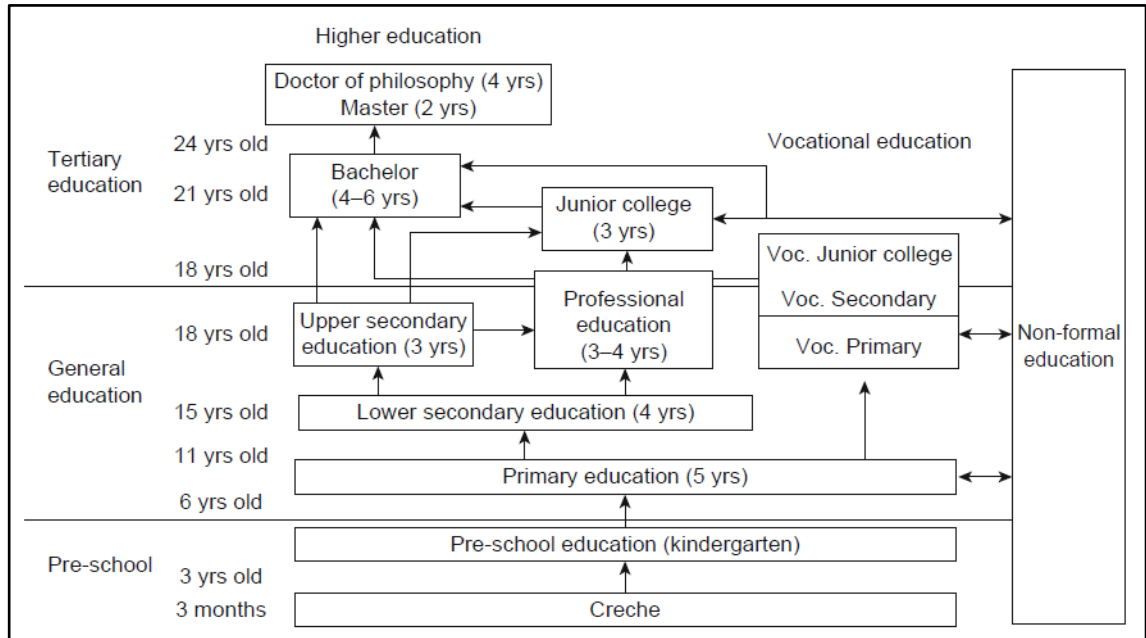
Enrolment

Regarding enrolment, Vietnamese HE institutions (except foreign-owned and transnational universities) used to select students based on the scores in the university entrance examinations organised by individual institutions. However, since 2015, in an attempt to alleviate bureaucracy, Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) has organised one annual exam called the National High School Examination, which serves both purposes of high school graduation and university enrolment for high school students (MOET, 2015). The National High School Examination consists of five papers: Maths, Vietnamese Literature, Foreign Languages (mostly English), Natural Sciences (with questions on Physics, Chemistry, and Biology), and Social Sciences (with questions on History, Geography, and Civic Education). Based on all students' exam scores in a particular year, MOET decides the baseline score (*điểm sàn*) for different higher education levels. Each HE institution then decides its own enrolment scores (which must be from the baseline) and additional requirements (if any) for enrolment in the programs on offer. The yearly National High School Examination is a major educational event, placing much pressure on the families and candidates involved (Do & Do, 2014).

Governance and the impact of socialism

In terms of governance, socialism still leaves a strong trace in the Vietnamese HE system, as evidenced by the centralisation of this education sector. The government of Vietnam continues to maintain tight control over the management and academic affairs of Vietnamese Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) (Do & Do, 2014). The State exercises its authority through various ministries, the three most important being MOET, the Ministry of Science and Technology (MOST), and the Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs (MOLISA) (Pham & Hayden, 2018). While MOET oversees and regulates the whole system, including determining institutional enrolment quotas, prescribing curriculum frameworks, and approving the establishment of new programs and institutions, among other duties, MOST allocates funds for research activities and takes care of public research institutes. MOLISA manages nearly all of the two-year colleges and vocational training centres (Pham & Hayden, 2018). In addition to these three ministries, public HE institutions are also under the line-management of 16 ministries and more than 60 State instrumentalities, which are responsible for appointing managerial positions in those institutions and approving institutional budgets (Pham & Hayden, 2018). This centralised bureaucratic administration of the Vietnamese higher education system generates non-transparent policies, inconsistent policy implementation, and generally ineffective system management.

Socialism, with its feature of centralised power in the Vietnamese HE system, leads to the top-down initiation of educational policies, limited autonomy given to tertiary education institutions (Nguyen et al., 2016), and mandatory political education, which accounts for 25% to 30% of the curriculum (Nguyen et al., 2017; Tran, Phan, & Marginson, 2018). Vietnamese HEIs tend to have almost all aspects of their performance regulated or controlled by the government, from identifying their vision and mission to conducting enrolment, academic, research and financial activities (Nguyen, 2018d). Additionally, political education forms a compulsory part of Vietnamese schooling, starting from K-12 to tertiary level, with Teenagers and Youth Associations (*Đội và Đoàn*) and Marxist-Leninist-Ho Chi Minh Thought subjects in all tertiary curricula (National Assembly, 2012). Therefore, HE in Vietnam is considered more as a means to maintain social order, to foster national cohesion and economic development, than a place to exercise intellectual and academic freedom (Nguyen et al., 2016).

The impact of Confucianism and neoliberalism:

Furthermore, throughout its development, Vietnamese HE has been influenced by not only socialism, but also Confucianism and neoliberalism (Ngo, 2020). These two latter ideologies underlie Vietnamese HE dynamics, including but not limited to the relationships among educational stakeholders, the teaching-learning approach and activities, and the internationalisation of HE.

(1) Confucianism and the power relations within Vietnamese HE

As a former Chinese colony, Confucianism has a strong footprint in Vietnamese society, including the Vietnamese education system. HE in Vietnam is strongly associated with hierarchical and power relations (Nguyen, 2019). As discussed in the previous section (section 2.1), teachers and seniors are highly respected in a Confucian society. Therefore, it is not easy for young faculty members, particularly those in managerial positions, to navigate relationships with senior colleagues, especially when the latter used to be their teachers (Tran et al., 2020). This weakens the decision-making power of young academics and hinders educational innovation initiatives when these innovative plans go against the will of senior lecturers.

(2) Confucianism and the teacher-centred pedagogical approach

Confucianism is also evidenced in the prevalent teacher-centred teaching approach in Vietnamese HE (Parajuli, Vo, Salmi, & Tran, 2020), with a focus on formal academic learning and theoretical knowledge (Tran & Nguyen, 2018). Additionally, teachers are viewed as knowledge holders and transmitters, and students are passive receivers, who are not supposed to challenge their teachers (Phuong-Mai et al., 2005). As a result, knowledge, rather than pedagogy, tends to be emphasised in HE (Kim, 2009) and the most common form of lesson delivery is lecturing and whole-class teaching (Biggs, 1998).

(3) Neoliberalism and the modified view of education and knowledge

The introduction of neoliberal ideals to Vietnam in 1986 via the initiation of the renovation policy (*Đổi mới*) has brought about many changes to the Vietnamese HE system. The first and overarching change is the new attitude towards education and knowledge. In a neoliberal society, knowledge becomes a new form of capital, and HE, the key knowledge-generating industry, becomes the key driver of economic growth (Olssen & Peters, 2005). As education is now a service sector and knowledge is a commodity, both education and knowledge are under the regulation of different market laws such as the law of supply and demand. This entails modifying the teacher-student relationship, with teachers no longer respected knowledge holders and students no longer obedient knowledge receivers. Neoliberal lecturers are service providers who must respect and succumb to students', now customers', requests. As "customers are God" in neoliberalism, customers are supposed to be "always right", putting contemporary lecturers in a difficult situation where they must fulfil their teaching tasks and tactfully handle their relationships with students. This situation presents a conflict in Vietnam as a traditionally Confucian society where teachers hold supreme authority over their students. Some scholars noted that "Confucian educational values, which socially define the hierarchy between students and teachers, and between junior and senior, act as a filter for the acceptance of foreign influences in a Vietnamese university" (Tran et al., 2020, p. 291).

(4) Neoliberalism and the privatisation of Vietnamese HE

The second neoliberalism-induced change in Vietnamese HE is the privatisation of the public education sector through the cost-sharing or "socialisation" (*xã hội hóa*) schemes. "Socialisation" is a euphemistic term adopted by Vietnamese policymakers to avoid the term "cost-sharing" (Pham & Vu, 2019). From being fully subsidised by the government, Vietnamese HE started its cost-sharing mechanism in 1993 with the Prime Minister's issuance of Decision No. 220-TTg (Le et al., 2022), which required parents and students to share HE costs with the government. Since then, tuition fees have been charged and have been increased periodically.

Currently, Vietnamese HE is implementing a dual system of tuition fees, in which there are both partially State-subsidised students and fully self-paid students (Le et al., 2022). Partially State-subsidised students are required to pay tuition fees capped by the government, to share the education costs with the State. The tuition fee cap for normal public university students in the academic year of 2021-2022 ranges between $32 and $89 per month, depending on majors, and is planned to increase a maximum of 7.5% yearly (Government of Vietnam, 2021). In contrast, fully self-paid students, who pay 100% of their instruction costs, are from private universities, transnational education programs whose degrees are granted by international universities, and special programs (e.g., Advanced Programs, High-Quality Programs) in public universities. Tuition fees for fully self-paid students in Vietnam vary widely across institutions, from approximately $1,400 USD per year (e.g. for students in special programs of public universities) to $14,000 per year (e.g. for students in transnational programs like those of the Royal Melbourne Institute of Technology - RMIT Vietnam).

(5) Neoliberalism and the internationalisation of the Vietnamese HE system

The third change in the Vietnamese HE system, which also results from neoliberalism, is the internationalisation of HE to improve teaching and research quality, gain a regional and international reputation, and generate revenue (Altbach & Knight, 2007). In fact, the internationalisation of HE has been identified as one of the crucial strategies to produce a high-quality workforce that can enhance Vietnam's competitiveness in the global knowledge economy (Tran & Marginson, 2018). Following the country's participation in the World Trade Organization and the General Agreement on Trade in Service (GATS), the Vietnam Higher Education Law in 2012, for the first time, endorsed Vietnamese curriculum autonomy, paving the way for the development of educational internationalisation in Vietnamese HE.

On the macro-level, internationalisation in HE in Vietnam is reflected in not only the number of outbound and inbound students, but also in the establishment of transnational universities, foreign-owned universities, international partnership training programs (Pham & Hayden, 2018), and the increasing number of at-home international educational programs (Nghia, Giang, & Quyen, 2019). In other words, mobility of students, programs, and providers are key features of internationalisation in Vietnamese HE (Nhan & Le,

2019). It was estimated that in 2018 approximately 200,000 Vietnamese students were studying abroad (Tran, 2019). The most popular countries for Vietnamese students are Japan, Australia, the United States, China, and the United Kingdom (Pham & Hayden, 2018).

On the micro- (program) level, the internationalisation of Vietnamese HE is evidenced in its adoption of many foreign practices, such as curriculum borrowing in Advanced Programs, credit-based curriculum (in place of the year-based model) with program and course learning outcomes, practice-based and student-centred teaching approaches, end-of-course questionnaires to evaluate teachers' work performance and improve students' learning experiences, Western research standards, and more market-oriented academic activities (Tran et al., 2020). Nevertheless, as Tran et al. (2020) point out, those foreign practices "are filtered by teachers' and leaders' agency and perspectives on the appropriateness of the introduced foreign practices, endorsed by the centralised leadership and management system, and adjusted to fit Confucian educational and cultural values" (p. 291). Therefore, the Vietnamese HE system might not fully achieve the intended outcomes of applying those imported practices.

The pressure to internationalise Vietnamese higher education also comes from the Vietnamese people's strong desire for quality education and foreign diplomas, especially those from English-speaking countries. Every year thousands of Vietnamese people go overseas to study, causing the country to lose millions of American dollars. In 2018 it was estimated that Vietnamese families spend $3-4 billion USD annually on their children's overseas education (VNExpress, 2018). According to Ms Susan Burns, Consul General of the United States in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam, the number of Vietnamese students in the United States is approximately 30,000, and is ranked sixth among the countries with the largest number of international students in the United States, and the first among South-East Asian countries (Trong Nhan, 2022).

To prevent the financial loss of Vietnamese students to foreign universities and to raise educational quality, and thus institutional competitiveness in the global university ranking systems, Vietnamese HEIs have increasingly grown aware of the importance of internationalisation in their educational activities. So far, the use of English as a medium of instruction, the borrowing of foreign curricula, and the provision of internationally-

recognised qualifications through international collaboration schemes have been the main internationalisation strategies that Vietnamese HEIs enacted (Duong & Chua, 2016; Tran & Marginson, 2018).

Another important practice of internationalisation of HE in Vietnam's national policy is the performance of quality assurance and accreditation (Nhan & Le, 2019), to improve educational quality. The first attempt to develop a quality assurance for HE in Vietnam occurred in the late 1990s, but it was not until 2004 that HE accreditation and accrediting activities were officially endorsed in the Educational Development Plan 2001-2010 (MOET, 2004). Vietnam's accreditation model is a variation of the US model, with similar accreditation procedures and evaluation methods (Pham & Nguyen, 2019). However, unlike accreditation in the USA, accreditation in Vietnam is compulsory and State-controlled (Pham & Nguyen, 2019). Despite employing several quality assurance instruments, the quality of Vietnamese HE is still "not managed and controlled" due to overlapping standards, the scope of the work, and the ineffective combination of those instruments (Do, 2019, p. 92).

Overall achievements of Vietnamese HE reform

Alongside the country's remarkable economic development in the last 30 years, Vietnamese HE has made tremendous progress. The size of the tertiary education sector has increased dramatically, with the gross enrolment ratio rising from 10.59% in 1999 to nearly 35.4% in 2021 (UNESCO, 2022). Of the 90 million-plus population, more than 2 million attend HE, in over 400 universities and colleges (Pham & Hayden, 2018). University attendance accounts for two-thirds of those students, most of whom enrol in public HE institutions (Pham & Hayden, 2018). The number of academic staff with master's and/or PhD degrees also increased to 72% in 2015 (but only 23% of faculty has a PhD degree) and the research output, in the form of the number of citable documents per capita, has almost tripled in the last decade (Parajuli et al., 2020). As Figure 2.2 shows, Vietnamese universities have started to appear in the global university ranking lists, with such names as Vietnam National University-Hanoi, Vietnam National University Ho Chi Minh City, and Hanoi University of Science and Technology (HUST) (Parajuli et al., 2020).

Figure 2.2: Seven Vietnamese universities meet international standards

VIETNAMESE UNIVERSITIES MEET INTERNATIONAL STANDARDS

AS OF NOV. 30, 2021

174 Higher education institutions and pedagogical colleges recognised to meet domestic standards

7 Higher education institutions recognised to meet international quality standards

7 UNIVERSITIES MEET INTERNATIONAL QUALITY STANDARDS

University of Science and Technology (Viet Nam National University Ho Chi Minh City)

International University (Viet Nam National University Ho Chi Minh City)

University of Science and Technology (University of Da Nang)

Ha Noi University of Science and Technology

University of Civil Engineering

University of Natural Sciences (Ha Noi National University)

Ton Duc Thang University

Source: Ministry of Education and Training
infographics.vn
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(Source: *https://en.vietnamplus.vn/seven-vietnamese-universities-meet-international-standards/218580.vnp*)

Residual problems in Vietnamese HE

Despite a number of educational reforms and significant achievements over the past three decades, HE in Vietnam is still beset with problems. In fact, HE has been identified as the weakest sector in the Vietnamese education system (Tran et al., 2014). Although access to HE in Vietnam has improved considerably in recent years, Vietnam's access rate to HE is still one of the lowest among East Asian countries. The total number of HE graduates at the typical graduation age, or the gross graduation ratio is only 19% (Nguyen, 2018c). In terms of quality, although the socialisation schemes have been in effect since 1993, they do not adequately increase income for Vietnamese HEIs to maintain high-quality education (Postiglione, 2011), nor are these cost-sharing schemes effective in reducing inequality of access to HE in Vietnam (Vu & Nguyen, 2018). The relevance of HE to society's demands is also low. According to Parajuli et al. (2020), traditional

curriculum and pedagogy are one of the main reasons for the low relevance of Vietnamese HE with the needs of the labour market. Vietnamese curricula are still content-based rather than competency- or skill-based, focusing heavily on theoretical knowledge. Lecturers still suffer from heavy teaching loads and undesirable research and professional learning conditions, which inhibit their research engagement, research productivity (Harman & Le, 2010), and professional development (Nguyen, 2019). University graduates are reported as not work-ready due to a significant skills gap (Parajuli et al., 2020). Moreover, the main method of content delivery in Vietnamese HE is still lecturing and whole-class teaching. Peer-to-peer or student-based learning and skills development are rarely adopted.

Though intensified in the last decade, internationalisation efforts have produced few desirable outcomes (Nguyen & Tran, 2018). Due to fragmented, ad hoc, and inconsistent activities, only a small group of students and lecturers can take full advantage of internationalisation opportunities. For the majority, rigid policy borrowing without considering Vietnamese cultural values and teaching and learning culture has resulted in low cost-efficiency and a huge waste of resources (Nguyen & Tran, 2018).

In general, despite being strongly engrained in Confucianism and socialism, the Vietnamese HE system has been opening itself to Western values and standards since the economic reforms in 1986, thus absorbing more and more of the neoliberal ideals. Nevertheless, different competing ideological paradigms have created contradictory practices within the system, particularly the conflicts between policies and practices, visions and implementation. This has limited any successful outcomes. Foreign language education has, however, played a key role in the country's enhanced economic and political integration into the international arena. The following section provides an overview of foreign language education policies in Vietnam.

2.3 Overview of foreign language education policies in Vietnam

As with other countries in East and South-East Asia, Vietnam's foreign language education policies have typically reflected its complex socio-cultural and political history (Wright, 2002). Being ruled by China for over 1,000 years (111 BC – 939 AD) and then colonised by France for nearly 100 years (1858-1954), most of the recorded Vietnamese

history sees the people being forced to learn their rulers' languages: Chinese language from 111 BC to around the 17th century, and then French from 1858 to 1954 (Wright, 2002). Therefore, there was a long-standing association between language and national freedom in Vietnamese people's minds, and thus a strong desire to use their own language and a careful consideration about what foreign languages to learn. The following section presents an overview of foreign language education policies in Vietnam according to the country's modern historical timeline, with 1945, 1954, 1975, and 1986 being the important milestones acting as time dividers.

Before 1945

Before 1945, the foreign languages existing in Vietnamese society were mainly the languages of the colonists. During the 1,000-year Chinese rule (from 111 BC to 938 AD), Chinese was the language of education and administration. Chinese remained the language of the State even after Vietnam gained independence from China in 939 AD. It was not until the 13th century, in an attempt to mitigate Chinese influence, that *chữ nôm* or ideographic Vietnamese was developed based on Chinese characters. However, chữ nôm was only used by Vietnamese scholars for Vietnamese literary texts, while Chinese was still the official language for law and government until the 18th century (Pham, 2014; Wright, 2002, 2004).

In the 17th century, Christian missionaries came to Vietnam and created *Quốc ngữ* - a type of Vietnamese language based on Roman characters. *Quốc ngữ* had the advantage of being easier to learn than *chữ nôm*, which was based on Chinese ideograms (Wright, 2002). However, Quốc ngữ was not often used in its first two centuries of its existence (Wright, 2002).

At the end of the 18th century, the French looked to Vietnam as a potential colony and officially colonised the country in the latter half of the 19th century (Wright, 2002). *Quốc ngữ* was used in the first three years of primary education, prior to a shift to French in its later educational stages (Osborne, 1997). By 1878, the two languages in official documents in Vietnam were *Quốc ngữ* and French. However, few Vietnamese people had the opportunity to be educated in *Quốc ngữ* and French in colonial schools. If they did, their studies rarely continued to the secondary level. As a result, the French colonial

period in Vietnam did not produce a Vietnamese generation competent in French language skills (Wright, 2002).

From 1945 to 1974

When Vietnam declared its independence from France in 1945, foreign language education was not a priority of the then-young Vietnamese government, as mass literacy was the national goal.

With the return of France after the 1945 revolution, French once again was presented as the official language of education in Vietnam. However, this situation ended when France was defeated in 1954. In northern Vietnam, the status of French was very low after the First Indochina War (or the Anti-French Resistance War), while Chinese was favoured due to the substantial support that northern Vietnam received from China during wartime. In the south of Vietnam, French stayed prominent due to continued economic and political aid from France (Pham, 2014), but gradually lost its foothold as the stronger presence of the Americans in southern Vietnam from 1964 induced southerners to gradually switch to English for military and political benefits (Tollefson, 2001).

From 1954 to 1974, Vietnam was divided into the North and the South, each of which was economically and politically supported by a superpower: the former Soviet Union in the North and the US in the South. As a result, while English rose to prominence in the South of Vietnam, its status was very low in the North, limited to the goal of understanding and fighting the US on the diplomatic front (Hoang, 2010).

In the north, the first official document stipulating the teaching and learning of foreign languages in schools, vocational training institutions, and technical cadres was issued in 1968 (Pham, 2014). Four years later, Decision No. 251 TTg was passed by the then Prime Minister, who approved of improving foreign language education in schools. This decision was believed to foster the development of Western languages like English and French in the Vietnamese school curricula; however English achieved a much lesser status than French, and these two languages were not as favoured as Chinese and Russian in the north (Pham, 2014).

From 1975 to the early 1990s

Since winning the American War and reunifying the country in 1975, Vietnam's Communist government has implemented a one-nation-one-language policy to build a unified national identity in the post-war period (Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2017). As a result, the Vietnamese language, or *Quốc ngữ,* has been used as the main medium of instruction at all education levels in Vietnam, and foreign language education is adopted for political and economic reasons rather than educational ones (Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2017).

In the immediate post-war period, foreign language education, especially the teaching and learning of Western languages like English and French, was limited due to the embargo from the United States. Chinese continued to be popular in north Vietnam until 1979, when a brief border war broke out between the two countries. Hence, "Chinese joined French and English as the language of an enemy of the Vietnamese state," and these three foreign languages almost disappeared from the general Vietnamese curricula from 1975 to 1986 (Wright, 2002).

From 1975 to 1990, because of the closed diplomatic policy and the strong political and economic relationships with the former Soviet Union, Russian was the most popular foreign language in Vietnam. People who used to learn English or French, especially those in the South, found the need to convert to Russian for fear of political discrimination (Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2017). The national targets set for teaching and learning Russian, English and French in the formal educational system were roughly 70%, 20% and 10%, respectively (Hoang, 2010). However, the collapse of the Soviet Union ended the Russian language's popularity in Vietnam. During a short period (1988-1991), Russian was replaced by English (Grey & Pohl, 1997). As Vietnam renewed its political relations with China in 1991, Chinese once again appeared in the Vietnamese foreign language education agenda.

With the recognition of Vietnam as a full member of the Francophone zone in 1979, France started to reintroduce French in Vietnam (Tollefson, 2001). French organisations made huge investments to promote the uptake of French as a foreign language subject, and as the medium of instruction for the study of law, medicine, and computer science in

Vietnam (Pham, 2014). Currently, French is one of the many foreign languages, e.g., English, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, German, Spanish, Portuguese, and Arabic, being taught in big Vietnamese cities.

From 1986 to present

In 1986, the Vietnamese government initiated an economic reform known as *Đổi mới* (Renovation). Vietnam's need to industrialise and modernise the country, together with the reality of its deeper integration into the globalisation process, necessitated the promotion of foreign language teaching and learning.

As a lingua franca of ASEAN and APEC, of which Vietnam is a member, English has been promoted as "the first (and nearly the only) foreign language" taught in the formal educational system in Vietnam (Hoang, 2010). In fact, English has been the main foreign language in the Vietnamese education system since the 1990s (Do, 2006). English is a compulsory language at primary, secondary and tertiary levels. It is the only foreign language taught from Year 3 in nearly all public primary schools in Vietnam. According to Nguyen (2004), 98% of Vietnamese students at all educational levels were learning English. English is also one of the six test papers in the national high school graduation exams, and the foreign language selected by more than 90% of Vietnamese tertiary students, regardless of their majors, in their tertiary programs (Le, 2007). In contemporary Vietnam, English has also been equated with employment and educational opportunities (Phan, Vu, & Dat, 2014).

Since the beginning of the 21st century, the Government of Vietnam has promulgated several documents promoting foreign language education in both formal and informal educational systems (Pham, 2014). The most notable legal document was the ratification of the project "Teaching and learning foreign languages in the national educational system from 2008 to 2020" (hereafter the National Foreign Language Project or the NFLP) (Government of Vietnam, 2008a). This aimed at enhancing foreign language proficiency, mainly English language proficiency, for students at all levels and for government officials. The NFLP officially adopted the six levels of language proficiency (A1 to C2) developed by the European Union. The Common European Framework of Reference for languages, or the CEFR, is the benchmark for assessing English language

proficiency in Vietnam. The NFLP was divided into three phases, each of which had specific objectives (Hoang, 2010):

- Phase 1: 2008-2010: develop the 10-year foreign language curriculum, with a particular focus on English; write English language textbooks; prepare conditions for the implementation of the 10-year English language curriculum (from Year 3 to Year 12).
- Phase 2: 2011-2015: implement the 10-year English textbook set in the national educational system.
- Phase 3: 2016-2020: perfect the 10-year English program and develop foreign language programmes for the tertiary level.

However, the NFLP 2008-2020 failed to achieve its targets within the specified duration (Luong, 2016), resulting in Decision 2080/QD-TTg modifying and supplementing the NFLP in the 2017-2025 period (Government of Vietnam, 2017). Foreign scholars attributed the failure of the NFLP to the lack of qualified and advanced learning and teaching resources, and the absence of a community of practice to support teachers' ongoing professional learning (Edmett, Donaghy, & Tysoe, 2020). Domestic scholars saw problems in not only pre-service English language teacher education programs, which are too theoretical, but also in the educational culture of Vietnam, where teachers and students are given low autonomy, and the implementation processes of the NFLP 2020 itself, including the adoption of the CEFR framework (Le, 2011; Nguyen, Nguyen, Van Nguyen, & Nguyen, 2018; Vu & Phan, 2020).

Consequentially, one of the main objectives of Decision 2080/QD-TTg (on modifying and supplementing the NFLP in the 2017-2025 period) has been to extend foreign language (mainly English) learning beyond formal English language education, by means of promoting the integration of English in the teaching and learning of content subjects. In other words, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) at school levels and EMI at the tertiary level are targeted as potential additional solutions to enhance Vietnamese learners' English language proficiency. Given the focus of this study, the next section will describe Vietnam's current EMI policies for the country's HE system.

2.4 Overview of EMI policies in Vietnam

As noted above, Vietnamese HE has been criticised for the quality of its offerings. In an attempt to revamp the higher education system's capacity and capabilities, the Government of Vietnam mandated the Higher Education Reform Agenda (HERA) in 2005 (Government of Vietnam, 2005b). One of the major changes proposed in HERA was the internationalisation of HE.

English-medium instruction (EMI) is considered an important internationalisation strategy in Vietnamese higher education. In fact, EMI has been considered a symbol of internationalisation in Vietnamese HE (Duong & Chua, 2016). EMI also plays a key part in Vietnam's current foreign language education policies, which aim at enhancing the English language proficiency of the present and future young Vietnamese workforce.

According to Tran and Nguyen (2018), the internationalisation process of Vietnamese HE over the last 20 years has had a strong association with EMI. Although it was not until 2005 that Vietnam's Education Law allowed foreign languages as a means of instruction (MoI) (Government of Vietnam, 2005a), and 2008 that the National Language Project 2020 (NLF2020) endorsed EMI programs (Government of Vietnam, 2008a), EMI-based programs have been offered in Vietnamese HEIs since the 1990s via international collaborative partnerships (Vietnam International Education Department, 2017). However, such international collaborations were approved ad hoc and only occurred in a limited way in the form of Joint Programs in big national universities (Nguyen, 2016b).

The first large-scale governmental initiative to establish EMI programs in Vietnam happened in 2006, when the Vietnamese MOET submitted a proposal for Advanced Programs. Advanced Programs (APs) are a type of "internationalisation-at-home" (Crowther et al., 2000), in which selected Vietnamese universities import curricula from prestigious foreign counterparts and deliver them in English to local students. The overall objective of the APs was to overhaul the university curriculum, and to develop the capacity of some strong academic disciplines, academic departments, or universities at regional and international levels (Government of Vietnam, 2008b). Via internationalising the curriculum, not only the content but also course design, teaching methodologies and assessment are imported (Tran et al., 2018). As a result, the traditionally outdated

curriculum of Vietnam and the much-criticised teacher-centred method of lecturing, note-taking and memorising content were believed to be addressed. The AP policy was expected to provide a shortcut to achieving international standards in HE. The proposal was officially passed in 2008 with the effective period from 2008-2015 although its trialling period started in 2006. For five years (i.e., the first three cohorts), the APs were subsidised by the government and since 2015, the participant universities have been required to fund their Advanced Programs themselves.

Realising the need for an official policy enabling universities to raise funds to maintain special programs like the APs, near the end of the APs project, in 2014 Circular No. 23 was passed, introducing another type of EMI programs, called "High-Quality Programs" (MOET, 2014a). To date, four types of EMI programs have been implemented in Vietnamese universities. This is illustrated in the following table.

Table 2.1: EMI Programs in the Vietnamese HE system

(Adapted from Nguyen et al., 2017; Tri, 2020)

Types of EMI programs	Program nature	Degree conferred	Program nomenclatures in Vietnamese HE
Foreign programs	Offshore (wholly offshore)	Foreign degree	Joint programs
	Twinning (partially offshore: two/three years in Vietnam and two/one year in the foreign partner institution)	Foreign degree	Joint programs
	Franchising	Local degree*	Advanced programs
Domestic programs	Locally developed with reference to foreign programs	Local degree*	High-Quality programs

* In some specific cases, students will likely be awarded a foreign degree if they take their final year of study overseas, in a partner university (Tran & Nguyen, 2018).

Foreign EMI-based programs (i.e., Chương trình Đào tạo Nước ngoài) utilise foreign partner HEIs' curriculum, materials and assessment (Nguyen, 2009, as cited in Nguyen, 2016b). Under foreign EMI-based programs, there are APs (i.e., Chương trình Tiên tiến) and Joint Programs (i.e., Chương trình Liên kết). While APs aim at capacity building for Vietnamese HEIs, Joint Programs try to reduce the number of outbound Vietnamese

students by providing them with a chance to gain a foreign diploma (wholly or partially) domestically (Nguyen, 2016b; Tri, 2020). Domestic EMI programs (i.e., Chương trình Đào tạo Chất lượng cao or High-Quality Programs - HQPs) are offered by qualified HEIs, which are believed to possess sufficient conditions to assure the quality of the EMI programs (MOET, 2014a).

According to a governmental report in 2021 about high-quality educational programs in public HEIs from 2011 to 2020 (MOET, 2021), there are 35 APs in partnership with 22 internationally renowned universities, among which seven programs have been accredited by ASEAN University Network (AUN) standards and one program by Vietnam National University (VNU) standards. These APs belong to science-technology disciplines (18 programs), economics-management (5 programs), natural sciences (6 programs), agriculture-forestry-fishery and veterinary (5 programs), and health science (1 program). Regarding High-Quality Programs, this report also lists 224 HQPs based on Circular No. 23 (MOET, 2014a), offered at 38 public HEIs. Until May 2021, 16 out of those 224 HQPs have been accredited based on either AUN or VNU standards.

APs, Joint Programs and High-Quality Programs (HQPs) are different in several aspects such as the number of courses taught in English, the ranking of partner institutions (if any), student intake, degree-awarding institutions, and sometimes entry requirements as well. The number of courses taught in English decreases from Joint Programs to Advanced Programs to High-Quality Programs, with the first 100% of their subjects taught in English (Yao, Collins, Bush, Briscoe, & Dang, 2022) while the last only about 20% (MOET, 2014a). Furthermore, foreign partners in Advanced Programs are often ranked higher compared to those in Joint Programs, so while Advanced Programs enrol high-achieving students, the academic performance of Joint Program students is at the medium level (Tran & Nguyen, 2018). Students' academic performance in HQPs is often the lowest due to the total control a university has over its HQPs' enrolment conditions and criteria. After all, this is a self-controlled full-fee program. Specifications of these three types of EMI programs in Vietnamese HEIs are detailed in Table 2.2.

However, it is important to note that APs suffered from the end of State subsidisation in 2015, and since then, APs have been monitored by the institutions involved. As a result, several features of the original APs in the table below might no longer be valid (Tran et

al., 2018). As the universities in question have to fund their APs, some start enrolling AP students on the same conditions as those of the mainstream Vietnamese-medium instruction (VMI) programs or the HQPs, resulting in lower AP entry requirements (Ha, 2013). Thus, the higher quality of AP students compared to HQPs ones in these cases might no longer be sustained (Ha, 2013).

In brief, the Government of Vietnam has adopted the internationalisation of HE as one of its main strategies to enhance the quality of the Vietnamese labour force to meet global demands. Central to the internationalisation of Vietnamese HE is the implementation of English-taught programs in national, regional and key universities (Hoang, 2010). Although EMI programs have been popular in Vietnam for only ten years or so, limited available research into EMI in this context has revealed both benefits and issues to tackle. The following section will summarise research findings related to EMI in HE in Vietnam.

Table 2.2: Regulations on EMI-based Programs in Vietnamese HE

(Adapted from Nguyen, 2016b, p. 82)

	Advanced Programs (Government of Vietnam, 2008b)	**Joint Programs** (Government of Vietnam, 2012)	**High-Quality Programs** (MOET, 2014a)
Objectives	• capacity building of HEIs	• developing transnational education	• producing a highly competitive labour force in the era of regional and international economic integration
Students admission requirements	• Pass the national university entrance exam • English language proficiency (ELP): sufficient • 550 TOEFL score after two years in the program • Degree awarded by the Vietnamese university only, or with a partner university	• The university admission requirements • ELP: B2 CEFR for languages • Degree awarded by a Vietnamese university under Vietnamese law & by a foreign university under the foreign country's law	• Pass the national university entrance exam • Other admission requirements by the university • Degree awarded by the Vietnamese university only
Academics	• Vietnamese and foreign • Master's degree and above • ELP: sufficient ELP	• Vietnamese or foreign • Master's degree and above • ELP: CEFR C1 or equivalent	• Vietnamese or foreign • Master's degree and above • ELP: CEFR C1 or overseas postgraduate training in EMI
Resources	• 1st three years: the government pays 60% of the expenses, the university 25% and students 15% • Adequate teaching environment	• Adequate teaching environment	• University decides on tuition fees • Exclusive teaching room, self-study space with Wi-Fi for students
Curriculum and materials	• Credit-based curriculum • Use most of the original curriculum of the partner university (with some adaptation to suit the Vietnamese context) (partner universities must be in the top 200 world-leading universities) • Use materials from the partner university • Sufficient provision of English materials	• Use the accredited curriculum of the foreign partner university • Sufficient provision of English materials	• Credit-based curriculum • Reference to VMI curriculum and foreign curriculum • Consultation of experts from outside the university (local and international) • Sufficient provision of updated materials in Vietnamese and English
Methods	• Student-centred approach • Use modern teaching software • Use modern assessment methods	• Follow the pedagogical approach used in the foreign partner university	• Apply new pedagogical approach: develop students' skills in presentation, teamwork
Evaluation and community	• Students' evaluation for each course • Internal and external accreditation		• Internal & external accreditation

2.5 Research into English-medium instruction in Vietnam

Driven by neoliberal globalisation, the need for English language development of the labour force, and the internationalisation trend of higher education (Hamid et al., 2013b), EMI has been identified by the Vietnamese government as a key educational strategy, especially for its higher education system to keep pace with the global standards. As discussed earlier, although EMI in Vietnam could be traced back to international partnerships at the postgraduate level in the 1990s (Nguyen et al., 2017), it was not until the early 2000s, particularly from 2008 onwards, that EMI offerings started to flourish in Vietnamese HE institutions (HEIs), with the issuance of the National Foreign Language Project 2020 (Government of Vietnam, 2008a) and the official approval of the Advanced Program Project (Government of Vietnam, 2008b).

According to a MOET report (MOET, 2021), up to 2020, there are 275 "high-quality" programs in Vietnamese public HEIs, including 35 Advanced Programs, 16 High-Quality Engineering programs (PFIEV), and 224 High-Quality Programs (according to Circular No. 23). These programs comprise just part of a much larger number of EMI programs currently on offer in Vietnam because the report did not consider Joint Programs at public universities, transnational programs at foreign university branches in Vietnam, and High-Quality Programs offered by Vietnamese private universities, and other EMI programs offered at the graduate level. Nevertheless, from about 20 programs or so in 2001 (Ngo, 2019), the current availability of hundreds of EMI programs at the tertiary level in Vietnam has demonstrated the rising popularity of this educational approach in the country.

With more or less a decade of EMI development, EMI research in Vietnam is still in its infancy (Tran, 2020). A review of research into EMI in Vietnam up to the year 2022 reveals that most studies focused on language policy planning, with some reference to lecturers' pedagogical practices as the policy implementation at the micro- (or classroom) level. The discussion of EMI teaching practices in these studies, hence, is minimal, mainly targeting lecturers' and students' language practices. A comprehensive view of EMI teaching practices in the Vietnamese context is still lacking.

More importantly, studies conducted in the Vietnamese context so far have often lacked a theoretical framework to understand EMI lecturers' pedagogical actions. Language policy planning frameworks, see e.g., Tri (2020), or the ROAD-MAPPING framework, see e.g., Vo et al. (2022), as adopted by a few studies, can arguably offer only a limited view of EMI teaching practices. These frameworks cannot provide insights into the underpinning beliefs of Vietnamese EMI lecturers, and thus cannot explain their pedagogical actions. A deeper understanding of EMI practices in Vietnam is therefore not yet available.

Findings of the EMI studies conducted in Vietnam comprise three major themes: (1) benefits of EMI, (2) implementation problems, and (3) institutional, including lecturers' and students', strategies to respond to their current challenges, to promote EMI development and harmonise EMI with their current teaching and learning duties. The following section will discuss each theme in more detail. Themes two and three are integrated to avoid unnecessary repetition.

2.5.1 Benefits of EMI

Research into EMI implementation in Vietnam has shown several benefits accruing to different stakeholders including HEIs concerned, EMI lecturers and students, not to mention the Vietnamese HE system and society at large.

Drawing on interviews with 12 executives, 26 EMI academics and 17 student focus groups in International University (a pseudonym), Tran and Nguyen (2018) have identified five benefits that the International University can gain from internationalisation and Englishisation of its programs:

> (1) a substantial income increase both from governmental grants for EMI programs and from significantly high tuition fees levied on EMI students, who might have to pay five to ten times higher than those in the standard Vietnamese-medium-instruction programs;

(2) more academic mobility and academic collaboration through a partnership with foreign universities in the form of overseas professional development for local academics and guest lecturing by foreign academics. Specifically, these professional development opportunities were reported to enhance local faculty's confidence in teaching the imported curricula;

(3) well-regarded curricula imported from foreign partners, which not only provide updated disciplinary content and facilitate students' ELP but also accelerate the International University's accreditation process, which is the university's ultimate goal in its development agenda.

(4) expansion of international networking; and

(5) increased, though relatively slow, international student intake.

Tri's (2021) analysis of national and institutional policies, interviews with university administrators, content lecturers, and student focus groups echoed the above-mentioned benefits. According to Tri (2021), EMI is "ideologically embraced as producing different forms of capital, including linguistic, cultural, economic, and social capital" (p. 1) because of the Englishisation of the curriculum as "access to supreme cultural capital" (p. 8), the English-speaking environment as a boost for students' linguistic capital, among other reasons. However, it should be noted that many of those benefits are stated beliefs, which might not be translated into real gains.

Similarly, Nghia et al.'s (2019) investigation of two APs revealed their positive impact on enhancing students' employability. Via interviews with third- and fourth-year students and analysis of institutional and national reports on the implementation of APs, Nghia et al. (2019) found that these APs could enhance students' employability through "develop[ing] human capital, expand[ing] their social network, enrich[ing] cultural understanding via mobility, enhanc[ing] their career adaptability, and develop[ing] professional identity" (p. 817). Such benefits in terms of EMI students' personal and professional development were confirmed by Dang, Nguyen, and Le (2013), who examined pre-service teachers in an EMI program and found that EMI enabled those

teacher trainees to choose a wide range of materials from global sources, which benefited their students and their own learning and professional development.

Metaphorically, Phùng and Phan (2021) compared Vietnamese internationalisation-at-home (IaH) with place-based internationalisation characterised by "commitments related to local/community engagement, student wellbeing, and care" (p. 235). Hence, the benefits of IaH programs, according to these authors, are that these programs allow for "realistic considerations" and "intimate relations" while simultaneously enjoying the available resources created through different forms of mobility (Phùng & Phan, 2021, p. 235).

Echoing the benefits theme, Tran et al. (2017) explored how interactions between foreign forces and traditional Vietnamese features in HE created hybridity in teaching, learning and university governance practices. Based on interviews with staff members of two universities in the North and South of Vietnam, the study identified complex dimensions of hybridity in the universities concerned, where hybridity was viewed mostly positively because it led to increased democracy and transparency, a shift towards a more learner-centred teaching approach, a stronger focus on students' soft skills development, the introduction of teacher evaluation survey, and regionally accredited programs.

In a subsequent article, possibly from the same study, Tran et al. (2020) reported how three universities' teaching-learning, research and community engagement practices have been positively impacted by foreign forces. In particular, foreign forces have brought about changes in:

(1) the local universities' curriculum design, with the early adoption of the credit-based curriculum,

(2) local lecturers' teaching approach, from theoretically focused and teacher-centred to more practice-focused and student-centred,

(3) student-related matters, including students' enhanced self-directed learning via the assistance of technology and the shortening of the distance between lecturers and students, resulting in students' elevated status within the university community,

(4) research practices, with an increased focus on research, rather than teaching and learning, the adoption of Western research standards, the investment in research facilities (i.e., subscription to library online databases), in addition to lecturers' enhanced research capabilities through international research collaborations,

(5) community engagement via diversifying courses and modifying curricula to meet labour market demands.

The benefits of increased language competence, enhanced professional development opportunities, and direct access to the international academia for both EMI lecturers and students were also cited in Le (2016) who surveyed 1,415 students and interviewed 22 lecturers in Business and Management studies.

In short, a few studies into the internationalisation of Vietnamese HE and the implementation of EMI policies have pointed out several benefits that Vietnamese HEIs and their lecturers and students have gained in the process. Although evidence of gains is irrefutable, such gains seem to be ad hoc and are experienced by a small group of HEIs and EMI lecturers and students (Tran & Marginson, 2018). Unfortunately, the lack of systematic and adequate strategic planning at the macro-level does not allow for a large-scale positive impact at the meso- (institutional) and micro- (classroom) levels. Furthermore, such benefits as students' enhanced ELP and lecturers' increased professional development opportunities are often perceived and expected, rather than experienced. So far studies into the impact of EMI on students' content and language learning have produced mixed results (Macaro, 2018) and there have been no such studies in Vietnamese contexts. This again suggests the possibly limited number of EMI beneficiaries in Vietnamese HE.

Indeed, the development of EMI was seen to have generated "more challenges than opportunities" (Williams, 2015). In Vietnam, many studies, including the one presented in both articles above, i.e., Tran et al. (2017) and Tran et al. (2020), have revealed the tensions and conflicts generated when integrating foreign practices into the local HE system, especially when the local tertiary system is deeply rooted in Confucian values and socialist political orientation. The next section will discuss in detail different

problems related to the internationalisation of Vietnamese HE, particularly the implementation of EMI policies.

2.5.2 EMI implementation issues in Vietnamese HE

Despite institutional benefits of capacity development and international standardisation, EMI implementation in Vietnam is "fraught with difficulties and challenges" (Hamid et al., 2013b, p. 11), resulting in "tensions and struggles of the actors involved" (p. 9). In the following section, the issues with Vietnamese EMI are categorised into those belonging to macro- (governmental), meso- (institutional) and micro- (classroom) levels. The five implementation problems of EMI programs in Vietnam at the macro- and meso- levels are specifically highlighted.

2.5.2.1 Macro-level (i.e., governmental/ policy) issues

(a-1) top-down, lagged, and non-transparent EMI policies, exacerbated by weak state management of quality assurance

Top-down decision-making, without proper consultation with policy implementors (i.e., lecturers and students) regarding EMI policies in Vietnam, as elsewhere (Hamid et al., 2013b), has resulted in implementation challenges in institutional and classroom levels (Galloway & Sahan, 2021; Nguyen et al., 2017; Nguyen & Tran, 2018; Nguyen, 2016b), widening the gap between theory and practice. Examples include "a huge waste of resources" resulting from borrowing foreign curricula without adequate adaptation and consideration of the local contexts (Nguyen & Tran, 2018, p. 28), or the pedagogical clash between the Western learner-centred teaching approach and the Confucianism-induced teacher-centred pedagogical approach in Vietnam (Tran et al., 2017). While government policies allow the offering of HQPs as a way to generate and increase institutional income, to promote HEIs' financial autonomy, the fact that the government does not have enough capacity to oversee HEIs' operation and educational quality, has raised concerns over quality assurance (Nguyen et al., 2016).

EMI policies in Vietnam are also often formulated ad hoc (Nguyen et al., 2017) to regulate rather than orientate EMI practices, but their regulation function is usually limited due to their non-transparency. For example, formal policies regulating Joint and High-Quality programs were issued after these programs had already been running for a while, resulting in several quality control and management problems (Nguyen et al., 2017). Formal policies, however, do not result in informed practices due to their lack of specificity (Nguyen et al., 2017; Tri & Moskovsky, 2019), leading to varied implementation practices. For example, the general requirement of "sufficient language proficiency" for students or "having a undergraduate or postgraduate qualification in a foreign country" for lecturers in EMI programs (MOET, 2014a) is translated differently by different institutions. According to Nguyen (2016b) this means B1 level (CEFR) for students and an overseas qualification in *any* languages for lecturers at the City University (pseudonym). In fact, Nguyen (2018a) found that HEIs might not strictly adhere to their stated entry language requirements of the students to increase enrolment in EMI programs, as evidenced in her case study. If they had done so, the English tests they specified might not have provided an appropriate evaluation of students' necessary ELP to learn content subjects in English. The variation and inconsistency in EMI implementation among Vietnamese universities are also attested by Galloway and Sahan (2021) who found institutional variations in terms of language proficiency entry requirements, curriculum design, and language support offered to EMI students. This again points to the government's lack of transparent policies and oversight capacity over HEIs' educational operation and quality.

(a-2) lack of vision and strategic planning in policy-making, resulting in educational inequity and potential discrimination between programs, staff, and students, and even against Vietnamese teaching styles and values

Many studies have raised concerns about the problematic nomenclature of EMI programs in Vietnam (Nguyen et al., 2017; Tri & Moskovsky, 2019). To begin with, the difference in connotation between "Advanced" programs and "High-Quality" programs might be unclear to laypersons (Nguyen et al., 2017). The labelling of EMI programs as "Advanced" and "High-Quality" programs implicitly conveys the message that VMI programs are normal or of low quality. Furthermore, the government's label for VMI

programs as "mass education programs" (chương trình đào tạo đại trà) "demarcate[s] between the 'masses' who take VMI programs and the small elite who study in EMI programs (see Hamid and Jahan 2015), and potentially stigmatising VMI program enrolees" (Nguyen et al., 2017, p. 42).

Also, government policies have generated potential discrimination between EMI and VMI staff, and local EMI and foreign staff. It is legally mandated that EMI teaching staff should be entitled to separate payment schemes and overseas professional development opportunities (Government of Vietnam, 2008b; MOET, 2014b, 2020), which inevitably suggests a priority of and the preferential treatment for this group of lecturers over VMI ones. This has resulted in discriminatory practices at the institutional level and downplaying the role of VMI academic staff in the university development process. For example, in City University (pseudonym), EMI academic staff are given more chances for overseas professional development, and no administrative tasks, while enjoying five to seven times higher salaries; hence, VMI staff often consider themselves inferior, and feel discouraged from investing more in their professional practices (Nguyen, 2016b). Additionally, promoting foreign teaching practices as modern and advanced puts local EMI staff under pressure from judgement and discrimination by students when compared to their Western colleagues (Nguyen, 2016b). Therefore, the local students sometimes disregard the local methods and educational values that Vietnamese lecturers bring to their lessons. The fact that Vietnamese academics are requested to use the Western pedagogical models might not help improve Vietnamese educational quality on the whole, as socio-cultural factors are not considered.

Furthermore, students in EMI programs often come from well-off families in large cities and towns, enjoy better access to English language education and can afford very high tuition fees. Therefore, EMI programs somehow contribute to widening the socio-economic gap in the country, creating the elite group who is more likely to enjoy better career prospects, and thus, a more favourable quality of life (Nguyen, 2016b).

(a-3) inadequate consideration of local HE cultures when importing foreign educational curricula and practices, causing implementation inconsistency at the institutional level

Several studies have pointed to the ideological and cultural clashes between the Vietnamese educational system following Confucianism and socialist ideologies, and the Western one based mainly on democracy and the neo-liberalist ideology.

While foreign curricula promote freedom of thought, the EMI curricula of Advanced and High-Quality programs are still under the government's control, meaning that some political content needs to be included at the expense of other disciplinary courses (Nguyen et al., 2017). Consequentially, there is a "tension between Communist ideology embedded in the core curriculum and the use of foreign textbooks which are likely to embrace a different set of principles and beliefs" (Tran et al., 2017, p. 1913). This leads to the fact that several subjects in the foreign curricula are mentally rejected by Vietnamese students, who do not find these subjects beneficial to learn because the knowledge is non-applicable in Vietnamese contexts (Nguyen, Phan, & Tran, 2021).

In addition, while foreign curricula promote learner autonomy and collaborative learning, these two features have not received similar weight in the Vietnamese educational culture. In fact, such teaching and learning practices as downplaying student attendance are perceived as irrelevant to the local contexts (Tran et al., 2017). Also, collaborative learning in the form of group work appears to function less effectively in Vietnamese EMI classrooms (Nguyen, 2016b), possibly due to the Confucian Heritage Culture (Phuong-Mai et al., 2005).

Thirdly, in terms of governance, foreign educational practices facilitate open dialogues between leaders and staff regarding different areas of university administration and management for the exchange of ideas and information. However, the decision-making power in Vietnamese HEIs still lies wholly with University Presidents who are also Communist Party Secretaries (Bí thư Đảng ủy) and the omnipotent in Vietnamese universities (Tran et al., 2017).

2.5.2.2 Meso-level (i.e., institutional) issues

(b-1) Poor understanding and management of EMI

Research into university leaders' perceptions of EMI indicates the lack of a correct and comprehensive understanding of this educational phenomenon, leading to unclear policies and guidance at the institutional level. Pham and Doan (2020) interviewed four senior managers and ten academics in different public universities across Vietnam, finding that EMI establishment at the institutional level was driven more by local competition than the government's internationalisation initiatives. In other words, domestic competitiveness among local HEIs in terms of enrolments, national status, and profit generation is the real driver of EMI growth at the meso-level, not educational goals, or internationalisation of HEIs. The two authors coined the term "policy of encouragement" to describe the lack of HEIs' transparent and formal guidelines for EMI practices, where "verbal injunctions are substituted for implementation planning", and EMI development at the institutional level is dependent on lecturers' willingness and sense of moral duties to their workplace (Pham & Doan, 2020, p. 277). Pham (2022) later confirmed this in a review of policies and recent research into internationalisation and EMI in Vietnamese HE, finding "the divergence of agency" at national, institutional, and individual levels. Tran et al.'s (2020) findings attested to this issue of fragmented implementation, ad hoc changes and improvements, rather than systematic institutional reform, suggesting poor management of EMI implementation at the institutional level.

Even where there are strong and clear institutional mechanisms to foster the development and quality assurance of EMI delivery, these initiatives seem to be based on beliefs about what EMI should be like, rather than research-guided. Such perspectives that EMI should be English-only resulted in an institution's firm policies to promote a culture of English learning and use within the territory of their EMI classrooms (Duong & Chua, 2016). Nevertheless, how such policies affect students' content learning in English has not yet been investigated.

(b-2) Inadequate resources for successful EMI implementation

Political- and economic-driven, rather than educationally-driven, EMI leads to the situation where EMI is offered without institutional readiness (Pham & Doan, 2020). When proper preparation is lacking, many Vietnamese HEIs have to face the challenge of inadequate resources for successful EMI implementation. Such resources can be classified into human, material, and other facilitating conditions conducive to the successful implementation of EMI programs.

The lack of academic staff and students competent in English is the first major challenge in EMI implementation that many Vietnamese HE institutions have to deal with (Le, 2012; Le, 2016; Tran et al., 2014; Vu & Burns, 2014). This might partly be attributed to the unsatisfactory nature of English language education in Vietnam (Albright, 2018). It might also be due to HEIs' loose English-entry requirements to increase potential enrolments (Duong, 2009; Pham, 2022) and teaching staff for EMI programs, as discussed in section a-1 above. Regarding EMI lecturer recruitment, in addition to international English test results, graduation from English-speaking programs is often taken for granted as adequate evidence of lecturers' ELP and possibly EMI teaching skills. However, in practice, this neither guarantees lecturers' sufficient English nor indicates lecturers' pedagogical preparedness to deliver EMI courses (Le, 2019; Nguyen, 2018a; Vu & Burns, 2014). This challenge of recruiting competent staff and students for EMI programs inevitably leads to a compromise in EMI teaching-learning quality. This is coupled with the lack of lecturers for foundational courses (for example, psychology, political sciences, etc.) (usually in Social Sciences). However, as Pham and Doan (2020) documented, some universities just could not wait for their readiness to establish EMI programs. Instead, EMI was implemented with a "learning while doing" mindset, which has more to do with the matters of institutional status, number of enrolments, and government funding allocations, rather than educational quality revenue (Pham & Doan, 2020, p. 269).

Also related to the issue of human capital is the difficulty of hiring or inviting foreign guest lecturers due to the tight schedule of foreign faculty members and their very high pay. The limited funds available to run EMI programs meant foreign lecturers could only

stay for a short period of time, reducing the length of a 15-week course to two or three weeks of intensive, whole-day learning (Tran & Nguyen, 2018). Not only were the foreign lecturers under the pressure of conveying a large amount of knowledge within a short period of time, thus, minimising classroom interaction, but the students were also given no time to read and prepare for the lecturers, and to absorb the knowledge, a task extremely difficult when such technical knowledge was transmitted in a foreign language to the learners.

A number of institutions also encountered material problems, one of which is "the mismatch between the content and aims of imported curricula and the cultural, linguistic, commercial and politico-economic context of Vietnam" (Nguyen et al., 2017, p. 43) as discussed in section a-3 above. As a result, course content is either disregarded by the students, or has to be adapted by the lecturers, causing a waste of both materials and human resources, while creating unnecessary workload for the lecturers.

Additionally, the lack of English materials for many courses required lecturers to use their own materials collected from their overseas studies, which were, unfortunately, not updated (Nguyen et al., 2016). Due to limited institutional funds, some courses might experience a shortage of materials. The universities would buy the textbooks but not the associated question or case banks, resulting in an increased workload for EMI academics, and a lowering of the course standards (Vo et al., 2022). Vietnam-specific courses also set a daunting task of translating Vietnamese-medium materials into English, "a task complicated by time pressure, the developers' varying academic ELP and the untranslatability of certain discipline-specific terms in Vietnamese" (Nguyen et al., 2017, p. 44). This reality frustrated the lecturers concerned, when they presented their PowerPoint slides in English but the course reading material was in Vietnamese (Nguyen et al., 2016).

The shortage of funding to run foreign-liaised programs is also a problem. For example, the cost of inviting an American lecturer to teach for two to three weeks ranges from 100 million to 120 million Vietnam Dong, equalling a year's salary for a Vietnamese academic. For an Asian academic, the invitation cost would be reduced by half (Ha, 2013). This leads to a problem of intensive teaching-learning, reducing the course quality

and the program as a whole, as discussed above (Nguyen et al., 2021). The limited funds also contributed to the problem of material insufficiency because textbooks must be imported through importing companies, which is both costly and time-consuming. Consequentially, many universities in franchised programs could not obtain all the necessary textbooks when required (Department of State and MOET 2009, as cited in Tran et al., 2018).

(b-3) Insufficient support for EMI students and teaching staff

The lack of effective management and a good understanding of the nature of EMI, and the insufficiency of resources has resulted in the shortage of support available for EMI students and lecturers. This has been documented in most studies on EMI in Vietnam.

While the majority of EMI students appear to have numerous difficulties with comprehending lectures in English and using English in class (Le, 2016; Tran & Nguyen, 2018; Vu & Burns, 2014), most of the English courses currently provided are not really tailored to suit EMI students, and thus students do not see them as helpful or beneficial (Nguyen, 2016b). Although students' elevated status within EMI programs means their voices are more likely to be heard (Tran et al., 2020), this does not mean that their needs are fulfilled given the university leaders' lack of understanding of the complex nature of EMI. Galloway & Sahan's (2021) survey and interviews with EMI students in Vietnam showed that EMI students mostly received language support in the first one or two years of their study, and support was very limited in the final years. Specifically, focus groups with 66 EMI students revealed their disagreement about the impact of EMI on their English language development (Tran & Nguyen, 2018). In fact, these students did not see their English language proficiency (ELP) improve at all upon graduation. Language improvement, if any, was not attributed to the EMI program concerned.

Another less-noticed inadequacy is the lack of a designed or enforced English-speaking environment to stimulate students' motivation to practice English with their peers to develop their ELP. In Le's (2016) comparison between EMI students in a private university and those in two public institutions, she found that without international students and foreign lecturers on campus, EMI students in the private university did not have much desire to speak English with their peers.

Despite the lack of competent EMI staff, few institutions have offered adequate training support to their faculty. The most common form of support for lecturers was in-house training (Galloway & Sahan, 2021). While financial and administrative incentives are commonly available in the form of higher salary payments and less administrative work (Nguyen et al., 2016; Pham & Doan, 2020), lecturers might not feel contented, given the amount of time devoted to preparing EMI lessons and the lack of joy when experiencing difficulties of teaching in a foreign language (Nguyen et al., 2016; Pham, Nguyen, & Hoang, 2022). Some institutions could afford short overseas training for their academics, but this limited exposure to EMI, especially in a totally different teaching-learning environment, made such experiences less useful for most Vietnamese faculty members (Tran et al., 2018).

2.5.2.3 *Micro-level (i.e., classroom) issues*

In fact, many of the institutional problems discussed above directly affect the quality of EMI classroom teaching and learning. Lecturers' and students' insufficient ELP to teach and learn effectively in English, students' diverse ELP within an EMI class, the lack of teaching materials and lecturers' bilingual teaching methodology, lecturers' increased workload, the tension between the English-only policy and the reality of classroom necessitating the use of Vietnamese in addition to English, are among the most cited classroom problems (Le, 2016; Nguyen et al., 2017; Tran et al., 2018; Tran, 2020; Tri, 2020; Vu & Burns, 2014). In the absence of national and institutional guidelines for EMI implementation, exacerbated by the lack of EMI professional development, EMI lecturers have personally adopted several "coping strategies" related to curriculum design, materials selection, assessment, and language use (Pham, 2022). Pham and Doan (2020) summarise this via the phrase "pedagogies of assumption". As a result, there is a wide variation of EMI practices at the classroom level.

Nguyen's (2016b) study about local agency in an EMI setting in Vietnam found four types of agency expressed by local academics: adaptive, compliant, supportive, and non-engaging. While adaptive lecturers made extra efforts to adjust their classroom practices to facilitate students' learning in English, compliant lecturers just followed the rule by using English-only in their teaching no matter what. Supportive lecturers did a bit more

than adaptive ones regarding support provision for students' ELP development besides content learning facilitation. Non-engaging lecturers, as the name suggests, did not seem to engage with their institution's EMI initiatives, feeling uncomfortable with EMI due to the way it was implemented in their institution, which caused them immense difficulties in classroom practices.

Regarding teaching, several academics are reported as being confused about their roles and duties in EMI classrooms, and having difficulty with curriculum design and the delivery of EMI courses (Pham & Doan, 2020). As a result, many of them just translated their VMI course materials into English (Nguyen, 2016b; Pham & Doan, 2020). Some other lecturers instead localised the foreign curriculum based on their experience with both the Western and the local systems of knowledge, adapting the teaching content and adding local knowledge to the foreign curriculum (Nguyen et al., 2021; Vo et al., 2022). In contrast, several others refused to simplify course content to assist students' understanding for fear of changing the difficulty level of the course or the possible damage caused to their career reputation (Pham & Doan, 2020).

Teacher-fronted lecturing still seems to prevail in many settings (Nguyen, 2016b; Tri, 2020), even though several EMI lecturers have made efforts to heighten students' roles in learning (Tran et al., 2020). For example, some lecturers employed several grouping techniques, provided guidance on self-study to enhance learner autonomy, used different types of visual aids to explain concepts in their lessons (Hoang & Tran, 2022), or used CLIL-like methods to design lesson activities to enhance students' engagement and foster their language and soft skills development (Dinh Thanh & Barnett, 2022). Nevertheless, despite assisting their students in language enhancement, these EMI lecturers still refused the role of language teachers (Dinh Thanh & Barnett, 2022; Nguyen, 2016b; Tri, 2020). Moreover, such learner-centred, constructivist efforts, as concluded by Tran et al.'s (2020) study, occurred rather ad hoc, and were individual academics' attempts, rather than being enforced or guided by any policies (Tran et al., 2020). Even when provided those opportunities to exercise more learner autonomy, students might be hesitant and not be ready to take full advantage of the chances due to the unfamiliarity with Western academic practices in their Confucianism-dominant educational contexts (Pham & Barnett, 2022; Tran et al., 2020).

Furthermore, many EMI lecturers have struggled with teaching students who have diverse English proficiency levels (Fenton-Smith et al., 2017; Hamid et al., 2013b). Also due to lecturers' language constraints, the content of EMI lessons has been reportedly poorer than that taught in Vietnamese (Nguyen, 2016b; Pham & Barnett, 2022), with less elaboration and explanation. Lecturers' unfamiliarity with bilingual teaching methodology, due to little professional preparation (Pham, 2022), has meant more repetition of content to foster students' understanding, and thus less time to dig deep into the lesson content or provide students with advanced knowledge.

In terms of assessment, although there have been few studies addressing this issue specifically, lecturers have been reported as using mostly summative assessment activities and not considering language in their marking criteria (Galloway & Sahan, 2021; Nguyen et al., 2021; Tran & Hoang, 2022; Truong, Ngo, & Nguyen, 2020). Instead, they focus more on the content and the message students are trying to convey. As a result, in some cases, students were allowed to answer in bullet points rather than writing full sentences (Truong et al., 2020). The most common assessment activities were written exams, weekly assignments, term projects, and in-class quizzes (Tran & Hoang, 2022; Truong et al., 2020). Despite students' perceived low ELP and poorer learning content, their assessment scores tended to be similar to the scores of those studying in Vietnamese (Tran & Hoang, 2022). Feedback was also an area of varied practice among EMI lecturers, with some lecturers providing detailed feedback on students' tasks, especially oral ones like presentations, while others did not (Truong et al., 2020).

Regarding language use, due to lecturers' and students' limited ELP, Vietnamese has been commonly used alongside English to enhance students' content uptake (Nguyen et al., 2021; Sahan, Galloway, & McKinley, 2022; Tri & Moskovsky, 2021; Vu & Burns, 2014). Although students generally appreciate the use of Vietnamese for their content learning (Nguyen et al., 2021), this practice has made them question the program's goal of improving their ELP (Sahan et al., 2022). Practicality is also a cited justification for using Vietnamese in EMI classes because most of the students would eventually find employment in the Vietnamese market and are supposed to be familiar with Vietnamese terminologies (Nguyen et al., 2021). Furthermore, Vietnamese learning materials were reported as being useful in EMI classrooms for facilitating students' content learning.

However, since there is no official policy document stipulating whether or not to use Vietnamese materials in EMI classrooms, several lecturers have assumed that only English materials should be allowed in EMI courses (Pham & Doan, 2020).

In short, Pham (2022) has concluded that "EMI lecturers and students have encountered complicated realities constructed not only by the national and institutional agency but also by the local context of learning and teaching" (p. 32). The local context that exerts an invisible force on academics' and students' "ways of doing" is Confucianism (Huong & Albright, 2018; Le, 2012; Pham, 2022; Tran et al., 2020). It is also evident in the literature that the local agency of EMI academics plays a key role in enacting EMI policies due to the lack of transparent policies at both national and institutional levels. Without adequate structural planning, it would be difficult to spread out exemplar and ad hoc good EMI practices even within an HEI, not to mention throughout the Vietnamese HE system.

Summary

This chapter has provided a brief overview of the socio-economic, political, and cultural features of Vietnamese society and how these features have had a direct bearing on the orientation, development, and management of its HE system. As the chapter advances, foreign language education policy in Vietnam, including the language of instruction policy, has been shown as being embedded in the country's political and economic endeavour. With Vietnam's aspiration to internationalise its HE to empower the local workforce and enhance the country's competitiveness in the global economy, EMI policies were put in place, heightening the role of English in Vietnam's foreign language education and the tertiary education sector in particular. In fact, English has become a popular means of instruction for special undergraduate programs at the tertiary level in Vietnam, as discussed in Sections 2.3 and 2.4 above, where the use of English brings about a higher status for those programs in the eyes of students, and thus, higher tuition fees and more revenue for the universities concerned.

Despite the government's efforts to promote the development of English-taught programs and regulate their quality offerings, as this chapter has discussed, implementation

problems exist at all levels of management, from national to institutional, to classroom. The lagged, top-down, non-transparent governmental policies have resulted in diverse institutional EMI implementation. Non-transparent national policies, coupled with few formal guidelines at the institutional level, have in many cases made EMI implementation quality dependent on individual lecturers' competence and moral sense of duty. Given the absence of guidance from the top level of educational management in Vietnam, the findings of many studies have indicated the important filtering role of traditions, cultural norms, and beliefs when Vietnamese HEIs, their academics, and students interact with foreign practices in the process of importing and internationalising the curriculum.

The review of the EMI literature in the Vietnamese context also reveals a theoretical gap, resulting from the dearth of studies targeting EMI teaching practices from a theoretical perspective. Additionally, despite the impact of the Vietnamese societal culture on the local EMI implementation, no studies have yet introduced the cultural dimension into their investigation. Altogether, these leave empirical and theoretical gaps for this study to explore further and to address Pham's (2022) call for "a close investigation of what is happening at the level of individuals in actual classrooms" against the cultural and legal backdrops of Vietnam (p. 15). The following chapter will review the relevant international literature related to EMI and lecturers' pedagogical practices.

CHAPTER 3: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Following a detailed description of the context of this study, including the current situation of English-medium instruction (EMI) research in Vietnam, this chapter reviews related EMI literature in international contexts. This chapter starts with a definition of EMI, then provides a brief account of its development, before ending with a review of the literature relevant to this study.

3.1 Overview of English-medium instruction (EMI)

Despite its accelerated growth and intensive investigation over the last decade, EMI research still cannot keep pace with EMI implementation (Galloway & Sahan, 2021). Worldwide, EMI policymakers are reported to be enforcing EMI policies without proper consultation with other key stakeholders such as lecturers and students (Coleman, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2014), resulting in several implementation challenges globally (Deignan & Morton, 2022; Doiz et al., 2012). In order to understand various issues around the EMI phenomenon, it is important to start with a clear conceptualisation of EMI, its characteristics, and its historical development. These are addressed in the following sections.

3.1.1 EMI: Definition and characteristics

This section presents a definition of EMI and its features compared to related pedagogical approaches in bilingual education. As a branch of bilingual education, EMI is not well-defined as a term. In fact, Macaro et al. (2018) find that "the labels given to the phenomenon of EMI and their definition are inconsistent and problematic" (p. 46). EMI can be translated into "English as a medium of instruction", "English as the medium of instruction", or "English-medium instruction" (Macaro et al., 2018).

Despite EMI being a global trend, efforts to conceptualise it are relatively recent (Dafouz & Smit, 2016; Schmidt-Unterberger, 2018). Prior to these efforts, EMI was used interchangeably with "content and language integrated learning" (CLIL), "content-based instruction" (CBI), or "integrating content and language in higher education" (ICLHE) (Macaro et al., 2018). Since the term EMI is often encountered at the tertiary level, and is equated with CLIL in secondary or primary education, some scholars tend to use the term "integrating content and language in higher education" or ICLHE (Costa, 2012; Ruiz de Zarobe & Lyster, 2018), to better distinguish EMI and CLIL regarding their contexts of use.

However, it has been argued that EMI is conceptually and functionally different from CLIL or ICLHE (Brown & Bradford, 2017; Macaro, 2018). The differences between EMI and CLIL/ ICLHE might include:

1. While EMI just refers to the use of English as a medium of instruction, CLIL (and possibly ICLHE) can be used to teach any language (Coyle, 2008; Lin, 2016).
2. CLIL and ICLHE emphasise the integration of language and content in their pedagogy, which is absent at least in EMI terminology.
3. EMI programs do not usually have language objectives (Dafouz, 2017), but CLIL takes the "dual focus" (i.e., both content and language learning) at its core (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010).
4. While the CLIL approach was developed out of the need to foster foreign language education in Europe, and thus, "relates to any language, age and stage" (Coyle, 2008, p. 97), EMI was born out of the desire to internationalise tertiary education, for economic and reputation benefits (Macaro et al., 2018).
5. EMI tends to be viewed as a weak form of bilingual education, being located at the content end of the bilingual education continuum (Airey, 2016; Macaro, 2018) whereas CLIL (and possibly ICLHE) are a strong form (Baker, 2011), staying somewhere in the middle of the line.

These five differences might explain the fact that while EMI is gaining global momentum in tertiary education (Dearden, 2014; Sahan et al., 2021a), "CLIL [or ICLHE] (...) has not gained significant traction in higher education globally" (Fenton-Smith et al., 2017, p. 6).

Recognising the differences between EMI and CLIL or ICLHE and various versions of EMI itself in different contexts, Dafouz and Smit (2016) and Schmidt-Unterberger (2018) propose different conceptualisations of EMI based on both theoretical and practical perspectives.

From the eco-linguistic and socio-linguistic perspective, Dafouz and Smit (2016) coin the term "English-medium Education in Multilingual University Settings" (or EMEMUS), which they argue can represent a "comprehensive conceptualization" of the phenomenon of teaching and learning in English in higher education and thus can "redefine English and internationalization in a much more nuanced light" (Dafouz & Smit, 2021, p. 141). Dafouz and Smit (2021) provide three reasons for their argument for replacing EMI with EMEMUS (or EME for short):

1. The word "education" is more inclusive, referring to both teaching and learning, without indicating "any particular pedagogical approach or research agenda" (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 399).
2. EMEMUS explicitly links the phenomenon of English-medium education to tertiary education settings where the teaching and learning in English significantly differ from that at other educational levels.
3. The phrase EMEMUS as a whole recognises the multilingual nature of global HE, while simultaneously paying due attention to English-medium education.

Although the ideas suggested by EMEMUS are interesting, I tend not to think of Vietnamese HE settings as multilingual, despite the fact that under Dafouz & Smit's (2016) conceptualisation, bilingual or multilingual education can be "official or unofficial, partial or comprehensive, pedagogically explicit or implicit" (p. 399). The existence of any foreign language other than English playing a dominant role in the Vietnamese HE system in the foreseeable future is also unlikely. Several scholars generally concur that "there is no alternative" to the Englishisation of the HE system, even globally (Block & Khan, 2021, p. 7).

Another conceptualisation of EMI seems to draw from the reality of English language education in different EMI settings. According to Schmidt-Unterberger (2018), the current practices of English teaching in EMI programs can form an English-medium

paradigm, which includes five categories: pre-sessional ESP/EAP, embedded ESP/EAP, adjunct ESP, EMI and ICLHE. This categorisation of EMI is, however, still theoretical. In practice, EMI is hardly pure, but rather "CLIL-ised" (Moncada-Comas & Block, 2021) due to the inclusion of language objectives in the program somewhere, but without the integration between language and content as a pedagogical focus.

This ambiguity of the EMI phenomenon in the literature has led to different classifications of EMI programs. For example, according to Baker and Hüttner (2017), there are three types of EMI programs: (1) *student-mobility programs*, where English is used as a lingua franca because of the multi-cultural student population; (2) *"internationalisation-at-home" programs* (Dafouz, 2014), which are taught by local lecturers, for local students, using imported Western materials and English as an additional language; and (3) *Anglophone-context programs*, used in English-speaking countries, for students from diverse (linguistic) backgrounds. However, other scholars like Macaro et al. (2018) do not consider Anglophone countries like the UK, the US, Canada, and Australia to be EMI contexts, even though numerous students from various linguistic backgrounds are pursuing education in English in these countries. These scholars contend that the socio-political and economic dynamics of these English-speaking contexts fundamentally differ from other EMI contexts worldwide, where English was historically engrained or resisted for colonial reasons (Macaro, 2018). In fact, the confusion about what EMI is, and how various applications of EMI are different from one another, have led Richards and Pun (2021) to review the literature and construct a typology of EMI based on ten criteria: purposes, assessment, curriculum models, introduction, access, the English course, the EMI teacher, the English subject teacher, the EMI learner, and instructional materials. The resulting 51 features included in the typology clearly indicate the worldwide heterogeneity of EMI conceptualisations and forms of implementation.

In another attempt to differentiate the use of English among diverse international contexts, Dearden (2014) and her colleagues at the EMI Oxford Research Group propose a definition of EMI as "the use of the English language to teach academic subjects [other than English itself] in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English" (p. 2). Although this definition has proved controversial, as the EMI Oxford Research Group scholars have admitted (Rose et al., 2021), it has been

widely adopted in the literature (Lasagabaster, 2022a). In a recent attempt to defend this definition, Rose et al. (2021) provide five research-based reasons for the explicit restriction to non-Anglophone contexts in their EMI definition. In their view, this definition can both point to the historical link of the EMI terminology and thus highlight contextual differences in students' English language proficiency, and acknowledge L1 differences across educational settings, the adoption of EMI as "a designated policy decision", and the challenges of lecturers' adequate preparation and competencies.

This study adopts the EMI Oxford Research Group's definition of EMI on the basis that there are more differences than similarities between Vietnamese and Anglophone EMI contexts. As outlined in Chapter 2, Vietnamese students often embark on their EMI journey with varying levels of English language proficiency (ELP) as certified by many types of English tests, ranging from purely grammar and vocabulary tests, to listening and reading tests, to all four language skills tests. This is in stark contrast to the language requirements for international students in, for example, Australia. As evidenced in their scores in specific international standardised English tests, the minimal ELP threshold required of international students to be eligible for a student visa is often not lower than the B1 Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) level. The language environment outside the classroom in Australia is also completely different from the environment in Vietnam. In Vietnam it is nearly 100% Vietnamese, while in Australia it is mainly English. This clearly has a considerable impact on students' ELP development.

Dearden (2014) and her colleagues' definition of EMI does not explicitly refer to the tertiary level, despite wide recognition of the differences in teaching and learning between this educational level and others (Dafouz & Smit, 2021; Lasagabaster, 2022a). Since this study specifies the scope of the investigation of the EMI phenomenon in Vietnam to the tertiary level, the working definition of EMI to be used in this study is as follows:

The use of the English language to teach academic subjects [other than English itself] at the tertiary level in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English

(adapted from Dearden (2014, p. 2))

This working definition differentiates between EMI and CLIL or ICLHE, viewing them as separate branches of bilingual education, rather than the former belonging to the latter, as some scholars sometimes view it (Lin, 2016; Vu & Burns, 2014). Furthermore, this definition limits the following literature review to studies in higher education. Studies at other educational levels, though having useful implications for the tertiary level, might not be applicable to tertiary education due to several inherent educational and contextual differences. The next section will provide a brief account of the development of EMI before moving on to the literature review regarding EMI teaching practices at the tertiary level around the world.

3.1.2 EMI: A brief account of its development

The international growth of EMI is based on several assumptions, which, unfortunately, are not research-based (Archila & de Mejía, 2019; Dearden, 2018; Hu & Duan, 2019). The root of EMI is frequently associated with internationalisation in higher education (Altbach & Knight, 2007). According to Altbach and Knight (2007), internationalisation in HE can be seen as a result of globalisation, with globalisation providing the "context of economic and academic trends" for internationalisation to occur (Altbach & Knight, 2007, p. 290). Knight (2013) defines the internationalisation of HE as "the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions (primarily teaching/learning, research, service) or delivery of higher education" (p. 85). Based on this popular definition, EMI is clearly a product and also a manifestation of internationalisation at the tertiary level.

As the internationalisation process "var[ies] enormously across regions, nations and from institution to institution" (Knight, 2013, p. 85), so do the reasons for the adoption of EMI. According to Macaro et al. (2018), the four common reasons for EMI adoption are *(1)* increased institutional reputation, *(2)* more income generation through international students, *(3)* competition between public and private education sectors in HE, and *(4)* the dominance of English language in academia. Additional reasons, often cited in the Outer and Expanding Circle countries, might include the improvement of English language learning, the provision of a common language in multilingual environments, the development of students' intercultural communication skills, the production of an

economically competitive workforce, and the post-colonial legacy (Barnard & Hasim, 2018; Briggs, Dearden, & Macaro, 2018; Richards & Pun, 2021). Similarly, European universities have reported the need to deliver English-taught programs to prepare students for international job markets or to promote student mobility across the region following the Bologna Declaration (Hultgren et al., 2015). Generally, arguments for EMI implementation can vary among different policy levels, from macro- (i.e., region and/or nation), to meso- (i.e., institution), to micro- (i.e. program, course, or individual) ones (Curle, Jablonkai, Mittelmeier, Sahan, & Veitch, 2020). Nevertheless, no matter what the reasons for EMI adoption are, EMI has opened a whole new world of opportunities and threats, not only to individual stakeholders but also to institutions, nations, and regions alike (Kirkpatrick, 2018; Phillipson, 2015).

Recent literature names EMI "the most significant trend in educational internationalization" (Chapple, 2015, p. 1) and "an unstoppable train" (Macaro, 2019, p. 232) because of its worldwide surge, especially in the higher education sector. Initially, EMI emerged as a European trend out of the Bologna Declaration in 1999 (Hultgren et al., 2015). In Asia, especially in East and South-East Asia, EMI has long been rooted in some countries or polities such as Malaysia, Hong Kong, and the Philippines due to their British colonial history (Barnard & Hasim, 2018; Fenton-Smith et al., 2017; Hamid, Nguyen, & Baldauf, 2014a). More recently, after considerable European development (Wächter & Maiworm, 2014), EMI has been adopted in many countries in Asia and the Middle East, including those nations without English language historical relations (Hamid & Nguyen, 2016). Asian countries with the largest development of EMI, as evidenced in their number of EMI studies, are China, Korea, and Japan, while EMI research evidence in other countries in the region, e.g., Vietnam, is lacking (Macaro & Aizawa, 2022; Walkinshaw, Fenton-Smith, & Humphreys, 2017).

EMI is much less referred to in Africa and Latin America, compared to other regions (Macaro et al., 2018). These two continents, due to their post-colonial states, have been either implementing English-only or English-mostly medium of instruction (MoI) policies (in Africa) (Coleman, 2011; Hamid, Nguyen, & Kamwangamalu, 2014b; Kamwangamalu, 2018), or a multi-lingual education policy (in Latin America) (Hamel, Álvarez López, & Carvalhal, 2016) (in which English often comes third to local

languages and Spanish or Portuguese). This explains the lack of interest in the EMI phenomenon in those areas. Nevertheless, signs of EMI growth are also being witnessed in Central and South America (British Council, 2015a, 2015b).

However, the preponderant use of English as the MoI in higher education worldwide has not usually been accompanied by clear policies. In other words, there is an observed mismatch between macro- or meso-level policies and micro-level ones in EMI practices (Hamid et al., 2014a; Soler-Carbonell, 2015). Such a lack of clarity and transparency, in addition to the socio-political, economic and cultural differences among nations, create so many variations in EMI practices at institutional and classroom levels that there can be no universal, no one-size-fits-all solutions to EMI challenges (Hultgren et al., 2015; Phillipson, 2018).

Additionally, the accelerated expansion of EMI globally does not mean EMI implementation is without opposition, nor is it practised without caution in the above-mentioned regions. Since language-in-education policies are sensitive and subject to political and economic factors (Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2017), EMI has been seen as a threat to several national languages and national identities around the globe. EMI has been met with resistance in Europe, France, and Italy (Hultgren et al., 2015). In five Nordic countries (i.e., Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden), "parallel"-language policies have been implemented to maintain the strength of their national languages, alongside English, in their education systems (Phillipson, 2018). In Asia, Malaysia has been experiencing "reversal and re-reversal" with EMI (Gill, 2012) as a result of two simultaneous fears: the fear of English as a colonial language threatening national unity and identity, and the fear of Malaysian students not being able to catch up with the world with less English language exposure. The Philippines has also recently adopted a multilingual education policy, trying to foster the development of its native languages, alongside English and the national language Filipino (Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2017). The promotion of mother tongues as a foundational MoI, or mother tongue-based multilingual education, is also widely advocated and increasingly adopted in post-colonial Africa because of the positive impact mother tongues have on children's literacy development in this region (Heugh, 2017).

In brief, the literature highlights the complexity around the EMI phenomenon, which is so deeply contextualised (Curle et al., 2020) that there is no one-size-fits-all solution to its implementation problems (Hultgren et al., 2015). While EMI has been intensively investigated in Europe, there has been less research in other parts of the world, particularly in the Global South where the Official Development Assistance (ODA) countries, including Vietnam, are located (Sahan et al., 2021a). This situation presents one contextual gap that needs to be filled to shed more light on EMI policies and practices worldwide and to better address EMI challenges in the region. The following section will discuss the impacts of EMI on teachers and teaching, which is closely associated with the topic of this study.

3.2 Impact of EMI on teachers and teaching

The steady global expansion of English-taught programs in non-Anglophone countries in recent years has been accompanied by a rapidly growing research volume on the EMI phenomenon (Macaro & Aizawa, 2022). So far the most common EMI research topics include *stakeholders' beliefs of or attitudes towards EMI* (Hamid, Jahan, & Islam, 2013a; Hu, Li, & Lei, 2014; Jensen & Thøgersen, 2011; Tsui & Ngo, 2017), *EMI language policy implementation* (Airey, Lauridsen, Räsänen, Salö, & Schwach, 2017; Hamid et al., 2013b; Orduna-Nocito & Sánchez-García, 2022), *challenges of lecturers and students* (Deignan & Morton, 2022; Jones, McKeown, & Littlewood, 2022; Pun et al., 2023), and *impact of EMI on students' learning* (Chou, 2018; Hernandez-Nanclares & Jimenez-Munoz, 2017; Lei & Hu, 2014).

Research into the impact of EMI on teachers and teaching seems to receive less attention, despite the fact that some aspects of EMI teachers' classroom practices such as their *L1 use*, namely *code-switching and translanguaging*, *classroom interaction*, particularly teachers' *questioning practices*, and *assessment* are increasingly attended to (Breeze & Roothooft, 2021; Dafouz & Sánchez, 2013; Gierlinger, 2015; Hultgren, Owen, Shrestha, Kuteeva, & Mežek, 2022; Jia, Fu, & Pun, 2023; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2022; Paulsrud, Tian, & Toth, 2021), among other newly emerged topics like the relationship between *global Englishes and EMI* (Murata, 2018; Rose, Sahan, & Zhou, 2022), *indicators of* or *factors contributing to EMI success* (Guo, He, & Wang, 2022; Sahan, Kamaşak, & Rose,

2023; Tai & Zhao, 2022; Xie & Curle, 2020), and *teachers' and students' emotions* in EMI (Miller, 2023).

Since this study focuses on EMI lecturers' instructional practices, the following section will centre around the research literature concerned with the impact of EMI on teachers and their pedagogical practices.

3.2.1 Impact of EMI on teachers: Teacher identity in EMI

Research about the impact of EMI on teachers often investigates teacher identity in EMI and how the change in the language of instruction influences teacher identity. Some research findings point to the significant role of language as part of teachers' professional identity (Dafouz, 2018; Pappa & Moate, 2021). It is believed that a change in the language of instruction will result in a shift in professional identity (Moncada-Comas, 2022). However, the language aspect of teachers' professional identity has received little attention in research (Ruohotie-Lyhty, 2019) and there is a paucity of research into the professional identity implications of EMI (Pappa & Moate, 2021; Trent, 2017).

Since teacher identity and teachers' pedagogy are closely related, it is not always easy to discuss them separately. Therefore, this section will mainly discuss studies that take teacher identity as its focus or have clear findings and/or implications regarding teacher identity in EMI. Studies into teachers' EMI implementation are therefore only mentioned in a limited way, where necessary, to illustrate arguments about teachers' self-perceptions in EMI and the close alignment between teacher identity and teacher practices.

For EMI teachers, who have to teach content subjects in a second, often a foreign, language, three types of identities are discussed in the literature: the identity others expect of them, the identity they want to be seen to have, and the identity they actually demonstrate. These three types of identities lead to three main identity tensions that EMI lecturers possibly encounter.

Firstly, while applied linguists (and possibly many others) would like content lecturers to pay more attention to language teaching in their EMI classes, and thus take more of the

language teacher position, the latter appears to explicitly deny this duty, not seeing themselves as language teachers (Airey, 2012; Block & Moncada-Comas, 2019; Costa, 2013). Content lecturers seem to disparage the integration of content and language in their classrooms, adding that CLIL may be suitable for low English proficiency students (Aguilar, 2017). Nevertheless, despite many lecturers' outright opposition to language teaching (Dimova, Hultgren, & Jensen, 2015; Fenton-Smith et al., 2017), it turns out to be almost impossible not to include occasional episodes of language teaching in content instruction since language and content are inherently integrated (He & Lin, 2018). Therefore, there is still ample evidence of language teaching episodes in EMI lessons (Basturkmen, 2018; Moncada-Comas & Block, 2021).

This is not to say, however, that content teachers have taken up the role of language teachers, because the former mostly focus on meaning (Basturkmen, 2018; Moncada-Comas & Block, 2021), rather than on forms (as language teachers do) (Costa, 2012; Macaro et al., 2018). Kling (2015) confirms this via her lecturer participants' responses, adding that these are basic elements of teaching "regardless of the medium of instruction" (p. 211). As Macaro (2018) notes, "the shift towards their [the content lecturers'] incorporating a greater concern with students' English language development into their pedagogy becomes less likely the more their identity is grafted onto the intellectual community of practice [i.e. the academic discipline] they belong to or aspire to belong to" (p. 260).

Secondly, lecturers' professional identity might be adversely impacted in EMI due to their lack of linguistic competence, rendering them less competent or less respectable in the eyes of people of lower status like their students or their advisees (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2018; House & Lévy-Tödter, 2010; Volchenkova & Ph, 2019). Facing such challenges, the German engineering lecturers in House and Lévy-Tödter's (2010) study use self-help strategies to maintain their teacher identity integrity, just as the Danish lecturers in Soren's (2013) study do. In her study, Soren (2013) examines the identities of seven EMI lecturers in natural sciences in Denmark and concludes that EMI challenges do not affect the teachers' self-perceptions of their teacher identity because they "just get on with it", and either ignore or use strategies to avoid the problems (p. 113-114).

Somewhat different from Soren's (2013) findings, Pappa and Moate's (2021) Finnish participants are reported to clearly understand the differences between their established L1 teacher selves and their EMI teacher selves. As a result, the lecturers realise how EMI has changed their teaching practices, with more careful preparation, clearer instructions, more attention to students' expression, the need to encourage student participation, provision of vocabulary in more than one language, and cultural sensitivity. In addition to their changed self-perceptions in EMI, the lecturers tend to care less about their language problems over time, seeing themselves as English language learners, thus viewing their English imperfections as inevitable. This is one of the strategies used by the EMI lecturers, among other strategies like telling students at the beginning of the course that their university is not a language university to familiarise them with teachers' language mistakes (Jin, Talbot, & Mercer, 2021).

The last identity tension might derive from teachers' struggle with an English-only policy in EMI, and the reality of classroom contexts where using only English would either be impossible due to teachers' inadequate ELP (Qin, 2022), or detrimental to students' content learning due to the latter's low ELP (Ploettner, 2019). This puts EMI teachers in a real dilemma, as no matter what the circumstances are, they are still deemed to be not fulfilling their EMI teaching duties, which involves both content instruction and the use of English as the means of instruction (MoI). In his study of three Spanish STEM lecturers' identities, Block (2021) demonstrates that the teachers vary in their adoption of a bilingual policy in their class, with the more English-competent teacher tending to use English-only and the less competent ones using both English and the L1 in their classes. Indeed, teachers' resistance to EMI policies, particularly the English-only policy, is not uncommon. EMI teachers have been reported code-switching or using L1 and English in their classrooms (Jin et al., 2021; Sabaté-Dalmau, 2020). Even where teachers support the English-only policy, there is still evidence that all teachers generally agree that bilingualism is more beneficial to their students (Qin, 2022).

In addition to identity tensions and confusion that EMI lecturers may experience regarding their EMI teaching, research into EMI teachers' identity also reveals a positive imagined identity of EMI lecturers as members of international disciplinary communities, which promotes their international career prospects (Dafouz, 2018; Pappa & Moate,

2021; Volchenkova & Ph, 2019). However, this perception seems not yet popular among EMI academics, which somehow reflects the current reality that not many academics feel ready or prepared to succeed with EMI.

Increasingly seen as a component of teacher identity (Barkhuizen, 2017), emotions are believed to considerably impact how teachers perform their professional duties, or interact and develop in their profession (Song, 2016). Since EMI environments are "filled with and surrounded by tensions" (Kuteeva, 2023, p. 1), scholars have recently started to pay more attention to the emotions of teachers and students in EMI (Yuan, 2021). This is evidenced in a few recent studies into EMI teachers' and students' emotions and a newly published special issue of *Linguistics and Education* focusing on EMI's emotional landscape in HE (Hillman, Li, Green-Eneix, & De Costa, 2023). Generally, these studies point to a complex picture of teachers' EMI practices, which involves many different entangled positive and negative emotions (Hopkyns & Gkonou, 2023; Pappa & Moate, 2021; Yuan, 2021). The studies also call for more attention to teachers' emotional labour in EMI, together with a consideration of contextual factors in future research into the emotional landscape of EMI due to the localised nature of its policies, discourses and practices (Miller, 2023).

In brief, the research literature reports on teachers' multiple, and sometimes conflicting, identities in EMI. Teachers' identities in EMI tend to "remain faithful to the identities they developed in their respective academic disciplines" (Block, 2021, p. 96), particularly viewing themselves as deliverers of disciplinary knowledge who are not required to perform any duties related to English language teaching. EMI teachers are also reported as constructing new identities corresponding to the changes in their teaching environments. Furthermore, no matter what identities teachers appear to have taken up, their self-perceptions seem to align with their pedagogy (Kessler, 2021; Kim, 2013). This supports a Positioning Theory perspective that this study adopts to investigate teachers' instructional practices in Vietnamese higher education contexts. The literature also suggests that content lecturers' language identities can be developed through EMI training (Reynolds, 2019), which is the focus of the following section on EMI lecturers' professional development.

3.2.2 Impact of EMI on teaching

The literature on the impact of EMI on lecturers' classroom practices highlights challenges for lecturers due to their lack of preparation for English-medium instruction. Therefore, this section starts by reviewing studies into lecturers' challenges in EMI and how lecturers have (not) been prepared to deal with these challenges.

3.2.2.1 Teachers' readiness for EMI

3.2.2.1.1 Teachers' challenges in EMI

There is very little in the literature on teachers' readiness for EMI at large (Lasagabaster, 2022b). A common picture seems to be that EMI implementation is a top-down process (Cho, 2012; Dearden & Macaro, 2016), where lecturers, as one key stakeholder, are rarely consulted by policymakers at any level (Macaro et al., 2018). Lecturers often participate in an EMI program because they are forced to, or because it has been made a policy, rather than out of their own willingness. As a result, EMI appears to be more of a professional challenge than a professional opportunity for teachers, who, in the course of dealing with it, often need to develop new professional identities (as discussed above).

In addition to the potential identity tensions discussed in the previous section, the literature refers to four main challenges to teachers' instruction in English. The first and second challenges, which lie at the core of the teaching-learning process, are teachers' and their students' lack of ELP (Dimova et al., 2015; Doiz et al., 2012; Vinke et al., 1998), although, as Macaro et al. (2018) note, the concept of "proficiency" has not been clearly defined in every EMI study that they have reviewed. Not only is the construct of "proficiency" vaguely understood, but also the level of proficiency required of EMI teachers has not been determined unanimously (O'Dowd, 2018). Some universities require EMI teachers to reach the B2 level of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), while some others request C1 or even C2 – the highest, native-like level of English proficiency (O'Dowd, 2018). Other universities may not need any proof of English language competence, except that the lecturers have had experience learning and possibly teaching in an English-speaking environment (Dearden & Macaro, 2016).

Teachers' perceived lack of language competence clearly limits their professional capacity, resulting in possibly lower lesson quality, less pedagogical flexibility, and perhaps less joy in teaching (Vinke et al., 1998).

The third challenge for EMI teachers involves pedagogy since teaching in English is commonly believed to require more than just translating the lecture content into English (Macaro et al., 2018). Rather, teachers need to be aware of the increased cognitive load that their students experience while learning through a second or foreign language (Roussel, Joulia, Tricot, & Sweller, 2017), so that they can support the students more in their learning. Nevertheless, the lack of pedagogical training in EMI means several teachers perform their teaching duties with the assumption that teaching in L1 and in another language is no different (Park & Pawan, 2016). In addition to non-transparent policies on EMI implementation (Dearden, 2014), this results in variations in EMI practices, which are acceptable in one context and not so in another (Kyeyune, 2003; Wilkinson, 2005).

Lastly, EMI teachers also face workload challenges due to the "laborious nature of EMI", which requires teachers to upgrade their ELP, redesign their lessons and even re-conceptualise their course materials (Macaro et al., 2018, p. 55). This situation is exacerbated by the lack of teaching resources, especially in developing countries (Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2017). Sometimes, EMI is applied to locally-relevant courses, which only have the materials in the local languages. Therefore, lecturers even have to translate those materials into English (Nguyen, 2016b), which is time-consuming and less standardised.

As EMI environments are filled with tensions deriving from linguistic and pedagogical challenges (Curle et al., 2020), among many other factors, which substantially impact lecturers' self-perceptions and their pedagogy (Pappa & Moate, 2021), there has long been a scholarly call for more support for EMI lecturers in the form of professional development programs (Macaro et al., 2018). In fact, staff training has been identified as a crucial factor contributing to successful EMI implementation (Ball & Lindsay, 2012). However, such professional development opportunities seem to be limited across several EMI contexts (Macaro, Akincioglu, & Han, 2019a), as are studies into EMI teachers'

professional training (Pérez Cañado, 2020). The following section will discuss the issue of professional training for EMI lecturers in detail.

3.2.2.1.2 Teachers' preparedness for EMI

Studies into EMI teachers' professional learning can be categorised into two groups: those investigating the situation of training provision to EMI teachers, which consider policymakers' and/or teachers' perspectives, and those examining the impacts of a particular EMI training program.

In Europe, several surveys have been conducted to examine the training practices offered to lecturers in English-taught programs (Costa & Coleman, 2013; O'Dowd, 2018; Wacher & Maiworm, 2014). Two surveys of Italian universities in 2012 (Costa & Coleman, 2013) and of all Italian universities in 2015 (Broggini & Costa, 2017) with the Deans, the Heads of the Internationalisation Project, the Chairs of English, the Heads of Faculty, and the University Language Centre revealed that roughly 10% of participating universities were providing language and/or methodological training to EMI lecturers. While language training decreased (from 15% in 2012 to 13% in 2015), the opposite was true for methodological training (from 8% to 10% respectively). These figures were even lower among private institutions, suggesting that professional training for EMI teachers was not popular in the Italian HE system.

A large-scale survey by Wächter and Maiworm (2014) in fully English-taught programs in 28 European countries from October 2013 to November 2014 found that English language courses provided for the EMI lecturers were very rare, possibly because almost all directors of EMI programs were very satisfied with their staff's ELP. Despite this, since a British Council report on global EMI in 2014 (Dearden, 2014) indicates a need for more rigorous training in language and methodology for EMI teachers, O'Dowd (2018) surveyed 70 European universities in 2014-2015 regarding their current practice of training and accrediting EMI lecturers. The findings indicate that 30% of the participant institutions did not provide any EMI-related training for their lecturers, a third supported EMI lecturers with language training, and only a third had their lecturers trained in the methodology of teaching in a foreign language. Regarding accreditation of

EMI lecturers, the practices varied widely, with ELP requirements ranging from B2 to C2, a finding which "is disconcerting and shows a need for research in this area" (O'Dowd, 2018, p. 562).

This paucity of professional development opportunities is also experienced by lecturers of English-taught programs in other non-Anglophone contexts. A recent survey by Macaro et al. (2019a) confirms this among 463 EMI teachers in over seven countries in Europe, Asia, and Central and South America. Specifically, nearly two-thirds of the participant teachers had received no EMI-related professional training. The remaining third experienced training at various intensity levels, ranging from a few hours to a few months. The participants were also surveyed about their perspectives on EMI certification, to which most of them showed their support despite having less enthusiasm about dedicating time and effort to obtaining such certificates.

Regarding the necessary competencies for teaching in English, most teachers believed that ELP was insufficient and that teaching in English required different or additional competencies. In other words, an overwhelming number of teachers viewed it as important to change their pedagogy regarding EMI. Nevertheless, the teachers were not very enthusiastic about acquiring the knowledge and skills needed to teach an academic subject through a second language, possibly due to the lack of institutional support regarding time and other resources.

Evidence of teachers' interest in professional learning for EMI also exists in other studies conducted in some European and Asian countries such as Spain, Korea, Japan and China (Galloway & Ruegg, 2022; Macaro & Han, 2020; Macaro, Jiménez Muñoz, & Lasagabaster, 2019b; Park, Kim, Lee, & Kim, 2022), which are also the contexts of the majority of studies in the tertiary EMI literature (Macaro & Aizawa, 2022). Teachers in those contexts generally showed a positive attitude towards PD programs, but perspectives varied regarding EMI certification, with Chinese and Japanese lecturers supporting it while Korean professors opposing it (Bradford, Park, & Brown, 2022; Macaro & Han, 2020). Even where lecturers are positive about EMI accreditation, such a certificate can burden EMI academics whose schedules are already tight. Hence, it is unsurprising that most surveyed lecturers, especially the more EMI-experienced ones,

show little enthusiasm for dedicating time to EMI certification (Bradford et al., 2022; Macaro & Han, 2020; Park et al., 2022). Also, due to the time constraints, short-term, intensive PD programs appear to be preferable by EMI lecturers (Bradford et al., 2022), although long-term training is arguably more effective as development in both language and teaching capacities takes time (Klaassen, 2008; Tsui, 2017).

Regarding the necessary skills and competencies to teach effectively through English, there is research evidence that teachers need more than ELP and bilingual pedagogy. In addition to ELP (Dang, Bonar, & Yao, 2021), especially oral skills in informal situations (Helm & Guarda, 2015; Pérez Cañado, 2020), recent studies have uncovered teachers' need for disciplinary-specific linguistic knowledge (Turkan, De Oliveira, Lee, & Phelps, 2014), disciplinary-specific linguistic and pedagogical support (Gustafsson, 2020; Macaro & Han, 2020), and reinforced the need for intercultural competence (Dafouz, 2021; Galloway & Ruegg, 2022).

Nevertheless, there is an ambivalent attitude reported in the literature in terms of bilingual or language pedagogy, with lecturers in Guarda and Helm (2017), Macaro et al. (2019a), Park and Pawan (2016) supporting it, while teachers in Galloway and Ruegg (2022) considering it beyond their skill set. Despite this, teacher language awareness is considered an important component of any content teacher's competency repertoire. It has proved to be useful when included in an EMI-related professional training course in China (Lu & Dearden, 2021) and the Netherlands (Wildeman, Koopman, & Beijaard, 2022). Teachers' ability to reflect on their teaching is also believed to be crucial for dealing with their EMI challenges and improving their teaching quality (Farrell, 2019). This is endorsed by PD programs worldwide (Ball & Lindsay, 2012; Guarda & Helm, 2017).

Curle et al.'s (2020) review of the EMI literature provides a summary of the necessary competencies of EMI teachers. The authors categorise these competencies into three main groups: pedagogy, communication skills, and English language skills. Pedagogy competencies consist of the student-centred approach, scaffolding techniques, basics of teaching vocabulary in English, collaboration between language and subject specialists, and the use of English and L1. Communication skills entail some aspects of intercultural

communication and accommodation strategies. English language skills comprise subject-specific features of English and English for classroom management. Nevertheless, as discussed above, this summary appears to omit teacher language awareness and self-reflection, arguably vital competencies in EMI and general pedagogy.

Since there is a scarcity of professional training for EMI lecturers, there are few studies on the impact of EMI-related training (Lasagabaster, 2022a). Nevertheless, all studies seem to echo the benefits that professional training brings to EMI lecturers, and lecturers are reported to prefer PD courses with pedagogical components instead of language-only ones (Ball & Lindsay, 2012; Cheng, 2017). Also according to these PD course participants, not only do these courses create an opportunity for the lecturers from different disciplines to collaborate (Ball & Lindsay, 2012; Lu & Dearden, 2021), but they also provide a space for the lecturers to reflect on their practices (Guarda & Helm, 2017; Tuomainen, 2018), which the lecturers find very beneficial. Generally, the lecturers find themselves more confident about teaching in English. In other words, their self-efficacy is enhanced after a professional training course (Chen & Peng, 2019; Guarda & Helm, 2017; Lu & Dearden, 2021; Webster & Herington, 2021). More specifically, lecturers' linguistic and social capital are also enhanced, contributing to their improved international professional identity and employment prospects (Dafouz, 2018). The lecturers are also more willing to engage in pedagogical innovations in their classrooms and are more successful in doing so (Ball & Lindsay, 2012; Cheng, 2017; Ismailov, 2022; Webster & Herington, 2021; Wildeman et al., 2022).

To sum up, teaching in English poses numerous challenges to teachers whose first languages are not English. Therefore, many EMI lecturers have voiced their strong need for professional training. The literature regarding professional development for EMI lecturers reveals that teachers need more than just English language support (Cheng, 2017; Dafouz, 2021; Macaro et al., 2019a). In fact, pedagogical support is gaining increasing attention among EMI lecturers (Dang et al., 2021). Additionally, the literature also presents an urgent call for more ongoing professional development or support to EMI lecturers (Aizawa & Rose, 2019; Dafouz, 2018; Morell, Aleson-Carbonell, & Escabias-Lloret, 2022; Pérez Cañado, 2020; Tsui, 2017), possibly in the form of establishing communities of practice (Alhassan, 2021; Lu & Dearden, 2021). It also presents a strong

call for more collaboration among content lecturers (Lu, 2022) and/or between content and language lecturers (Macaro & Tian, 2020), especially team teaching (Lasagabaster, 2018), as these have proved useful to those involved. Technology might also be utilised to facilitate teachers' collaboration in the PD process (Helm, 2020; Morell et al., 2022). With all the identity tensions and challenges that EMI lecturers suffer from, exacerbated by their general lack of preparedness for EMI, it would be interesting to explore EMI lecturers' classroom practices, which we now turn to in the next section about the impact of EMI on the lecturers' teaching.

3.2.2.2 Teachers' instructional practices in EMI

Examining the literature on teachers' pedagogical practices in EMI reveals two important issues that might affect the interpretation and value of research findings. The first issue is related to epistemology. Since most of the research on EMI has so far been conducted by applied linguists (Macaro & Aizawa, 2022) who view the EMI phenomenon from the linguistic perspective, little is known about the EMI classroom from the content instruction perspective. The second issue is regarding methodology. As Curry and Pérez-Paredes (2021) argue, studies into teachers' professional practices in EMI lack a theoretical perspective. As the authors put it, teachers' professional practices are often not "theoretically situated" and thus "add little to the understanding and development of teachers in contexts like EMEMUS [English-medium education in multilingual university settings]" (p. 126, explanation added).

In this section, the literature on teachers' instructional practices in EMI is presented in three categories: the content taught and methods used in EMI classrooms (or "teaching content and methods" for short), teachers' first language (L1) and/or English use (or "language use: code-switching and translanguaging"), and teachers' classroom assessment practices. While the construct of teacher language use might include several components (e.g., register, vocabulary, fluency), one of which is teachers' L1 and/or English use, as structured in other EMI research output (e.g., e.g., Molino, Dimova, Kling, & Larsen, 2022), the "Language use" section in this chapter focuses on only teachers' L1 and/or English use to highlight its key status in EMI pedagogy (Sahan, Rose, & Macaro, 2021b). Other features of teachers' language use in EMI classrooms such as fluency,

vocabulary, and register, are mentioned in the first section about teaching content and methods, as these features are often pedagogically related. Furthermore, teachers' questioning might constitute part of the teachers' assessment-for-learning techniques; hence, a place in the third section about EMI classroom assessment. However, as teachers' questions also form part of the classroom interaction, regarding the logical sequence of ideas, teachers' questioning is discussed together with classroom interaction in the first section.

3.2.2.2.1 Teaching content and methods

In addition to depicting the content and methods in EMI classrooms, this section elaborates on the recorded impact of the change in language medium of instruction (MoI) on these pedagogical aspects. As lecturers transition from teaching in their first language to teaching in English, they are reported making adaptations to the content and methods used in their lessons, though to different extents. The impact of the MoI change varies according to factors such as academic disciplines, lecturers' and students' English language proficiency, lecturers' teaching experience, their attitudes towards English, their perceived professional roles in EMI, their identity, and their social teaching-learning contexts.

Research findings reveal the effects of teaching in a foreign language on teachers' practices (Bailey et al., 2008). As teachers change their language medium of instruction, they are reported to adapt their teaching in several ways. These adaptations might include reduced speed of delivery (Goodman, 2014), fewer redundancies, less flexibility in oral communication, and less ability to improvise (Kling, 2015; Thøgersen & Airey, 2011; Vinke et al., 1998). Also, lecturers are reported to lack nuance, detail, and precision in their explanations and a reduced ability to use humour and storytelling (Airey, 2011; Klaassen & De Graaff, 2001; Vinke, 1995). These issues generally pose challenges to EMI lecturers, especially those with limited EMI experience (Chen, 2019).

To compensate for their own lack of linguistic competence and also to facilitate students' content comprehension, EMI lecturers are reported to use several verbal and non-verbal strategies in their classrooms, although the number of pragmatic strategies actually used

by a particular lecturer might be modest (Björkman, 2010; Broggini & Costa, 2017; Ibrahim & Ahmad, 2020). Many lecturers report that they have to spend more time preparing for their lessons in EMI (Airey, 2011; Werther et al., 2014) or simplify their language to facilitate students' content comprehension (Sert, 2008). Chinese medical lecturers in Jiang et al. (2019) employ raised volume, prolonged pronunciation, and word-to-word translation from L1 to English to reduce the negative effect of the lecturer's potentially unclear pronunciation on students' comprehension, and to help them avoid misunderstanding, or use code-switching, repetition and rephrasing to scaffold their content learning. Korean lecturers in Kim, Kim, and Kweon (2018) tend to speak more slowly and provide more explanations than when teaching in L1. Many other lecturers have to rely on teaching notes, PowerPoint slides, or visual aids (Fenton-Smith et al., 2017; Jiang et al., 2019; Kling, 2015). Experienced EMI lecturers tend to "just get on with it" (Kling, 2015), empowering themselves by adopting an English as a lingua franca perspective, and thus paying more attention to the content and meaning rather than their inaccurate language use (Chen, 2019).

While most EMI lecturers would not consider it their responsibility to help students with their English (Airey, 2012), some lecturers have been observed adopting linguistically responsive teaching practices. Linguistically responsive instruction is a teaching approach that "explicitly acknowledge[s] the role of language and culture in teaching and learning", and thus displays intentional integration of language in content teaching (Haan & Gallagher, 2022, p. 7). In EMI classrooms, the language support strategies that some teachers have employed include code-switching, glossary supply, grammar explanations, use of multimedia or activities to stimulate classroom participation, and adjustment of questions or examples to suit students' specific language backgrounds (Chang, 2021). Adopting these strategies does not necessarily mean some content teachers are willing to take on the role of language teachers. Rather, it only reflects these teachers' awareness of the role of language in content learning, particularly the role of English in their disciplines (Henriksen, Holmen, & Kling, 2018).

Nevertheless, perspectives regarding the role of language vary greatly among lecturers of different disciplines. Natural sciences lecturers tend to view language as unimportant because they are saved by the formula (Airey, 2012). In contrast, lecturers of soft sciences

like economics often consider language skills such as verbal communication and argumentation irreplaceable parts of dealing and trading (Hu & Duan, 2019).

Additionally, viewing themselves as content specialists (de Diezmas & Barrera, 2021), EMI lecturers' language-focused episodes where explicit language instruction occurs are often rare, unplanned, and mostly limited to vocabulary instruction (Basturkmen, 2018; Costa, 2012; Ingvarsdóttir & Arnbjörnsdóttir, 2010) and a few grammatical features (An, Macaro, & Childs, 2019; Jiang et al., 2019). Some form-focused strategies (i.e., the strategies teachers use to draw students' attention to the morphosyntax of the language) are code-switching and input enhancement (Costa, 2012), and the use of repetitions, definitions, paraphrases, synonyms, examples, and explanations (An et al., 2019; Basturkmen & Shackleford, 2015; Costa & Mariotti, 2021; Jiang et al., 2019). Indeed, Richards and Pun (2022), on reviewing EMI literature at both secondary and tertiary levels, have compiled a list of 75 strategies that EMI teachers have used across three phases (before, while, post) of their teaching to deal with English-medium instruction. These strategies are classified based on the five groups of factors that trigger them: teacher factors, pedagogic factors, linguistic factors, affective factors, and learner factors.

Although the number of studies comparing English-medium and L1 lectures is limited (Zuaro, 2023), content quality is believed to be poorer in EMI as compared to corresponding L1 classrooms for several reasons (Airey, 2011; Werther et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2019). First, this situation might result from teachers' lack of detail and depth in their explanations of content in EMI and their limited ability to improvise in English (Bolton & Kuteeva, 2012; Kim, 2017). Second, due to students' limited English proficiency or merely the challenge of processing content in another language, EMI teachers often have to make considerable efforts in communication. Thus EMI content delivery appears to take longer than content transmission in L1 (Chang, 2021). This results in either the lecturers' reduction of the amount of content delivered and the number of examples and questions (Arkın & Osam, 2015), or the very slow progress of the EMI course as compared to its equivalent in L1 (Kim et al., 2018). Last, EMI lecturers are found to slow down their speech in English, and use more repetitions and lexical redundancies (Thøgersen & Airey, 2011; Zuaro, 2023); hence, less content is covered within the same amount of time. Though not commenting on the quality of content in

EMI as compared to L1, Zuaro's (2023) study once again confirms the differences in content quantity between lectures of the same topics but taught in English and Italian. Her study also reveals differences in content selection and rhetorical devices used by Italian EMI lecturers between their English-medium and L1 lectures.

One aspect of EMI teaching receiving little research attention is the teaching of culture. Huang and Fang (2022) address this research gap by observing six Chinese EMI lecturers' practices of culture teaching and interviewing them about their perceptions of this issue. They find that the lecturers' views towards cultural instruction vary across disciplines, with social sciences and humanities lecturers supporting the teaching of culture and employing different techniques. STEM lecturers reject the necessity of cultural instruction in their subjects and do not engage in culture teaching to any extent. The five culture teaching techniques that lecturers from a social sciences and humanities background in Huang and Fang's (2022) study adopt are contrast, authentic material, group work, code-switching, and guided discussion of culture, among which code-switching and contrast are the most frequently used. Also, these lecturers act as intercultural mediators who help their EMI students develop their understanding of both Chinese and world cultures.

Another aspect of EMI pedagogy commonly reported by teachers and students and also observed by researchers in many contexts is the dominance of teacher-fronted lectures and the lack of classroom interaction (Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Ismailov, Chiu, Dearden, Yamamoto, & Djalilova, 2021), despite the crucial role of interaction in students' acquisition of both content and language (Macaro, 2018). This monologic teaching approach is reported to result in students' lack of concentration and motivation for study, and thus their engagement in sleep, Internet surfing, or chatting during class hours, or even truancy (Hua, 2019; Huang, 2018; Soruç & Griffiths, 2018). The students are reported to appreciate dialogic teaching, especially when the lecturers challenge them with high-order thinking questions (Studer, 2015), or explore their current understanding via problem-solving activities before providing further questions or explanations (Huang & Jhuang, 2015).

Research into classroom interaction in EMI contexts is still limited (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2023). Findings indicate teachers' differences in their preferences for interactive pedagogy (Macaro & Tian, 2020). Nevertheless, the common pattern of interaction in EMI classrooms in many contexts involves short and rare classroom exchanges (Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2021; Macaro, 2018) and low-order thinking questions (Dafouz & Sánchez, 2013; Hu & Duan, 2019; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2022; Pun et al., 2023), mainly due to students' and teachers' inadequate language proficiency (Evans & Morrison, 2011; Helm & Guarda, 2015). Furthermore, the literature points to the following factors that affect the quality of interaction in EMI classrooms:

- university types (with less L1 use and interaction in EMI classrooms at elite universities) (Sahan et al., 2021b),
- the language of instruction (with teachers' more comprehension-check questions in EMI lessons and students' more demonstration of their comprehension in L1 lessons) (Hu & Li, 2017),
- teaching mode (online versus offline) (Costa & Mariotti, 2023),
- students' motivation and anxiety (Kopinska & Fernández-Costales, 2023),
- students' beliefs about pronunciation (Gómez-Lacabex & Roothooft, 2023),
- team teaching (Rui & Lo, 2023), and
- teacher training (Ismailov, 2022; Studer & Kelly, 2023).

Interestingly, academic disciplines do not seem to influence EMI lecturers' frequency and types of questions (Dafouz & Sánchez, 2013; Hu & Duan, 2019; Lasagabaster & Doiz, 2022).

In order to investigate the issue of quality interaction in EMI more systematically, Macaro (2018), after reviewing the literature on second language acquisition and educational research, proposed a "quality interaction in pedagogy" framework, in which "quality" is constructed from five dimensions:

1. extended Initiation, Response, Feedback (I-R-F) sequences instead of rigid ones
2. a wide variety of teacher language functions instead of limited language functions

3. teacher question types that require high-level cognitive responses, rather than low-level demonstrations of knowledge already shared
4. long student turns instead of short ones - to allow the student to express higher-level concepts
5. sufficient wait time to allow the thinking processes to occur prior to, during, and after the student's turn

(pp. 196-197)

This framework has proved to be relevant for investigating interaction quality in EMI classrooms, and teacher training based on this framework has proved to be successful in improving the quality of classroom interaction in Japanese EMI classrooms (Ismailov, 2022).

Language functions in EMI university lectures are one aspect of the quality interaction framework that has rarely been investigated. Doiz and Lasagabaster (2021) address this research gap by using the concept of cognitive discourse functions (CDFs) to examine language functions in six history lessons in Spain. The researchers find that lecturers combined different CDFs to realise their communicative goals, and that lecturers' use of CDFs contributed to the students' development of disciplinary competencies.

In fact, language functions in EMI lectures seem to have been more often studied together with the different languages used in the classroom. Macaro (2018) argues that the study of interaction in EMI contexts cannot be separated from the language use factor. In other words, which language teachers and students use in EMI classrooms plays a role in what type of interaction and how interaction happens in class. As language use is an inherent feature of the EMI phenomenon (Blaj-Ward, 2017), the following section is dedicated to discussing language use in the EMI literature at the tertiary level.

3.2.2.2.2 Language use: code-switching & translanguaging

The issue of language use has been central to bilingual education in general and EMI in particular since it is believed to affect both content and language learning (Macaro, 2018). However, despite its key status in EMI pedagogy (Sahan et al., 2021b), language use has

received little attention in EMI contexts (Macaro, Tian, & Chu, 2020), especially at the tertiary level. Within the EMI literature in university settings, language use has often been investigated under the two concepts of code-switching and translanguaging, although these two terms are believed to be contentious and value-laden, causing some scholars to adopt more neutral terms like "language alternation" (Costa, 2021; Zuaro, 2023) or "L1 use", "L2 use" instead (Macaro et al., 2020).

Originally referring to the same practice of using different languages (or codes) in one's communication, code-switching and translanguaging stem from contradictory language ideologies (Tai, 2021). Code-switching refers to "the alternating use of two languages in the same stretch of discourse by a bilingual speaker" (Bullock & Toribio, 2009, p. xii). It might vary from the change of single words to the alternation of languages for large discourse segments, so it can be intra-sentential or inter-sentential. The assumption underlying the notion of code-switching is that languages are structurally different and bilinguals "use two languages as two separate monolingual codes" (Lasagabaster, 2016, p. 234). In contrast, translanguaging views bilinguals' linguistic repertoire as unitary and bilinguals deliberately, flexibly, and strategically "switch the language mode of input and output in bilingual classrooms" (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012b, p. 643). Formerly viewed as a pedagogical theory (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012a), translanguaging is now perceived as both a pedagogical strategy and a pedagogical resource in bilingual education (García & Wei, 2014). More recently, translanguaging has been conceptualised as a process of knowledge construction that involves a move beyond linguistic codes (including different languages and dialects, their styles, registers, and other variations in language use) to deploy multimodal, semiotic and socio-cultural resources in a dynamic and integrated way to make meaning (Wei, 2018).

Current literature on translanguaging differentiates between pedagogical translanguaging and spontaneous translanguaging (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017). Pedagogical translanguaging refers to teachers' planned strategies to use different languages for input and output (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020), and other deliberate strategies drawing from students' entire linguistic repertoire (Galante, 2020). In contrast, spontaneous translanguaging is unplanned, as its name suggests, and thus does not assist much in maximising students' content and language learning potentials. Translanguaging practice has been gaining

much attention from EMI researchers because of its emphasis on the "human capacity to transcend the boundaries between named languages in meaning making" (Wei, 2021, p. 167), which is particularly useful in the context of EMI where teachers and students are conducting their teaching and learning activities using their less proficient language (i.e., English).

Despite EMI teachers' and students' ambivalent attitudes towards translanguaging (Ali & Hamid, 2018; Kim, Kweon, & Kim, 2017; Macaro et al., 2020), these stakeholders generally concur on the value of L1 in EMI classrooms (Curle et al., 2020; Fang & Liu, 2020; Rahman & Singh, 2021). In fact, it has been commonly observed that EMI classes are rarely English-only (Sahan & Rose, 2021). Recent research also highlights the drawbacks of an English-only policy and the benefits of L1 use to mitigate EMI teachers' and students' language-related challenges (Chang, 2021; Pun et al., 2023).

Translanguaging has been mainly examined in tertiary EMI as a pedagogical tool (Genc, Yuksel, & Curle, 2023). Previous studies into translanguaging in university contexts have investigated the functions of language use and found that teachers have used L1 for not only pedagogical functions (e.g., content transmission), but also classroom management, social or affective functions (Genc et al., 2023; Sahan & Rose, 2021) (see Table 3.1 below for details).

Table 3.1: Functions of language use in EMI classrooms

(Sahan & Rose, 2021)

No.	Main Category	Description	Definition
1.	Content transmission	Introduce new content of concepts	Refer to upcoming/ subsequent topics; frame or transition to a new part of a lesson
2.		Check student comprehension	Assess student progress and comprehension of a lesson, often realised by a question
3.		Explain, clarify, or summarise presented content or concepts	Restatement or repeat material/ concepts that have already been presented
4.		Ask and/or answer questions related to content	Questions asked by teachers or students directly related to content; these statements have the aim of eliciting a response (responses less than 3 seconds are also coded in this category)
5.		Translate technical vocabulary	Provide the equivalent of a technical word or phrase in the L1 or L2
6.		Present or explain new content	Provide information or impart knowledge related to content
7.		Give math-based examples to explain the content	Provide or solve a mathematics example or problem; apply the concept to a problem or example that requires mathematical calculations to solve
8.		Give conceptual examples related to daily life to explain the content	Provide an example from "daily life" to illustrate a concept; apply content to the real-world (non-mathematical example)
9.	Classroom management	Manage discipline	Address issues of student behaviour in or related to class
10.		Provide feedback, e.g., praise or criticism	Comment or provide (positive or negative) feedback on students' performance, responses, or contribution to class
11.		Give instructions or procedural commands	Provide a directive; aim to elicit a non-verbal response
12.		Encourage student participation	Encourage participation, responses, or involvement from students in class
13.		Draw students' attention or focus	Direct students' attention towards a specific (ongoing) aspect of the lesson
14.		Provide "off-content" information related to the course	Statements and/or questions that relate to aspects of the course other than content material, such as course announcements, reminders, and logistics
15.	Social or Affective functions	Build rapport	Statements that aim to develop a (personal) relationship and/ or create a friendly atmosphere; use of jokes or humour; refers to shared cultural values or norms
16.		Emphasise the importance of the topic for career or future studies	Underline the importance of a particular topic, concept, or course for reasons related to the student's future studies or career
17.	Other	Pause	Periods of silence, for which there is no spoken language on the recording, for at least 3 seconds

In particular, terminology explanations and group discussions are the two most common reasons for translanguaging (Genc et al., 2023; Sahan & Rose, 2021). With a focus on the pedagogical functions of translanguaging, Wang and Curdt-Christiansen (2019) investigate the translanguaging practices of Chinese lecturers in a Business Management Program. They find four categories: bilingual label quest (i.e., the use of one language to explain terminologies, concepts, or fixed expressions in another language), simultaneous code-mixing (i.e., the use of both languages for meaning-making), cross-language recapping (i.e., teaching content in one language and then repeat it in another), and dual-language substantiation (i.e., the construction of disciplinary knowledge with contributions from both languages, such as localising knowledge with local examples).

Other research also suggests there are contextual differences in EMI lecturers' use of L1. Drawing on interview and classroom observation data, Jia et al. (2023) compare three Chinese engineering lecturers' perceptions and practices regarding translanguaging and find complex relationships exist between these two domains. These relationships are conditioned by the sociocultural (e.g., the socially-constructed value of an English-only course), personal (e.g., teachers' EMI teaching experiences), and interactional factors (e.g., students' challenges in learning in English-only). In another EMI setting in Qatar, Hillman, Graham, and Eslami (2019) point out that translanguaging practices might also be affected by different features of the linguistic ecology of the universities concerned. In these situations, students from various linguistic backgrounds might feel excluded in the face of the lecturers' translanguaging practices.

In brief, recent EMI literature seems to have moved away from the English-only ideal to embrace L1 or bilingual/multilingual practices in EMI classrooms. Nevertheless, given the spontaneous nature of many EMI lecturers' current translanguaging practices (Genc et al., 2023), the literature highlights the role of professional training in fostering lecturers' explicit and planned incorporation of L1 into their EMI pedagogy, including the use of L1 in assessment activities (Paulsrud et al., 2021). Given the important role of assessment in teaching and learning, the following section will elaborate on the assessment issue in EMI.

3.2.2.2.3 EMI assessment

Despite the integral role of assessment in education, assessment has rarely been the main research topic in EMI contexts (Hultgren et al., 2022). Only 5% of all EMI publications in Croatia, Denmark, Italy, the Netherlands, and Spain from 1999 to 2019 dealt with language assessment (content assessment is not mentioned because it is an obvious issue for content subjects) (Molino et al., 2022). Within that limited body of research, language assessment has mainly been explored with regard to students' English language assessment pre- and post-entry into EMI programs and teachers' ELP certification (Dimova & Kling, 2022), leaving EMI classroom assessment practices largely unexplored in research. Given the focus of this study, this section will only discuss studies into classroom assessment practices in tertiary EMI contexts.

In EMI contexts where students are required to learn disciplinary content in a second, often foreign, language, "the most challenging aspect of assessment is the interaction between content and language in disciplinary learning and communication" (Dimova & Kling, 2022, p. 143). The main issues that the EMI literature regarding classroom-based assessment focuses on are: what the overall assessment practices are in EMI, whether language should be evaluated in addition to content, and whether translanguaging practices (or the use of students' L1) should be allowed in students' completion of their assessment tasks (Lasagabaster, 2022a).

Regarding an overview of classroom assessment in EMI and whether English should be evaluated, the literature reveals a complex picture of heterogeneous practices. Kao and Tsou (2017) investigate the assessment practices of 29 EMI teachers in business and management, engineering, and foreign languages in Taiwanese universities. Via a survey, they find that most teachers conduct summative assessments and employ similar assessment tools and formats in their EMI and L1 classes. Although the teachers do not explicitly evaluate their students' ELP in the assessment activities, most of them think students' ELP affects the grading since students have to process assessment tasks in English and provide appropriate responses in English. Moreover, the EMI teachers' views of the role of English in their courses affect their choices of assessment tools. Three main roles of English highlighted are English as a medium for content learning, English as an

instrument for academic skills training, and English as a facilitator for creating an English environment.

Another survey with 40 EMI lecturers by Li and Wu (2018) adds more insights into EMI assessment practices in the Taiwanese context. This survey reveals the effect of the language of testing on the content of assessment tasks and teachers' assessment practices, with more appraisal of students' higher-order abilities and feedback provision and result communication in the teachers' Chinese-medium courses as compared to their EMI ones. Interestingly, the authors also find a high correlation between teachers' self-perceived assessment skills and their selected assessment techniques, suggesting that teachers' familiarity with certain assessment tasks, not instructional objectives, determines their assessment practices in EMI. In addition to the language of testing, discipline, and teacher factors, Li and Wu also find that their teacher participants' assessment practices are affected by class size.

Unlike Kao and Tsou's (2017) findings, a considerable number of teachers in Li and Wu's (2018) survey include English as one of their assessment criteria (but not necessarily a focus of their instruction). This assessment practice contrasts with the viewpoint of some Spanish lecturers, who think English should be excluded from their students' final marks (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Pavón, 2019). Nevertheless, with the same perception of language assessment exclusion, two Spanish lecturers in the study by Block and Mancho-Barés (2021) evaluate students' ELP in their oral presentation marking rubrics. From a somewhat different context of a language education program in Cambodia, Moore (2017) finds that institutional norms play a key role in teachers' assessment practices no matter what the courses are in the EMI curriculum.

Given the heterogeneous assessment practices and other challenges involved in assessment in EMI, different scholars have called for a focus on learning (Li & Wu, 2021) or communication (Fortanet-Gómez, 2013), with a heightened awareness of language and academic literacies in EMI assessment (Hultgren et al., 2022). They further argue that translanguaging practices with the use of multilingual and multimodal resources, guided by the English as a Lingua Franca ideology, should inform classroom assessment practices in EMI (Lawrence, Inbar-Lourie, & Weinberg, 2017; Shohamy, 2018, 2022;

Van der Walt, 2013). These scholars refer to the success of translanguaging assessment practices in bringing about a social transformation in some African universities (Luckett & Hurst-Harosh, 2021) or the permission of translanguaging in assessment tasks in some European universities (e.g., e.g., Pompeu Fabra University, 2007) as an example of how the field can go forward. However, some scholars have raised their warnings about the transformative limits of translanguaging (Jaspers, 2018) and in reality, EMI teachers might not welcome this practice, as in the case of the Spanish lecturers (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2017).

Summary

This chapter has reviewed the related EMI literature to lay the foundation for this study. Starting with a brief overview of EMI, this literature review then focuses on teachers as one of the key stakeholders in EMI implementation, presenting the impact of EMI on teachers' professional selves (i.e., teacher identity) and their pedagogy, including the challenges they encounter, their preparedness for EMI, and their classroom practices.

The literature indicates a complex picture of EMI implementation, which is highly contextualised. Among the most frequently mentioned factors influencing teaching practices across all EMI contexts are national and institutional policies, academic disciplines, students, and teachers themselves (e.g., the teachers' professional experience, their views of the role of English in their discipline or subjects, making the language of instruction becoming a factor in itself, their perceptions of their roles in EMI, their language and pedagogical competencies, to name a few).

The literature review also reveals the paucity of EMI research in the Asia-Pacific region, and the dearth of studies on EMI teaching practices with a theoretical perspective. This research project was conducted to fill these contextual and theoretical gaps via the use of Positioning Theory. The following chapter will discuss this theoretical framework more thoroughly.

CHAPTER 4: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Introduction

This chapter outlines the theoretical framework for this study: Positioning Theory (PT), and how it is adapted for investigating Vietnamese lecturers' EMI teaching practices. The chapter begins with an introduction to PT, including an overview of its fundamental tenets and concepts. Explanations are also provided on how the concept of "moral order" in PT can be better understood by using Van Langenhove's (2017) "moral orders" framework. The chapter then justifies the choice of PT to examine this research topic, and ends with an operationalisation of PT as an analytical framework in this study.

4.1 Positioning Theory

4.1.1 Overview of Positioning Theory

PT was first introduced in 1990 by Bronwyn Davis and Rom Harré (Davis & Harré, 1990) and since then has been advanced by Harré and a number of collaborators (Harré & Moghaddam, 2003; Harré, Moghaddam, Cairnie, Rothbart, & Sabat, 2009; Van Langenhove & Harré, 1999).

PT is rooted in post-structuralism, feminism (Harré & Slocum, 2003), discursive psychology (Harré et al., 2009), and social constructionism (Harré & Van Langenhove, 1999a). It focuses on the meaning of social actions via the analysis of storylines which unfolds the role of rights, duties and obligations in managing human actions in a particular moral landscape (Harré et al., 2009).

PT is a product of the "discursive turn" in psychology, which foregrounds the central role of language-in-use, or discourse, in understanding human actions and development. PT provides a framework for "exploring and explaining how people construct themselves and their worlds - and are constructed - through discourse" (Green, Brock, Baker, & Harris, 2020). Positioning theorists almost exclusively focus on words used in different

domains, e.g., conversations, policy documents, and narratives. As Moghaddam and Harré (2010) note, "it is with words that we ascribe rights and claim them for ourselves and place duties on others" (p. 3).

PT has been applied in a range of disciplines such as political science (Moghaddam, Harré, & Lee, 2008b), business (Keller & Halkier, 2014), organisational management (Ghosten, 2012; Hirvonen, 2016), education (Hales, 2017), and applied linguistics (Hall, Johnson, Juzwik, Wortham, & Mosley, 2010). PT in those contexts often concerns the employment of communication strategies to position a product in the market, or to position a person/group of people in an organisation/community (and thus, assigning and/or limiting their rights and duties). Its use might also be extended beyond personal and institutional domains to examine nation-state interactions (Moghaddam et al., 2008b).

In education, PT has been used in literacy, mathematics, and science education (Maloch, 2005; Osbeck & Nersessian, 2010; Tait-McCutcheon & Loveridge, 2016), teacher education (McVee, Baldassarre, & Bailey, 2004), language education (Kayi-Aydar, 2013), and teacher professional development (Brock, Robertson, Borti, & Gillis, 2021). In those studies, PT was often used to explore the power relations between different groups of people or different entities, the positions or identities displayed in interactions or other types of discourses, and the influence of such positions on people's or organisations' capacity to act.

The following section will elaborate on the significant features and fundamental PT principles relevant to this study.

4.1.2 Major tenets of Positioning Theory

4.1.2.1 Positioning triangle

The positioning triangle is the analytical framework underlying PT. The triangle consists of three components: positions, storylines, and acts/social actions. These three components are interrelated in that "if any one changes … then all three change" (Harré,

2012, p. 196). The following sections will delineate each component of the positioning triangle before discussing the triangle as a whole.

Positions and positioning

A position is defined as "a cluster of short-term disputable rights, obligations, and duties" (Harré, 2012, p. 193). Positions are mostly natural and implicit in everyday practices (Harré et al., 2009) because they are embedded in people's habits of speaking and interacting (Deppermann, 2015). Positions can manifest themselves in three aspects: patterns of acts or expectations, shared presuppositions, and a system of beliefs (Harré & Slocum, 2003). Beliefs are understood as "no more than cognitive dispositions – dispositions to reason, to respond, and to act in ways that we believe our positions entitle us to and that, on occasion, they require of us" (Harré & Slocum, 2003, p. 108).

According to Harré (2012), variations in the availability of rights and duties for a person to act in specific ways in a particular situation can be accounted for by referring to the social and personal attributes of that person in that situation. Whether a person has access to the resources around him/her or not depends on the position(s) s/he takes up or is assigned to. Kayi-Aydar (2021), in an attempt to develop a comprehensive framework for positioning analysis in conversations and narratives, argues that we can examine four, sometimes intersecting, aspects to identify positions in a storyline: "a) attributes and biographical dimensions, b) categorical membership, c) storyline structure, and d) emotionality", which are primarily realised through "lexical choices, narrative/discourse strategies, and paralinguistic cues" (p. 4).

PT distinguishes between positions and roles. In the early writings on PT, although it had always been claimed that roles and positions are different in that roles are fixed while positions are fluid (Davies & Harré, 1999), a clear distinction between the two concepts was still missing. Positions in these writings were often identified via personal attributes and biographical characteristics, a process which resembles roles identification (Kayı-Aydar, 2019). Later, Harré and his colleagues seem to agree on the view of roles and positions as constituting a continuum where "long-term" positions become roles while positions tend to be more temporary (Harré, 2012; Moghaddam, Harré, & Lee, 2008a).

Nevertheless, participants in a conversation "may see positions in terms of known roles (actual or metaphorical) or characters in shared storylines" (Herbel-Eisenmann, Wagner, Johnson, Suh, & Figueras, 2015, p. 188).

Positioning is a process, and an act of positioning is actually the assignment of rights and duties to speakers. Positioning is the discursive construction of personal stories in which the speakers' actions can be made intelligible via their specific locations within the conversation or narrative (Van Langenhove & Harré, 1999). Via positioning moves, one can "claim, deny, and give rights as well as demand or accept certain duties" (Kayı-Aydar, 2019, p. 5). In this study, positioning mainly refers to the ways EMI lecturers interpret their own and others' rights and duties in their accounts of their pedagogical actions in the moral contexts of their EMI practices.

A person can position him/herself, which is **reflexive positioning**, or can position others, which is **interactive positioning**. When a person is assigned a position, it means s/he has or does not have the right or duty to say and do something (Kayı-Aydar, 2019). A person certainly does not have to accept the position that s/he is assigned, but can always "contest it or subvert it" (Harré & Van Langenhove, 1999a, p. 2). According to Harré et al. (2009), one's position reflects one's social status, moral or personal attributes, characteristics or abilities, and biological features. One's self-positioning "guides the way in which they act and think about their roles, assignments, and duties in a given context" (Yoon, 2008, p. 499). In fact, "positions are relative to one another" (Harré & Slocum, 2003, p. 128), meaning that when people position themselves, they are, at the same time, implicitly positioning others and vice versa.

Individuals can tacitly or deliberately position themselves and others via the use of language. According to Harré and Langenhove (1991), deliberate self-positioning occurs in conversations or narratives where people want to express their personal identity. Also according to these authors, there are at least three ways to perform deliberate self-positioning: "by stressing one's agency (that is presenting one's course of action as one from among various possibilities), by referring to one's unique points of view, or by referring to events in one's biography" (Harré & Langenhove, 1991, p. 400). Deliberate

self-positioning moves enable a person to exercise his/her agency to achieve a particular goal.

In addition to self- and other-positioning (i.e., reflexive and interactive positioning), there are other modes of positioning such as first-order and second-order positioning. **First-order positioning** occurs "when a person locates themselves and others within an essentially moral space by using several categories and storylines" (Van Langenhove & Harré, 1999, p. 20). Most first-order positioning is tacit because people do not always position themselves or others intentionally (Kayı-Aydar, 2019). For instance, Mary and Jim are working on a group assignment. When Mary says to Jim: "Please send me your work by Tuesday", Mary positions herself as someone who has the moral right to command Jim, possibly because she is the group leader, and Jim as someone who can be commanded by her. If Jim does as Mary requests, then no questioning of the positioning occurs. However, if Jim replies to Mary's request by saying: "Why do I have to send my work that early while you yourself can't finish your work by Thursday?", then Jim is challenging Mary's positionings with his utterance. At this moment, a **second-order positioning** or repositioning occurs. First-order positionings by Mary are being challenged or questioned by Jim. In other words, people can "deny someone a right or refuse a duty or challenge the right of someone to assign positions" (Kayı-Aydar, 2019, p. 12).

According to Harré and Langenhove (1991), a positioning act can also be either moral or personal. **Moral positioning** occurs when people are positioned "with regard to the moral orders in which they perform social actions" (p. 397). To understand the positions that people take in moral positioning, reference should be made to "the roles people occupy within a given moral order or to certain institutional aspects of social life" (Harré & Langenhove, 1991, p. 397). Nevertheless, moral positioning can be shifted to personal positioning if someone is not acted according to their prescribed roles, or the moral positioning is challenged or questioned. For example, a teacher may ask her students to go to class on time because she has the moral right to request this from her students, who have the moral duty to obey her and follow the school rule of punctuality. However, if the teacher asks a student why he fails to arrive in class on time on a particular day, the storyline between the teacher and the student is likely to shift from moral to personal

positioning. The student can no longer refer to his role or moral duty as a student to respond to the teacher's question. Instead, he is expected to provide some personal accounts explaining his lateness. In that case, **personal positioning** occurs. A personal positioning act needs to refer to one's individual particularities, which can be general, using broad categories (e.g., "Jim is a hard-working student"), or very specific, using details from the person's life history (e.g., "Jim is a very hard-working student of mine who won several academic awards at schools). Both a moral and a personal positioning exist in a positioning act, but "the more a person's actions cannot be made intelligible by references to roles, the more prominent the personal positioning will be" (Harré & Langenhove, 1991, p. 398).

Positioning can also happen at many levels. Besides **individual positioning**, there are **interpersonal positioning** and **intergroup positioning**. **Interpersonal positioning** occurs when one positions oneself in relation to one's group, team, or community (Kayı-Aydar, 2019). An example can be a person positioning him/herself as a group leader. **Intergroup positioning** refers to an individual positioning his/her team, group, or community in relation to others, such as a lecturer positioning her faculty as better than other faculties in terms of the number of competent EMI lecturers.

In addition to positioning, there is also **prepositioning**. Prepositioning refers to "listing and sometimes justifying attributions of skills, character traits, biographical facts, deemed relevant to whatever positioning is going forward" (Harré et al., 2009, p. 10). Prepositioning might be positive or negative.

Prepositioning and positioning are different in the sense that the former is "the grounds that are available to justify these assignments or resistances of rights and duties should they be challenged" and the latter is "the discursive processes by which rights and duties are assigned or resisted" (Harré, 2012, p. 195). Harré et al. (2009) explain this distinction in the following way:

> The act of positioning is a two-phase procedure. In the first phase, the character and/or competence of the one who is being positioned or is positioning him- or herself is established. This can conveniently be distinguished as an act of prepositioning. On this basis, rights and duties are assigned, deleted or withdrawn,

taken up, and so on. Sometimes the first phase is taken for granted, the relevant character attributes known or presumed. Sometimes the "character work" is explicit. (p. 17)

With the above understanding of position and positioning, the following section will explain the second component of the positioning triangle: actions/acts.

Actions or acts

Harré (2012) defines an action as "a meaningful, intended performance (speech or gesture), whereas an act is the social meaning of an action" (p. 198). PT aims to investigate the meanings of actions through social acts (Harré & Slocum, 2003). According to Harré and Slocum (2003), there are three types of actions: "those that one has done, is doing, or will do; those that one is permitted or encouraged to do; and those that one is physically and temperamentally capable of doing" (p. 125). The second and third types of actions may coincide in some cases. PT pays attention to the relations among these types of actions, especially the relation between "what one believes one has or lacks a right to perform and what one does in the light of that belief", through studying one's lexical choices (Harré & Slocum, 2003, p. 125). As Van Langenhove and Harré (1999) note, "[n]ot only what we do but also what we can do is restricted by rights, duties and obligations we acquire, assume or which are imposed upon us in the concrete social contexts of everyday life" (p. 4).

Taking up a position opens up possibilities for some actions while closing down others. On a particular occasion, the number of types and subtypes of actions is actually relatively small, because the repertoire of possible actions is governed by learned conventions or rules of a particular culture (Harré & Slocum, 2003). Furthermore, the same action can perform different social acts, and how one's action is interpreted depends on many factors, including the position of one's conversation partner in the corresponding storyline, which will be described in the next section.

Storylines

Slocum and Van Langenhove (2003) define storylines as "the contexts of acts and positions" (p. 225) or as Harré and Moghaddam (2003, p. 9) put it, "a working hypothesis about the principles or conventions that are being followed in the unfolding of the episode that is being studied". Storylines exist in every conversation/narrative, and are closely linked to the positions people take in that conversation/narrative (Van Langenhove & Harré, 1999). According to Van Langenhove and Harré (1999), in a conversation, storylines and positions are not freely constructed. Instead, they are co-constructed by conversation participants.

Storylines represent "the ongoing repertoires that are already shared culturally or they can be invented as participants interact" (Herbel-Eisenmann et al., 2015, p. 188). Harré (2012) proposes the use of storylines, particularly accounting moves, to "describe the unfolding of the structure of an episode in terms of a familiar story" (p. 9). Harré's (2012) sample positioning analyses indicate that a storyline can sometimes be described as the relationships between interactional partners, such as "teacher and student" or "doctor and patient". In fact, the operationalisation of "storyline" is unclear in PT (Herbel-Eisenmann et al., 2015), and thus despite its stated importance, storylines are not commonly featured in many scholars' positioning analyses (Kayı-Aydar, 2019).

To address that methodological gap of PT, in a recent article by Kayi-Aydar (2021), she argues that there are two kinds of storylines relevant to PT:

> First, there are broad, culturally and morally constructed, taken-for-granted story lines. These story lines, typically build on dyadic relationships, such as teacher-student, oppressor-oppressed, or mother-daughter, and guide individuals as they go about their lives every day. Then, there are story lines that emerge out of conversations or during the act of narrating. These momentarily constructed story lines are also culturally and morally shaped; yet, they are not a priori to a conversation but are rather constructed as a conversation unfolds. (p. 3)

As such, the author suggests three clues to identify momentarily constructed storylines in a conversation or narrative: a topic shift, an introduction of new autobiographical fragments, and an appearance of new characters.

Positioning triangle

Altogether, position/positioning, action/act, and storyline form the positioning triangle, which is the analytical framework of PT (see Figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1: The positioning triangle

(based on Harré, 2012; Harré et al., 2009; Van Langenhove & Harré, 1999)
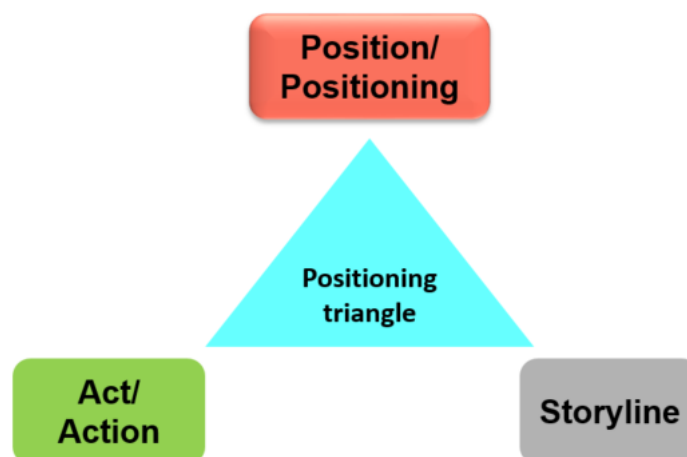
According to Harré (2012), individuals engaging in an activity in a particular social and material world can be held responsible for their actions. Therefore, they must be treated as agents. Agents are positioned through their acts embedded in storylines, and at the same time their positions influence the interpretation of the storylines and thus the meaning of their actions (Slocum & Van Langenhove, 2003). For example, if a woman and a boy are living out a teacher-student storyline, then what the woman says to the boy when seeing him drinking Coke during a school recess "Don't you know that Coke is not good for you" is readable as a piece of advice and an act of care from a caring teacher, rather than condescension.

According to Harré and Moghaddam (2003), "the 'positioning triangle' can be entered empirically at any of the vertices: 'position,' 'speech act,' or 'storyline'" (p. 9). Together with PT, the positioning triangle is a powerful analytic tool because "not only persons and their identities both individual and social, but also societal issues on a cultural level can be tackled with the same conceptual apparatus" (Harré & Van Langenhove, 1999a, pp. 11-12). Examples can be taken from Harré and Van Langenhove's (1999b) edited book "Positioning Theory: Moral contexts of intentional action", in which the authors elucidate how autobiography, personhood, and cultural stereotypes can be understood from a PT perspective.

Since two components of the positioning triangle, i.e., position/positioning and act/action, are defined and understood in relation to rights and duties, how rights and duties are conceptualised in PT will be the focus of the next section.

4.1.2.2 Rights and duties

Rights and duties are vital constructs in PT since based on them one can infer an individual's position, and then in order to understand an individual's position, one has to consider his/her rights and duties. Rights are defined as "anticipatory or retrospective justifications for the propriety of demands or requests for action by someone else" while duties are expressed as "anticipatory or retrospective expressions of demands for action by oneself" (Harré & Slocum, 2003, p. 125). Harré (2012) explains rights and duties further as follows:

> A right-duty pair (…) frames possible actions. These future actions are only possibilities, because whether or not the actions that would fulfill the rights-duties pattern actually occur depends on other features of a concrete situation such as the risks to the actors, the conscientiousness of the powerful, and the skill of the recipients in presenting their needs and so on. (p. 197)

Duties refer to the acts that one is expected to perform and obligations are specific actions taken to perform a duty (Harré & Slocum, 2003). The same duty can be realised by a variety of obligations. Through positioning, rights and duties are distributed among

people in changing patterns (Harré et al., 2009), so rights and duties are dynamic and context-dependent.

Harré et al. (2009) also distinguish between duties and *supererogatory* duties, in addition to rights and *supererogatory* rights:

> Supererogatory duties, duties that individuals and groups are not obligated to carry out but get credit for when they do perform them….The second is supererogatory rights, rights that a person or group is agreed to have but will be rewarded for not exercising. (p. 28)

An individual's rights and duties should be understood within a moral order, which is another important concept in PT. This concept is explained in detail in the next section.

4.1.2.3 Moral orders

As Harré (2012) has argued, it is important to consider the moral aspect in understanding human actions. Despite this view, the concept of "moral order" seems not to have had a consistent conceptualisation throughout the development of PT. According to Van Langenhove (2017), Harré (1987) defines a moral order as an organised "system of rights, obligations and duties obtaining in society, together with the criteria by which people and their activities are valued" (p.4). This early conceptualisation of moral orders by Harré aligns with what Van Langenhove describes in his 2017 article "Varieties of moral orders and the dual structure of society: A perspective from positioning theory", in which different layers of moral orders constitute a normative framework governing people's behaviours. In Harré's later publication, in collaboration with Van Langenhove, a moral order is viewed as "ever shifting patterns of mutual and contestable rights and obligations of speaking and acting" (Harré & Van Langenhove, 1999a, p. 1).

As such, this view of "moral order" appears to apply only to the narrow, specific contexts of human/group encounters where the negotiation and/or assignment of rights and duties occurs. These contexts are often termed "local moral order" in positioning analysis, possibly to distinguish them from the broad, encompassing moral order or the normative framework regulating people's actions. Later advancements in PT seem to confirm this

narrow viewpoint as Harré et al. (2009) state it explicitly that "these [duties and rights as declared in laws and constitutions] are excluded from the domain of PT since they are set up by decree and are intended to last" (p. 11, explanation added). Therefore, according to these authors, an acceptance of a legally-bound right or duty is not considered a positioning act.

Despite the tendency to adopt the narrow meaning of "moral order" in later publications, Harré still uses the term "moral order" broadly, rather than just limiting it to the "local moral order" of human/group interactions. Examples can include an experimental demonstration engaging in "the moral order of the scientific community" (Harré, 2012, p. 203). He also acknowledges the existence of other moral orders (Harré et al., 2009), which he calls "moral domains":

> There are many semi-independent moral domains in the human world, including moral beliefs, overtly expressed or immanent in the practices of the culture. Including them in the content of cognitive social psychology forces the social psychologist to attend to the historical/social situations of what people are saying and doing. (p. 6)

Since Harré's two definitions of moral orders (as mentioned above) both exist, they potentially cause confusion to PT users. This, together with the fact that PT has not provided sufficient elaboration on different types of moral domains and their interaction, possibly limits the value of other moral domains in the positioning analysis within the local moral order of human encounters. Therefore, in this research project, Harré's concept of moral order is further specified using Van Langenhove's (2017) typology of moral orders.

According to Van Langenhove (2017, p. 4), moral orders constitute "a framework of normative judgements" which "contextualize everything that people say or do". In other words, a moral order is "a set of definitions about what is proper to do and reasonable to expect" (Wuthnow, 1989, p. 14). Moral orders, thus, enable certain positions of agency while limiting others (Van Langenhove, 2017).

Van Langenhove (2017) conceptualises different layers of moral orders as representing the relationship between social structures and people's agency. Social structures are "of moral nature and that agency is limited to intentional actions within the boundaries of what the moral prescripts of structures allow or enable" (Van Langenhove, 2017, p. 2). Van Langenhove (2017) further adds that moral here refers to "moral normativity" (p. 2), that is, rights and duties, and judgements about rights and wrongs.

According to Van Langenhove (2017), structures are created by people, and every time they act, they need to accept or reject the structure. Van Langenhove (2017) further explains:

> (…) moral orders can be regarded as sets of rights and duties created by declarations with deontic powers. At any given moment, people live their lives in a multitude of overlapping moral orders. Some of those moral orders are of a very general nature and hardly linked to space and time. Other moral orders can be very specific and active only in specific spaces and/or for limited time-slots only. In both cases (general or specific), moral orders can be latent or active. Latent moral orders are not "in use" in a certain episode. Traffic rules, for instance, have no relevance for a person who is at home. But from the moment that person leaves her home, the traffic rules become an active moral order. (p. 4)

On the dimension of general-specific, Van Langenhove (2017) identifies five types of moral orders: cultural, legal, institutional, conversational, and personal (as specified in Table 4.1).

According to Van Langenhove (2017), actors can deliberately choose not to comply with a moral order, be it cultural, legal, institutional, conversational, or personal. In such cases, it means they are "putting one moral order above another", resulting in a change of existing moral orders (p. 5).

The five types of moral orders create "the invisible moral space surrounding people at all times" (Van Langenhove, 2017, p. 6). Part of that space, i.e., the cultural, legal, and institutional moral orders, which exist independently of people, is structure, and the other part, including either local conversational or personal moral order, is agency.

Table 4.1: Typology of moral orders

(Van Langenhove, 2017)

	Types	Descriptions
General	Cultural moral orders	consist of moral opinions in religious or secular laws, as well as tacit rules, habits, and prescriptions that people take for granted. Cultural moral orders are very general in nature and can be regarded as "the civilizational or cultural aspects of the society in which people live" (Van Langenhove, 2017, p. 5).
	Legal moral orders	involve laws and legal rules, which are location-bound. Legal moral orders can be morally binding or not. People might just obey the law to avoid punishments, for example.
	Institutional moral orders	refer to the rules set by an organisation. For example, being a teacher implies being part of different institutional moral orders, including the discipline (Chemistry, Psychology, etc.) to which one belongs.
Specific	Conversational moral orders	are self-created by conversation participants, rather than imposed on them. Unless institutionalised, conversational moral orders only exist during the time of that conversation. In a conversation, the local moral order, or the conversational moral order in play fine-tune the institutional, legal, and cultural moral orders.
	Personal moral orders	"emerge out of the internal conversations that people have with themselves" (Van Langenhove, 2017, p. 6). These internal conversations are places where people can consider carefully what is right or wrong to do. Personal moral orders are expressed via the indexical word "I", which reveals people's moral individuality to whom they are addressing.

As Harré (2012) stresses, it is impossible to understand the positions people take without analysing or understanding the local moral order in which they perform social actions. Nevertheless, different types of moral orders interact with one another and the local moral order in play in a conversation or narrative cannot be fully understood without reference to other more general moral orders. For instance, we cannot fully grasp what is happening inside a classroom without situating the classroom discourse in the discourses of the school, the community, and possibly the educational culture in which that class operates.

The positioning triangle alone can only examine the micro-level discourse of classroom interaction or the teacher's own discourse, without being able to connect these local, micro-level discourses with the macro-level ones of the socio-cultural conventions from which people source their positions. This has been an established gap in PT, as pointed out by several scholars such as Deppermann (2015). Therefore, incorporating Van Langenhove's (2017) typology of moral orders into the positioning triangle in this study

can arguably bridge the gap between micro-level and macro-level discourses in PT, to generate a deeper and more comprehensive understanding of what is happening at the local moral order.

4.2 Rationale for using Positioning Theory in this study

This research project investigates EMI lecturers' teaching practices, particularly their instructional adaptation, in relation to their self-positionings. This study employs PT as a theoretical lens and an analytical framework for five reasons.

The EMI literature indicates a close relationship between teachers' positionings and their teaching practices. EMI lecturers have been reported to say "[w]e are not language teachers" and "language teaching is not our duty" (Airey, 2012; Block & Moncada-Comas, 2019). As a result, EMI lecturers generally refuse to make linguistic adaptations in their lessons or conduct teaching-learning activities to enhance students' English language proficiency. These findings suggest the importance of examining teacher positionings in exploring teacher practices.

In fact, teacher positionings are believed to shape teacher identity construction, instructional decisions, student engagement, and learning in the classroom environment (Kayi-Aydar & Miller, 2018). Since this study focuses on EMI lecturers' instructional practices, by delving into these lecturers' perceptions of their rights and duties in EMI programs, namely their positionings within their contexts of EMI practices, PT might provide a new perspective to understand, and thus a new way to influence, EMI teachers' professional practices and development.

Additionally, PT has the potential to provide insights into the complex and changing nature of teacher beliefs (Kayı-Aydar, 2019; Wallace & Priestley, 2011), the key to understanding teachers' professional practices (Biesta, Priestley, & Robinson, 2015; Meirink, Meijer, Verloop, & Bergen, 2009). PT is concerned with uncovering "the explicit and implicit patterns of reasoning" realised in the ways people act towards others (Harré et al., 2009, p. 5). Through an analysis of positions, which are ephemeral, and which include beliefs, rights, and duties, PT has the potential to capture the dynamics of

teacher beliefs in specific momentary actions, which other theories, viewing beliefs as static, somehow fail to do. This might explain why, through the lens of other theories, teachers' practices are usually found to be inconsistent with teachers' beliefs (Borg, 2003), despite the undeniable influence of the latter on the former. Since PT focuses on "the relation between what one has or believes one has or lacks a right to perform and what one does, in the light of that belief" (Harré & Slocum, 2003, p. 125), it will shed light on EMI lecturers' adaptation processes to explicate their adaptive actions.

Furthermore, PT holds the potential to provide a more nuanced understanding of teacher adaptation as it "focuses on the moment to explain the actions in a moral landscape" and "takes in beliefs and practices as well as historical and social dimensions" (Kayı-Aydar, 2019, p. 1). This feature of PT aligns with the currently prevailing socio-historical view of teacher cognition (Burns, Freeman, & Edwards, 2015), which recognises the role of the social, cultural, and historical contexts in teachers' beliefs and practices.

The focus then is not on the causal relationship between some student stimuli and teachers' resulting adaptations, as instructional adaptation studies usually do (Parsons et al., 2018). Instead, teachers' adaptation, in light of PT, is generally viewed as "an option that may or may not be exercised" by the teacher (Harré et al., 2009, p. 7). Whether teachers exercise their adaptive capability or not depends on their perception of their rights and duties, or their reflexive positionings, within the context of their professional practices. As Harré et al. (2009, p. 6) put it, "access to and availability of certain practices, both conversational and practical, are determined not by individual levels of competence alone, but by having rights and duties in relation to items in the local corpus of sayings and doings." Therefore, any adaptation performed is an intentional action, resulting from teachers' particular positioning of themselves and others in the moral landscape of their discipline, classroom, EMI programs, institution, and beyond.

Lastly, the incorporation of Van Langenhove's (2017) typology of moral orders into the positioning triangle of PT has the potential to address the gap in EMI research, namely the lack of a theoretical perspective to investigate the impact of the cultural factor on local EMI practices, despite a widespread recognition of the strong influence of the CHC culture on Vietnamese EMI implementation (see Chapter 2 for details). Moreover, the

adapted positioning triangle (now with four layers of moral orders) is likely to provide a comprehensive analytical framework that can generate a more nuanced understanding of the interaction between "structure" and "agency", or culture, policies, and classroom practices.

With the above-mentioned reasons for adopting PT in this study, the following section delineates how the theory can be adapted and employed as an analytical framework to investigate EMI lecturers' instructional practices in the context of Vietnamese higher education.

4.3 Operationalisation of Positioning Theory in this study

This section describes how PT is operationalised as an analytical framework in this study to understand EMI lecturers' positionings and their instructional adaptations.

As discussed in Section 4.1.2.1, PT offers the positioning triangle as an analytical tool. The three vertices of the positioning triangle are positions/positioning, actions or acts, and storylines (Van Langenhove & Harré, 1999). People's acts of positioning and their related actions are not only dependent on the local moral order at play but are also regulated by the general, broader moral order. It is therefore important to examine different types of moral orders to clarify the rights and duties assigned to people in the local moral order, and to gain a deeper understanding of people's actions and positionings. Therefore, in this research project, the positioning triangle is modified to incorporate the concept of "moral order" and to emphasise the role of moral orders in understanding people's positions, positionings, and actions.

Furthermore, with regard to different varieties of moral orders (Van Langenhove, 2017), the legal, institutional, conversational/personal moral orders (which correspond to the macro-, meso-, and micro-level discourses) seem to be the most commonly investigated when researchers look into the social structures around people's actions (Kayi-Aydar, 2021; Le, Nguyen, & Burns, 2021). The cultural moral order, in contrast, is often ignored and taken for granted (Van Langenhove, 2017) because this layer is less visible and deeply rooted in people's ways of thinking and doing. Nevertheless, research into

educational reforms in Asia-Pacific regions has increasingly pointed to the significant role of regional and local factors, particularly cultural ones, in filtering foreign influences on local educational processes (Pham & Barnett, 2022; Tran et al., 2020; Yang, 2016) (see Sections 2.2 and 2.5.2 for more details). As an educational reform in HE in general and an imported practice in Vietnamese HE in particular, the EMI phenomenon appears not to be an exception.

The international literature also stresses the heavily context-dependent feature of EMI (see Chapter 3 for details). Especially in the absence of clear national and institutional formal policies guiding EMI implementation in the context of Vietnamese HE (see Section 2.5 for details), the examination of the cultural moral order becomes essential to comprehend the rights and duties teachers take up and assign to others in their teaching contexts. Therefore, it is my argument to include the cultural moral order in investigating the normative framework around EMI teachers' positionings and actions, in addition to the national/legal, institutional, conversational, and personal moral orders.

This study employs different data sources to examine the four layers of moral orders. At the outer level, the cultural moral order surrounding teachers' practices in Vietnam is investigated through the general educational literature. The legal and institutional moral orders are explored via policy documents which specify EMI teachers' rights and duties at the national and institutional levels, in addition to the information provided by EMI program coordinators of two participant HE institutions. Since this study focuses on examining teachers' positionings in their own accounts of EMI practices, rather than in classroom conversations/interactions between EMI teachers and their students, the conversational moral order is omitted from the investigation. The personal moral order is examined through the teachers' accounts of their EMI practices in the interviews and their classroom discourses in lesson audio recordings. From these sources of information, this study aims to uncover the rights and duties assigned to and taken up by EMI teachers in their professional practices. Collectively, the cultural, legal, and institutional moral orders constitute the normative field to shed light on teachers' positionings and EMI practices at the classroom level.

As for teachers' instructional practices (including instructional adaptations), these practices are categorised into three groups: (1) (teaching) content, (2) pedagogy, and (3) assessment, which are common aspects of teachers' pedagogical practices in EMI. This classification also aligns with the three categories of duties assigned to EMI lecturers in Vietnamese EMI policy documents.

Altogether, PT as an analytical framework is operationalised in this study as in Figure 4.2 below.

Figure 4.2: Operationalisation of Positioning Theory in this study
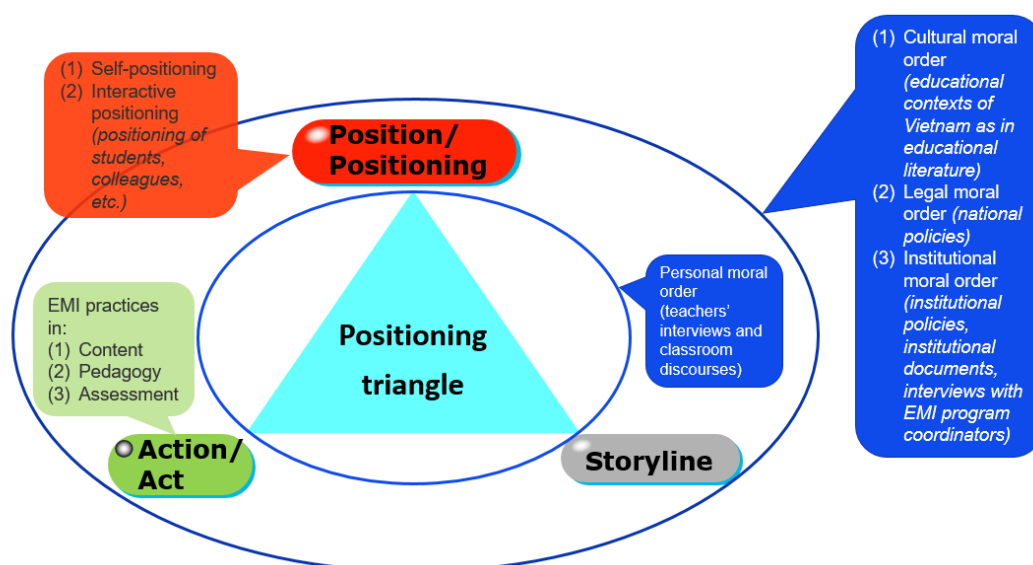
Summary

This chapter provides an overview of PT with its main principles embedded in its key tenets of position, positioning, action or act, moral order, storyline, and right and duty. This chapter also argues for the relevance of PT as a theoretical framework and an analytical lens for this research project, and for the significant role of the cultural moral order in examining teachers' positionings and pedagogical practices in the Vietnamese HE. The chapter ends with an operationalisation of PT for use in this study. With this theoretical operationalisation, the following chapter describes the methodology and methods employed to explore EMI lecturers' positionings and instructional practices in Vietnamese HE contexts.

CHAPTER 5: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodology of the study. As outlined in Chapter 1, this research aims to explore Vietnamese lecturers' English-medium teaching practices. In so doing, it adopts Positioning Theory as the theoretical lens. The research is guided by the following research questions:

1. How do Vietnamese lecturers position themselves in their accounts of English-medium instruction practices?

2. How do Vietnamese lecturers' self-positionings interact with their teaching practices, particularly their instructional adaptations (if any), in English-medium instruction?

According to Creswell and Creswell (2018), a broad research approach "involves the intersection of philosophy, research designs, and specific methods" (p. 43). This chapter begins by presenting the research paradigm that informs this study. Details about the research design and research methods are then presented. The second section also explains the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on this study's data collection instruments and procedures. The chapter ends with the researcher's reflections on the research process and a discussion of the steps taken to ensure this research is trustworthy and ethical.

5.1 Research paradigm

This research is guided by the interpretivist paradigm, which influences almost all aspects of this study. According to Neuman (2014), a paradigm is "a general organizing framework for theory and research that includes basic assumptions, key issues, models of quality research, and methods for seeking answers" (p. 96). Interpretivism "looks for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social life-world" (Crotty, 2020). Guba and Lincoln (1994) argue that researchers need to make their

ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions explicit before commencing their research project. The following section will elaborate on how interpretivism was reflected in this study's ontological, epistemological, and methodological assumptions.

Ontology addresses the question "What is the form and nature of reality and, therefore, what is there that can be known about it?" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 108). The reality that this research seeks to understand is Vietnamese lecturers' teaching practices in English-medium instruction, particularly their adaptive practices. As lecturers vary in their educational backgrounds, personal values and interests, among other variables, they might have different ways of conducting their EMI lessons. Despite personal variations, lecturers from the same academic discipline often share many common features in their teaching practices (as discussed in Chapter 3). Hence, each lecturer presents one "reality" in their academic discipline's collective reality of instructional practices. The realities exist in the lecturers' subjective experiences, thus being "fluid and fragile" (Neuman, 2014, p. 104) and bounded by time and space (Neuman, 2014; Yin, 2016). These assumptions about the social reality of the lecturers' instructional practices align with interpretive social science, which sees the social reality as socially, locally and specifically constructed (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018; Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Neuman, 2014) "by humans through their action and interaction" (Orlikowski & Baroudi, 1991, p. 14, as cited in Andrade, 2009).

Interpretive researchers study "meaningful social action, not just people's visible, external behaviour" (Neuman, 2014, p. 104). Lecturers' instructional practices can be seen as social actions because they reflect lecturers' deliberate aims and choices in their specific teaching contexts. Furthermore, interpretive researchers acknowledge that "people interpret situations through their own eyes" and "such interpretation takes place in socio-cultural, socio-temporal and socio-spatial contexts" (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 20). It is therefore important for this study to collect information about the social norms around the lecturer participants' teaching practices to situate and understand their practices better.

Epistemology addresses the question "What is the nature of the relationship between the knower or would-be knower and what can be known?" (Guba & Lincoln,

1994, p. 108). Since the lecturers in this study are viewed as knowledge holders, I have to approach them for the needed information, rather than staying detached from them and observing them from a distance. By talking to the participants, we are "interactively linked" and the "findings [are] literally created as the investigation proceed[s]" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 111), as in every interpretive research.

Methodology addresses the question "How can the inquirer (would-be knower) go about finding out whatever he or she believes can be known?" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 108). Qualitative methodology is selected as the overarching methodological approach for this study, because of its relevance to this study's research aims and research questions (see Section 5.2.1 for details). In the data collection process, I first have to become familiar with the participants' teaching contexts and the cultures of their academic disciplines. Interpretivism urges me to enter the participants' worlds, to understand their interpretations of their worlds "from the inside, not the outside" (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 17). I did this by collecting documents about the EMI programs and the EMI courses in question, and reading about the lecturers' universities, their departments, the Vietnamese-medium instruction (VMI) and EMI programs in their schools, their professional profiles on the faculty websites, as well as their personal social media posts. In other words, every effort was taken to get the "feel" of the participants, their professional and personal lives, as well as to understand the contexts surrounding their practices. I also tried to have informal conversations with the participants via social media apps. These were the ways employed in this study to "gain an intimate familiarity" with the participants from a distance (Neuman, 2014, p. 109), as other interpretivist researchers might also do during the COVID-19 pandemic. This is based on the belief that more interaction with the participants would produce more understanding of them as people and lecturers, which would facilitate an understanding of their responses in later interviews.

Semi-structured interviews are used as a way to investigate the lecturers' interpretations of their teaching contexts and practices. In these interviews, as the interviewer, I contribute to the meaning-making process by being a research instrument myself. As I participate in the process of co-constructing meanings with the participants in the interviews, and then analyse and report their sharing in this thesis, I am aware that my background also shapes my interpretations of the lecturers' social realities. My roles and

positions in this research and the values attached to my personal and professional backgrounds are clarified in Section 5.4 of this chapter.

In addition to documents and interviews, lesson audio recordings are collected from the participant lecturers, in place of classroom observations, for an added perspective into the lecturers' teaching practices. In accordance with the interpretivism paradigm, the multiple data sources in this research complement rather than validate each other. Together they provide more comprehensive data, and thus, a more complete picture of EMI lecturers' instructional practices, and an enhanced understanding of the phenomenon being studied.

The interpretivist paradigm aligns with Positioning Theory, this study's theoretical framework, which derives from constructionism, a variation of interpretive social science (Neuman, 2014). In other words, the theoretical and philosophical foundation of the selected theoretical framework aligns with the research paradigm guiding this study. Such alignment is believed to strengthen the quality of this research project and the trustworthiness of its findings (Carter & Little, 2007).

5.2 Research design

5.2.1 Qualitative approach

The interpretivist worldview and the study's aim of understanding how EMI lecturers conduct their teaching make the qualitative approach an appropriate choice for this research topic.

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2018a):

> Qualitative research is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. Qualitative research consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible (....) They turn the world into a series of representations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings, and memos to the self. At this level, qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study

things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them. (p. 43)

Qualitative inquiry aligns with interpretivism as both emphasise the importance of studying the participants in their life settings, the role of contexts in understanding meanings of people's words or actions, and multiple interpretations of the world through "the voices of participants, the reflexivity of the researcher" (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 81).

Qualitative inquiry is suitable for this study of EMI lecturers' teaching practices for two main reasons. Firstly, this study aims to explore EMI lecturers' instructional practices in the complicated context of Vietnam, where the English language and Western cultures used to be considered threats to national security and solidarity, but are now seen as opportunities for the country's socio-economic development. For this purpose, qualitative inquiry is the best choice since two main features distinguishing qualitative research from other types of inquiries are how it attends to meaning and accounts for contextual conditions (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Duff, 2007; Yin, 2016). Secondly, the literature does not reveal any clear-cut causal relationship in lecturers' pedagogical decision-making, except for the factors possibly shaping this process (Borg, 2003; Burns et al., 2015). Therefore, this research did not commence with any theories or assumptions to test. Rather, it only had some theoretical propositions to guide its research design, data collection and analysis. Additionally, to understand lecturers' instructional practices, it is necessary to explore lecturers' beliefs and perspectives, which are highly complex, tacit, personal, and heterogeneous, so a quantitative approach and quantitative data collection methods are not appropriate. In general, the qualitative approach is suitable for this project's research aim as it has the potential to generate a detailed and complex understanding of the research topic of EMI lecturers' instructional practices.

5.2.2 Embedded multiple-case study design

This research project employs case study research to explore the phenomenon of the Vietnamese EMI lecturers' instructional practices, particularly instructional adaptations. Case study research methodology has a long-established history across many disciplines

(Creswell & Poth, 2018) and is even recorded as the most widely used approach to qualitative research in education (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003). In applied linguistics, case study methodology has also been widely employed to investigate a range of phenomena, including, but not limited to, language learning and use, classroom pedagogy, pragmatics, and second language acquisition (Duff, 2008; Duff, 2014).

Despite case study "gain[ing] a spotlight within social science" (Yin, 2018, p. xv), there are still varied viewpoints about it in the research literature (Schwandt & Gates, 2018). Some scholars refer to it as a research methodology or a mode of inquiry (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018b; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015; Yin, 2018), while others consider it just as a choice of what is to be studied (Stake, 2005; Thomas, 2015). Yin (2018) proposes a clear distinction between different terms in case study research. He calls it "a foundational trilogy", which includes "case study *research* (the *mode* of inquiry), case studies (the *method* of inquiry, or *research method* used in doing case study research), and case(s) (the usual *unit* of inquiry in a case study)" (p. xx).

Given the ambiguity about "case study" terminology and different philosophical orientations towards case study research (Harrison, Birks, Franklin, & Mills, 2017), this study adopts Creswell and Poth's (2018) definition of case study - the updated version of the definition in Creswell, Hanson, Clark Plano, and Morales (2007), which is believed to "best capture the full depth and breadth of case study concepts and descriptions" (Harrison et al., 2017, p. 14):

> Case study research is defined as a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a real-life, contemporary bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving *multiple sources of information* (e.g., observations, interviews, audiovisual material, and documents and reports), and reports a *case description* and *case themes*. (p. 153)

This definition depicts fundamental elements of case study research, including the case, the logic of design, data collection techniques and approaches to data analysis. Highlighted features of a case study are a *contemporary* phenomenon, studied in a *real-life* context, *single* or *multiple bounded system(s)*, *in-depth* study, *multiple sources of*

evidence, and the analysis involves *case description* and emerged *themes*. The features specific to this research project are further explained in Sections 5.3.3 and 5.3.4 of this chapter.

This research fits well with the case study methodology for at least two reasons. Firstly, according to Yin (2018), case study has a distinct advantage when dealing with the "how or why question (. . .) about a contemporary set of events over which a researcher has little or no control" (p. 13). Therefore, the case study approach appears to be the most effective for this study as it explores the how and the why of EMI lecturers' pedagogical practices, which are influenced by several factors (Borg, 2003) that the researcher has no control over. Secondly, the nature of lecturers' instructional practices is highly contextualised, and the use of case study research allows for the detailed account and discussion of contextual conditions in this project (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Duff, 2008; Yin, 2018).

This study adopts the multiple-case studies method within the descriptive-exploratory case study research design. The multiple-case studies method enables gathering information about the research topic from various perspectives to gain an in-depth understanding of the investigated phenomenon (Creswell & Poth, 2018). As Miles and Huberman (1994) have argued, the multiple cases offer "even deeper understanding of processes and outcomes of cases, the chance to test (not just develop) hypotheses, and a good picture of locally grounded causality" (p. 26). Since one of this study's theoretical propositions is that EMI lecturers' instructional practices might be influenced by the nature of their academic disciplines, collecting data about EMI lecturers' instructional practices in different disciplines will help shed light on the phenomenon of EMI teaching practices in the Vietnamese higher education context. The multiple-case design also allows for cross-case comparison and analysis (Yin, 2018), which again produces a deeper understanding of EMI lecturers' teaching practices. According to Duff (2014), four to six cases are sufficient for doctoral research using a multiple-case method.

A key component in a multiple-case study research design is the "case", which involves identifying and bounding it (Yin, 2018). Miles and Huberman (1994) define a case as "a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context. The case is, in effect, your unit

of analysis" (p. 25). Once the case is determined, the next crucial step is to decide what the case will not be: that is, bounding the case, to avoid too broad an investigation (Baxter & Jack, 2008). There are different suggestions about how to bind a case: (a) by time and place (Yin, 2018); (b) by time, place, events, processes and even the people involved (Creswell & Poth, 2018); (c) by possibility of maximising our understanding of the investigated phenomenon and access (Stake, 1995); and (d) by definition and context (e.g., settings, actors, events, processes, etc.) (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Adopting Miles and Huberman's (1994) definition of a case, the case under study in this research project is instructional practices, particularly instructional adaptation, by EMI lecturers in an academic discipline of a particular school or university department in Vietnam. Two cases of EMI instructional practices performed by lecturers in two different academic disciplines are investigated and analysed to generate an in-depth comprehension of the phenomenon of EMI instructional practices. Therefore, the broad unit of analysis in this study is EMI instructional practices in an academic discipline. Since each lecturer, with their unique personal and professional backgrounds and characteristics, constitutes a variation of the "reality" of EMI instructional practices in their academic discipline, each lecturer's instructional practices are considered a sub-unit of analysis.

In other words, the present study is an embedded multiple-case study (Yin, 2018) with instructional practices by EMI lecturers in Chemistry forming a case and instructional practices by EMI lecturers in Law the other case. Within each case, there are several sub-cases (i.e., the lecturers) or sub-units of analysis, which are the instructional practices of each lecturer. For each lecturer's instructional practices, Positioning Theory (Davies & Harré, 1999) is used as the analytical framework to elucidate different contextual conditions, the meaning of the pedagogical action, and the beliefs that the lecturer held when performing that particular action.

The next point to consider is binding the case. Following Miles and Huberman's (1994) suggestions, my case parameters are:

(1) definition: the definition of an instructional adaptation (as a conscious cognitive and/or behavioural act of departure from the lecturers' usual teaching practices in Vietnamese),

(2) processes: the three aspects of EMI instructional practices that this study looks into: (teaching) content, pedagogy, and assessment,

(3) setting: two HE institutions in Vietnam (one focusing on natural sciences education, the other on legal education),

(4) time: over the period of six months (November 2020 to April 2021), and

(5) people involved: the recruitment criteria of the lecturer participants

These case parameters are discussed further in the next section.

5.3 Research methods

The previous section provided an overview of this study's research design. This section provides details of the research methods, including research sites, participant selection and recruitment, and methods of data collection and analysis. The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the data collection of this study is also presented in a brief section.

5.3.1 Research sites, participant selection and recruitment

5.3.1.1 Research sites

To explore lecturers' instructional practices in Vietnamese EMI programs, this study recruited EMI lecturers and Program Coordinators from two academic disciplines (Chemistry and Law) in two public institutions in a major city in Vietnam. All the names of participants, locations, and institutions hereafter were anonymised by using pseudonyms for confidentiality and other ethical reasons.

Two institutions, Universities A and B, were purposefully chosen for practical reasons. The first reason is that since the university research culture in Vietnam is not strong (Nguyen & Marjoribanks, 2021), it would be difficult to recruit research participants through public announcements on social media or emails targeting at "everybody in the list". Additionally, the data collection for this study was conducted during the height of the COVID-19 pandemic in Vietnam, so a public call for research participation would easily go unnoticed. Universities A and B were targeted because of my personal relationships with some lecturers there, who could advise me on their institutions' communication procedures and suggest or refer relevant research participants to me. These lecturer acquaintances are not participants in this study.

Universities A and B are members of a larger body, hereafter referred to as the "principal" University, or University AB, a key national university. University AB sets out broad rules and regulations while its member institutions might issue detailed policies governing their everyday operation. As a member of University AB, University A specialises in natural sciences whereas University B focuses on Law. With their long history of over 65 years (University A) and over 40 years (University B), both have extensive experience in teaching and learning.

Universities A and B are located in Nam Lan, one of Vietnam's most dynamic and biggest cities. Nam Lan is an economic hub in Vietnam, with an area of nearly 335,000 ha and a population of over 8.5 million people. However, it is estimated that the real number of residents in Nam Lan exceeds 8.5 million since there are many migrants in this city. According to a popular news outlet, until June 2020, there were 947 permitted foreign language centres in Nam Lan. This is not to mention a large number of private foreign language classes run by individual teachers, who do not need a permit to open extra classes for language learners. Such a great number of foreign language centres in Nam Lan indicates its residents' high desire for increased foreign language proficiency, especially English language proficiency, as English is a dominant foreign language in Vietnam.

University A majors in natural sciences. It is a research-oriented institution with a strong research record, with some of its majors graduating internationally-recognised students.

According to information on University A's website, the university currently has academic relationships with over 20 internationally renowned universities and research institutes. University A is proud to be one of the few Vietnamese universities in the "Club of 100", which is composed of Vietnamese universities with over 100 papers a year in ISI-indexed journals. In terms of organisation, there are seven faculties in University A, among which the Faculty of Chemistry is one of the strongest. As a result of its research capability, especially in Chemistry, University A was selected to pilot an Advanced Program (AP) in Chemistry in 2006 following the government's Advanced Programs Project. According to University A's enrolment information posted on the university website and other public websites, the university currently has one AP (the AP in Chemistry) and four High-Quality Programs (HQPs) in operation. Information on University A's website also indicates that among approximately 300 students enrolling in its Faculty of Chemistry annually, less than 10 per cent are registered in the AP in Chemistry.

University B majors in legal education and is also research-oriented. However, it does not receive as much international recognition as University A. Information on University B's website shows its academic relationships with 33 international partners, be they universities, research institutes, or governmental agencies. Despite its high educational reputation in its fields of teaching, University B has been rather slow in internationalising its curriculum, as evidenced by the number of its special programs currently on offer. At the time of this study, University B has only one HQP in Law, which started in 2018. Out of approximately 800 students enrolling in University B in 2022, one-sixth was admitted to the HQP in Law.

5.3.1.2 Participant selection and recruitment

The following section reports on the processes of participant selection and recruitment that occurred. To comprehensively understand EMI lecturers' teaching practices, two groups of participants were recruited for this study: EMI Program Coordinators and EMI lecturers. The Program Coordinators were able to provide details about the features, conditions, and implementation issues of the EMI programs concerned, to contextualise, and thus shed more light on, the lecturers' practices. Since University A (specialising in

natural sciences) has one coordinator for each AP, the coordinator for the AP in Chemistry was invited to participate in this study. University B (specialising in legal education), however, does not have a program coordinator for its HQP. Instead, it has an EMI facilitation team to facilitate the smooth implementation of the HQP and to enhance the quality of the program. This EMI facilitation team consists of some key EMI lecturers in University B. Hence, the team leader was invited to participate in this study in the same role as a program coordinator.

The primary participants in this study were EMI lecturers, who were recruited purposively from Universities A and B, using a combination of purposive and snowball sampling techniques (Patton, 2014). The following criteria set out the selection of suitable EMI lecturers:

> (i) Minimum 2 years of teaching experience in EMI programs

> (ii) Experience in teaching similar courses in both Vietnamese and English

> (iii) 30-40 years of age, for the following reasons:

>> (1) The literature reveals this is the typical age range of EMI lecturers in Vietnam;

>> (2) The power dynamics between the researcher (in her late 30s) and similar-aged lecturers were expected to facilitate more open dialogue, and thus better data quality for this research, since age plays a critical role in interpersonal relationships in Vietnamese culture.

Despite the criteria set out above, due to the difficulty of recruiting enough EMI lecturers (due to their tight working schedule and the pandemic), the second criterion about teaching experience in similar courses in Vietnamese and English was not strictly applied. As a result, there were two lecturer participants (one in Chemistry and one in Law), who both satisfied the two-year EMI teaching experience, but did not, at the time of the data collection, had prior experience teaching the courses that were audio-recorded in either Vietnamese or English.

The Chemistry lecturer - Ha - has taught the course "Fundamental Biochemistry" in English for three years without teaching that same course in Vietnamese. In preparation for teaching Fundamental Biochemistry in English, she observed her colleague teach the course in Vietnamese and co-marked end-term test papers with him. Hence, although Ha did not teach "Fundamental Biochemistry" in Vietnamese, she had some knowledge and experience with its Vietnamese-medium instruction.

In contrast, the Law lecturer - An - has taught the course "Vietnamese Labour Law" in Vietnamese to Law students of University B for six years and has also had three years of EMI experience with teaching Business Law to non-Law students at other institutions. It was not until early 2021, the time of data collection for this study, that An taught Vietnamese Labour Law in English to Law students at her university (i.e., University B). Although the students of the two Law courses were different, hence differences in teaching approach, An's EMI experience with non-Law students was reportedly beneficial for her EMI lesson preparation for Law students. Unfortunately, at the time of the interview with An, she had not commenced her EMI semester with Law students at University B. Therefore, An could not provide a detailed description of some teaching practices, nor could I ask her about her EMI lesson recordings.

The participant recruitment process, although slightly different between the two institutions, was facilitated by my acquaintances, who explained the normal communication procedures in their institutions and proposed a list of potential participants. At University A, on receiving the approval of the Dean of the Faculty of Chemistry, I contacted the AP coordinator, who also recommended some potential lecturers. Six Chemistry lecturers were finally short-listed, but only three of them responded to my emails and were willing to participate in this study.

At University B, I first contacted the EMI facilitation team's leader. With support from the team leader, I quickly obtained approval to conduct research from the Rector of University B. After this, the team leader also introduced me to four potential lecturers, three of whom agreed to participate in this study.

In the end, six lecturers made up the recruited cohort, with three from Chemistry and three from Law disciplines. Table 5.1 provides a brief profile of the lecturer participants. Further information about each lecturer is reported in Chapters 7 and 8.

Table 5.1: Profiles of the six lecturer participants

Name	Gender	Degree	Started teaching (year)	VMI experience (years)	EMI experience (years)	VMI courses	EMI courses
Dan	Male	PhD	2007	9	7	Physical Chemistry 1, 2	Physical Chemistry 1, 2
Ha	Female	PhD	2016	5	3	Food additives, Post-harvest technology, Quality Control, Biochemical technology	Fundamental Biochemistry and Life Science
Tam	Female	PhD	1999	22	13	Instrumental Characterisation, Chemical Analysis	Instrumental Characterisation, Chemical Analysis
Han	Female	PhD	2008	8	3	Vietnamese Civil procedures Law, Vietnamese Intellectual Property Law, Skills to dissolve civil disputes	Vietnamese Intellectual Property Law
Kha	Male	PhD	2016	5	3	Vietnamese Civil Law 1-2-3, Roman Law, Vietnamese Intellectual Property Law	Vietnamese Civil Law 1
An	Female	PhD	2007	9	2	Vietnamese Labour Law, Vietnamese Economic Law, Dealing with Labour Disputes and Strikes	Vietnamese Labour Law

5.3.2 Revision of data collection instruments and procedures

This section briefly describes how the COVID-19 pandemic impacted the nature of the data generation tools, the data quality, and the data collection procedures for this study.

Online interviews were used instead of offline, on-site interviews. Despite the convenience and time saving (regarding travelling), online interviews had several drawbacks. It required a long wait time to schedule an interview with a lecturer via email, and thus a perceived lack of the power of negotiation on my part regarding the interview time. I was pressured to accept any date/time the lecturers were available.

During an online interview, there was a risk of communication breakdown due to technical problems. At one time in an interview, the lecturer could not hear me so I had to log out and log in again. The interviews were conducted online, so only one interview per lecturer was undertaken. Post-observation interviews as initially planned were no longer feasible due to time pressures on the lecturers, and the COVID-19 pandemic and its effect on my doctoral candidature timing did not allow for time extensions. Had the data been generated on-site, post-observation interviews would have been possible during lesson breaks, despite the lecturers' tight schedules. Due to the lecturers' busy schedules, they often arranged interview dates at the beginning or at the end of the course, when their workload was less intense. As a result, the interview dates were either before my receipt of the lecturers' lesson recordings or too far after the recorded lesson dates, rendering it infeasible to use simulated recall to dig deeper into a particular classroom vignette.

Lesson recordings were used in place of classroom observations; hence, Section 5.3.3.2 is entitled "classroom data" instead. Lesson audio recordings, or video recordings of the PowerPoint slide show if the lectures were conducted online via Microsoft Teams or Zoom, did not allow for the collection of non-verbal classroom data (e.g., classroom layout and settings, classroom atmosphere, lecturers' and students' body language, lecturers' use of teaching tools, etc.). Due to the lack of other semiotic (i.e., non-verbal) data, this study could not be extended to a multimodal analysis with Positioning Theory. As a result, some potential insights might have been lost.

There were some problems with asking the lecturers to record their lessons. Sometimes they forgot to press the record button at the beginning of the lesson or they recorded only part of the lessons when they taught in English, not the part they taught in Vietnamese. I had to rely on other factors such as the length of the recordings as compared to the

lecturers' timetable, and the logical connection of content, to understand their lessons and practices before checking it with the lecturers in the interviews (if possible). The situation of data generation in this study supported Clarke's (2019) point that "research is always a situated, contextual, involves compromise, and is always a pragmatic exercise" (p. 14).

Online data generation made it difficult to establish credibility and build relationships, which are very important for conducting research in the Vietnamese context. As a result, many potential insights about the participants and their teaching contexts might have been lost due to my limited encounters with the participants in the online environment.

All these unanticipated changes meant that the initial intended data generation plan (which followed a certain order but was not linear) was altered (see Figure 5.1). The actual data generation activities occurred in an organic order (see Figure 5.2), rather than conforming to a fixed procedure that was originally designed. The following section details this study's data generation methods and procedures.

Figure 5.1: Proposed data generation procedure (before the COVID-19 pandemic)
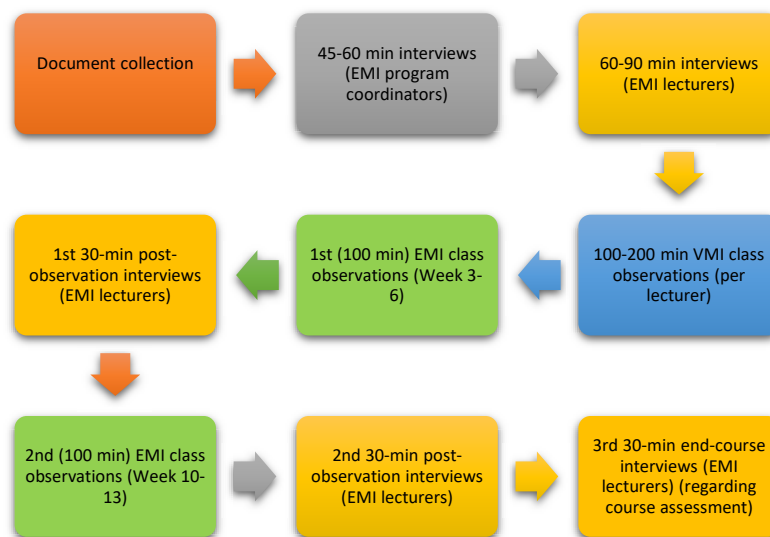
Figure 5.2: Actual data generation procedure (during the COVID-19 pandemic)
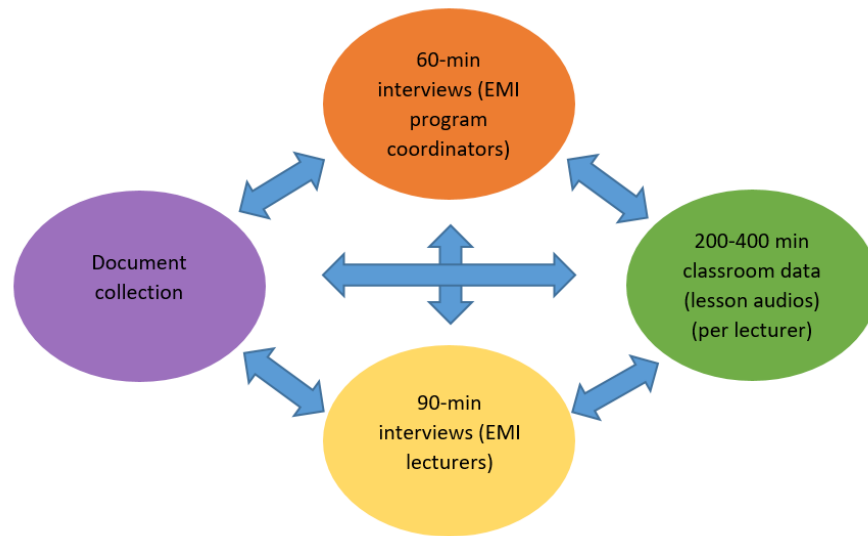
5.3.3 Data collection methods

Data for this study were generated from November 2020 to April 2021, using three methods: semi-structured interviews, classroom lesson recordings, and documentation. In total, 15.5 hours of interview data and 51 hours of lesson audio recordings (31 hours of which were EMI lessons) were obtained. The following sections describe each data generation method in detail.

5.3.3.1 Semi-structured interviews

This study used semi-structured interviews to obtain in-depth information about the lecturers' beliefs regarding their rights and duties in EMI and the effect of these beliefs on their EMI teaching practices. According to Yin (2018), interviews are one of the most important sources of case study evidence. Interviews help generate an understanding of EMI teaching practices from the insiders' – the lecturers' viewpoint, "to unfold the meaning of [their teaching] experiences" (Kvale, 2007, p. xvii, explanation added), especially the "how's" and the "why's" (Rubin & Rubin, 2005) of their instructional adaptations. Semi-structured interviews were used to allow more flexibility on the part of the interviewee while the interviewer (me) still had a clear list of questions to focus on

(Denscombe, 2007). Semi-structured interviews were also useful for this study because of their possibility for cross-case comparability (Bryman, 2012).

I saw myself (in the interviewer role) as "a travel[l]er on a journey to a distant country that leads to a tale to be told upon returning home" (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015, p. 57). As a traveller, I gradually changed throughout the data generation journey as "[t]he journey might instigate a process of reflection that leads the travel[l]er to new ways of self-understanding, as well as uncovering previously taken-for-granted values and customs in the travel[l]er's home country" (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2015, p. 58). Indeed, I went through a continual process of self-realisation (such as recognising my interview skill weaknesses after each interview), and self-improvement during the data generation process, slowly building my communication and interview skills.

This study used interview protocols because the Program Coordinators or lecturers were asked similar questions (Bryman, 2012). This study developed two interview protocols: one for the Program Coordinators and one for EMI lecturers (see Appendix 2 and 3 for the Interview Protocols). The interview protocols followed the full question format to facilitate the conduct of the interview by a new investigator like me (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Questions in the interview protocols were formulated based on several sources: the research questions, the literature review, tenets of Positioning Theory (particularly the concepts of rights and duties), and the researcher's experience (King, Horrocks, & Brooks, 2019). I also consulted the six question types suggested by Patton (2014): background/demographic, experience and behaviour, opinion and values, knowledge, feeling, and sensory, when developing the interview protocols. For the purpose of this study, feeling and sensory questions were not included.

Questions in the interview protocol were developed to meet the interview aims. In the case of the interviews with the EMI Program Coordinators, their purpose was to obtain a deeper understanding of the EMI programs in question. Therefore, the interview protocol covered different aspects of an EMI program, including: the curriculum, the rights and duties of the lecturers, the rights and duties of the students, the rights and duties of the program coordinator him/herself, and the challenges that the program coordinators have encountered in their position (see Appendix 2 for the interview protocol for EMI Program

Coordinators). For the interviews with the lecturers, to gain some understanding of the lecturers' teaching practices in their academic disciplines, and to facilitate the lecturers' recognition of their instructional adaptations if any, the interview protocol for EMI lecturers contained three overarching themes: (1) the lecturers' educational and professional development background, (2) the lecturers' teaching practices in VMI, and (3) their English-medium instruction practices (see Appendix 3 for the interview protocol for lecturers).

As the main research instrument, the interview protocol for EMI lecturers was piloted with two lecturers, one of whom had been teaching Information Technology in both Vietnamese and English, and the other just had VMI teaching experience but was likely to take on EMI in the near future. Both lecturers were not participants in this study. The purpose of the pilot was to check the questions' clarity, relevance to the research aims, and appropriateness for the Vietnamese culture. The pilot interviews lasted about 60 minutes and were conducted in Vietnamese via Zoom. Generally, the interviews went well, with the questions fully understood. However, some of the questions generated short responses, which were later improved by adding more prompts or probing questions.

The original interview protocol (for EMI lecturers) was subsequently revised twice more. After the first two interviews with one lecturer from each discipline, although the common themes and broad questions were retained, the list of questions became more concise and clearly focused, with the prompts more discipline-tailored. This allowed for more relevant data to be generated while preserving the possibility of cross-case comparison.

All interviews in this study were conducted online, via Zoom, and in Vietnamese. Vietnamese was chosen as it is the researcher's and the participants' shared mother tongue, so it allowed for more comprehension and more nuanced expression (Clark, Birkhead, Fernandez, & Egger, 2017). The interviews were audio-recorded on Zoom and on a separate digital recorder. Interviews with the Program Coordinators lasted 60 minutes each while interviews with the EMI lecturers lasted 90-120 minutes each. The interviews were scheduled according to the participants' availability. Some EMI lecturers were

interviewed before their classroom data were obtained, while others conducted the interviews after.

5.3.3.2 Classroom data

Classroom data were the EMI and VMI lesson recordings obtained from the lecturers. Lesson recordings were used in place of classroom observations due to online data generation. However, in this section, the term "classroom observation" is still used in a general way to differentiate between the "live" data obtained from classrooms and the self-reported data generated via interviews.

This study used lesson recordings as a supplementary data source to better understand the lecturers' reported classroom practices. Observation is a key tool to generate data in qualitative research (Creswell & Poth, 2018) and has also been applied extensively in educational research (Duff, 2008) because it offers "the opportunity to gather first-hand, 'live' data *in situ* from naturally occurring social situations rather than, for example, reported data (Wellington, 2015, p. 247) and second-hand accounts (Creswell, 2012, p. 213)" (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 542). Rather than providing a reality check, observation data, or classroom data in this study, allowed me to look afresh at lecturers' classroom behaviours to discover their "mundane routines and activities" that might otherwise "go unnoticed" (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 542) or be taken for granted by the lecturers themselves (Hatch, 2002). In addition to being a supplementary source of evidence of the EMI lecturers' practices, the lesson recordings also assisted me in preparing prompts for subsequent interviews with the lecturers (if any).

The lessons were recorded via either an online meeting platform such as Zoom or Microsoft Teams (if the lecturers were teaching online) or using a digital audio recorder given to the lecturers (by my research assistant) (if they were teaching in a physical classroom). The research assistant is a friend of mine based in Vietnam, who had been informed about the confidentiality requirement of research data and other relevant ethical requirements of research conduct. He helped me deliver recorders to the lecturers and paper consent forms to their students. After that, he collected the recorders and the forms, before scanning the forms and sending them, together with lesson audio recordings, to

me via email. If the lessons were recorded online, the lecturers shared with me the links to access the lesson video recordings.

A lecturer's VMI and EMI recorded lessons might have belonged to different courses, or different units of similar/equivalent courses. For example, Tam's VMI lesson recordings were part of the Fundamentals of Analytical Chemistry course, while her EMI lesson recordings were from the Instrumental Characterisation course. The three lecturers whose VMI and EMI recorded lessons belonged to similar courses were Dan (Chemistry), Han (Law), and An (Law). While Han and An's courses in VMI and EMI had the same content, but were taught in different languages, the content of Dan's VMI and EMI courses, though having the same name, was different. The Physical Chemistry course in the AP that Dan taught used an American textbook, and thus was more difficult than the Physical Chemistry course in the standard Vietnamese-medium program. The VMI lesson recordings were used as a supplementary source of information, to help the researcher gain a better understanding of content teaching in the participants' disciplines, have an initial impression about the differences between the lecturers' VMI and EMI lessons, and generate interview questions related to instructional adaptations (if any). Except for the use of some PowerPoint slides of the VMI lessons to compare with PowerPoint slides of the EMI lessons by the same lecturer, data from the VMI lesson recordings were not analysed in this study. The following table provides a summary of the interview and classroom data generated from the six lecturers.

Table 5.2: Summary of the interviews and lesson recordings obtained in this study

Lecturers	Data	Date	Length
Dan (Chemistry)	Interview	16-Dec-2020	90 mins
	VMI - Lesson recording 1	6-Nov-2020	47 mins
	VMI - Lesson recording 2	20-Nov-2020	41 mins
	EMI - Lesson recording 1	19-Nov-2020	102 mins
	EMI - Lesson recording 2	27-Nov-2020	98 mins
Tam (Chemistry)	Interview	16-Feb-2021	120 mins
	VMI - Lesson recording 1	04-Nov-2020	170 mins
	VMI - Lesson recording 2	22-Nov-2020	130 mins
	EMI - Lesson recording 1	2-Dec-2020	78 mins
	EMI - Lesson recording 2	16-Dec-2020	152 mins
Ha (Chemistry)	Interview	01-Nov-2020	120 mins
	VMI - Lesson recording 1	22-Mar-2021	48 mins
	VMI - Lesson recording 2	29-Mar-2021	62 mins
	VMI - Lesson recording 3	5-April-2021	86 mins
	EMI - Lesson recording 1	22-Feb-2021	150 mins
	EMI - Lesson recording 2	1-Mar-2021	150 mins
Kha (Law)	Interview	18-Feb-2021	90 mins
	EMI - Lesson recording 1	19-Nov-2020	108 mins
	EMI - Lesson recording 2	17-Dec-2020	98 mins
Han (Law)	Interview	19-Feb-2021	90 mins
	VMI - Lesson recording 1	18-Jan-2021	70 mins
	VMI - Lesson recording 2	22-Feb-2021	102 mins
	VMI - Lesson recording 3	1-Mar-2021	104 mins
	EMI - Lesson recording 1	14-Sep-2020	93 mins
	EMI - Lesson recording 2	21-Sep-2020	103 mins
	EMI - Lesson recording 3	28-Sep-2020	108 mins
	EMI - Lesson recording 4	16-Nov-2020	105 mins
An (Law)	Interview	4-Nov-2020	90 mins
	VMI - Lesson recording 1	16-Sep-2020	149 mins
	VMI - Lesson recording 2	11-Nov-2020	155 mins
	EMI - Lesson recording 1	4-Mar-2021	40 mins
	EMI - Lesson recording 2	11-Mar-2021	90 mins
	EMI - Lesson recording 3	1-April-2021	93 mins

5.3.3.3 Documentation

Documents are a valuable source of information in qualitative research in general (Creswell, 2015) and in any case study research in particular (Yin, 2018). Documents include "public and private records that qualitative researchers obtain about a site or participants in a study" (Creswell, 2015, p. 221). Documents can exist in various forms, from written, visual, and digital to physical material (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015).

In qualitative research, documents are often used to "supplement interviews and observations" (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 229), "corroborate and augment evidence from other sources" (Yin, 2018, p. 158). According to Yin (2018), it is possible that researchers

can make inferences from documents, but such inferences should only be treated as "clues worthy of further investigation rather than as definitive findings" (p. 158). Another note about working with documents is that they may not be neutral because they originate from bodies with power (e.g., governments, associations, institutions) who have a particular agenda at the time (Cohen et al., 2018).

Following the analytical framework of this study, particularly Van Langenhove's (2017) typology of moral orders, several types of documents were collected in this study to gain a comprehensive understanding of teacher positionings in the cultural, legal, and institutional moral orders. In particular, the relevant educational literature, EMI policies at the national and institutional levels, other institutional documents (e.g., enrolment information, EMI curricula, academic regulations, regulations on working regime), and course materials (e.g., course guides and PowerPoint slides) were collected. Table 5.3 listed different types of documents and their purposes of use in my study.

The documents were obtained from government websites, Vietnamese legal databases, university/faculty websites, or directly from the participants. Though available on the institutions' websites, some documents such as academic curricula were often not updated. Therefore, I had to check with the participants during our email communications and requested their latest documents if available.

Table 5.3: Typology of collected documents

Types of document	Sources	Aims
(i) Relevant literature about the educational culture of Vietnam	The literature, legal documents	- To understand Vietnamese teachers' rights and duties in the cultural moral order
(i) Legal documents about bilingual education in Vietnam, especially at the tertiary level, and about lecturers' rights and duties	Different governmental bodies	- To understand the legal contexts/ frameworks that govern lecturers' work and all EMI programs in Vietnamese HE - To understand EMI lecturers' rights and duties in the legal moral order
(ii) EMI policy documents at university and faculty levels	The universities/ faculties concerned	- To understand the institutional contexts - To understand EMI lecturers' rights and duties and different aspects of the EMI programs that may affect the lecturers' teaching
(iii) EMI curricula	The universities concerned	- To have an overview of the program - To compare with VMI curricula
(iv) Corresponding VMI curricula	The universities concerned	- To have an overview of the program - To compare with EMI curricula
(v) Course syllabi	The universities concerned	- To understand different aspects of the courses
(vi) Teaching materials (i.e. textbooks, readings, handouts, PowerPoint slides, etc.) (for recorded lessons)	The lecturers concerned	- To have an overview of the content of the "observed" lessons - To partially guide my class "observation" - To facilitate the identification of the lecturers' in-class adaptations

In collecting documents, I adhered to Coffey's (2014) advice regarding the intertextuality of documents, meaning that documents are related to other documents. Therefore, while EMI policies and documents at the national and institutional levels were my main focus, I also collected and analysed related documents to elaborate the research purposes when necessary. Below is the list of the main documents reviewed:

Table 5.4: List of reviewed documents

No.	Sources	Documents
1	Government of Vietnam	Resolution no. 14/2005/NQ-CP on the Higher Education Reform Agenda 2006-2020 (HERA)
2	Prime Minister of Vietnam	Decision no. 72/2014/QD-TTg on Regulations on teaching and learning in a foreign language in schools and other educational institutions
3	Vietnam Ministry of Education and Training (MOET)	Circular no. 23/2014/TT-BGDDT on Regulations on High-Quality tertiary educational programs
4	Prime Minister of Vietnam	Decision no. 1505/QD-TTg on Ratifying the Advanced Programs Project in some Vietnamese universities in the period 2008-2015 and its appendix detailing the Advanced Programs Project
5	MOET	Circular no. 47/2014/TT-BGDDT on regulations on working regime for lecturers at higher education institutions (effective from 31 Dec 2014 to 10 Sep 2020)
6	MOET	Circular no. 20/2022/TT-BGDDT on regulations on working regime for lecturers at higher education institutions (effective from 11 Sep 2020 to present)
7	MOET	Report no. 2689/BGDDT-GDDH dated 29 June 2021 on High-Quality education programs in public HE institutions from 2011 to 2020
8	MOET - Higher Education Department	Document no. 5746/BGDDT-GDDH dated 29 August 2011 on the recruitment of students for High-Quality programs
9	University AB (the "principal" university)	Academic Regulations 2014 (effective from December 2014 to 20 October 2022)
10	University AB (the "principal" university)	Academic Regulations 2022 (effective from 21 Oct 2022 to present)
11	University AB (the "principal" university)	Regulations on working regime for lecturers 2017 (effective from 1 June 2017 to 31 Dec 2021)
12	University AB (the "principal" university)	Regulations on working regime for lecturers (effective from 1 Jan 2022 to present)
13	University A	The 2019 curriculum of the AP in Chemistry (EMI)
14	University A	The 2019 curriculum of the standard program in Chemistry (VMI)
15	University A	The 2006 curriculum of the AP in Chemistry (EMI)
16	University A	The 2006 curriculum of the standard program in Chemistry (VMI)
17	University B	The 2019 curriculum of the High-Quality Program in Law (EMI)
18	University B	The 2019 curriculum of the standard program in Law (VMI)
19	University A	Website information on student recruitment for the AP in Chemistry 2020
20	University B	Website information on student recruitment for the High-Quality Program in Law 2020
21	University A	07 course guides (related to 4 courses that had their lessons recorded)
22	University B	03 course guides (related to 3 courses that had their lessons recorded)
23	University A & B	PowerPoint slides (or blackboard photos) of all EMI lessons (15) and most VMI lessons (12) that were recorded

The following section will describe how the generated data were analysed in this study.

5.3.4 Data analysis procedures

This study adopted the constant comparative method of data analysis, whereby relevant information was taken from the data collected and compared to emerging categories (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The data analysis procedures that this study followed were the typical procedures in qualitative research, which included an ongoing and iterative process of transcription, coding, pattern/theme development, establishing pattern/theme networks, interpretation, and report writing (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Preliminary data analysis occurred during the process of data collection, and data analysis continued until the research report was completed (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014). According to Creswell and Poth (2018), a general data analysis process in qualitative research involves three broad steps: preparing and organising data for analysis, condensing the data into themes through coding and recoding, and representing the data in, e.g., a discussion. Nevertheless, Creswell and Poth (2018) acknowledge that additional steps might be involved depending on a particular approach to inquiry.

Initial data analysis occurred during the process of data collection for this study. This analysis allowed me to identify themes or issues to focus on in subsequent interviews. After each interview, I reflected on what I was asking and what the participant said. I made notes of interesting points to follow up in later interviews with other lecturers. I also listened to lesson recordings of a lecturer in preparation for an interview with him/her if the recordings were available. By so doing, subsequent interviews were more focused and could generate more desired data about the lecturers' teaching practices.

5.3.4.1 Preparing and organising data for analysis

In this stage, I prepared the data for analysis by transcribing interviews and taking notes of the classroom data (lesson recordings). I then familiarised myself with the data through multiple reading of interview transcripts or multiple listening/watching of lesson recordings, taking notes along the way.

I fully transcribed all interviews and saved the interview transcripts in protected Microsoft Word files. For ethical reasons, pseudonyms were used for the participants' names, their

universities, the city where the universities are located, the students, and all other names mentioned in the interviews or lesson recordings. When transcribing interviews, I was mainly concerned with the content of what the participants said, rather than linguistic aspects of the text as in discourse or conversation analysis (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008; Paltridge, 2012). Therefore, interjections such as "um, ah" or repetitions were removed for clarity.

In fact, transcribing interviews was my first step in familiarising with the interview data, as suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006). For interviews with lecturers, if the interviews were conducted before receiving the lecturers' lesson recordings, while transcribing the interviews, I noted down in a journal interesting points or questions that I would explore further by seeking evidence, if any, in the classroom data. I then read the transcripts several times, annotating in the margins interesting ideas, some of which later became initial categories or codes in the NVivo codebook.

For classroom data, I listened to lesson recordings and took notes on "classroom observation protocols" (see Appendix 4 for the Classroom Observation Protocol). My notes were both descriptive (e.g., summary of lesson activities and other classroom information - number of students, number of assignments, etc.) and reflective (i.e., my feelings, my hunches and my reflections as a lecturer myself and/or as an imaginary student), as suggested by Creswell and Poth (2018). The notes were structured around various pedagogical aspects, such as different phases of the lesson, timing, and instructional and assessment activities (e.g., how the lecturer introduced new content, how s/he questioned the students, how s/he used Vietnamese and/or English in a lesson, to name but a few).

Special attention was also paid to classroom vignettes involving the lecturers' first and foreign language use and teacher-student interaction as these are important features of EMI pedagogy (Rose et al., 2021). Initially, only these classroom vignettes were transcribed. However, as the analysis of the interviews later revealed other important aspects of the participant lecturers' pedagogy, e.g., lesson introduction, the lesson recordings were revisited and such aspects of the lessons were also transcribed. Like interview transcription, content was the primary concern in transcribing classroom data.

Nevertheless, as pauses and hesitation in classroom interaction contained meaning (i.e., the length of pauses is used to identify lecturers' question types, based on the literature), I calculated the length of the pauses in seconds and noted them down where necessary (e.g., after a lecturer's question).

The transcription conventions below were used when transcribing interviews and certain classroom vignettes.

Table 5.5: Transcription conventions in this study

Symbol	Meaning	Examples
/.../	Not clearly heard	(…) So in instrument analysis I always have to set up the calibration curve or we can /style/ amount of standard solution in the samples (…)
(…)	Ellipsis within a sentence or longer than a sentence	(...) and particle here will go through this err this hole
[…]	Added English translations by the researcher	Khe hở là gì? Có biết ko? [What is a long narrow opening? Do you know?]

I conducted multiple readings of the documents and the interview transcripts with the Program Coordinators. When reading these materials, I paid particular attention to the rationale for EMI programs, and the differences between various types of EMI programs, particularly between Advanced and HQP - the two types of EMI programs investigated in this study. After multiple readings, three aspects of teaching practices emerged from the national EMI policies: content, pedagogy, and assessment. Therefore, "content, pedagogy, assessment" became three aspects of instructional practices, and also three codes that I used for coding documentation data and data from interviews with the Program Coordinators in the later step. Since the language as a medium of instruction is also a distinctive feature of EMI, "language use" became the fourth instructional dimension and the fourth code.

I familiarised myself with the classroom data in the same way as I did with transcribing interviews. I listened to or watched the recordings several times, with the classroom "observation" notes at hand, to gain more insights into the realities of the lecturers' classrooms. Some classroom notes became prompts in the subsequent interviews with the lecturers.

5.3.4.2 Coding and generating themes

In this step, I began coding the data systematically. Coding is one way to systematically condense the data, i.e., data reduction (Miles et al., 2014). Coding is defined as "assigning some sort of short-hand designation to various aspects of your data so that you can easily retrieve specific pieces of the data" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015, p. 199). A code is "a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a portion of language-based or visual data" (Saldaña, 2013, p. 3). The coding process was both deductive and inductive, using the pre-determined codes drawn from Positioning Theory and the codes that emerged from the data (Miles et al., 2014). By adopting both pre-determined and open codes, the coding process was structured, coherent, and flexible and comprehensive at the same time, allowing the data "to speak for itself". The pre-determined codes used in this study were: position, right, duty, action, and storyline (see Sections 4.1.2.1 and 4.1.2.2 for definitions of these concepts, and the clues to identify positions and storylines). Also in this step, the constant comparative method to data analysis was applied rigorously to produce a list of final codes and generate themes.

Although this research concerned EMI lecturers' perceptions of rights and duties, not the lecturers' identity, the concepts of rights and duties in Positioning Theory, as in our daily lives, are often associated with a particular position or role. Therefore, in order to uncover the lecturers' perceptions of rights and duties, especially the rights and duties implicit in their actions, and to present them consistently and coherently in the research report, I found it necessary to generate a position for the lecturers as a theme. As a result, corresponding to three investigated aspects of teaching practices (i.e., content, pedagogy, assessment), three overarching positions were generated for the lecturers in each academic discipline, to capture the lecturers' perceptions of their EMI rights and duties in their disciplines coherently. Using three broad positions for each lecturer/group of lecturers in a discipline allowed for a nuanced understanding of the lecturers' teaching practices. For example, Ha, a Chemistry lecturer, explicitly positioned herself as a pedagogical innovator. However, when describing her duties regarding content, she displayed herself as a content knowledge provider. The tension in the duties of a content knowledge provider and a pedagogical innovator reflected Ha's lack of knowledge

regarding the theoretical underpinnings of student-centred teaching approaches (see Chapter 7 and Chapter 9 for more details). Similarly, following document analysis, teacher positionings were also generated as themes, to enable a coherent understanding of teacher positionings in different levels of moral orders.

For the documents regarding the societal culture of Vietnam, the lecturers' positionings, containing their rights and duties, appeared very clearly. Vietnamese teachers are traditionally seen as knowledge providers and moral exemplars. Therefore, these two positionings became the open codes (and also the theme) and under each code, there were two sub-codes of rights and duties, to which relevant information from the literature was added.

For policy documents, the aim was to understand the normative framework surrounding EMI lecturers' practices (i.e., the rights and duties prescribed to EMI lecturers) and how EMI lecturers were positioned by the national and institutional policies. Iterative reading of the documents uncovered three aspects of teaching practices that are stipulated in the EMI policies at the national and institutional levels: content, pedagogy, and assessment. These three aspects became three open codes. Positioning Theory's "rights" and "duties" concepts were used as pre-determined codes. Altogether, these five codes were applied to the coding of policy documents.

As classroom data were used to supplement lecturers' self-reported practices in the interview data, nothing further was done with the recordings and classroom observation notes until the last step - report write-up - when I returned to the classroom observation notes to find evidence to illustrate different points from the interview data.

For interviews with the EMI lecturers, the process of coding and generating themes was not as straightforward as with other data sources. While reading interview transcripts, I manually highlighted the texts that provided clues to EMI lecturers' instructional adaptations, their rights/duties or self-positionings. I also annotated the meaning of those texts, both in terms of adaptation strategies and in terms of lecturers' positioning of themselves or others (because positioning is relational). The outcomes of this step were the initial codes and their related interview extracts.

As I entered these codes into NVivo 12, I began by comparing and contrasting them, ensuring that they were not overlapping. A definition for each code was provided to avoid confusion and enhance consistency in coding. This defining task in return clarified my thinking and purified the codes. Therefore, once this task was roughly done, some initial codes merged while some were renamed to incorporate more dimensions of the issue.

As qualitative data analysis is an iterative process (Miles et al., 2014), the list of codes in NVivo was expected to evolve, rather than stay definite at this point. In order to keep track of the code development process, thus, enhancing the research's trustworthiness, I kept a separate codebook in Microsoft Word, noting down the evolution in code names, definitions, and sources, i.e., whether they were purely data-driven or literature-informed. Below is a sample of my codebook, which was developed alongside, rather than prior to, my data analysis. My codebook comprised four components: codes, full definitions, revisions, and sources. Full definitions should embrace inclusion and exclusion criteria (DeCuir-Gunby, Marshall, & McCulloch, 2011).

With the list of codes input into NVivo 12, I coded all the interview transcripts again, this time with the software. During this process, the texts and the codes were compared by referring to the initial definitions of the codes, and hence there was further revision of the codes and their definitions (as illustrated in Table 5.6).

Table 5.6: Sample extract of my codebook in Microsoft Word 2016

No.	Codes	Definitions	Revisions (if any)	Sources
1	L1 as a remedy or a necessity	Refers to teachers' (Ts') use of Vietnamese (L1) in EMI. L1 use is not only to remedy inadequacies, but it is also essential when there is a high possibility of confusion and misunderstanding in Ss due to different meanings of a word. For example, "subject" as a grammatical component of a sentence and "subject" as an object in Law. Also, L1 is used for background knowledge enhancement and for fostering content comprehension in general, for giving examples, elaborations and discussions	- Before 12/5/21: "code-switching" or "translanguaging", but the latter suggests some planned pedagogical awareness while in reality this might not be true for the participants. -12/5/21: changed to "Use L1 both to remedy inadequacies and to clarify technical terms in EMI classes" because after reading An's interview transcript, it turns out that using L1 to explain technical terms is vital to avoid misunderstanding among students because legal terms like "subject"/ "jurisdiction" can have several meanings. - 4/6/21: changed to "L1 as a remedy or a necessity" for conciseness	- literature (e.g., e.g., Yang et al., 2019)
2	Ts as a pedagogical innovator	Refers to Ts' perception of themselves as an innovator in teaching methodology, using new teaching methods that are not popular among their colleagues	none	data-driven

Below is an example of the codes that I assigned to some data extracts from Dan's interview.

Table 5.7: An example of coded data from Dan's interview

Data	Codes related to RQ1	Codes related to RQ2
Researcher: So the workload is quite heavy in your faculty, right? Does teaching in English put you under more work pressure? **Dan:** There's not much pressure teaching in English now because I'm already used to it. But still there's some difficulty, that is, my teaching in English is not as interesting as in Vietnamese. So I usually do this, to compensate or complement my limit and also students' limit, I speak both English and Vietnamese.	- Self-positioning as having limited English language proficiency (ELP) - Positioning Ss as having limited ELP	L1 as a remedy
Researcher: Besides technical terms and how to verbalise Maths operations, did you encounter any other difficulties when you started teaching in English? **Dan:** There were certainly many difficulties at the beginning. Because when we speak in Vietnamese, Vietnamese is our mother tongue, we have many more ways to express our ideas. But when we teach in English, sometimes we can't exemplify a topic further because of our limits in English, so we only speak within our lesson content rather than expanding and giving further explanations.	Self-positioning as a foreign user of English	Fewer elaborations and less advanced content

With a list of positionings (both self- and other-), a list of adaptation strategies, and corresponding data extracts, I began the next step of generating themes by finding the overarching self-positionings of the lecturers. The step of generating themes is an active, constructive phase, shaping the codes into a coherent story that makes sense of the data (Braun & Clarke, 2012). According to Braun and Clarke (2006), a theme "captures something important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents some level of *patterned* response or meaning within the data set" (p. 82).

A constant comparison process was used to generate themes regarding the lecturers' positionings in the policy documents and their self-positionings. In particular, for policy documents, I had to move beyond the list of rights and duties generated from the coding step, and compare the purposes of the policies to the target of educational reforms in the Vietnamese higher education system. As a result, two clear positions emerged: (1) *EMI lecturers as highly qualified teachers*, and (2) *EMI lecturers as pedagogical innovators*.

Regarding the lecturers' self-positionings, these were first categorised into three groups, related to three aspects of their teaching practices: content, pedagogy, and assessment. Then these self-positionings were compared with one another, with the lecturers' stated duties in the interviews, with the positionings of lecturers in the Vietnamese culture and

policy documents, with the supposed duties of content lecturers in the EMI literature, and among the self-positionings of the lecturers in the same discipline. The three broad self-positionings of the Chemistry lecturers were generated: lecturers as content knowledge providers, lecturers as traditional pedagogues or pedagogical innovators, and lecturers as solely content assessors. Similarly, the three broad self-positionings of the Law lecturers were: lecturers as guides to legal content and legal English, lecturers as Socratic pedagogues, and lecturers as flexible content assessors. Table 5.8 presents a sample of a generated self-positioning theme and its related codes.

Table 5.8: Sample of a self-positioning theme and some related codes

Category	Theme	Related codes
Content	Ts as content knowledge providers	Ts as competent content specialists
		Ts as devoted lecturers who helped students enhance their background knowledge
		Ts as sources of learning materials

5.3.4.3 Representing data in the thesis

The act of writing analysis was performed throughout the analytic process via writing analysis notes and memos. However, it was not until this stage that all those analytic notes and memos were combined with selected data extracts to form arguments to answer the research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2012).

There were a few mechanical rules that I followed during the report writing. For example, three bracketed dots, or (...), were used to signal ellipsis where repetitions, unnecessary, or irrelevant detail had been removed from the data extracts, and square brackets to introduce an added word or an English translation to clarify the quoted expressions.

When writing a data analysis report, I was guided by Braun and Clarke's (2012) instructions which highlight the importance of the order of theme presentation, the selection of data that clearly illustrate the analytic points, and the need to unpack data extracts to answer the question "so what". In other words, I tried to interweave both the elements of description and interpretation in the Findings chapters. In addition to a detailed and specific analysis of a particular data extract, a more summative analysis was

also provided to illustrate "the broader content of the data set in relation to the theme" (Braun & Clarke, 2012, p. 67).

According to Braun and Clarke (2012), there are two ways to treat data extracts: illustratively or analytically. In the former approach, the analytic narrative provides a detailed description and interpretation of the theme so it still makes sense to readers if data extracts are removed. Data extracts are used to exemplify the analytic points researchers are claiming. In the latter approach, the content of data extracts and the analytic narrative are interwoven so the analysis will not make sense if data extracts are removed. In this case, the analytic narrative presents "specific interpretative claims about the *particular* extracts" (Braun & Clarke, 2013, p. 252). Both approaches were employed in the writing of data analysis in this thesis.

I began the process of formal report writing with these notes in mind. Along the way, I consulted several other dissertations and articles to revise the data analysis as editing is very important for scholarly works (Braun & Clarke, 2013).

5.4 Researcher reflexivity

Researcher reflexivity has long been considered an important element to guarantee rigour in qualitative research (Darawsheh, 2014). Researcher reflexivity is particularly important in case studies (Duff, 2019). The SAGE Dictionary of Qualitative Inquiry defines reflexivity as "the process of critical self-reflection on one's biases, theoretical predispositions, preferences, and so forth" (Schwandt, 2007, p. 261). In other words, researchers are supposed to specify how their personal, cultural, historical, and professional background motivates them to conduct the study and influence their interpretation of the data (Creswell & Poth, 2018). This process of reflection is expected to occur throughout a research project, "from the formulation of research ideas through to the publication of findings and, where this occurs, their utilization" (Jupp, 2006, p. 258) and can be elaborated on in different sections of a research report (Creswell & Poth, 2018). In this section, I reflect on my personal and professional background, its impacts on the focus of the study, the perspective taken, the research design, the data generation, and the interpretation of the results.

As outlined in Chapter 1, my motivation to conduct this study stemmed from my professional background as an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) lecturer, whose ESP duties were taken over by EMI content lecturers. Therefore, I had always been curious about English-medium teaching and the role of ESP in the presence of EMI (see Section 1.1 for details), which inspired me to investigate EMI lecturers' teaching practices.

In addition, my personal and professional experiences pointed to the complexities around one's rights and/or duties and one's real actions. As a lecturer, I was supposed to do my best to serve students' academic interests. However, due to my family circumstances, I could not dedicate much time and effort to my lessons and my students. My personal conditions had somehow limited my capacity to act despite my competencies as an awarded lecturer. These experiences led me to question the causal relationship between teacher expertise and teacher adaptation, which is often highlighted in teachers' instructional adaptation research. Hence, for this study I took the Positioning Theory perspective to investigate the phenomenon of EMI lecturers' teaching practices, particularly their instructional adaptation. Positioning Theory fits well with my personal orientations because it views lecturers' actions, particularly their teaching adaptations, not as indicators of their professional expertise, but rather as representations of their personal beliefs, or their positionings, in consideration of their personalities, their capabilities at that time in that place, and their contemporary teaching contexts (Harré, 2012) (see Section 4.2 for details).

As I believe in people's good nature and good intentions, I tend to think that lecturers always have the ability to do better if they want to, and if their circumstances allow them. Therefore, I chose to approach this study in a way that helps me understand the lecturers and their practices, rather than evaluating them. A case study research design helped me achieve this aim of gaining an in-depth understanding of EMI lecturers' pedagogical practices.

Being an insider in the Vietnamese educational culture, I was alerted to the hierarchical relationships and the nature of the research culture in the Vietnamese higher education system. This led me to look for potential participants in my age group and then approach them from the position of a lecturer, rather than a detached academic researcher,

requesting assistance from her colleagues in other universities (see Section 5.3.1.2 for details).

Despite my efforts to clarify the research purposes with the participants, I was fully aware that when the lecturers were communicating with me, they positioned themselves in relation to not only others in their teaching contexts but also to me as a language teacher and the researcher (Kayi-Aydar, 2021). The participants' concerns that I would evaluate their language competence or their practices of teaching in English were likely to influence their presentation of themselves as EMI lecturers, and their sharing about their EMI teaching practices. This relational nature of positioning was taken into consideration in the analysis and interpretation of the data in this study.

Furthermore, as a member of the Vietnamese collective culture, I was aware that I might not be able to find the lecturers' explicit positionings of themselves as instructed in Kayi-Aydar's (2021) framework for positioning analysis. The Vietnamese collective culture does not encourage the participants to speak about themselves as this or that, nor does it welcome commenting about someone, especially those of the same or higher status than the lecturers themselves. Therefore, the lecturers might not have been willing to answer questions about their evaluation of themselves or their colleagues, so although these questions were evident in the literature, they were not used in the interview protocols for this study.

When analysing interview data, my experience as a course coordinator enabled me to understand some of my participants' sharing from their management perspective. Without my professional experience, I might have taken their stories lightly. I would not have been able to grasp the complexities of the educational decision-making process in Vietnam, which involves not only academic issues but also cultural and interpersonal ones. This helped me to capture Tam's interactive positioning of senior lecturers as obstacles to educational innovations, which is presented in Chapter 7.

Through communication with the participants, I understood more about my roles and values as a language teacher in this educational innovation agenda in Vietnam, which I could not see at the start of my research project. As Reinharz (1997) has argued, researchers not only bring the self to the research field, but the self is also created there;

my multiple selves have inevitably influenced this research project and in return have been gradually shaped by it.

5.5 Language and translation

Since this research was conducted and reported in two different languages, i.e. Vietnamese and English respectively, it is necessary to discuss the issue of language differences (van Nes, Abma, Jonsson, & Deeg, 2010). Issues related to language use during data generation, transcription, data analysis and presentation are described in this section. By so doing, I also address the intentionality aspect of researching multilingually, as suggested by Andrews, Holmes, Fay, and Dawson (2019).

5.5.1 Language for data generation, transcription, and analysis

The role of the mother tongue in effectively communicating ideas has been widely acknowledged (UNESCO, 2017) and in conducting research, it enables participants to fully express themselves with ease, thus enhancing data quality (Hennink, 2008). Since the researcher and all participants in this study share Vietnamese as our mother tongue, Vietnamese was employed as the main language in the process of data generation and transcription to maximise comfort and understanding.

Vietnamese was also used in initial data analysis to minimise meaning loss due to translation (van Nes et al., 2010). Although initial data analysis was done in Vietnamese, final codes and themes were written in English to facilitate the research report writing process in this language. In the next section, I discuss the issue of translation.

5.5.2 Vietnamese-English translation of the interview and classroom data

Translation involves the interpretation of meaning, so the translation of research instruments and data extracts poses a risk to research trustworthiness. Therefore, the issue of translation presents a challenge that researchers in cross-cultural research should consider carefully (Liamputtong, 2008) to reduce the loss of meaning in the meaning-

transfer process (van Nes et al., 2010). This research adopted the following strategies to reduce the potential limitations of translation.

Firstly, as the researcher and translator in this research, my dual role allowed me to pay close attention to cross-cultural meanings and interpretations (Temple & Young, 2004) that an outsider to this research might have difficulty with. The knowledge of translation gained through my undergraduate studies in foreign language education, my skills as a freelance translator for six years, the cultural knowledge shared with the participants, and my direct involvement in data generation and analysis as the main researcher altogether empowered me to enhance the equivalence of meaning in the translation process.

Secondly, I used a back-translation procedure to improve the trustworthiness of my translations (van Nes et al., 2010). I sought assistance from a translation expert, who is also a staff member at the university in Vietnam where we both hold academic positions. She is a lecturer in translation studies, and also works as a freelance translator and interpreter. My colleague helped back-translate main findings and data extracts quoted in the Findings chapters. To ensure she understood the data sufficiently, prior to her back-translation, I provided her with essential information about my research, including the research aim, questions, philosophical assumptions, theoretical framework, and research design. After checking the back-translation results, my colleague and I discussed similarities and differences between our versions. Differences are often related to "specific culturally-bound words used by the participants" (van Nes et al., 2010, p. 315), the meaning of which are often ambiguous, rendering them difficult to translate into English. After we agreed on all translations, I systematically finalised all texts. Checks were also made with the thesis supervision panel who are native speakers of English regarding the clarity and appropriateness of the English expressions.

5.6 Research trustworthiness

Since qualitative research is based on different philosophical assumptions from quantitative research, some scholars have suggested different criteria to evaluate qualitative studies. Lincoln and Guba (1986) propose *trustworthiness* and *authenticity* as two criteria for assessing the rigour of a qualitative study. While the *trustworthiness*

criterion addresses both the conventional issues of validity and reliability in quantitative research, *authenticity* concerns "the wider political impact of research", which is controversial and has not been well-received in the academia (Bryman, 2012, p. 393). As a result of the strong inclination of authenticity towards practical outcomes from social research, which does not align with this study's research aims and objectives, the following discussion is confined to how the trustworthiness of this research was built and enhanced.

According to Lincoln and Guba (1986), there are four components of "trustworthiness", i.e., *credibility*, *transferability*, *dependability*, and *confirmability*, which are analogues to internal validity, external validity, reliability, and objectivity respectively.

Credibility concerns whether the researcher understands social reality correctly (Bryman, 2012). Research credibility can be enhanced in several ways (e.g., prolonged engagement, triangulation, member checks, reflexivity, peer examination, to name a few) (Krefting, 1991; Lincoln & Guba, 1986). In this project, credibility was first established via a clear conceptualisation of the studied phenomenon (Foddy, 1994), that is, three categories of EMI teaching practices (i.e., content, pedagogy, assessment) and a definition of EMI lecturers' instructional adaptation. Following this clarity, multiple triangulation was used as the main credibility booster, for completeness of understanding, rather than for the confirmation purpose for which triangulation is often employed in quantitative studies. Multiple triangulation was accomplished in this research via the use of a variety of data sources (i.e., six lecturer participants), various methods of data generation (i.e., classroom lesson recordings, semi-structured interviews, documentation), multiple observers (i.e., supervisors and myself), and multiple theoretical perspectives (my and my supervising panel's views). The latter two triangulation methods were an added benefit for a doctoral research project such as this one.

In addition to triangulation, throughout the research process, other techniques were employed to ensure the truth value of the research findings:

- Interview transcripts were sent to the participants for confirmation;
- Two HDR peers were invited to code some interview data with me;

- My research ideas and hunches regarding the data generation and analysis process were kept in a journal, and

- I elaborated on my personal values and beliefs that might have influenced how I viewed and understood the research topic (see Section 5.4).

The use of different techniques such as triangulation, member check, peer examination and reflexivity has definitely assisted me in obtaining a picture of the lecturer's instructional adaptation, and their EMI teaching practices in general, which are as accurate and comprehensive as possible.

Unlike *credibility*, the *transferability* criterion cannot be applied in a straightforward way to evaluate a qualitative study due to the highly contextualised nature and often non-representative sampling method of this research approach (Bryman, 2012; Krefting, 1991). Lincoln and Guba (1986) propose a thick description of the context as a way for research readers to make transferability judgements. Thick descriptive data were evidenced in this study via the provision of adequate information about the participants and the research context and setting in the Findings chapters.

Dependability relates to the consistency of findings (Guba, 1981) (as cited in as cited in Krefting, 1991) and that the research process is repeatable (Krefting, 1991) while *confirmability* is concerned with the researcher's good faith, in that the researcher does not allow his/her personal values and beliefs to sway his/her research conduct and distort the findings (Bryman, 2012). In fact, these two research qualities can be enhanced with the use of triangulation and peer examination (Bryman, 2012), the use of which in this study was discussed earlier. Additionally, to further promote the dependability and confirmability of a research project, Lincoln and Guba (1986) suggest using an audit trail, which delineates the procedures taken to generate data and to produce findings and conclusions. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985) (as cited in as cited in Krefting, 1991), an audit can include six categories of records:

(a) raw data (field notes, video and audio recordings), (b) data reduction and analysis products (quantitative summaries, condensed notes, working hypotheses), (c) data reconstruction and synthesis products (thematic categories,

interpretations, inferences), (d) process notes (procedures and design strategies, trustworthiness notes), (e) materials related to intentions and dispositions (study proposal, field journal), and (f) instrument development information (pilot forms, survey format, schedules) (p. 221)

Related to an audit trail, Lincoln and Guba (1986) also emphasise the significant role of an auditor who should be involved in the project from the beginning so that the audit can be performed throughout the research process. As a doctoral research project, this study again benefited from having my supervisors as the auditors, who had been examining, from the very beginning and throughout the research process, "how far proper procedures are being and have been followed", and "the degree to which theoretical inferences can be justified" (Patton, 2014, p. 392). This is truly a rare opportunity, given the demanding job of the auditors in a qualitative research project often with a large amount of data (Patton, 2014).

5.7 Ethical considerations

It is essential for qualitative research with human participants to apply stringent ethical rules to protect both participants and the researcher in the research process. This research project has been ethically guided by: (1) the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007), (2) the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research (2007), and (3) my university's compiled Guidelines for Human Research Ethics (2018). This research project was ethically approved by the Human Research Ethics Committee of the University of Technology Sydney on 12th October 2020 (Reference no. ETH20-4950) (see Appendix 1 for details).

According to Diener and Crandall (1978), ethical considerations in social research can be categorised into four areas: (1) harm to participants, (2) lack of informed consent, (3) invasion of privacy, and (4) deception. During the research process, ethical issues were addressed as follows.

Since this research did not require any planned deception, nor did it collect and disclose participants' personal and sensitive information, there was little potential harm to the

participants involved. Therefore, informed consent and privacy protection became two main ethical issues to consider in conducting this research.

Regarding the issue of informed consent, during participant recruitment, the potential participants were provided with a thorough explanation of the study's purpose, significance, and procedures to ensure their clear understanding of this study before deciding to participate.

To guarantee the transparency and legitimacy of this research, I contacted the Head of the faculty and the University Rector concerned for approval to conduct research in their institutions, before asking my personal acquaintances in the two institutions for recommendations of potential participants.

The potential participants were then contacted individually via the email addresses provided in their public profiles on the university websites, and thus they were under no peer or power pressure to participate in this research.

Furthermore, the participants' privacy was protected by removing all personal and identifiable information in the data preparation stage before data analysis. Pseudonyms were used to address the participants, their institutions, and names of places. Once the interviews were transcribed, the transcripts were sent to the associated participants for member checking. Also, the information generated in this research was treated with high confidentiality and was only accessible to me and my supervisors.

Summary

This chapter has detailed the methodology employed to conduct this study, which includes the interpretive research paradigm, embedded multiple-case study research design, methods and procedures of data collection and data analysis. Discussions were also provided regarding the strategies adopted to ensure this research's trustworthiness and ethical conduct, as well as my positionality as the main researcher and its impact on this study. This chapter is followed by three Findings chapters, corresponding to data generated from policy documents, interviews with two Program Coordinators, and

interviews and classroom recordings with the Chemistry and Law lecturers. Specifically, based on policy documents with additional information from two EMI Program Coordinators, Chapter 6 describes the normative background of EMI lecturers' practices in the two universities concerned. Chapters 7 and 8 then report the self-positionings, teaching practices, and adaptation strategies of the Chemistry and Law lecturers respectively.

CHAPTER 6:

THE NORMATIVE BACKGROUND OF EMI PRACTICES AT UNIVERSITIES A & B

Introduction

As explained in Section 4.3, which addresses the operationalisation of Positioning Theory in this study, this chapter examines EMI lecturers' rights and duties as prescribed in the broad socio-political culture of Vietnam, and in the national and institutional EMI policy documents. The primary focus is to describe the cultural, legal, and institutional moral orders, or the social structures that act as the normative background surrounding EMI practices in the two Universities A and B investigated. This exploration is important. As Van Langenhove (2017, p. 6) argues, "while in theory people have the liberty to do many different things at any time, the actual array of things judged to be proper to do in each situation is limited by the moral orders in play". Therefore, by uncovering lecturers' positionality in relation to the broader context in which they are situated, we will have "a clearer sense of who they are: the professional, cultural, political, and individual identities which they claim or which are assigned to them" (Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, & Johnson, 2005, p. 22). Such understanding, as Varghese et al. (2005) argue, is vital to understand teaching and learning. Through the lens of Positioning Theory and Van Langenhove's (2017) typology of moral orders, this chapter initially examines lecturers' rights and duties as they are positioned in the socio-political culture of Vietnam, using evidence from the educational literature. Then the chapter moves on to describing lecturers' rights and duties in EMI and general policy documents at the national (i.e., legal) and institutional levels, complemented with data from interviews with two EMI Program Coordinators where possible. The chapter ends with a summary of key findings.

6.1 Positioning EMI lecturers in the Vietnamese culture

As discussed in Chapter 2, the three ideologies currently at play in Vietnamese contemporary society are Confucianism, socialism, and neo-liberalism. These three ideological forces impact every aspect of life in Vietnamese society, including the operation of its higher education sector (Ngo, 2020). Confucianism is believed to play the biggest part among the three ideologies because of its long-standing existence in Vietnamese society (London, 2011). This explains why Confucianism is more often cited in the educational literature as "an important affective factor determining the roles and conducts of its [Vietnamese education's] stakeholders" (Nguyen, 2019, p. 24, explanation added), the filter of foreign influences on EMI practices in Vietnam (Tran et al., 2020), and one of the barriers to successful EMI implementation in the country (Le, 2012; Pham & Barnett, 2022). This section thus focuses on depicting teachers' positions in Vietnamese Confucian Heritage Culture (CHC), to produce a clearer understanding of the society's general beliefs about teachers' rights and duties.

The role of education and academic qualifications in Confucian Vietnam

To better comprehend the positioning of teachers in Vietnamese society, it is important to start with how Confucianism views education and academic qualifications. In Confucian societies, learning is associated with social benefits and moral virtue, rather than knowledge accumulation (Kim, 2009). There is a direct connection between knowledge and economic, social, and personal gains in CHCs (Li, 2016). In the feudal past, education enabled people's social status advancement or social mobility. In the modern day, in addition to social mobility, education also brings about career promotion, and thus higher professional status and income.

Furthermore, education has always been considered a powerful instrument to maintain socio-political order in CHC because education enables people to behave appropriately (Kim, 2009; Li & Hayhoe, 2012). Therefore, Confucianism has a high respect for education; teachers and the teaching profession are always positioned at the top in a Confucian hierarchical society (Tran et al., 2020). As evidence of education, Confucianism highly values academic qualifications (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Positioning teachers in Confucian Vietnam: Teachers as knowledge providers and moral exemplars

A review of the educational literature in Vietnam reveals two major positionings of teachers: knowledge providers and moral exemplars (Nguyen, 2019). The first assumed position of teachers in Vietnamese society is that they are respected knowledge providers, who hold and transmit knowledge to their students (Phuong-Mai et al., 2005). As a result of the respect attached to the teaching profession, teachers in Vietnam are entitled to priority salary payments as compared to other public servants (George, 2005), and students enrolling in education programs at universities have their tuition fees exempt. Furthermore, the position of a knowledge provider requires teachers to have good subject knowledge, and thus teachers often become the people students turn to for knowledge, information, and advice. Although teachers in Vietnam, especially in higher education, might no longer be considered "the one and the only" source of knowledge besides textbooks, the fact that Vietnamese students are generally not used to performing a large amount of home reading (Truong et al., 2020) means that they somehow still depend heavily on their teachers for knowledge. Positioning teachers as knowledge providers might also lead to downplaying students' roles in exploring and discovering knowledge for themselves. In other words, learner autonomy, and thus teachers' learning design skills or pedagogy in general, are traditionally not recognised and promoted in Confucian educational culture (Kim, 2009).

Being knowledge providers also tends to bring more credit to what a teacher says. As a result, students are not supposed to question or critique their teachers' statements. When students go to school, they expect to be taught and receive knowledge from their teachers (Lee, 1996). Teachers often draw out the intellectual paths for students to follow and initiate all communication (Hofstede et al., 2010) as teachers are assumed to know better and thus hold a superior position.

Additionally, teaching in the CHC is the process of teachers guiding students in the correct ways, so it is common for teachers to exercise their authority (Biggs, 1998). Students are supposed to obey their teachers' commands and fulfil their requests. CHC students, as a result, are placed in the position of obedient knowledge recipients, who

would rarely demonstrate their critical thinking (Ho, 1994). They tend to be used to and prefer teacher-centred pedagogical approaches as they often get perplexed if given self-control in their learning (Chan, 1999). Although there is research evidence demonstrating Vietnamese lecturers' more popular adoption of student-centred teaching techniques, which aim at promoting students' academic self-regulation (Nghia & Tran, 2020), there are also research findings indicating Vietnamese students' unfamiliarity with exercising their power and autonomy (Tran et al., 2020). These findings seem to suggest that the past practices of CHC learners remain prevalent in the Vietnamese HE system.

As knowledge in CHC comprises not only scholarly content knowledge, but also moral virtues, knowledge about rights and wrongs, and socially accepted behaviours, teachers in Confucianism are also expected to be moral exemplars, not only within classroom territories but also in their private lives (Phuong-Mai et al., 2005). These moral expectations are even codified in Decision no. 16, issued in 2008 by Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) providing regulations on Vietnamese teacher ethics. The objective of the Decision is stated as follows:

> Extract 6.1:
>
> Regulations about teacher ethics provide guidelines for teachers to strive for self-training in accordance with their highly socially respected teaching profession and also act as a benchmark to evaluate, classify and supervise teachers, to build the teaching staff with strong political will, clear professional conscience and virtues, learning enthusiasm and constant professional development, a healthy lifestyle and standard behaviours, who are really examples for their students to follow.

(Art. 2)

Specifically, Decision no. 16 has regulations on teachers' political virtues, professional ethics, lifestyles and manners, and preserving and protecting teachers' ethical traditions. According to this Decision, teachers are supposed to be committed and devoted to their work, treating their students fairly, accurately assessing students' competencies, living and working economically, in addition to complying with other requirements such as their attitudes towards colleagues and students, working style and manners, and costumes and jewellery at work (Articles 4 and 5). In accordance with Vietnam's collectivist culture, with the spirit of one for all, teachers are often publicly praised for their sacrifices for their students (if any). Such sacrifices could exist in many forms, but the most common is that of teachers' free time and family time, or their limited income, to support any needy students.

In brief, teachers in Vietnamese Confucian culture are socially respected as not only knowledge providers, but also moral exemplars. The Vietnamese culture strongly emphasises teachers' knowledge, which is of the utmost importance for a good teacher. Therefore, evidence of teachers' accumulation of knowledge, and possibly skills, as demonstrated by their qualifications and certificates, is highly valued in the Vietnamese mentality. There is much truth in Hofstede et al.'s (2010) argument that "[t]he social acceptance that comes with the diploma is more important than the individual self-respect that comes with mastering a subject" (p. 119). Although teachers everywhere indeed accumulate knowledge to transmit knowledge to their students, the positioning of teachers as knowledge providers might hinder the diversification of teacher roles advocated by modern teaching approaches. In order to understand teachers' rights and duties specifically related to EMI, the following section focuses on depicting EMI lecturers' positionings in the national and institutional policy documents.

6.2 Positioning EMI lecturers in national and institutional policies

6.2.1 An overview of data analysis

As discussed in Section 2.2, Governance of Vietnamese HEIs, HEIs in Vietnam are under the academic management of Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training (MOET). Besides MOET, the main decision-making body in education, the Government of Vietnam, the Prime Minister, and the National Assembly might also issue decisions and codes binding on all HEIs concerned. Once HEIs receive policies from these national bodies, they will interpret those policies for implementation and if necessary, issue further policy documents for use within their institutions. The following section focuses first on data analysis at the national/legal level (e.g., the Government of Vietnam and MOET) to explore the rights and duties of EMI lecturers as they are positioned in national policy documents. The analysis then triangulates with policy documents (at the institutional level) of Universities A and B (the participating institutions in this study) to examine how these stakeholders interpret the teacher positioning from the Government of Vietnam and MOET.

At the national level (i.e., the Prime Minister and MOET), data sources for the following analysis came from policy documents including decisions and circulars, which directly impact EMI implementation in HEIs. Since EMI lecturers' work is regulated by not only EMI policies but also general policies governing the rights and duties of every lecturer, these general policies, where relevant, are also examined.

At the institutional level, data included academic regulations of University AB (i.e., the "principal" university, see Section 5.3.1 for details), curricula, and 60-minute interviews with two EMI Program Coordinators (one from University A and one from University B) (see Section 5.3.1.2 for details about the role of an EMI Program Coordinator). At University B (i.e., Law discipline), there was indeed no Program Coordinator for its High-Quality Program, but there was a team facilitating the development of English-taught programs within the university (the so-called EMI facilitation team). Thus, the leader of this team was invited to participate in this study under the same role as an EMI Program Coordinator. Since these Program Coordinators were not decision-makers regarding EMI policies within their institutions, their voices were included, where relevant, to provide further information about their institutional policies. Below is the list of documents analysed at the national and institutional levels (Table 6.1).

The analysis began with national documents issued by the Prime Minister and MOET, using key constructs of Positioning Theory (i.e., duties and rights) to identify teacher positioning at the national/legal level. As can be seen from the list of documents below, there are policies effective during this study's data collection period, but became invalid during the period of thesis write-up. Therefore, both the outdated and newly released policies were reviewed and compared for similarities and differences regarding EMI lecturers' rights and duties. These pre-identified categories were then triangulated with the data analysis from institutional policy documents to explore the similarities and differences in interpreting teacher positioning from the national/legal level.

Table 6.1: List of reviewed policies at the national and institutional levels

No.	Level	Document title	Issued by	Description
1	National/legal	Decision no. 1505/QD-TTg on Ratifying the Advanced Programs Project in some Vietnamese universities in the period 2008-2015 (and the related project description attached)	Prime Minister	Overall description of and related regulations on the Advanced Programs Project
2	National/legal	Circular no. 23/2014/TT-BGDDT on Regulations on High-Quality tertiary educational programs	Ministry of Education and Training	Regulations on High-Quality Programs
3	National/legal	Decision no. 72/2014/QD-TTg on Regulations on teaching and learning in a foreign language in schools and other educational institutions	Prime Minister	General regulations on teaching and learning in a foreign language in Vietnam
4	National/legal	Circular no. 47/2014/TT-BGDDT on regulations on working regime for lecturers at higher education institutions (effective from 31 Dec 2014 to 10 Sep 2020)	Ministry of Education and Training	Regulations on lecturers' working hours and other work duties
5	National/legal	Circular no. 20/2022/TT-BGDDT on regulations on working regime for lecturers at higher education institutions (effective from 11 Sep 2020 to present)	Ministry of Education and Training	As above
6	Institutional	Academic Regulations 2014 (effective from December 2014 to 20 October 2022)	President of Mother University AB	Regulations on academic matters for all member universities regarding curricula, program duration; organisation and management of academic affairs; student research; rights and obligations of lecturers, academic advisors, and students; assessment, tests and evaluation of learning; certification of graduation
7	Institutional	Academic Regulations 2022 (effective from 21 Oct 2022 to present)	President of Mother University AB	As above
8	Institutional	Regulations on working regime for lecturers 2017 (effective from 1 June 2017 to 31 Dec 2021)	President of Mother University AB	Regulations on lecturers' working hours and work duties
9	Institutional	Regulations on working regime for lecturers (effective from 1 Jan 2022 to present)	President of Mother University AB	Regulations on lecturers' working hours and work duties
10	Institutional	Curriculum for the Advanced Program in Chemistry 2019	President of Mother University AB	Overall information about the Advanced Program in Chemistry at University A
11	Institutional	Curriculum for the High-Quality Program in Law 2019	President of Mother University AB	Overall information about the High- Quality Program in Law at University B

6.2.2 Positioning EMI lecturers in national and institutional policies: EMI lecturers as highly qualified teachers and pedagogical innovators

An analysis of EMI policy documents at the national and institutional levels revealed two consistent positionings of EMI lecturers: (1) as **highly qualified teachers** and (2) as **pedagogical innovators** in the Vietnamese HE system. These two positionings have a reciprocal and possibly causal relationship. In fact, "highly qualified teachers" can be understood as the prepositioning of EMI lecturers in the policy documents. This prepositioning justifies the stipulated assignment of rights and duties that follow. On the one hand, as highly competent teachers, EMI lecturers are socially expected, legally, and somehow morally, obliged to apply innovative teaching and assessment methods, and utilise modern technologies in their teaching. In other words, they are supposed to make educational innovations and bring about positive changes to improve their teaching-learning environment. On the other hand, to act as pedagogical innovators, lecturers must be competent in their job, as evidenced by, especially in Vietnam's CHC, their qualifications. Accordingly, the following sections first describe the recruitment criteria of lecturers for EMI programs, which have important implications for their EMI rights and duties, before presenting lecturers' rights and duties in detail.

6.2.2.1 Criteria to recruit EMI lecturers: evidence for Highly Qualified Teachers

As stated in the Higher Education Reform Agenda (Government of Vietnam, 2005b), the goal of the Vietnamese HE sector was to have 40% of the academic staff obtaining a Master's degree and 25% a Doctoral degree by 2010. By 2020, it is expected that 60% would have a Master's degree, and 35% a doctorate. Given the modest ratio of highly qualified academic staff, the recruitment criteria for lecturers in the two EMI programs investigated can be seen as much higher than average. In particular, the Advanced Program project approved in 2008 requires its lecturers to "have Masters degrees and above, adequate professional knowledge, skills and English to meet teaching requirements" (Government of Vietnam, 2008b, p. 3). The professional skills referred to are explained in other parts of the text as research and teaching skills, including the skills to apply IT in teaching and research. While these skills can somehow be associated with lecturers' qualifications (meaning that qualifications provide evidence of adequate

knowledge and skills for their teaching job), it is unclear in this Decision which level of English language proficiency is deemed adequate for lecturers to teach content subjects in English.

It was not until July 2014, after the issuance of the Vietnamese framework for evaluation of foreign language competencies, that EMI lecturers' English language proficiency requirements were specified. This time lecturers' professional knowledge and skills requirements were raised, as stated in Circular no. 23/2014/TT-BGDDT on High-Quality Programs (HQPs) below:

Extract 6.2:

Lecturers of High-Quality Programs:

a. Have Masters' degrees and above. Specifically, lecturers instructing content courses of the disciplinary group and sub-group must possess Doctoral degrees or academic titles of Professors, Associate Professors, or Masters' degrees from universities in developed countries in the same or close discipline (for some unique disciplines);

b. Have professional and research competences in accordance with requirements of the High-Quality Programs; have minimum three-year teaching experience in the discipline of the High-Quality Program; have effective teaching methods; can apply IT well in teaching and research;

c. Lecturers teaching content subjects in English, in addition to the requirements in points a and b of this article, must have foreign language proficiency at level 5/6 or above according to the Vietnamese framework of foreign language competences (or an equivalent) or graduate from overseas undergraduate programs or higher in the same language;

(MOET, 2014a, p. 39)

Decision no. 72/2014/QD-TTg (about regulations on teaching and learning in foreign languages in schools and other educational institutions) issued at the end of 2014 clarifies "graduate from overseas undergraduate programs or higher" as "those graduating from undergraduate, Masters and Doctoral programs overseas" (Government of Vietnam, 2014). However, this Decision omits the phrase "in the same language" in Circular no. 23, which creates a legal loophole that some universities have exploited when they experience a shortage of lecturers for EMI programs (see Section 2.5.2.1 for details).

While Universities A and B in this study conformed to the lecturers' recruitment criteria as stated by law, University B attempted to take it a step further by organising micro-teaching review sessions to ensure the short-listed lecturers could teach well in English. A panel of a department member, an English language expert, and a member of the EMI facilitation team evaluated these review sessions. Short-listed lecturers had to pass those

micro-teaching sessions to be eligible for English-medium instruction at the university. The reasoning behind these micro-teaching review sessions was mainly for quality assurance. However, this practice also sent an implicit message that from University B's perspective, overseas graduation might not guarantee an appropriate level of ELP to teach well in English, as the leader of the EMI facilitation team elaborated:

Extract 6.3:

In fact we have many young lecturers graduating from English-speaking countries, but not many of them can teach in English because you know, when doing PhD abroad people don't need to use technical English to communicate, most of the time they just read and write. If they didn't tutor, teach or participate much in professional activities in English, their spontaneous communication wouldn't be good, they wouldn't be able to speak English. (Han, EMI facilitation team leader)

The Program Coordinator of the Advanced Program (AP) in Chemistry at University A shared a similar viewpoint that overseas graduation is not a good indicator of lecturers' competence to teach in English. This awareness by both Program Coordinators suggested that Universities A and B might have implemented more stringent criteria to select lecturers for their EMI programs, compared to stipulated requirements, because these Program Coordinators often provide practical information to assist their managers in the decision-making process. Nevertheless, despite that awareness, University B could only conduct two micro-teaching review sessions due to several objective and subjective reasons.

Extract 6.4:

We were all swept away by our workload and in fact, we found that this practice was a bit superficial because putting lecturers, who had been teaching for so many years, under review, everyone was not comfortable about that. Also review sessions and real class teaching are so much different. When you do a review teaching session, you do it in front of a panel with different expertise, which is different from teaching in front of students, not to mention teaching in English. (Han, EMI facilitation team leader - Law)

While the former academic regulations of the "principal" university (to which Universities A and B belong) (hereafter University AB) did not mention selection criteria for lecturers in APs or HQPs, the newly released regulations have included some guidelines on selecting lecturers for gifted and High-Quality programs. Possibly holding the same perspective as that adopted by the two Program Coordinators, instead of referring to qualifications, academic titles or overseas graduation, the new regulations just use words such as "good, competent, good research record, experienced in teaching

and supervising students to do research" to describe the necessary qualities of lecturers of special programs. Lecturers' adequate research competency as stipulated in national documents is now interpreted as a "good research record", which is to some extent more tangible, but might not be clear enough. The other qualitative descriptors (i.e., good, competent, experienced) are left open to member universities to consult the relevant national policies.

In brief, lecturers in EMI programs are required by law and their institutions to obtain at least Masters' degrees, or Doctoral degrees if they are teaching disciplinary specialised subjects. These lecturers are not only expected to be knowledgeable, but also experienced in teaching and doing research, with at least three-year experience in teaching in their discipline. With these strong professional qualities, especially with overseas learning experiences, lecturers in EMI programs are expected to act as pedagogical innovators within their teaching programs and the Vietnamese HE system at large. The following sections will describe EMI lecturers' stipulated rights and duties in detail.

6.2.2.2 EMI lecturers' rights

An analysis of policy documents at the national and institutional levels reveals four types of rights that EMI lecturers in APs or HQPs might be granted: (1) higher payment, (2) more professional development opportunities, (3) more career promotion opportunities, and (4) more favourable conditions for research conduct. However, while the higher payment is certain, the other entitlements appear to be potential rather than definite. Therefore, the following sections group these possible rights (i.e., no. 2, 3, and 4 above) together, and thus discuss only two groups of rights: higher pay and other possible rights.

6.2.2.2.1 Higher pay

Analysis of the national and institutional policies revealed that higher payment is the only right EMI lecturers in the APs and HQPs consistently gain. Nevertheless, this entitlement is neither explicitly stated in the AP project nor in Circular 23 on HQPs. Instead, both these policies leave it open for the HEIs involved to decide on a payment scheme for EMI lecturers.

Examination of MOET's other policies (i.e., Circular 47/2014/TT-BGDDT and its updated version - Circular 20/2020/TT-BGDDT on working regime for lecturers at HEIs) shows that a lesson taught in English (except for the English language subjects) equals 1.5 to two lessons taught in Vietnamese. In other words, EMI lecturers are entitled to 1.5 to twice as much pay as VMI lecturers for one lesson.

At the institutional level, payment for EMI lecturers seems to be a matter of the member universities concerned. While University AB's former regulations on lecturers' working regime set the ceiling pay at twice as much pay for EMI lecturers as VMI lecturers for one lesson, its newly released regulations have left this matter out. Nevertheless, the new regulations do mention financial benefits for EMI lecturers supervising students' research. In particular, if supervising EMI students' study and research, EMI lecturers are entitled to an extra payment of three lessons per month, per group of one to three students.

In general, given the more demanding task of teaching in English, it is a common stipulation that EMI lecturers are entitled to more financial benefits than lecturers in VMI programs. Although the general rule of thumb is one and a half to twice as much pay for one EMI lesson as a VMI lesson, the exact amount that EMI lecturers receive for teaching in APs and HQPs depends on their HEI's budget. The next section will discuss other rights that EMI lecturers might be entitled to; these relate to professional development, research conduct, and career advancement.

6.2.2.2.2. Other possible rights

Analysis of national and institutional EMI policies pointed to three other rights that EMI lecturers at University AB might be entitled to: more professional development opportunities, more favourable conditions for research, and a possibility to become a tenured lecturer or to be promoted to a higher lecturer rank. However, these rights are dependent on many factors, and thus do not seem to constitute a strong obligation on the part of the HEIs concerned.

At the national level, the AP project promised more professional development (PD) opportunities and more favourable research conditions for its EMI lecturers. Listed

measures were sending lecturers on short training programs overseas, or organising courses to enhance lecturers' professional skills, teaching and assessment methods, improving English language abilities, and ensuring lecturers' research time at a minimum of 40% of their working hours. However, it should be understood that PD opportunities and favourable research conditions were only available when the project was in operation. Since the government withdrew its financial subsidy for APs in 2015, funding for professional development for EMI lecturers in APs has been left under the control of the HEIs concerned, and thus was much more limited. According to the Program Coordinator of the AP in Chemistry, since 2013, there have been no overseas training programs for EMI lecturers. Short domestic training courses are also rare now that lecturers have been used to teaching in English; hence, there is no pressuring need for University A to organise these events.

As for HQPs, Circular no. 23 in fact does not mention any right to which EMI lecturers are entitled, be it a higher pay, a PD opportunity, or supportive research conditions. However, at the institutional level, University AB's former and current academic regulations mention priority given to lecturers in HQP when considering domestic and overseas PD opportunities. Additionally, the new regulations stated:

> Extract 6.5:
>
> Being given priority in the selection of granted research topics; priority in PD opportunities both in and outside the country; participation in scientific councils, advisory councils, councils of compiling textbooks and lectures and their appraisal.
>
> Being given priority in selection and nomination to participate in the exam to raise the rank of lecturers; or being given priority to be recruited as tenured lecturers if the lecturers are still on short-term contracts.
>
> (University AB's academic regulations in 2022, p. 33)

Indeed, the realisation of the above rights is conditioned by various factors and in the end, decisions are left to the member universities concerned. For example, an interview with the leader of the EMI facilitation team revealed there had never been such PD opportunities for EMI lecturers at University B. Most PD opportunities, if any, have been self-initiated and self-regulated. Regarding raising lecturers' rank or recruiting tenured lecturers, these activities are indeed stipulated in other policy documents. Lecturers who satisfy the requirements are often automatically placed on the list for examination and

consideration, so teaching in English alone might not be a major priority for EMI lecturers.

In short, except for higher pay, there does not seem to be a solid ongoing PD scheme or any other rights mandated for EMI lecturers in APs and HQPs at the national level. At the institutional level, while there are some stated priorities, these cannot be guaranteed because these priorities seem to be dependent on many factors to be realised. Nevertheless, given higher financial benefits, it is very likely that EMI lecturers in APs and HQPs are expected to take on heavier duties than lecturers in VMI programs. The following section will explain the duties of EMI lecturers in APs and HQPs more fully.

6.2.2.3 EMI lecturers' duties

The analysis of national and institutional policies produced four categories of duties for EMI lecturers: (1) (teaching) content, (2) pedagogy, (3) assessment, and (4) research. However, because of the important role of language use in EMI, as specified in the literature, I deliberately looked for evidence related to language use in the policy documents, and thus added a fifth section to the list of EMI teacher duties presented above. Content analysis of the policies reveals that although the four categories of duties (from 1 to 4) apply to all lecturers at the tertiary level, the content in each category varies between EMI lecturers and lecturers in standard Vietnamese-medium instruction programs. Generally, EMI lecturers are required to teach more updated and more difficult content, in English, using more modern teaching and assessment methods.

6.2.2.3.1 Content

At the national level, since reform in teaching content is the first important aspect mentioned in the Higher Education Reform Agenda, the APs were developed in accordance with programs in the top 200 universities in popular international ranking systems. It is stipulated that lecturers in the APs use textbooks and teaching materials from foreign-partnered universities, especially for disciplinary courses. AP lecturers are also supposed to select teaching content that is "advanced, compatible with Vietnam's socio-economic development orientation, and suitable with the capacity of the

Vietnamese university concerned" (Government of Vietnam, 2008b, p. 22). The phrase "advanced content" is loosely used without any specific references. It is unclear whether "advanced" means updated, more difficult, more comprehensive, more practical content, or it is just because of its attachment to world-renowned universities and the English language.

Similarly, at the institutional level, "deep", "new", and "modern" are the words applied to knowledge in the AP in Chemistry curriculum. The program objectives state that students will be able to master "deep chemistry and chemical technology knowledge" and will have "firm knowledge about some new and modern knowledge and can quickly process it" (AP in Chemistry curriculum, 2019). From this extract, AP lecturers are certainly expected to go beyond basic, core, foundational, and traditional content, by including some in-depth disciplinary knowledge.

Regarding HQPs, national policies do not require lecturers to transmit a higher level of content than the mainstream VMI programs. Instead, the focus is clearly on the practical side of knowledge, as detailed course guides are supposed to be developed based on "consultation with alumni and employer representatives" (MOET, 2014a). At the institutional level, the curriculum of the HQP in Law demonstrates its practical side by including several professional skills courses, and more practicum opportunities, which nevertheless are not conducted in English. Additionally, the specialised subjects that are taught in English have similar credits as the equivalent courses in Vietnamese. Therefore, it can be inferred that EMI lecturers in the HQP in Law are supposed to teach knowledge of the same difficulty level as that in the standard VMI program, but in English. An interview with the leader of the EMI facilitation team in Law did not reveal any further expectations about EMI teaching content from University B's academic management board. Nevertheless, she mentioned University B's newly added requirement of providing compulsory reading materials in English in EMI course guides, in addition to the existent Vietnamese ones. This practice is encouraged rather than mandated by the "principal" university (University AB's academic regulations, 2022).

In brief, there are different requirements for teaching content for AP and HQP EMI lecturers. While AP lecturers are supposed to transmit more difficult, more advanced, and

in-depth specialised knowledge than the standard VMI programs, HQP lecturers can just teach the same knowledge as offered in their usual VMI courses. The next section discusses the "pedagogy" duty of EMI lecturers.

6.2.2.3.2 Pedagogy

While the national and institutional policies might not be very transparent about the content requirements of EMI courses in the APs and HQPs, they appear to be more explicit about the pedagogy expected from EMI lecturers. Vietnam's Higher Education Reform Agenda (HERA) states that the HE sector needs to conduct reforms in education and training methods "through equipping learners with learning strategies, promoting learner autonomy, and utilizing IT and communication technologies in teaching and learning" (Government of Vietnam, 2005b, p. 3). The government's guidelines are then specified in the description of the AP project as the student-centred teaching approach incorporating the use of modern equipment and specialised software for teaching (Government of Vietnam, 2008b). Nevertheless, the AP project description does not elaborate on the principles or components of the student-centred teaching approach. It is only in its critique of traditional teaching methods in the rationale for the development of APs that readers might get a sense of what the student-centred teaching approach, in the government policymakers' view, possibly entails:

> Extract 6.6:
>
> Teaching methods are backward, ineffective, stressing knowledge transmission while neglecting instruction on learning strategies, skills and attitude (…).
>
> Teaching methods are still very much about lecturers' reading and students' note-taking, not considering students as the centre, not promoting students' independent and critical thinking, not encouraging students' active engagement in lessons, focusing on in-class hours while lacking time to self-study, do practice tasks, perform apprenticeship or experience practicum.
>
> (pp. 2-3)

It can be inferred from the extract above that the student-centred teaching methods promoted by APs, and thus required of EMI lecturers in APs, involve balancing theoretical knowledge and skills training, promoting students' active participation in knowledge construction with their independent and critical thinking, and allocating more time to students' self-study and practice. Circular no. 23 on HQPs then elaborates a little further on the skills training aspect of the student-centred teaching approach, with

reference to enhancing "soft skills training, teamwork skills, presentation skills, and skills of using modern facilities and specialised software to address professional tasks" (Art. 12).

At the institutional level, while there are no particular references to teaching methods in the two curricula concerned, University AB's new academic regulations stress that teaching in High-Quality and gifted programs needs enhancement of teacher-students' co-construction of knowledge, increased use of technologies, and students' self-study under lecturers' guidance and supervision. Specifically, it stipulates:

> Extract 6.7:
>
> Flexible application of advanced teaching methods and modern teaching technologies; increase in presentations together with conversations; group discussions; utilisation of modern technology and facilities to promote learners' active exploration of knowledge with high-level cognitive functions.
>
> In-class instruction accounts for maximum 70% of the total length of a course, leaving the remaining time for students to self-study, but lecturers have to provide content, schedule and materials for students' self-study, and have to plan and assess students' self-study; increase the amount of information input for each lesson.
>
> (University AB's academic regulations, 2022, pp. 25-26)

In short, EMI lecturers in APs and HQPs are generally required to adopt student-centred teaching methods in their teaching. Specifically, three highlighted dimensions of the new teaching approach are: (1) a balance between knowledge transmission and skills training, (2) the promotion of learner autonomy via encouraging students' active participation in knowledge construction and designing learning tasks that foster independent, critical and creative thinking, and (3) the utilisation of modern technologies and facilities to facilitate effective teaching and learning. The next section discusses the third category of EMI teacher duties: assessment duties.

6.2.2.3.3 Assessment

Assessment in EMI programs is vaguely described in policy documents at the national level. Except for a clear requirement of designing and conducting assessment tasks and activities in the same foreign language as the language of instruction (Government of Vietnam, 2014), the word "modern" is exclusively used to describe assessment methods in the APs:

Extract 6.8:

Apply modern assessment methods in the learning and testing process and final exams; arrange for students to evaluate lecturers, using the foreign partner's form for evaluating courses and lecturers. (Government of Vietnam, 2008b, p. 20)

"Modern assessment methods" are also required of EMI lecturers in the HQPs with a view to:

Extract 6.9:

Developing analysis capabilities, practice, creativity, self-update of knowledge; capabilities of research and applying science and technologies, on the basis of objectivity, transparency, flexibility, and compatibility with course and curriculum objectives. (Art. 12)

While Circular no. 23 has clarified different objectives of modern assessment methods, assessment forms or formats are left open to HEIs and EMI lecturers. At the institutional level, University AB's academic regulations do not contain any specific assessment requirements for lecturers in EMI programs. Instead, they stipulate obligations that every lecturer in member universities must comply with. For example, course evaluation composes of formative and summative assessments. Summative assessment is compulsory and accounts for no less than 60% of the total course evaluation result, while formative assessment includes continuous and mid-term assessments. For continuous assessment, lecturers can use different assessment techniques to examine students' mastery of knowledge and skills as specified in the course objectives so that lecturers can adjust their teaching accordingly. Conversely, mid-term assessment acts as a type of summative assessment to evaluate students' objective fulfilment at a certain stage of the course. End-course assessment could be open-ended questions, multiple-choice questions, oral examinations, assignments, or a combination of these formats.

In brief, national and institutional policies do not seem to confine EMI lecturers in APs and HQPs to any form or format of course assessment as long as, in the case of Universities A and B, the assessment components follow the structure specified by University AB's academic regulations. Nevertheless, EMI lecturers are encouraged to use various assessment methods and techniques rather than just traditional tests and exams to measure students' competencies more accurately and to foster students' development of professional skills and high-order thinking skills. Assessment, pedagogy, and content

altogether constitute the EMI lecturers' teaching duties. The next section deals with a category of duties specifically applied to tertiary lecturers: research duties.

6.2.2.3.4 Research

Research is a compulsory activity required of all lecturers in Vietnamese HEIs. According to Circular no. 47/2014 and then Circular no. 20/2020 by MOET (about the working regime for lecturers at HEIs), every lecturer must spend a third of their total working hours (i.e., 586 hours per year) on research duties and have to fulfil their yearly research obligations to enjoy certain benefits.

For lecturers in APs and HQPs, their research duties are mandated more strongly than those in standard VMI programs. In particular, lecturers in APs must spend at least 40% (i.e., 704 hours) of their total working time on research, and have to publish yearly in specialised journals (mainly foreign journals) (Government of Vietnam, 2008b). Circular no. 23 on HQPs limits this annual publication requirement to individual tenured lecturers in disciplinary and specialised subjects of HQPs only, not all lecturers involved in HQPs. Furthermore, this Circular also mentions that every year, lecturers and students in HQPs must have at least one research project in collaboration with external organisations, businesses, or manufacturing plants related to the major of the HQPs (MOET, 2014a). Nevertheless, this regulation seems to apply to all lecturers and students in a cohort, rather than individual lecturers or students. Thus, this obligation might be easily satisfied once the annual publication requirement of individual tenured lecturers of specialised subjects is fulfilled.

At the institutional level, there are no specific research requirements for EMI lecturers at Universities A or B, but only general obligations that apply to all lecturers in these institutions. According to University AB, every lecturer in its member universities has to spare at least 600 hours per year for research activities. Over the three years of 2022-2024, every lecturer is required to fulfil either of the following research tasks (University AB's regulations on working regime for lecturers, 2022):

Extract 6.10:

(1) at least one publication in Web of Science or Scopus-indexed journals;

(2) one monograph or two book chapters in a foreign language, published by reputable international publishers or publishing houses of universities on the top 1000 world university ranking;

(3) one patent according to Vietnamese, or American, European, or North-Eastern Asian Patent standards;

(4) one utility solution patent.

From 2025 onwards, University AB's lecturers are required to publish one research article in Web of Science or Scopus-indexed journals every two consecutive years.

In short, the comparative content analysis of national and institutional regulations on research duties of EMI lecturers in APs and HQPs has revealed national policymakers' higher expectations of EMI lecturers' research time and productivity. The next section deals with a potential duty that only applies to EMI lecturers, i.e., duty of language use.

6.2.2.3.5 Language use

Unlike teaching content, pedagogy, assessment, and research, there are in fact no specific regulations on language use in national and institutional EMI policies examined. This is because when the AP project file and Circular no. 23 on HQPs mention courses delivered in English, they mean lecturers have to use English to teach those courses. In other words, English-only is undoubtedly an assumed policy. This explains the reason why the evaluation of the two-year pilot phase of the AP, as stated in the AP project file, cited the use of Vietnamese or both Vietnamese and English in EMI courses in some universities at the time as one of the weaknesses that needed addressing when the AP project moved onto the official phase in 2008.

Nevertheless, despite the English-only assumption and the governmental and institutional awareness of many lecturers' utilisation of both Vietnamese and English in their EMI courses, a question remains why neither national nor institutional policymakers make it an official and explicit requirement of EMI lecturers to use English-only in EMI classrooms.

Summary

This chapter has elaborated on the positionings of Vietnamese EMI lecturers at the cultural, legal, and institutional levels, with a view to describing the normative background of EMI practices in Universities A and B. Drawing on the concepts of rights and duties in Positioning Theory and the typology of moral orders proposed by Van Langenhove (2017), EMI lecturers' rights and duties have been analysed from the relevant literature and documentation data. Specifically, documents and policies related to the CHC educational culture in Vietnam and EMI-related policy documents at the national and institutional levels were consulted.

Data analysis revealed two positionings of Vietnamese teachers in general at the cultural level: teachers as knowledge providers and teachers as moral exemplars. While these two positionings have enabled teachers to perform their educational duties, these positionings might also present an obstacle to the changes in teacher roles and duties characterised in the student-centred teaching approach advocated by Vietnam's Higher Education Reform Agenda and EMI policies. At the national and institutional levels, EMI lecturers are positioned as highly qualified teachers and pedagogical innovators in their institutions and the HE system at large. Data analysis also established EMI lecturers' limited extra rights while bearing heavier teaching and research duties in APs and HQPs. Except for higher pay, EMI lecturers in APs and HQPs tend to receive no other certain rights, while their stipulated duties range from teaching harder, more advanced content in English, using more modern, student-centred teaching and assessment methods, to producing more research output yearly. The two following chapters will explore the other layer of moral orders, i.e., personal moral orders, where the participant lecturers' self- and interactive positionings, along with their EMI practices, are examined.

CHAPTER 7:

CHEMISTRY LECTURERS' POSITIONINGS & PRACTICES IN EMI

Introduction

Against the backdrop of national and institutional policies on EMI implementation in Vietnam and the two tertiary institutions concerned, as described in Chapter 6, this chapter reports findings from the interview and classroom data of three Chemistry lecturers in University A. Under the analytical lens of Positioning Theory, the lecturers' positionings and reasoning underlying their practices are unveiled. The focus is then on highlighting the lecturers' instructional adaptations in EMI as compared to their VMI (Vietnamese-medium instruction) pedagogical practices. Organised according to three main categories of teacher duties (i.e., (teaching) content, pedagogy, and assessment), the three lecturers' most common self-positionings, as evidenced in their descriptions of their rights/duties and classroom practices, were as (1) *content knowledge providers,* (2) *traditional lecturers or pedagogical innovators, and* (3) *solely content assessors*.

Before presenting a detailed analysis of the positioning and teaching analysis of the three lecturers, a depiction of the local contextual factors and the lecturers' personal features surrounding their practices is necessary to better understand their reasoning and teaching. This depiction also serves as a case description. Therefore, this chapter first describes the case (University A, its Faculty of Chemistry, the Advanced Program in Chemistry, the three Chemistry lecturers, and their EMI courses), and then provides a detailed analysis of the lecturers' positionings and EMI teaching practices.

7.1 A case description

7.1.1 University A and its Faculty of Chemistry

University A is a mono-disciplinary higher education institution located in a cosmopolitan city in Vietnam. Its academic focus is natural sciences, ranging from pure hard subjects such as Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, to applied sciences such as Pharmaceutical Chemistry and Environmental Technology. University A is one of the most prestigious public universities in Vietnam, graduating high-quality students in natural sciences disciplines, many of whom are eligible for direct admission into postgraduate programs in foreign HE institutions in Japan, France, and the USA. Its three campuses serve approximately 7,500 undergraduate and postgraduate students, and the full-time undergraduate students per tenured lecturer ratio ranges from seven to 14 depending on discipline.

According to its website, University A undertakes the mission of a research university, producing a high-quality workforce in sciences and technology for Vietnam. It aims to become one of South-East Asia's advanced research universities by 2035, and towards that aim, one of its recent achievements is successfully obtaining quality accreditation by the ASEAN University Network for many of its programs. The university also emphasises international collaboration to enhance its teaching and research capabilities.

In terms of its organisation and resources, the university has seven faculties, six research centres, six key labs, and one limited company under its direct management. There are also 169 laboratories managed by concerned faculties and research centres. Other educational facilities include six libraries, one practice workshop, 148 classes, two halls, and one sports complex, all with free campus-wide Internet access. With the government's funding and the university's resources, University A is one of the best-equipped universities in Vietnam, with sufficient facilities for its staff and students to perform their daily teaching-learning activities and conduct many research projects. These research projects generate over 100 quality journal articles per year, granting the university access to the "Club of 100" comprising a few Vietnamese universities having more than 100 ISI-indexed papers annually.

Thanks to its high educational and research quality, University A has established training relationships with 70 foreign institutions in 35 countries, and has about 300 exchanges of students and staff every year. These foreign relations have facilitated the university's implementation of English-taught programs, improved its international reputation, and boosted its academic quality in general.

The Faculty of Chemistry is leading in educational quality and research among the university's seven faculties. Three of the faculty's five undergraduate programs have had their quality certified by the ASEAN University Network. The faculty also manages 13 postgraduate programs and has over 300 undergraduate and postgraduate students and over 80 lecturers. The faculty's research output is the highest in University A, with over 150 research publications yearly, 70% of which are in ISI- and Scopus-indexed journals (according to the faculty's 2021-2022 record). Some of its lecturers have been invited to become guest editors of special issues in Q1 journals in Chemistry.

The Faculty of Chemistry manages six departments (Departments of Inorganic Chemistry, Organic Chemistry, Analytical Chemistry, Physical Chemistry, Chemical Technology, and Petroleum Chemistry), four laboratories, and one centre. The laboratories are said to accommodate modern facilities for students' regular laboratory practice. According to the lecturers, the high amount of laboratory practice in their faculty places their students at an advantage upon graduation because by then their students are already very familiar with laboratory work, in which students at other universities might not be as fluent.

The faculty is highly recognised for its educational and research achievements, leading to its attainment of several university and national awards. Therefore, when Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training piloted the Advanced Program project at the end of 2005, University A's proposal for an Advanced Program in Chemistry was among the few proposals approved for funding from the government. The Advanced Program in Chemistry, developed in consultation with a similar program at the University of Illinois, U.S.A, has enrolled students since 2006. This is one of the two English-taught programs investigated in this study.

7.1.2 The Advanced Program in Chemistry at University A

As described in Section 2.4 (overview of EMI policies in Vietnam), the Advanced Program (AP) belongs to the group of foreign-based EMI programs developed and operated in collaboration with foreign tertiary education partners. APs are fully franchised programs under delivery at prestigious universities in the US, UK, and Australia. Therefore, the curriculum, pedagogy, assessment, training, and management procedures in use in Vietnam resemble those in the mother universities, with only slight modifications to suit the Vietnamese socio-economic and political context (Government of Vietnam, 2008b). Initially funded and managed by Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training under the Advanced Program Project (2006-2015), APs have been under institutional management, relying on institutional budgets since 2015. The withdrawal of the government's support has impacted the quality and quantity of the APs (see 2.4 for more information). This section presents the AP in Chemistry details, as reflected in University A's curricula, website, and the interview with its Program Coordinator at the end of 2020.

The AP in Chemistry at University A has been running since 2006. This special program has a separate academic advisor, and a Program Coordinator who performs all administration-related tasks such as devising timetables, calculating payments for lecturers, and acting as a contact point for lecturers and students. As stipulated in the AP Project description, lecturers selected for this program should hold at least a Master's degree in their disciplines and have sufficient English language proficiency (ELP) as evidenced by their English proficiency certificates or overseas graduation.

Examining University A's website and different versions of the AP in Chemistry curricula and an interview with the Program Coordinator of the AP in Chemistry reveals several details about this program.

To begin with, the shortened duration for English language enhancement does not seem to promote students' development of ELP and as a result, does not facilitate English-medium teaching and learning. According to the Program Coordinator, the original length of the AP in Chemistry was five years. However, at the end of the Advanced Program

Project, as the program in 2015 went under the management of University A (without governmental monitoring), the program duration was reduced to four years, following University AB's then newly released academic regulations. The cutback in program duration reduced the number of credits, especially those allocated to ELP enhancement for AP students. Instead of having one year with 24 credits to learn English intensively, students would now have only 15 credits of English study spreading over three semesters, which is much less intense.

Furthermore, the change in the status of English language subjects seems to have adversely impacted EMI implementation at University A. According to the academic regulations of University AB (which was in effect from October 2014 to December 2022), English was considered a supplementary subject. Consequentially, English scores had not been calculated towards AP students' semester and course GPAs since 2015. Students only needed to show evidence of ELP at the C1 level of the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) at the end of their studies to be eligible for a graduation certificate. Therefore, according to the Program Coordinator, many AP students were "discouraged from enrolling in English classes in semesters one, two, and three" (Tung) as scheduled in their curriculum, but delayed their English studies to the final years, and then self-studied or attended English classes in private centres instead. As a result, many subjects in the first two years of the AP program, for example, mathematical subjects, could no longer be taught in English due to students' now limited ELP. Disciplinary subjects, though continuing to use English as the medium of instruction, also experienced more instructional challenges due to this fact. In December 2022, University AB issued new academic regulations, restoring English language subjects' status. English subjects are now core curriculum subjects, whose grades matter in AP students' GPAs.

Another factor arguably impacting the quality of the AP in Chemistry is the lowered entry requirements and the increased tuition fees, resulting from the discontinuation of governmental funding in 2015. From 2006 to 2015, when the AP project was in effect, the educational costs of APs were shared among the government, the universities concerned, and AP students following the ratio 60:25:15 (Government of Vietnam, 2008b). Therefore, AP students' tuition fees were initially as low as those in the standard

Vietnamese programs, making APs attractive to competent, ambitious, and highly motivated, but possibly economically disadvantaged students. As the government gradually broke itself loose from APs and let the universities concerned take control of their programs in 2015, these universities had to raise tuition fees to maintain the special features of APs. This inevitably affected their AP student intake. The new tuition fees were almost three to four times higher than the average for tertiary students, which competent but economically disadvantaged students could no longer afford. Paradoxically, advantaged students are often less motivated to study, so to recruit enough students to sustain the AP in Chemistry, University A had to lower its admission requirements. The Program Coordinator commented on the low entry requirements as follows:

> Extract 7.1:
>
> As you know, objectively saying, to have good students, we need to enrol those with high entry scores. Admission scores are very important. Many people think if students can enter the program, they will graduate with satisfactory results. No, this is not true at all. Only good input can produce good output. (Tung, AP coordinator)

From the Program Coordinator's viewpoint, low entry scores mean less academically competent students, negatively affecting the program's quality.

Nevertheless, even when the academic barrier to the AP in Chemistry was lifted, not many students seemed to be interested in the program, due to low social demands for graduates from the Chemistry major. The Program Coordinator explained this situation as he responded to my question about the approximate number of enrollees in the AP every year:

> Extract 7.2:
>
> Our target remains the same, that is, 30-40 students a year. Previously we could recruit quite a lot, but we can't do the same for a few recent cohorts because tuition fees are high. In the current trend, Chemistry can't be compared to Pharmaceutical Chemistry. Why can Pharmaceutical Chemistry recruit a lot of students for its High-Quality Program, even with high entry scores? It's because of social demands. Pharmaceutical Chemistry is popular now so they can do it while Chemistry now is even not as hot as Chemical Engineering Technology. Because Chemical Engineering Technology is more practical, people think there will be more jobs upon graduation. (Tung, AP coordinator)

The Program Coordinator's remark indicates a struggle that University A is possibly going through to preserve its AP in Chemistry. By raising tuition fees to maintain the

special features of having all Chemistry subjects taught in English, having guest lecturers from well-known foreign universities, and keeping students' ELP of C1 as a graduation requirement, University A had to make compromises in admission requirements. This, however, did not make the AP in Chemistry more attractive to potential students due to the probably limited job prospects for graduates from this discipline.

Another feature of the AP in Chemistry of University A was the university's permission for talented students to join AP students in EMI classes. This allowed for the participant lecturers' comparison between content-competent and language-competent students, hence their perspective on the respective role of content and language in EMI as elaborated in Section 7.2.3 below.

Before further discussion, some background information about talented students is necessary. Talented students come from Gifted and Talented Student programs in various secondary schools all over Vietnam and are often members and/or winners of national and international competitions in their specialised subjects. These students constitute a very small number and they are carefully selected every year from the total admissions of their cohort. They are trained according to a special program, the Talented Program, to become scholars and experts in their field. The Talented Program is only available for talented students in natural sciences, which include Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, and Biology. As these students are outstanding in their specialised subjects, they often possess the necessary qualities of high-achievers such as self-discipline, high motivation, and perseverance. They are hard-working, and most importantly, have deep knowledge of their subjects. Despite their intelligence and high academic competence, their ELP is often low due to the enormous amount of time they have devoted to their specialised subjects at high schools. Therefore, by placing talented students in the same EMI classes as AP students, University A hoped to enhance talented students' ELP while boosting AP students' content learning. The AP coordinator explained as below when responding to an interview question about the current quality of the AP in Chemistry:

Extract 7.3:

We combine talented students with Advanced Program students to help AP students learn content subjects better while talented students can benefit from learning content subjects in English. However, since following the Circular 23 in recruiting AP students, there is a large gap between the two groups so we plan to separate talented students from AP students, no longer putting them together. (Tung, AP coordinator)

According to the Program Coordinator, the lower admission requirements of the current AP in Chemistry created an unexpectedly large gap in content knowledge between the two groups of students, so they no longer benefited from learning with each other. This combination has now created numerous challenges for EMI lecturers in the program, and was thus no longer feasible.

Table 7.1 below provides a brief summary of the above-mentioned major changes in the AP in Chemistry by comparing its first and latest curriculum in addition to information posted on the university's website.

Table 7.1: Major changes in the AP in Chemistry of University A

Points of comparison	2006 curriculum	2019 curriculum
No. of total credits	183	152
Program duration	5 years	4 years
Admission procedures	Through a selection process, based on students' registration after they are admitted to the university	Based on students' registration at the beginning of the university admission process
Admission criteria	- Pass the university entrance exam to the standard VMI program - Having ELP of B-level (intermediate) - Been selected by the university	- High school graduation scores, which, for the last few years, were often 2-3 points lower than the entry scores for the standard VMI program - English language score (in the high school graduation exam) (varies yearly, but was set at 4/10 in the last few years prior to this study)
No. of students enrolled	40	19
Tuition fees	50,000-900,000VND/month	3,500,000 VND/month
No. of courses taught in English (including all electives, but excluding English language, ESP, and some social courses)	86 (over 97 courses in total)	17 (over 85 courses in total)
Duration for ELP enhancement	24 credits in 1 academic year (2 semesters/year)	15 credits in 3 semesters
Status of the English language subject	A core subject whose results are counted towards students' semester and course GPA	A supplementary subject, whose results are not counted in students' semester and course GPA

(Source: 2006 and 2019 AP curricula and the university admission web portals)

In brief, once an honour for competent students, the AP in Chemistry has experienced major changes during its over-a-decade existence. The decreased number of credits for

English language subjects, the shortened duration for students' ELP enhancement, the governmental funding cutback, the rise in student's tuition fees, and the lower admission requirements altogether made the AP in Chemistry become somewhat like a High-Quality Program (HQP), which used to be at a lower status. The next section will describe the important features of the three Chemistry lecturers' educational and professional backgrounds and experiences, laying a foundation for a better understanding of their positionings and practices in EMI.

7.1.3 The Chemistry lecturers and their courses

This section provides an overview of the educational, professional background and experiences of the three Chemistry lecturers participating in this study. Such information is necessary to better understand the three lecturers' teaching practices in EMI.

Of the six Chemistry lecturers that I contacted, Dan, Ha, and Tam were the three who accepted my invitation to participate in this study. While Dan and Ha are in their late 30s, Tam is in her late 40s. Unlike Dan and Ha, Tam's schooling occurred during the period when Vietnam suffered from the U.S. trade embargo. The main countries that Vietnam had foreign relations with during that time were socialist countries like Russia (then the Soviet Union), China, and Cuba.

Tam's educational experiences, particularly foreign language learning experiences, were thus different from those of Dan and Ha. Dan and Ha grew up in an era when Vietnam started to adopt "open door" policies and English was replacing Russian to become the dominant foreign language in the country. Dan and Ha were first exposed to English during high school, and then continued to learn English at the tertiary level. Unlike Dan and Ha, Tam finished her Master's and then Doctoral studies in Vietnam at a time when foreign language education and overseas studies were rare. Tam did not have the chance of learning a foreign language at school and during her four years at university, the language she was formally exposed to was Russian. Nevertheless, during Tam's junior year at university, as the English language learning movement in Vietnam started in major cities, Tam enrolled in an English class in a language centre. She worked diligently until

completing the then-popular Streamline Pre-intermediate textbooks upon her university graduation.

Tam described her English language learning journey as very messy. She "jumped" from Streamline textbooks to a listening-speaking course, and then Cambridge First Certificate materials. She also privately tutored some students in English grammar, believing that "teaching will make me better at English" (Tam). Tam's "scientific approach" to learning and teaching English somehow accelerated her mastery of English grammar. However, she now understands that language learning is more about skills than knowledge acquisition. She admitted the flaws in her early days' language learning approach, which did not enable her to pronounce English accurately and speak fluently.

The three lecturers' professional experiences were also different. Among the three, Ha had the least teaching experience (five years of VMI and three years of EMI) since she was not only the youngest but also had two years of industry work and six years of postgraduate studies in Belgium prior to joining University A. Like Ha, Dan did not commence teaching right after university graduation. Dan used to work in a research centre at University A for four years before transferring to the teaching post. Dan did his PhD in Belgium for four years. At the time of data collection for this research, Dan had about nine years of VMI experience and seven years of EMI, as compared to Tam's 21 years of VMI and 12 years of EMI.

Dan and Tam received some professional training for EMI. Both lecturers were involved in the Advanced Program (AP) in Chemistry right from the beginning in 2006. At that time, Dan took on the role of a Program Coordinator rather than an instructor like Tam. Dan and Tam were among the first few staff of University A to travel to the University of Illinois at Urbana Champagne for professional training in preparation for the execution of the AP in Chemistry. As the lecturers described, the two activities that they were involved in at the foreign partner university were class observation and laboratory work. That one-month professional development trip and later attendance at lectures by American professors visiting University A constituted Dan and Tam's initial preparation for EMI. Also, during this trip, Tam and two other lecturers registered for a short English course with American lecturers, with a view to having more guidance to teach in English

more confidently. It was not until this short course that Tam was aware of various features in English pronunciation, such as word stress, sentence stress, and intonation. These were neglected in her previous form-focused English study.

According to Dan, it was indeed his Doctoral study in Belgium that really prepared him well for EMI. The postgraduate studies fostered his development of technical vocabulary and his comprehension of technical texts in English, which facilitated his later English-medium instruction. Dan's Doctoral studies also provided him opportunities to research the topics later taught in his EMI course, thus empowering him to teach Physical Chemistry in English more confidently.

Unlike Dan and Tam, Ha was not accessible to any EMI training courses related to the AP project because she joined the AP in Chemistry when the government no longer funded the program. Despite this, among the three lecturers, Ha had the longest experience working and learning in an English-speaking environment, with six continuous years studying at the Master's and Doctoral levels in Belgium. Ha also acquired a high English language proficiency level with an IELTS score of Band 8 overall. Although Ha did not attend any particular professional development (PD) courses for EMI, her aspiration for personal and professional development motivated her to register herself for whatever good PD opportunities on offer at University A. One of Ha's most influential PD experiences was the one about pedagogical innovations organised by the "principal" university, University AB, in collaboration with an Irish academic institution. This PD course was offered free-of-charge for all staff members of University AB. According to Ha, she was the only member of her faculty to register in the very first cohort of this PD program. She was also among the few successful lecturers selected to participate in a follow-up training course in Ireland. The knowledge and skills that Ha acquired from this PD event and others have shaped her pedagogy in both VMI and EMI.

In addition to teaching duties, Dan is also involved in another formal professional task. He is the Head of a laboratory at University A, so his tight working schedule is divided between teaching and research tasks. According to Dan, every lecturer in his faculty had three to four teaching sessions and three to four lab guidance sessions per week. This heavy workload during the day and family duties with two small children at home

rendered him little time for self-study to improve his teaching. In fact for the first three years of teaching in English, Dan had to stay up late for many nights to update himself with technical terms and other technical content.

Tam's professional tasks and duties were many. At University A, Tam was the Head of a department. Outside University A, Tam's professional position and experience has allowed her to provide numerous other academic services to external agencies such as consultancy for the K-12 science curriculum by Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) and the Vietnamese Program for International Student Assessment (PISA) team. As I looked up her name online, she also appeared to teach Chemistry courses for different Vietnamese online learning management systems. With extensive experience from her professional service, Tam gained a comprehensive view of science, particularly Chemistry education in Vietnam.

Tam's accounts revealed her special devotion and commitment to quality assurance in her department's activities. Since Analytical Chemistry courses comprise both theoretical and laboratory components, students must always pass a test of theoretical knowledge before commencing their laboratory work. This ensures the students can apply the acquired theory in laboratory practice. This test used to be conducted orally, right before a laboratory session, which was time-consuming for both lecturers and students. Therefore, under Tam's management, her department took the initiative to design an MCQ (Multiple-Choice Question) test on Moodle - an open-source learning management system - to facilitate the lab screening process. As a result of moving the test online, Tam and her colleagues had to spend part of their department's budget to pay the internet cost so that their students could access the test with fast and reliable internet. Without institutional support, all these physical and financial efforts were made out of her department's strong commitment to improving teaching and learning quality.

Although she did not have any management position other than teaching at University A, Ha's accounts revealed her professional enthusiasm, as evidenced in her passion for professional development (as described above) and her research initiatives. Ha always actively searched and applied for external research grants. With these grants, she established a small biochemical lab for herself and her students at University A, where

she supervised the students for minor or graduation research projects. At the time of data collection for this study, Ha took a six-month leave to conduct research in Korea and simultaneously supervised seven students' graduation research projects remotely. According to Ha, the average number of research projects supervised by lecturers in her faculty was about five. Hence, the higher number of research projects she was supervising somehow demonstrated her work efficiency and Ha's popularity among the students.

The courses that generated classroom data for this study are Physical Chemistry 2, Instrumental Characterisation, and Fundamental Biochemistry, all offered in Semester 5 for third-year students. Dan was a lecturer in Physical Chemistry, while Tam lectured courses in Analytical Chemistry, and Ha in Chemical Engineering Technology. Both Physical Chemistry and Analytical Chemistry are branches of the Chemistry discipline so the related subjects (Physical Chemistry 1, Physical Chemistry 2, Analytical Chemistry, Instrumental Characterisation) contain deep and specialised knowledge. While Physical Chemistry 1, 2, and Analytical Chemistry are compulsory courses in the AP in Chemistry curriculum, Instrumental Characterisation is an elective. Nevertheless, all these four subjects use the imported syllabi, textbooks, and assessment activities of the equivalent subjects at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, U.S.A. The lecturers are allowed to make some content modifications to suit the Vietnamese context, but generally these courses followed the same textbooks and assessment tasks employed by the American university. Importantly, in the AP curriculum (as well as in the equivalent Vietnamese-medium-instruction curriculum), these four courses are accompanied by laboratory practices, which constituted four other subjects of two credits each.

The course that Ha teaches, "Fundamental Biochemistry", despite also being a compulsory subject in the AP in Chemistry, is locally developed by Vietnamese lecturers, in consultation with their chosen foreign textbooks. It introduces basic concepts of chemical biology, so the content is interdisciplinary. According to Ha, her course can be taught by either Biology or Chemistry lecturers, and in fact "Biology lecturers might teach it more deeply because this course contains more biological content" (Ha). Since this course only contains fundamental biological knowledge, some of which has been covered in the Biology subject at high schools, its level of content difficulty is much lower

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compared to Physical Chemistry and Analytical Chemistry subjects. Furthermore, this course has no follow-up laboratory practice component, as in Physical and Analytical Chemistry courses.

Overall, the Chemistry lecturer participants were highly qualified and competent. Although there were individual differences in their conditions and approaches to professional learning, they all shared a commitment to teaching. The next section will elaborate on their positionings and practices in EMI.

7.2 The Chemistry lecturers' positionings and practices in EMI

Drawing from the interview and classroom data obtained from the three Chemistry lecturers, this section analyses the lecturers' positionings and their resulting practices in EMI. The lecturers' positionings are organised around three main aspects of their EMI duties: teaching content, pedagogy, and assessment. The most common positioning among the lecturers is highlighted in each aspect as the theme. Positioning variations among the lecturers also exist in each section, due to the lecturers' differences in personal attributes, beliefs, and other contextual factors. The following sections will describe the lecturers' positionings and practices in detail.

7.2.1 Content: The Chemistry lecturers' self-positionings as content knowledge providers

The interview and classroom data indicate that in the instruction storyline, all three Chemistry lecturers implicitly positioned themselves as content knowledge providers, although this reflexive positioning tends to be more pronounced for Dan and Tam than for Ha. By assuming the absolute position of content knowledge providers, the lecturers had unintentionally assigned their students the position of passive and dependent knowledge recipients, who could not build their knowledge by exploring the course topics themselves.

The three lecturers' accounts reveal that they mostly focused on teaching disciplinary content knowledge while downplaying or minimising the introduction of the language

knowledge of their discipline. This was clearly expressed in their conceptualisations of their EMI duties, from which their self-positionings as content knowledge providers were also evident. For example, Dan and Tam believed that their duties were "the same" in EMI and VMI, that is, "transmitting fully the content knowledge as prescribed in course guides" (Dan). Ha also assumed the duty of providing content knowledge, but her expression of the content knowledge took on additional dimensions, that is, the knowledge had to come from "a variety of sources" and "be updated". Their reflexive positionings, or self-positionings, strongly aligned with their expectations of students' classroom duties, which are "listen to lectures and take notes" (Tam), or "listen attentively and learn a lot" (Dan), or simply "learn" (Ha). None of the lecturers considered it as part of their duties to teach the disciplinary language knowledge (e.g., language functions, registers, genres), nor to develop students' autonomy in knowledge self-construction.

Although classroom data included explanations of the Vietnamese meanings of English terms in all three lecturers' EMI lessons, interviews with the lecturers suggested that these vignettes tended to be coincidental, rather than planned. In fact, when the lecturers elaborated on their EMI duties, Dan was the only lecturer to mention "the introduction of Vietnamese meaning of English technical terms". Nevertheless, he emphasised that this was "my own idea", suggesting that this might not be a shared viewpoint among EMI lecturers in his faculty. An excerpt of Dan's classroom data below demonstrates very well his idea of equipping students with Vietnamese meanings of English terminologies:

> Extract 7.4:
>
> So this is we call quasi-equilibrium. Tại sao lại quasi, bởi vì nó không cân bằng thực sự, một phần rất nhỏ nó sẽ (...). Cái thuật ngữ này chúng ta sẽ hay gặp, thuật ngữ quasi. Quasi tức là gần gần, gần hoặc sát. Trong các thuật ngữ chuyên ngành ý thì hay có từ quasi. Hoặc là quasi-crystal thì các bạn đã gặp chưa? Quasi-crystal được giải thưởng Nobel cách đây mấy năm đấy. Tức là cũng là dạng cấu trúc tinh thể nhưng mà không phải tinh thể đều đâu. Cấu trúc gần thì là tinh thể nhưng xa thì là vô định hình amophote. Chúng ta gọi là quasi-crystal. Thì cái này cũng thế, chúng ta gọi là quasi equilibrium, tức là gần cân bằng. (Dan, EMI session 2)
>
> [*So this is we call quasi-equilibrium*. Why quasi, because it's not really balanced, a very small part of it will (...). We will see this term often, quasi-. Quasi- means nearly or close. In English terminology we often see quasi-. Like quasi-crystal, have you seen this? Quasi-crystal, there was a Nobel prize a few years ago. It means it's also a crystalline structure but not a regular crystal. The proximal structure is crystalline but the distal structure is amorphous. We call it quasi-crystal. This too, we call it quasi-equilibrium, meaning it's nearly balanced.]

In this classroom incident, Dan provided a very detailed explanation of a prefix, "quasi", that commonly occurs in English chemical terminology. He not only took time to explain

the meaning of the word "quasi-equilibrium" and the prefix "quasi", but he also emphasised the importance of knowing this prefix in Chemistry, as well as provided another example with "quasi" as the prefix. Although this vignette took less than three minutes, Dan was the only lecturer among the six participants to teach terminology this deeply. This was also the only vignette recorded in Dan's two EMI lessons. Even though Dan did not position himself as a language teacher, he did see it as his duty to teach students the Vietnamese meanings of English terms because "most students will work in domestic environments" so "not knowing Vietnamese terms is not good" (Dan). In the excerpt above, Dan certainly had done more than just providing the Vietnamese translation of the English term "quasi-equilibrium", thus presenting himself as a reflective and flexible content knowledge provider who cares about his students' future workplace performance.

By assuming the position of content knowledge providers, the Chemistry lecturers perceived it as their duty to supply all the essential knowledge for their students' comprehension of new content in English. This resulted in the lecturers' actions of pre-teaching and background knowledge enhancement for their students, either within their EMI lessons or in separate, extra, free-of-charge sessions held online, as in Tam's case. The three lecturers' discourses revealed that Tam and Dan had to add a considerable amount of content to their lessons whereas Ha only needed to occasionally remind her students of some background knowledge. Tam explained her decision to pre-teach her students as below when I asked her about how she taught a new content topic in English:

> Extract 7.5:
>
> This year I have changed. I have to teach in Vietnamese first so that the students have some background knowledge in Vietnamese. After that, I teach in English, but the lessons in English are not repeating the content in Vietnamese but I approach it as a review lesson. Students then can listen and think, using what they have had in their head to understand. (Tam)

As a teacher with twelve years of EMI experience, Tam found it essential to equip her students with the necessary knowledge in Vietnamese before teaching them new content in English. It was Tam's belief that without proper background knowledge, these students could not "think in English" and comprehend her English-medium lessons. Tam told me that for every three official periods in class, she spent almost the same amount of time with her students online, to pre-teach them the necessary content in Vietnamese. She

further added that the current threshold scores for students' admission into the AP in Chemistry were only 18 (out of 30 max). From her experience, while the students with entry scores of 22 or above could learn in English quite well, those with lower scores had to struggle due to their very poor background knowledge. Tam compared these students to Year 1 students who "can speak Vietnamese very well but don't understand anything" (Tam).

With her comparison, Tam was interactively positioning her students as unknowledgeable or having inadequate background knowledge to explore difficult content such as that in the AP by themselves. Hence, she was both denying their right to academic development by activating their learner autonomy and concurrently justifying her pedagogical action of organising extra online classes. Tam further explained that if she did not pre-teach her students the content in Vietnamese, they would not understand the lessons in English, so she did this "out of my devotion because nobody pays me" (Tam). With this account of an agentic action, Tam explicitly positioned herself as a devoted and committed content knowledge provider who generously gave her free time to her students.

Tam's belief in the importance of background knowledge in EMI success derived from her experience teaching in English to students of the Talented and Advanced programs (see Section 7.1.2 for information about the Talented Program, talented students, and University A's former policy of allowing talented students to attend EMI classes with AP students). According to the lecturers and the Program Coordinator, while talented students were weak in English, they were exceptionally strong in content knowledge in Vietnamese. With such firm background knowledge, these talented students "could actually guess the content of the EMI lectures" even though their English might not be sufficient for full and thorough lecture comprehension in English (Tam). The lecturers also noticed that Advanced Program (AP) students, on the other hand, tended to acquire higher levels of English language proficiency (ELP), but much lower levels of disciplinary knowledge compared to the other student group. From Tam's observation, the AP students' higher ELP did not save them from struggling in EMI. Therefore, she concluded that "ELP was not as important as background knowledge for successful learning in English" (Tam), and thus her pedagogical decision to offer free online lessons to assist weak AP students in improving their content knowledge. Despite her efforts,

Tam said that not every weak AP student attended these lessons because "they did not really care" about their studies and were "lazy" (Tam).

Although Dan also reported pre-teaching some content in Vietnamese, he did so to a lesser extent than Tam. Classroom data showed that in the two recorded lessons, Dan spent about 16 to 30 minutes at the beginning of the lessons to teach his students some content in Vietnamese. Unlike Tam who was concerned about both students' content comprehension and the development of their ability to think in English, Dan's reason for his pre-teaching was only linked to students' content comprehension, as he responded to my question about the cause of his action below:

Extract 7.6:
Yes, I had to teach them some content first. As I said, that lesson is very difficult. In fact, if I had not encountered that content in my postgraduate studies, I would not understand. That's too advanced. (Dan)

By placing himself in an imaginary situation of not understanding the content had he not learnt it during his postgraduate studies, Dan implicitly gave his students the right to not understand the lesson in English due to "too advanced knowledge" (Dan). Dan shared with me that the "Illinois textbook" for his course "is even more difficult than the European textbook" that he was familiar with during his postgraduate studies. As a result, by giving his students the right to not understand some content in the official American textbook, Dan was also assigning to himself the duty to teach something "outside the course guide". Dan's reason was that if he had not done that, his students would not have understood the content of the lessons in English, and anyway his ultimate duty as a content knowledge provider was, in his opinion, the students' content comprehension.

As Ha considered her course content to be quite simple, she did not have to teach background knowledge to her students, but just remind them of some content they had learnt at secondary schools instead. Ha responded to my question about her pedagogical actions at the beginning of a lesson as below:

Extract 7.7:
In the first lesson, I often ask students what they learnt in secondary schools. Just for general information because my course Fundamental Biochemistry needs quite a lot of knowledge about biology, so if students had learnt a lot about biology in high schools, I would increase the difficulty

level of the course content a bit. If they followed block A in high schools and now forget most of Biological knowledge, I will review some basic knowledge about biology for them. (Ha)

The extracts above suggest that although Tam, Dan and Ha were fulfilling the same duty of content knowledge providers by helping their students overcome content difficulties to learn new knowledge in English more effectively, they were different in their positionings of the students. While Tam and Dan saw the students as incapable of understanding the lesson content without their knowledge enhancement support, Ha positioned the students as capable but possibly forgetful, hence her assistance in reminding the students of the basic knowledge they had learnt. The lecturers' variations in their interactive positionings of the students possibly stem from the differences in the nature of knowledge and the complexity level of their courses. At one time in the interviews, Dan and Tam said that their courses were "very specialised" (Tam) and "difficult even to foreign students" (Dan) while Ha shared with me that the content of her course was "not very difficult" because it was "only at the introductory level" (Ha).

Furthermore, the students' weak background knowledge and the difficulty of using a foreign language as the medium of instruction resulted in content omissions in the three lecturers' EMI lessons. Although classroom data did not provide any evidence indicating the lecturers' removal of content, their recounts confirmed that the content in their EMI classes was less flexible and less thorough compared to the content in their VMI ones. In response to my question about their challenges in EMI (for Dan and Ha) or whether they had to remove any lesson content to suit the students' level of content and language knowledge (for Tam), the three lecturers replied:

Extract 7.8:

When I am teaching in Vietnamese, because it's our mother tongue I can use many expressions. But when I am teaching in English, I cannot elaborate further. Due to my limited English, I only speak within the lesson content. It's difficult to expand and explain further (...) Even if I tried to explain, the students might not understand because my expression might not be clear and concise enough. And they might not have enough knowledge of technical terms to understand. (Dan)

Extract 7.9:

There are still topics that are hard for me to speak in English because English is my foreign language so I guess the content of a lesson in English is never as good as that in Vietnamese. (Ha)

Extract 7.10:

Can't leave out content that is included in the course guide, but for weak students we have to use a simpler approach. And when there are detailed calculations, something a bit difficult, we stop there because if we go on, they won't understand. (Tam)

On the one hand, by sharing the same positions of foreign language users and non-native speakers of English, Dan and Ha were claiming their right to be less proficient in English communication. It was therefore inevitable, rather than their lack of EMI competencies, that they could not produce varied and thorough content in English. On the other hand, by positioning students as not sufficiently competent in either language or content, Dan and Tam were also accounting for their practice of eliminating elaborations or skipping difficult content in their EMI lessons. Tam's use of the pronoun "we" indicates her membership in a group of lecturers who would make the same pedagogical decision given the same situation. It also suggests that this is a common course of action for lecturers in her faculty. Nevertheless, without differentiated instruction, when assigning the position of incompetent learners to the whole group of students, Tam and Dan might have deprived the better students in the group of the right to access advanced content to develop their knowledge to the full within the classroom environment.

In brief, interview and classroom data analysis consistently revealed the three Chemistry lecturers' self-positioning as supportive content knowledge providers, who, despite their lack of awareness of the students' challenges in learning through a foreign language, cared about the students' content comprehension and were willing to act within their capabilities to facilitate the students' content learning in English. Nevertheless, with their reflexive positionings, the lecturers unintentionally placed the students in the disadvantaged position of passive knowledge recipients, who were unable to self-construct content knowledge for their own sake. The following section will discuss the Chemistry lecturers' teaching methods in detail.

7.2.2 Pedagogy: The Chemistry lecturers' self-positioning continuum: From traditional lecturers to pedagogical innovators

While classroom data showed general similarities in classroom teaching and learning activities among the three lecturers, their accounts indicated critical differences in their teaching approaches and beliefs, particularly between Ha and the other two colleagues - Tam and Dan. While Tam and Dan's teaching practices demonstrated some pedagogical flexibility, their discourses mainly positioned themselves as traditional pedagogues who followed a teacher-centred approach to teaching. Ha's accounts, on the contrary,

explicitly positioned her as a pedagogical innovator, who followed a student-centred teaching approach, which was also manifested in some aspects of her instructional practices.

Tam and Dan's positionings as traditional pedagogues who conformed to the teacher-centred teaching approach was manifested in their strong attachment to the knowledge transmission duty of content knowledge providers, as discussed in Section 7.2.1. These positionings were again confirmed in their descriptions of classroom activities in response to my question about their methods to engage students in their classes:

> Extract 7.11:
>
> At the tertiary level, lecturers need to transmit much more knowledge and the learners now are also at a higher level so at the tertiary level especially for natural sciences subjects lecturers mostly lecture and students' duty is to listen to lectures and take notes. In addition to lectures, there are seminars. It's not that you teach for five minutes, then you stop for group discussions, then seminars. But if you want to prevent students from getting overtired in your lesson, you can let them do presentations, but it's at the end of the course. (Tam)
>
> Extract 7.12:
>
> To encourage students to participate more, yes, there are a few methods. First, have to mark the class register, to motivate students to attend lessons. Second, encourage them by giving bonus marks in terms of participation and mid-term scores for those who are hard-working and often raise hands to contribute to the lessons. Next, give them practice tasks and require them to complete to submit to me. (Dan)

In these above remarks, Tam and Dan's self-perceptions as traditional lecturers were manifested in different features of a teacher-fronted classroom where lecturers assume the full authority to control students' learning process. By emphasising the differences between tertiary and other educational levels, between natural sciences and social sciences-humanities subjects, Tam was claiming the right to organise her teaching in a lecture format, which she knew was opposite to a common view of a lively, interactive classroom as an interesting and engaging learning environment. Tam's use of the pronoun "we" also indicated her membership in a group of lecturers who adopted the same lecturing format for their lessons, suggesting the popularity of this teaching method in her discipline, or in her department at least. While Tam's response showed her sensitivity to the two words "activities" and "engage" in my question, probably because of her complex involvement in foreign language learning and teaching (as described in Section 7.1.3), Dan's answer depicted the full authority of a traditional teacher, who has the right to control students' learning and order students to do things. His students, as a result, had a

duty to obey and perform lecturers' orders and received rewards in the form of bonus marks in their mid-term exams.

Despite following the traditional teacher-centred teaching approach, Tam and Dan also appeared to be student-responsive in their teaching to address the challenges of teaching and learning in English. Tam and Dan's implicit positionings as flexible lecturers and their pedagogical flexibility are best summarised in Tam's elaborated response to my question about EMI lecturers' roles:

> Extract 7.13:
>
> With the current situation lecturers need to be flexible, meaning that if they follow the one-way teaching approach, transmitting knowledge then going out of the classroom once finished, the students will not retain anything in their head. So lecturers have to open up an issue, lead into the new topic, explain, and then transmit the new knowledge before providing examples and applications. Lecturers need to do their best so that students can grasp the new content. In some previous EMI cohorts there were foreign students from Mongolia, Laos, America so we had to speak English 100% in class. But outside class we had to ask these foreign students whether they understood the lessons. If not we would offer them some extra hours of instruction. For Vietnamese students, we have to teach them a few more hours in Vietnamese so that they can understand the issues. (Tam)

Although Tam did not consider lecturers' duties in EMI different from their duties in VMI, by highlighting the necessity of being flexible in EMI to ensure students' content comprehension, Tam seemed to suggest that EMI required more than a normal lecturer duty of knowledge transfer. Her use of lexical items of strong modality (i.e., "need", and "have to") indicated her strong sense of duty to follow the flexible teaching approach in EMI. Tam's comment depicted the traditional teaching approach as "one-way" and "transmitting knowledge then going out of the classroom once finished," suggesting that the flexible approach should be different. Flexibility, in Tam's opinion, meant lecturers "do[ing] their best so that students can grasp the new content" (Tam). As Tam assumed her EMI duties, her belief in the need to do more and do her best in EMI urged her to spend her free time pre-teaching content in Vietnamese to her EMI students (as discussed in Section 7.2.1). In fact, Tam's explanation above specified three dimensions of pedagogical flexibility that she advocated in EMI: (1) lecturers' leading into the new content; (2) the provision of extra instruction (or content explanation) outside formal class hours, instead of in-class only; and (3) the use of Vietnamese for extra content instruction for Vietnamese students.

As her accounts unfolded, Tam's first-mentioned dimension of pedagogical flexibility concerned two methods of starting a lesson that she noticed in natural sciences lessons. Coincidentally, it was also in the lesson introduction that Ha's self-positioning as a follower of the student-centred teaching approach was clearly demonstrated. The following section will describe the lecturers' ways to initiate or start their lessons.

7.2.2.1 Lesson introduction

When I asked Tam what she normally did at the beginning of a lesson, Tam mentioned two methods to introduce new content. She referred to these as the direct and indirect approaches:

> Extract 7.14:
>
> Generally in natural sciences subjects there are two approaches to start a lesson. One way is you directly transmit the new knowledge, for example, you give out a concept definition, then you explain it, you give examples. People call this a direct way of knowledge transmission. The second way is you lead into the new topic, why we have to study it. The reality is like this and I have to study this to address which issues, and in order to study this, I need which theoretical foundations. (Tam)

As Tam explained, the direct and indirect approaches to lesson delivery differed in content introduction. While a lesson would start rather abruptly following the former approach, the latter approach would require lecturers to link the lesson content to reality first, thus activating learners' need and motivation to study the content before moving on to its specific details. Tam also added that it was easier for her Analytical Chemistry courses to adopt the indirect approach as "everything in Analytical Chemistry stems from life", implying that the indirect approach, in her opinion, might need modification if applied to purely theoretical subjects like Dan's Physical Chemistry course.

Nevertheless, Tam's accounts showed that it had not been easy for her to switch to the indirect approach to content introduction. Prior to the implementation of the AP, she had been used to the direct approach of content transmission, which she also called "the Russian approach". According to Tam, the Russian approach had been so deeply ingrained in the Vietnamese science education that it was really challenging for her and her colleagues to transition to the indirect one required by the American textbook; hence the name "the American approach". Tam was only aware of the indirect approach when

she began cooperating with the American professors in the AP in Chemistry. Tam elaborated on the challenges that she and her colleagues encountered in their early days of the AP as follows:

> Extract 7.15:
>
> When we started the AP, we almost had no foundation. What we used to think was very interesting, very advanced suddenly became useless. We didn't have the foundation to build up on new topics. Therefore, as the then Vice-Head of my department, I was assigned the task of transforming the curriculum. We changed our thinking although it was very difficult at the beginning because our senior lecturers who were still working then strongly opposed to the idea. However, we changed our approach to content, to content delivery, to assessment. Now we have changed almost completely, and I realise that our student quality now is so much better. (Tam)

Tam's account of the struggle that she and her colleagues had undergone in the curriculum transformation process highlights her position as not only a pedagogically flexible lecturer, who was open to new ways of doing, but also a determined game changer, who tactfully led her team through the strong opposition of her senior colleagues. By distancing herself from her senior colleagues' pedagogical values and beliefs, Tam was simultaneously positioning her senior colleagues as pedagogically conservative, and thus potential obstacles to educational innovations.

As Tam described, she and her colleagues initially had difficulties leading into a lesson because their Russian way of teaching had been detached from reality, which starkly contrasted with the American approach used in the AP in Chemistry. On referring to her role as the then Vice-Head of her department, who was in charge of transforming the curriculum, Tam was prepositioning herself as a person with the power to make changes, and thus having a right to do so. It was initially challenging for her, and the innovation process took time. Tam confided that the Instrumental Analysis subject had been completely transformed by now, but the Introduction to Analytical Chemistry course still kept about 70% of its original course guide and syllabus because "we cannot at once erase historical relics" (Tam). However, this did not mean that lecturers had to follow the direct approach in their classroom practices, because as Tam further added, "it's up to lecturers how they teach inside their classrooms" and "nobody checks anyway" (Tam).

Despite Tam's elaboration on the indirect approach to content transmission, her classroom data did not clearly demonstrate her use of this approach. Her two lesson

introductions below did not include a meaningful lesson lead-in, which links the lesson content to the real-world problems it can address.

Extract 7.16:

Now let's start. We come to next part with the typical instruments in data domain. Data domain is means how we can consider the change from the signal into the data. Now so look at the slide, we can have some type of data domains that so call non-electrical and electrical domains. (Tam, EMI session 1)

Extract 7.17:

Now so in last lecture, what did you learn? About the principles of instrument analysis. Now tell me again. What is the difference, the big difference between the chemical analysis with instrument analysis? Which is direct, which is indirect calculation? Indirect calculation because in instrument analysis you only have the signal of the instrument. I also have the response, but we'd like to calculate the concentration. So in instrument analysis I always have to set up the calibration curve or we can /style/ amount of standard solution in the samples and use the additional calibration curve. Both of them will have to use the regression. So doing with the regression leading to the LOD and LOQ and the specificity, selectivity, robustness and many parameters of the analytical methods. OK. Now, so today we continue with other parameters such as the selectivity and how you calculate the concentration with uncertainty. Do you remember uncertainty? (2 secs) Yeah. There are some ways to calculate. Now, OK. So come back with last lecture. There are some types of establishing LOD and LOQ. We also hear about the graphical method. Do you know the graphical method? (2 secs) Graphical mean I have the regression with the calibration curve like this (...) (Tam, EMI session 2)

Analysis of Tam's interview and classroom data suggests several possible reasons for this discrepancy between Tam's statement and her actual teaching practices. As the number of slides for these two lessons was nearly 100, it could have been that the start of these two recorded lessons was not the real start of the module where Tam probably had "led the students in" via the indirect approach. Another possibility was that because of Tam's pre-teaching in Vietnamese, she might not have found it necessary to activate students' reasons for learning each EMI lesson because the content was no longer brand new. It could also have been that although Tam's pedagogical mindset was flexible, she unconsciously followed "the Russian approach" out of habit. With over 20 years of teaching experience in Vietnamese, the direct approach might have become Tam's pedagogical habit, and that she may need a great deal of conscious efforts to change it.

In fact, the most comprehensive lesson introduction obtained from the three lecturers' classroom data was in Dan's first recorded EMI lesson, when he took over this class from another lecturer who was in charge of a few modules before him:

Extract 7.18:

Rồi bây giờ cta bắt đầu học nhé. Từ tiết này trở đi, thầy sẽ dạy các bạn một phần trong Hóa lý 2 được gọi là động học, ration kinetics. Thế thì phần này sẽ có khoảng độ 8-9 bài. Thầy sẽ dạy từ bây giờ cho đến hết chương trình. Thế thì bây giờ chúng ta phải phân biệt được đối tượng của từng phần một. Các bạn biết là phần đầu tiên chúng ta học, là thermo dynamics ý thì chúng ta học 3 nguyên lý đúng không. 3 nguyên lý này giúp chúng ta hiểu được các đặc tính của hệ vĩ mô, nó liên quan đến cân bằng vật chất, chuyển hóa giữa vật chất và năng lượng, đó chính là phản ứng hóa học ý. Các chất phản ứng phản ứng với nhau tạo ra sản phẩm thì có phải tỏa năng lượng không, đúng ko. Thì bao nhiêu chất phản ứng thì các bạn tính được bấy nhiêu năng lượng. Thì như vậy chúng ta học được mối quan hệ giữa phản ứng hóa học, năng lượng, giữa vật chất và năng lượng. Rồi thì ngoài ra còn học thêm cái gì nữa. Các quá trình chuyển pha, các hệ tồn tại, đúng không? Các vấn đề liên quan đến chuyển động trong hệ cũng như một số tính chất ví dụ như điều hóa, một số tính chất trong dung dịch. Thế thì đấy là cái phần thứ nhất. Sang phần thứ 2 này chúng ta sẽ học về phần kinetics. Bình thường từ xưa đến nay chúng ta học hóa nhé, chúng ta chỉ viết phương trình phản ứng thôi, chúng ta không biết là nó xảy ra nhanh hay chậm, đúng không. Các bạn không bao giờ các bạn nhìn thấy thông số thời gian trong phương trình phản ứng hóa học, đúng chưa? Thế thì cái phần này giúp chúng ta làm gì. À cái phần thermo dynamics thì giúp chúng ta nghiên cứu về vị trí cân bằng, chúng ta chỉ nghiên cứu là quá trình cân bằng 1, quá trình cân bằng 2 và chuyển từ cân bằng 1 sang cân bằng 2 thì tổng kết là cái gì xảy ra và nó thay đổi những cái gì, nhưng mà không biết được là chuyển từ qúa trình 1 sang qúa trình 2 bằng cách nào, đúng không, các bạn chúng ta không khảo sát. Thế thì cái phần động học này nó giúp chúng ta làm việc đó. Và đặc biệt là áp dụng đối với các phản ứng hóa học. (Dan, EMI session 1)

[And now let's start learning. From this lesson onwards, I will teach you a part of Physical Chemistry 2 called ration kinetics. This section has about 8 to 9 lessons. I will teach from now until the end of the course. So now we have to distinguish the subject of each part. You know that the first part we learnt is thermodynamics, we learnt three principles, right? These three principles help us understand the properties of macroscopic systems, it is related to the balance of matter, the transformation between matter and energy, that is the chemical reaction. The substances when interacting together must give off energy, right? The more the substances interact, the more energy you can calculate. Thus, we learnt the relationship between chemical reactions, energy, matter and energy. Then what else did we learnt? Phase transitions, existential systems, right, issues related to motion in the system as well as some properties such as modulation, some properties in solutions. That's the first part. In this second part, we will learn about kinetics. So far when we learn Chemistry, we only write the equation, we don't know whether it happens fast or slow, right? You've never seen the time parameter in chemical equations, right? So what does this part help us? Arh, the thermos dynamics part helps us study the equilibrium position, we only studied the process of equilibrium 1, the process of equilibrium 2, and the transition from equilibrium 1 to equilibrium 2, what happens after all and what changes occur, but we don't know how the transition from equilibrium 1 to equilibrium 2 occurs, right, we didn't investigate that. So this kinetics part helps us do that. It especially applies to chemical reactions.]

Dan's explanation for his detailed lesson introduction reveals his professional reflection and also suggests his detachment from the traditional, direct approach that Tam described. In the two-minute lesson lead-in above, Dan not only introduced the focus of his series of lessons and reviewed the main content of previously learnt modules, but he also delineated the relationship between these two sections and the significance of learning the coming topics. Dan's contention was that by so doing, he could help resolve one of the students' biggest flaws, which is "not knowing the meaning of what they are learning" (Dan). Therefore, through recurrent repetition, Dan hoped to "make students aware of the link between knowledge items and how they together form a whole of knowledge, which

would otherwise become separated in students' minds" (Dan). Dan's pedagogical action drew on his undergraduate experience, when he noticed that "many students were lazy" and "did not review what they had learnt nor did they read in preparation for a lesson" (Dan). Although he did not refer to his lecturers' ways of introducing a lesson as another possible reason for students' lack of awareness of the purpose of the lesson content, it could have been partly because such content connections and the meaning of learning a content item had not been made clear in Dan's lecturers' classroom discourses. This somehow confirmed the existence of the direct and indirect approaches to starting a lesson, as noticed by Tam, a senior lecturer of the same generation as Dan's university lecturers.

Ha's lesson introductions generally echoed Dan and Tam's review of the previously learnt content before presenting the new lesson topics. Ha's lesson lead-ins were quite simple, with the structure of "last time we learnt this" and "today we are going to learn that", so they were not as detailed and probably as "meaningful" as Dan's. Nevertheless, this might be suitable for the "introductory level" of her course content (Ha), which involves basic knowledge about chemical elements of life such as proteins, lipids, and enzymes.

However, what was distinct in Ha's lesson introductions occurred in the first lesson of her course, when she conducted students' needs analysis and course introduction. In fact, Ha was the only lecturer among the six participant lecturers in this study to conduct a needs analysis of the students at the beginning of their courses (see Figure 7.1 below for Ha's needs analysis survey). According to Ha, her needs analysis for EMI students was different from that for VMI ones since the EMI survey included questions about students' preferred medium of language while omitting a few options about learning methods. Ha also added that the learning methods in her English-taught subject were less diverse than those in her VMI courses because the former course was introductory, with pure theoretical information, while the latter one was specialised, which could involve laboratory experiments and hands-on practices.

Figure 7.1: Ha's needs analysis survey at the beginning of her EMI course

As Ha explained the reason for her survey of the students' needs at the beginning of her courses, her self-positioning as a supporter of the student-centred teaching approach became clear. According to Ha, "students are the centre of teaching and learning," so she "would like to ask students for their opinions". By putting students at the centre and surveying their needs and wants, Ha was not only giving her students more attention and acknowledging their capabilities to make sound decisions for their academic development, but she was also granting them the right to partly self-regulate their learning, and thus enabling them to be more responsible and autonomous learners. In her EMI course, Ha allowed her students to make choices regarding learning methods, assignment topics, translation materials, and group mates because she believed that "if students' needs are met, they will learn more enthusiastically" (Ha).

More importantly, Ha's needs analysis of her students and the ensuing negotiation of actions generated a specific moral landscape in her class where her students and herself were allocated different rights and duties, in addition to or replacing the common classroom norms. In this moral landscape, Ha granted her students the right to regulate their learning by making choices in her course. As the students expressed their preferences, they were accepting and exercising this right, but simultaneously bound themselves to the duty to act as they explicitly verbalised. This gave Ha the moral right to request her students to behave according to their expressed wishes. Ha's reference to the co-created moral landscape in her classroom was evident in the following classroom vignette, when Ha asked a question and waited for nearly two minutes but only two students responded:

Extract 7.19:

Remember that during our class many of you want to have interaction, when I ask the way of teaching, you mention that you want to have interaction. So interaction means two, from two sides, right? I talk, you also talk and share your opinion. Otherwise it's only one-way. So if you want to have interaction, please react more. It can be correct, it can be wrong, it's ok. You learn from that so please interact more. And for sure if you interact more in class, you will have incentive and bonus for your final scores, final marks, so please do that. (Ha, EMI session 1)

This specific moral landscape allowed Ha to tactfully manage her classroom while simultaneously respecting her students' opinions. In the comment above, Ha did not stop at her complaint. By changing the storyline, from the storyline of classroom interaction, where the students were positioned as autonomous learners who would not get punished for, but would even benefit from, their incorrect answers, to the storyline of classroom assessment, where the students as active conversation partners were given an advantage of bonus points in their final marks, Ha was also encouraging her students to contribute more to her lessons. This tactful shift from a complaint to a request, and finally to an encouragement, appeared to be effective as after this remark, five more students provided answers to her question.

Ha's classroom activities also revealed her student-centred attitude. The following section will describe the activities inside the three lecturers' EMI classes.

7.2.2.2 Classroom activities

In addition to the students' needs analysis, Ha's student-centred teaching practices were also manifested in her end-course evaluation slips where students were allowed to anonymously share their thoughts about the usefulness of the course, the section they liked best, the teacher' pedagogy, the things they did not like, and any suggestions for course improvement. At home, Ha read those slips, which constituted her own source of evaluation for any future course modifications. This course evaluation practice, as far as Ha was concerned, had not been adopted by any of her colleagues, who "don't ask students to write down" but "only do it orally if they ever do so" (Ha).

The end-course evaluation slips also made Ha aware of the students' appreciation of her lessons, which, as she recounted using her students' words, were "more colourful", "more

diverse", and "more flexible" than those of other lecturers. As Ha elucidated, the course on pedagogical innovations she attended in 2019 greatly impacted her teaching practices. She applied what she had learnt from that professional development program to her own courses and was one of the lecturers selected to participate in a follow-up training program in Ireland. Based on what she had learnt, Ha tried to make her courses more interesting by diversifying the content and the activities her students were exposed to. In other words, Ha would like to create "as many experiences for her students" as possible in her courses (Ha).

However, Ha also admitted that her teaching methods in EMI were fairly limited since her EMI course content was "rather basic", so there were only "group translation activities, group and individual presentations, and essays" (Ha). In fact, according to the syllabus, these activities were assessment tasks in Ha's course. However, the nature of these activities also enabled her students to learn beyond their course content because the students were allowed to explore a topic of their own choice, as long as the topics were related to their course content. As a result, these activities also helped foster the students' autonomy in expanding their knowledge. In addition, classroom data of Ha's EMI lessons also displayed her frequent alternation between lecturing and quizzing her students with some multiple-choice or cloze questions, in addition to her inclusion of images, video clips, and short comic strips in between the PowerPoint content slides. These practices again seemed to confirm her "colourful" and "flexible" pedagogy, aiming to generate diverse experiences for her students.

Ha's accounts above revealed both her self-positioning and her interactive positioning of her colleagues. By distancing herself from her colleagues' course evaluation practices and citing the students' comments on her courses in general, Ha interactively positioned her colleagues as having traditional, rigid, and somehow boring pedagogy. In contrast, by relating her pedagogy to the professional development course on pedagogical innovations, in which Ha was one of the few awarded lecturers, she was reflexively positioning herself as a pedagogical innovator who successfully applied the innovative student-centred teaching methods she had learnt. Ha's remark below best captures her deliberate self-positioning as a pedagogical innovator and her explicit interactive positioning of her colleagues as being pedagogically limited. Interestingly, Ha's response

was to address my question about her perception of the AP students, not about her or her colleagues' pedagogy:

Extract 7.20:
Generally my colleagues praise AP students more than those in standard programs. But I think they don't praise standard program students because they don't have many methods to approach the students so as to uncover the students' love for learning, because when I teach the mainstream students, I also have lots of fun. (Ha)

In the above remark, Ha's deliberate self-positioning as a pedagogical innovator via referring to her unique point of view and stressing her agency reveals her strong professional identity. Her mention of "students' love for learning" and "fun" indicated her different perspective on students' engagement in learning, as compared to Tam's viewpoint of seeing students' engagement as students not "getting overtired" in her lessons (Tam). This act of distinguishing her viewpoint from her colleagues' perspective again placed Ha in an opposite position to her academic counterparts who seemed to embrace the traditionally teacher-centred approach to teaching.

In fact, Tam and Dan's accounts showed that their EMI classes had other activities besides lecturing. In addition to lecturing - the main class activity, the two lecturers also modelled chemical word problem-solving, assigned word problems for students' individual problem-solving, and provided explanations for students' homework tasks. In Tam's two recorded lessons, she also had a five to ten-minute "learning check" at the beginning, and a short quiz of about five minutes in the middle of one of the lessons. In all three instances, Tam asked every student to write their answers on a piece of paper and hand it to her for marking.

While the "learning check" activities at the beginning of two lessons appeared to be planned, because of their pre-existence on the PowerPoint slides, the five-minute quiz in the middle of Tam's second recorded lesson seemed to be spontaneous. Though Tam did not state it clearly in the classroom discourse, this learning check might have been to refresh students' minds and help them focus on the lesson rather than reinforce their content comprehension. Tam once shared in the interview that if she noticed students feeling sleepy during her lessons, she would "give them a fifteen-minute test to wake them up" (Tam). This practice of Tam aligned with Dan's way of engaging the students

in his lesson via "spontaneous 15-minute tests" or "giv[ing] them practice tasks and requir[ing] them to complete to submit to me" (Dan). When I asked Dan what if the students did not complete the practice tasks, he simply replied, "I would not let them attend the final exam", because "even if I do, they will not pass the exam without knowing how to solve those practice tasks" (Dan).

Although Ha, Tam, and Dan all had quizzes and practice tasks in their lessons, their reasons for employing those activities varied. While these tasks were solely for content reinforcement and classroom refreshment in Ha's classes, namely a way for students to interact more with her lesson content, Tam and Dan's discourses indicated that such activities tended to take on extra regulative power, which consequentially might have produced additional pressure for students rather than refreshing them. Clearly, Tam and Dan's accounts and practices demonstrated their full authority and control as traditional lecturers, who have the right to award or punish their students should students obey or disobey them. On the one hand, this seemed to reinforce their self-positionings as traditional lecturers following the teacher-centred pedagogical approach. On the other hand, their sayings and doings appeared to strengthen their interactive positioning of their students as incompetent learners who were weak at self-regulating their learning, including self-monitoring and self-correcting their classroom behaviours. This interactive positioning of the students was once again in stark contrast with Ha's, which granted the students the right to self-regulate their learning through expressing their wishes in the needs analysis survey and exercising their decision-making power in several aspects of Ha's courses.

One element of the lecturers' lessons that caught my attention was their design and use of PowerPoint slides, which will be described more fully in the next section.

7.2.2.3 Information and Communication Technology (ICT) design and use

As I followed the three lecturers' lesson delivery, one thing that struck me was Tam and Dan's design and use of PowerPoint (PPT) slides in their EMI lessons. While Ha's PPT slides in English and Vietnamese were almost the same, Dan's PPT slides in his EMI

lessons were completely different from his VMI slides, and Tam did not use slides at all in her recorded VMI classes.

In fact, the differences in PPT slide design and use in EMI, as compared to that in VMI, illustrated Tam and Dan's pedagogical flexibility as they transitioned from teaching in Vietnamese to teaching in English. According to these lecturers, because of the complex nature of Tam's and Dan's course content, in addition to background knowledge enhancement or pre-teaching, these two lecturers also assisted their EMI students in content comprehension by modifying their design and use of PPT slides, which Ha did not have to do.

Dan's VMI and EMI slides were markedly different (see Figures 7.2 and 7.3 below). While his VMI slides were concise and demonstrated general expectations of PPT slide design, his EMI slides were quite the opposite. When I asked Dan about this, he attributed this practice to his and his students' language constraints:

Extract 7.21:

On English slides I always put in more information so that when I speak, the students understand what I'm talking about, and I speak almost similar to that and I also elaborate on that. This is to serve two purposes. Firstly, for me to know which part I'm talking about. Secondly, for students to see in case I say something difficult to understand. (Dan)

Figure 7.2: A sample of Dan's slides for VMI lessons

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Figure 7.3: A sample of Dan's slides for EMI lessons

Kinetic Theory of Gases(Chapter 27.1-3)

When we think of temperature and heat flow, we (well at least I!) think of thermal energy and motion. For this discussion, we will consider how this relates to the motion of gases. We will consider the gas to be quasi-ideal with a finite volume and hard sphere potential (but no attractive interactions). Thermal energy, we always associate with motion and with temperature. Let's start to quantify these relationships and properties based on the above assumptions.
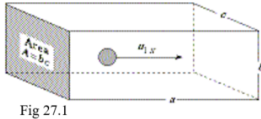
What causes pressure? Collisions of gas molecules with walls. Here in the x-direction, with an elastic (no energy transfer) collision, u_{1x} changes direction with a head-on collision.

Fig 27.1

$$F = \frac{dp}{dt} = \frac{\Delta(m \cdot u_{1x})}{\Delta t} \qquad p - \text{momentum} = m \cdot u_{1x}$$

$$\Delta(m \cdot u_{1x}) = 2mu_{1x} \text{ (reversal of velocity); } \Delta t = \frac{2a}{u_{1x}}$$

Lecture 29   1

Earlier in the interview, Dan showed his awareness of the principles of good PPT slide design, saying that slides should contain "a minimum number of words and only key ideas" because "if there are many words on slides, students can't follow" (Dan). Despite this awareness, he chose not to conform to these principles while designing PPT slides in English because of the practical reasons mentioned above. Dan legitimised his deliberate wordiness on EMI slides by placing himself and his students in the linguistically deficient positions of foreign language users. Also with this reflexive and interactive positioning, Dan was claiming a right for himself and his students to be less linguistically proficient, and thus, a right to linguistic support, which in this case existed in the form of detailed slide content.

Tam's use of PPT slides in EMI was also different from her habitual teaching practices in Vietnamese. Admittedly, when listening to Tam's recorded lessons, I had great difficulty following her speech and looking at the slides at the same time. This was partly due to my lack of familiarity with the disciplinary content, and partly because of the mismatch between Tam's oral lesson delivery and the words on her slides. Hence, there were few clues for me to know which slides she was talking about. When I shared this with Tam in the interview and asked her about the role of PPT slides in her EMI lessons, she responded:

Extract 7.22:

Yes, generally it'd be harder for EMI students to find reference materials outside because the content is totally new to them, so they need detailed slides to follow. So I mainly design slides for them to study, not for me to teach. (Tam)

Tam's further explanation explicitly positioned her as an experienced teacher, who knew her teaching content well enough to be independent from the slide content and could still improvise well. Tam delineated that she was not "at the beginning of the teaching career" "when lecturers have to cling onto slides, talk about the content on each slide like a student giving a presentation, and at best add some sentences to connect slides and ideas" (Tam). By distancing herself from an early-career academic who was probably junior in both content knowledge and communication skills, just like a student, Tam was defending her practice of not connecting the PPT slides with her oral lesson delivery although the slides were shown to the students.

In her accounts, Tam expressed her preference for using a blackboard over PPT slides in her teaching. In the VMI lessons Tam recorded for me, she did not use PPT slides, but a blackboard instead. According to Tam, a blackboard "allows free presentation of ideas" because she could easily draw diagrams, connect ideas together, change, and add content on a blackboard, while PPT slide content tends to be fixed, and "PPT slides for the students is like watching a movie show" so "nothing retains in their heads" (Tam). PPT slides for Tam were only useful for showing images of laboratory equipment. However, due to the challenging nature of EMI and her belief about EMI students' inability to find extra reference materials to self-study, she would like to support them by preparing PPT slides and providing them to her students as a source of learning materials. With this pedagogical decision, Tam was again implicitly presenting herself as a committed content knowledge provider, while her students were explicitly positioned as academically incompetent who were thus unable to help themselves and needed to rely on her for materials to study. Tam's recurrent positioning of her students as incompetent and unknowledgeable justified her acts of duty as a content knowledge provider and reinforced her withdrawal of the students' right to be autonomous in their learning.

Tam's classroom interaction was also significantly different between her VMI and EMI lessons. The following section will present a more detailed analysis of the three lecturers' classroom interactions in EMI.

7.2.2.4 Classroom interaction

Another aspect that was noticeable in the three lecturers' classroom data was the variation in classroom interaction, particularly the questioning practices among the lecturers in their EMI lessons, and between their EMI and VMI lessons. Although the differences in the nature of content knowledge in each course, even in each lesson, and the types of students between EMI and VMI programs did not allow for a reasonable comparison between lecturers and among their classes, it was my impression that the EMI lessons were less interactive than the VMI ones, both regarding teacher-student and student-student interaction. This was confirmed in Ha and Tam's accounts as they responded to my question about their classroom interaction in EMI:

> Extract 7.23:
>
> In VMI I have more diverse activities so I think interaction in my VMI classes is better. For example, in my VMI courses, the students make products, give presentations, give peer feedback about the products, meaning that the activities are more varied, so there is more interaction and the interaction is more effective than in EMI classes. This is due to the nature of the course, not the language of instruction. (Ha)
>
> Extract 7.24:
>
> The students' ability to listen and provide quick responses in English is limited. If you pose questions and wait for their answers, it will take you five to ten minutes, and even so, they don't dare to answer. So in EMI classes, if you ask and wait for answers, you won't have enough time to finish the content. (Tam)

Ha's answer emphasised the nature of the course content as the main factor deciding the amount of interaction in her class, "not the language of instruction" (Ha). According to Ha, the more activities she could design for her class, the more interactive the class would be. In VMI, Ha's courses for last-year students contained specialised content in Chemical Engineering technology, so she could involve students in many activities connected to real-life or workplace situations. On the contrary, the Fundamental Biochemistry course content in English was rather basic and theoretical. Hence, the amount of teacher-student and student-student interaction generated from her activities of quizzes, essays, translation, and presentations was, in Ha's opinion, less satisfactory.

While Ha's remark highlighted diverse classroom activities as key drivers of classroom interaction, and thus implicitly pointed to the important role of lecturers in designing class activities, Tam's comment focused on the link between students' English language

competency, particularly oral communicative competencies, and the amount of interaction in her class. In Tam's opinion, the limited interaction in her EMI class resulted from students' inability to respond to her questions in a timely manner. Therefore, she had to restrict her questioning to save class hours for content delivery. In other words, Tam's narrative seemed to downplay her role in fostering classroom interaction, suggesting her potentially inadequate attention to pedagogy, just as a teacher-centred follower often does. In contrast, Ha's acknowledgement of the role of lecturers in designing classroom activities that could have an impact on students' learning seemed to align well with her position as a practitioner of the student-centred teaching approach.

The discrepancy between Ha and Tam's perspectives regarding factors impacting their classroom interaction was also reflected in their classroom practices. Since Ha cared about the amount of interaction in her classrooms and tried her best to create an interactive atmosphere in her classes, lesson recordings showed a fairly high quality of interaction in Ha's EMI class. Every 15 to 20 minutes during her lecture Ha would stop to ask questions, often telling the students that "we interact a bit to prevent you from falling asleep" (Ha). Ha's most employed question types were display and retrospective, asking students about something that she clearly knew the answer to, or reminding students of the content they had acquired respectively. Ha was also very patient with her students, often waiting at least six seconds and sometimes up to two minutes for their responses, encouraging students to think and answer, as in an extract below.

Extract 7.25:

OK, so what property unites H, O, C, and N that make them suitable to the chemistry of life? What do you think? *(9 secs wait)* Ừ cái đặc tính gì của những nguyên tố này, hydro, oxy, cacbon, nito khiến cho nó rất là phù hợp để nó là vật liệu, là những chất hóa học của sự sống? Trong cơ thể mình thì các em biết rồi, những cái nguyên tố này chiếm hơn 99% tổng số các nguyên tố trong cơ thể. Thế thì vì sao nó lại có tỉ lệ cao như vậy, theo các em, thử dự đoán xem? [Yeah, what characteristic of these elements, hydrogen, oxygen, carbon, nitrogen, that make them very suitable for becoming materials, chemistry of life? In our body, you know, these elements account for more than 99% of all elements in our body. So why do they account for such a high percentage? What do you think? Let's guess.] *(46 secs wait)* No answer? OK, so the first thing is that (...) (Ha, EMI session 1)

As for Tam, the recordings of her lessons in Vietnamese and English were in stark contrast regarding teacher-student interaction. In the VMI lessons, Tam and her students collaborated on solving chemical word problems on the blackboard, with Tam continuously asking display questions followed by her students' almost immediate answers. In the EMI lessons, Tam asked much fewer questions, most of which were self-answered, meaning that Tam waited for less than two seconds before answering her questions herself. Although the nature of content in Tam's recorded VMI and EMI classes were different, as the VMI one was a homework correction session, Tam's positioning of her students as being language incompetent, and thus unable to supply spontaneous answers to her questions, resulted in her reduction in the wait time for students' answers. Otherwise, it could have created some "uneasy" silence in her class, which might have forced the students to raise their voices. However, since Tam could not wait, probably due to the heavy content in her course and her priority in meeting the content delivery goals of each lesson, the students might consequentially and gradually not feel pressured to answer her questions. As classroom interaction is conducive to students' learning, Tam's fulfilment of a content knowledge provider's role in this case did not seem to help her students' knowledge development.

As for Dan, according to his classroom data, the number of questions he posed to his students in the EMI and VMI classes did not differ considerably. In fact, the only differences were that in the Vietnamese-medium classes, though with the same wait time of about two to three seconds as in EMI classes, Dan's content questions got answered and Dan also received a few content questions from his students, both of which did not occur in his EMI classes. However, Dan did not see this as a typical feature of his classroom interaction in EMI. According to him, interaction in his class all depended on "each lesson and each class" because "sometimes I ask hard questions, sometimes I ask

easy ones, to check students' level of understanding" and "there were students raising questions in EMI classes too" (Dan). Dan's remark suggested his seemingly inconsistent questioning practice, which did not result from careful pedagogical consideration.

Dan's questioning pattern was also different from the other two lecturers. Dan not only asked more questions than Ha and Tam, but he also asked the question type these two lecturers did not ask. On average, Dan asked about ten questions per lesson while this number was approximately six to seven and four to five in Tam and Ha's classes respectively. In addition to rhetorical and self-answered questions, which were Dan's most common question types, he also asked language ones, via which he sought students' assistance in finding correct English words. Neither Ha nor Tam asked language questions in their EMI classes. The extract below was an example of Dan's language questions. In this extract, although Dan mistook the spelling of "slit" for "slid", and the meaning of "slid" for "lid", through consulting students' English vocabulary knowledge, Dan was placing him in an equal position to his students, who were also English language learners. As a result, he was not hesitant to ask for his students' language support, which in return might produce a relaxing language use environment for him and his students.

> Extract 7.26:
>
> **Dan:** (...) and particle here will go through this err this this hole, or maybe this small khe hở là gì nhỉ? [what is khe hở?] *(2 secs pause)* Khe hở là gì? Có biết ko? [What is a long narrow opening? Do you know?] *(3 secs pause)* Hole thì thầy biết nhưng khe hở thầy không biết. Thôi tạm thời thầy cứ dạy là hole nhé? [I know hole but I don't know what a long narrow opening is called. I just use the word hole for the time being ok?] Through hole here so by changing the velocity here we can
>
> **A student:** Ah slit
>
> **Dan:** Ko, sli/d/ là cái nắp, sli/d/ là cái nắp [No, sli/d/ is the cover, sli/d/ is the cover]
>
> **A student:** Lid
>
> **Dan:** Ah lid thì là khe hở, slid là cái nắp, đúng không? [Ah lid is a long narrow opening, sli/d/ is the cover, right?] By changing velocity here so we can select ah we can ah detect particle go through this sli/d/ by changing velocity and we err determine the number of particle go through this selector (...)
>
> (Dan, EMI session 1)

Dan's classroom extract above demonstrates not only his use of language questions in his EMI lessons but also his code-switching practices, which we now turn to in the next section.

7.2.2.5 Language use

In fact, Ha and Dan's questioning extracts above both demonstrate the use of their and their students' first language, Vietnamese, in the lecturers' EMI practices. Using Vietnamese with EMI students was also one dimension of the EMI pedagogical flexibility that Tam advocated, as discussed at the beginning of Section 7.2.2. In addition to the spontaneous use of Vietnamese, which might be habitual, and thus unconscious, all the three Chemistry lecturers had specific reasons for employing Vietnamese in their English-medium lessons.

As a competent English language speaking lecturer, Ha's remark below indicates that the only reason she spoke Vietnamese in her EMI classes was the inclusion of talented students from the VMI program. As described in Section 7.1.2, the permission for talented students to learn in English together with Advanced Program students was a special policy at University A to provide both groups of students with an opportunity to boost their content and/or language learning. As if unaware of the university's underlying reason, Ha seemed to perceive that she had a right to use Vietnamese in her EMI lessons due to the heterogeneity of the student body. Nevertheless, as Ha considered learning in English "an opportunity" for her students, she would like them to benefit from this opportunity by listening to her speaking in English as much as possible, because "if I speak in Vietnamese, then it's a VMI program, no longer an EMI one" (Ha). Therefore, if many students preferred to use Vietnamese in the needs analysis at the beginning of her EMI course, she would "convince them to learn in English as well" (Ha). As a way to respect the students' opinions, Ha's solution was to "speak in English for main parts of the lesson", but "switch completely to Vietnamese" for exemplification and discussion (Ha).

> Extract 7.27:
>
> Yes [I use Vietnamese], because my course is for both advanced and talented students. Advanced students learn in English more than talented ones. Many talented students ask me right at the beginning to teach in Vietnamese. So I ask the class, in the first lesson I ask the students what they want, if most of them want 50-50, for example, I will use both languages. There were also classes who were too scared of English so they wanted to learn in Vietnamese. In that case, I would convince them to learn in English as well. This is an opportunity for them so I will adapt a bit, I will still speak in English for main parts of the lesson, but for giving examples or discussions, we'll switch completely to Vietnamese. (Ha)

While Ha's interview data show that her use of Vietnamese in EMI lessons was mostly affective, that is, to please her students, Dan's explanation below reveals that his code-mixing practices had clear pedagogical reasons:

Extract 7.28:

Teaching in English doesn't put much pressure on me now because I'm used to the content. However, still there is a difficulty, obviously my teaching in English is not as interesting as that in Vietnamese. So to compensate for my limits as well as students' limits, I often speak both English and Vietnamese. Maybe at the beginning I give an overview of the lesson in Vietnamese, (...) then I speak in English. There are students who know English terms but not Vietnamese ones, this is not good, because not every student will be working in English-speaking environment. Indeed most students will work in domestic environments, and if they don't know Vietnamese terms, that will be their disadvantage, they might use the terms incorrectly. So I also use Vietnamese to explain the terms or difficult content to them. Then I use Vietnamese at the end of the lesson to summarise everything. (Dan)

It was interesting to note how Dan's rights and duties in EMI were redistributed via the shifts in storylines in Dan's explanation above. At first, in the storyline of EMI instruction, Dan as an instructor and a knowledge provider had full competence to exercise his duty of transmitting knowledge to his students. Nevertheless, by referring to Vietnamese-medium instruction to contrast with English-medium instruction, Dan was implicitly moving from the storyline of instruction to the storyline of language use in classrooms where Dan was placed in a disadvantaged position as a foreign language user of English, just like his students. As foreign language users, Dan and his students had the right to be less proficient in English, hence the right to language support. As a result, Dan had the right and also the duty to use Vietnamese to support himself and his students in content dissemination and content comprehension respectively.

This exercise of duty took on an added dimension as Dan imagined his students in a new storyline at their future workplaces where Vietnamese, not English, became the primary mode of use. Dan's imaginary storyline of language use in workplaces again presented his students in a disadvantaged position due to an inevitable transformation they had to undergo from a user of English inside classrooms to a user of Vietnamese in professional settings. Therefore, as a committed content knowledge provider, Dan saw it as his duty not only to use Vietnamese to facilitate his students' content comprehension but also to include Vietnamese meanings of English technical terms in his lectures, to support his students' successful transition from the university to the workplace. With the remark

above, Dan seems to have argued that using Vietnamese in his EMI classes was a remedy and also a necessity.

Sharing the same thoughts with Dan, Tam also perceived the use of Vietnamese as useful for the students' content learning in English. However, Tam did not advocate for the use of Vietnamese and English interchangeably within a sentence as "it'd feel like you can't speak at all" (Tam). Instead, using Vietnamese in Tam's accounts was linked to pre-teaching, meaning that in Tam's opinion, extra content instruction provided to students in advance of their EMI lessons should be conducted in Vietnamese. Tam's description of her pedagogical flexibility in EMI, as discussed at the beginning of Section 7.2.2, mentions this relationship between Vietnamese and background knowledge enhancement. Tam commented on the relationship between English and Vietnamese in her EMI experiences as follows:

> Extract 7.29:
>
> Previously, for English-medium instruction, if teaching 100% in English, we almost spent double amount of time, meaning that we would need one more lesson to teach in Vietnamese. So now we do the other way round, that is, if your lessons are EMI but you speak in Vietnamese, it's pointless. Or for example, you're saying a sentence in English and you insert Vietnamese in that sentence, it feels like you can't speak at all, that's hard. Also in science, it's very important that students should listen to English so that they can think in English. So in my opinion, in EMI lessons we should use English 100%, that is, we have to put students in an English environment so that they can learn to think in English. It's not that you are paid higher so you have to speak in English, no, it's because of the students' benefit. But if there are only Vietnamese lecturers with Vietnamese students, there's no need to use English from beginning to end. There can be times when we get out of the English mode completely and communicate with each other in Vietnamese. (Tam)

In fact, Tam's comment above suggests that had it not been due to the AP students' weak background knowledge, Tam would not have advocated for the use of Vietnamese in EMI. According to Tam, it would be "pointless" to use Vietnamese in EMI lessons because by so doing, students were not aided in developing their ability to think in English, which Tam underscored. Therefore, Tam's solution was English-only in EMI lessons and extra-curricular content instruction in Vietnamese. Prior to 2020, Tam conducted those extra lessons after EMI lessons, which could facilitate EMI students' content learning only. However, this sequence did not foster the students' ability to think in English because when they listened to English, they "did not have enough content to think" (Tam). Therefore, in 2020 Tam decided to do it the other way round, pre-teaching the difficult content in Vietnamese before EMI lessons. Given the Vietnamese EMI

context of lecturers and students sharing the first language, Tam did not find further meaning in using English beyond EMI class hours. Her belief was backed by her citation of UNESCO, which "also confirms that content learning is best conducted through the mother tongue" (Tam).

In her remark above, it is interesting to note Tam's contrast between her moral and personal positioning. As an EMI lecturer, Tam was aware of her prescribed moral duty to teach in English only and of her right to higher pay for performing that duty. However, Tam asserted that it was not because of the right that made her teach in English only. In other words, even having that right, she would not make herself be bound to the duty of using only English in her EMI lessons if it did not really benefit the students. To put it differently, Tam's personal duty, which prioritised her students' benefits over policy compliance, would cause her to act against policy requirements if necessary. Tam believed that an English-only environment would benefit her students' thinking skills, so she was willing to teach in English only. Again Tam's remark indicates her devotion to her students, implicitly revealing her position as a devoted content knowledge provider.

Tam's classroom data were consistent with her accounts. In Tam's two recorded EMI lessons, there was only one incident of Vietnamese use (see the extract below), when Tam was explaining the difference between "verification" and "validation", two important concepts in Analytical Chemistry. Her resort to Vietnamese to explain key concepts in her discipline highlighted her main position as a flexible content knowledge provider, who, in case of necessity, would prioritise effective content transmission and content comprehension over the administrative requirement of using English-only.

Extract 7.30:

So when you set up that method, you can read in the book, in article, in handout, and what else? So mean you can extract the method from the literature and then we do follow the procedure for analytical validation. But whenever you have standard method from the national, from the organisation that certify the process, so we call verification. Do you understand? But Vietnamese meaning *xác nhận giá trị sử dụng của phương pháp phân tích*, so that's the word. Xác nhận giá trị sử dụng của phương pháp phân tích đối với phương pháp tiêu chuẩn thì gọi là verification. Trước đây gọi là thẩm định phương pháp, nhưng người ta bảo là đã đúng rồi thì làm sao phải thẩm định. Cho nên bây giờ đổi cho cô là xác nhận giá trị sử dụng của phương pháp tiêu chuẩn. Nó có thể từ quốc gia hoặc là tổ chức quốc tế ví dụ TCVN của VN, EPA của Cục liên bang môi trường Mỹ, ASCN của Hiệp hội hóa vật liệu, AOAC nó là Hiệp hội của các nhà thực phẩm, rồi ISO, tất cả các tổ chức khác thì người ta gọi là verification. Còn khi mình tự xây dựng phương pháp lấy, tức là tự khảo sát lấy điều kiện, xong tối ưu hóa nó như thế nào, và xác nhận xem nó có phù hợp không thì gọi là validation. OK. So why is method validation necessary? (Tam, EMI session 1)

[Validation of an analytical method against a standard method is called verification. In the past it was called method appraisal, but people argued that why we still needed to appraise it if it was already correct. So now we can call it method verification. It can be from a national or international organisation such as the Vietnamese TCVN, the EPA by the US Federal Environmental Agency, the ASCN by the Chemical Materials Association, the AOAC by the Association of Food Professionals, then ISO, and other agencies, we call it verification. When we build the method ourselves, that is, we survey the conditions, ways to optimise it, and determine whether it is suitable, it's called validation.]

While Tam resisted using Vietnamese inside EMI classrooms, Dan's classroom data showed his willingness to switch to Vietnamese if necessary. Indeed, according to Dan, he often used Vietnamese at three times in his lessons: at the beginning, for lesson introduction, to give an overview of the lesson content; during the lesson, "for content that is too difficult"; and at the end of the lesson when he summarised the lesson content (Dan). Classroom data pointed out that in addition to these three stages, Dan also used Vietnamese to pre-teach some content knowledge (as discussed in Section 7.2.1 above) and to compensate for his English language limitations during his oral lesson delivery (as in the language question he raised to his students for language support). Besides the employment of Vietnamese for content transmission purposes, Dan also spoke in Vietnamese when he shared his research experiences as a way to connect to his students and colour his lessons:

Extract 7.31:

Tức là đến bây giờ chúng ta vẫn phải nghiên cứu những phản ứng cơ bản này. Các bạn có biết ko, đến bây giờ chúng ta còn không hiểu rõ nó thế nào nhá. Hồi xưa thầy ở bên nước ngoài, các thầy nghiên cứu cái này, thầy mới hỏi ông thầy của thầy. Ông thầy của thầy là một người đã đọc quyển của Atkin và phản biện quyển Atkin ý. Các bạn biết quyển của Atkin rồi Principles of Chemistry ý. Thì thầy mới hỏi một câu, Thầy mới hỏi là 2 nguyên tử này va chạm với nhau như thế này thì cái năng lượng dao động chuyển sang năng lượng tịnh tiến như thế nào khi mà các hạt nhân càng nặng, thì ông ấy suy nghĩ một hồi và bảo là cái này tao cũng không biết. (Dan)

[Until now we still need to study basic reactions. Do you know that until now we still don't know about this clearly. Previously when I was overseas, we studied this and I asked my teacher. My teacher was one of the professors who read the book by Atkin and reviewed it. You know the book by Atkin, Principles of Chemistry. I asked him a question, I asked him that when two atoms collide like this, how the vibrational energy changes to translational energy when the nuclei get heavier. He thought for a while and then said "I don't know this either."]

Using Vietnamese more than stated was also found in Ha's lesson recordings. According to Ha, she used Vietnamese for difficult content explanations and in-class discussions while she requested her students to do their presentations and other assignments in English. Nevertheless, as I watched Ha's Zoom lecture recordings, there was one time when she lectured in Vietnamese only for about 50 minutes without any discernible clues.

Vietnamese seemed to be uttered unconsciously after she started the lesson in the mother tongue, suggesting the potential overriding control of habits in Ha's language use. In another recording, Ha requested her students to give their presentations of the translated texts in Vietnamese "for better comprehension and discussions among the audience," as Ha noticed that many students were not listening while the presenters were speaking in English. These classroom incidents indicated that although Ha set out some rules regarding language use for herself and her students, these rules might not be strictly adhered to in Ha's EMI classes, given the dominating role of content over language and Ha's position as a content knowledge provider.

Ha's interview also revealed another feature of her language use in EMI: the use of general English in place of academic English to explain meanings. According to Ha, if she encountered a content item that she found hard to express, she would "choose other words provided that students understand". Ha added, "sometimes for students if lecturers use difficult words, they will not grasp it". Ha's paraphrase of academic words using general vocabulary was illustrated in a classroom extract below when Ha was trying to explain the word "fidelity" on the PPT slide (see Figure 7.4) about different properties of molecules:

Figure 7.4: Ha's PPT slide which accompanied her use of general English
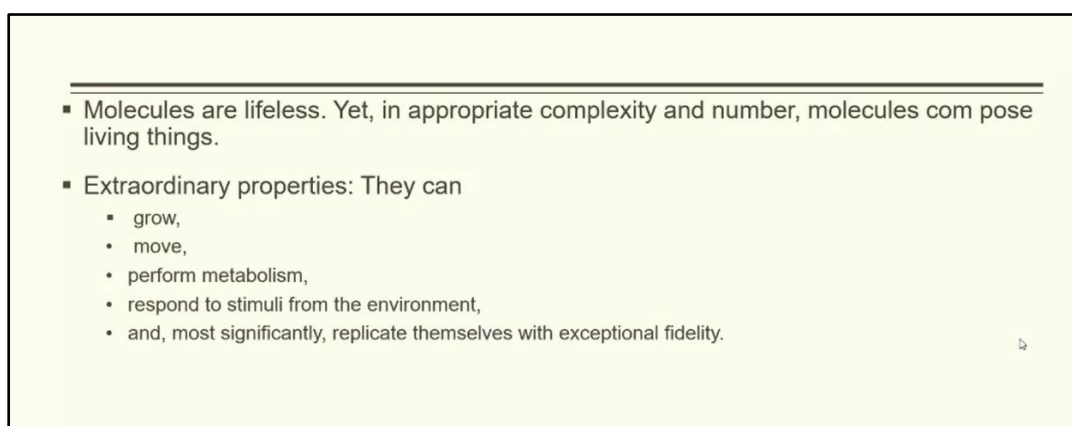
Extract 7.32:

And the last property here I want to mention is that this living system can replicate themselves with exceptional fidelity, right. So it's very with the err err for example from parents, right, from a father and a mother they form a baby and the baby has a lot of characteristics that are similar to their parents. And this is thanks to the system of genetic materials in the body, DNA or RNA. (Ha, EMI session 1)

Ha's flexibility with language use in the above extract reveals her good English competence, as confirmed by Ha's high scores in an international English language test (as mentioned in Section 7.1.3). Nevertheless, without an explicit verbal clue signalling that she was trying to explain the word "fidelity", Ha's students might not understand her effort to do so, and thus might not link "fidelity" with "a lot of characteristics that are similar to their parents" in their minds.

In summary, the three lecturers' shared self-positionings as content knowledge providers were expressed differently in their teaching methods, depending on the strength of their attachment to their role of transmitting knowledge to their students. Tam and Dan's classroom practices demonstrated their absolute authority in their classrooms, thus implicitly positioning themselves as traditional lecturers who followed the teacher-centred pedagogy. In contrast, Ha's instructional practices seem to respect and enhance the students' learning autonomy, which confirms her deliberate self-positioning as a pedagogical innovator, who supported the student-centred teaching approach. Another important aspect of the lecturers' teaching duty involves their assessment practices, which will be examined closely in the following section.

7.2.3 Assessment: The Chemistry lecturers' self-positionings as solely content assessors

Lecturers' assessment practices were the pedagogical aspect that I could obtain the least information about since exam questions are considered confidential materials, which could not be provided to outside researchers without school permission. Course guides, which usually contain information about course assessment, turned out to be of little value to this study due to Tam's sharing that they were "to fulfil administrative requirement" (Tam) rather than of real practical use to the lecturers. In fact, Dan could not give me the guide for his course because "I could not find it" and "it was no different from the table of contents of the textbook" (Dan). Tam also accidentally provided me with an old-versioned course guide, which I was unaware of until she told me. Nevertheless, the interview and classroom data revealed that the three lecturers consistently positioned themselves as content assessors, although their assessment purposes and practices differed, especially between Ha and her other two counterparts.

Tam and Dan employed assessment as the main tool to evaluate their students' content learning and manage their classrooms, whereas for Ha, assessment had additional purposes: to enhance the students' learning autonomy and facilitate the students' soft skills development. Therefore, although the types of assessment activities in the three lecturers' classes were somewhat similar, the philosophy underlying the lecturers' assessment practices was different. Tam and Dan's quick tests, or "learning check", not only helped "wake them up" if the students started getting bored during lessons (Tam), but also contributed to the students' overall scores. Therefore, these tests had more regulative power and were more threatening than Ha's quizzes, which were only for content reinforcement and class management.

In addition to in-class tests, Tam and Dan also had homework exercises, which the students had to complete and submit to the two lecturers. While Tam's students also did presentations (which Dan's class did not do), these presentations were like oral reports of students' problem-solving rather than an outcome of information searching and processing, which was what Ha's students were required to do. As a result, presentations in Tam's class once again seemed to check students' content comprehension and mastery. That might explain why Tam only assigned her students presentation tasks towards the end of the course "when students already have some foundational content" (Tam). Ha, in contrast, expressed a broader perspective than Tam regarding presentation activities, as evidenced in her explanation to the students in class:

Extract 7.33:

Thực ra khi mà cô dạy các bạn cô cũng rất muốn các bạn có cơ hội để trình bày tại vì một trong những nhược điểm của sinh viên Việt Nam mình ý là khi đi ra ngoài các bạn rất là ngại ngùng, thường là các bạn rất là ngại nói mặc dù kiến thức của mình rất là tốt, đúng không, nhưng mình rất là ngại đưa ra ý kiến của mình, đứng trước đám đông để trình bày. Thì bây giờ các em cũng là sinh viên năm 3 năm 4 rồi mình cũng cần phải có được nhiều cơ hội để mình đứng lên mình trình bày, để khi các em bảo vệ tốt nghiệp cũng như là khi các em đi làm ý thì mình đã có nhiều cơ hội để mình rèn giũa để mình tự tin đứng trước đám đông. Thế thì việc trao cho các em cơ hội để trình bày là mong muốn của cô khi thực hiện môn học này, cũng như các môn học khác cũng vậy thôi, cô cũng rất muốn các bạn có thật nhiều cơ hội để đứng lên trình bày. Vì lớp mình khá đông nên thành ra là lượt trình bày của mình không được nhiều, như một số môn cô dạy chuyên đề ý thì số lượng sinh viên trong lớp ít thì các bạn được trình bày rất là nhiều. Mỗi bạn là một bài luôn chứ không phải là mấy bạn trong một nhóm. (Ha, EMI session 1)

[In fact when I teach you, I really want you to have an opportunity to present because one of Vietnamese students' weaknesses is that when they go out, they are often very shy, they're not willing to speak out although their knowledge is very good, right, but they're afraid to give their opinions, to stand in front of a crowd to speak. Now that you are third-year, fourth-year students, you also need to have many opportunities to stand up and present so that when you do your thesis

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defence or when you go to work, you already have had many opportunities to practise to confidently stand in front of a crowd. So giving you opportunities to present was my desire when I designed this course, like my other courses, I always want students to have many opportunities to present in front of the class. Because our class is quite big, you don't have as many, like in some specialisation courses that I taught, the number of students was small so they could present a lot. Each of them was in charge of a presentation, they didn't have to do it in groups.]

Ha's explanation indicates that presentations were considered a format to evaluate students' content learning and a necessary skill that Ha would like her students to improve. Therefore, even when there were a large number of students in her current class, Ha still gave her students two opportunities to present, one in groups and one individually. Ha's students were first required to give a presentation about the content of their groups' translation materials, and second to give another presentation about their individually researched topic, which they also had to write an essay about. Ha came up with the reading-translation and essay writing assignments so that her students could engage more in the course's related content while developing their English competencies simultaneously. According to Ha, her students were permitted to choose the topic for their group translation and individual presentation essays as long as they informed her in advance and received her approval. By allowing the students to make choices for their learning, Ha believed "they would become more motivated" to perform the assessment tasks.

Although Tam and Dan's assessment practices could be distinguished from Ha's in terms of the broad approaches, the three lecturers appeared to agree on the focus on meaning in assessment activities and criteria. In other words, despite Tam and Dan's tendency to be more teacher-centred in their course assessment, whereas Ha is more student-centred, their assessment practices all took disciplinary content as the focus, while putting disciplinary language aside. Even for Ha's translation and essay writing activities, which seemed to have a strong language tendency, her assessment criteria were still content-focused. To be specific, the three lecturers unanimously concurred that spelling and grammar mistakes were "allowed" (Tam), and the only thing that counted was "the scientific content" (Tam), meaning "the results" (Dan), the formulae, or "the message conveyed" (Ha), not the language. Correct language only served as a bonus point in addition to accurate content. The three lecturers' assessment practices seemed to indicate their similar positioning as solely content assessors. As such, they were also interactively

positioning their students as content learners whose English language proficiency did not account much for their academic success in EMI.

Furthermore, Tam's recounts pointed to an interesting adaptation that her department made to the design of their assessment tasks when they innovated their curriculum at the beginning of the AP, following the imported American textbooks. Tam explained it below when she elaborated on the American approach to content teaching:

> Extract 7.34:
>
> With the design of assessment tasks, in the past our exam papers in Vietnamese often started with questions about concept definitions, then some calculations, but students didn't know the reasons why they had to do those calculations. Now all our exam questions start with contexts. For example, if I want students to do this calculation, I have to provide them a context, the reason why they need to do that calculation. For example, we present them with a context of cyanide poisoning and cyanide goes to which organ, and then we ask them questions about cyanide, its existence form, and related calculations. Therefore, our exams now are totally different. (Tam)

According to Tam, the new exam question design enhanced the quality of the students' content comprehension and improved the lecturers' thinking capabilities. Adding contexts to exam questions made exam performance more realistic and meaningful. By presenting to the students a real-life problem related to their studies, the lecturers in Tam's department had unknowingly assigned their students a new role as problem solvers, who needed to apply their acquired content knowledge more deeply to address a real-world issue. Although still in the position of content assessors, the lecturers were also required to engage more deeply with the knowledge they taught when designing assessment tasks.

In brief, the lecturers' reflexive positionings as solely content assessors, appear on the one hand, to align well with their self-positionings as content knowledge providers and their content-focused teaching practices. On the other hand, their interactive positionings of their students as content learners, though guaranteeing the students' decent scores compared to their VMI counterparts, did not seem to promote these students' language learning in EMI.

Summary

In light of Positioning Theory, this chapter has delineated the three Chemistry lecturers' positionings and teaching practices, particularly their instructional adaptations, regarding teaching content, pedagogy, and assessment in EMI. Drawing on key tenets of Positioning theory and its important concepts such as right, duty, and storyline, the findings have provided nuanced understandings about the lecturers' beliefs and practices in EMI and how their self-positionings and interactive positionings of their students interacted with their pedagogical practices.

Generally, the three Chemistry lecturers prioritise content over language in their teaching. Their perceptions of their rights and duties in EMI clearly reveal their self-positionings as content knowledge providers and content assessors. Although their pedagogical approaches in general remained the same as in VMI, with Tam and Dan being more teacher-centred while Ha more student-centred, the lecturers were also flexible in their EMI practices, with several instructional adaptations made to address their and/or their students' challenges in EMI.

Altogether the instructional adaptations that the three Chemistry lecturers made include:

(1) pre-teaching,

(2) fewer elaborations and less difficult content,

(3) a turn to the "indirect approach" to content introduction and assessment design,

(4) different ICT design and use (i.e., PPT slide design and use),

(5) reduced in-class interaction,

(6) the use of Vietnamese L1 as a remedy and a necessity, and

(7) focus-on-meaning assessment practices.

Since teaching practices might vary across hard and soft academic disciplines, and so might teacher positionings, it is necessary to explore how lecturers from a social sciences discipline position themselves and implement EMI in their context. Chapter 8 reports findings from the case study of EMI Law lecturers.

CHAPTER 8:

LAW LECTURERS' POSITIONINGS AND PRACTICES IN EMI

Introduction

Following the presentation of the Chemistry lecturers' positionings and practices in EMI in Chapter 7, this chapter presents findings about the positionings and practices of the second group of participants - the Law lecturers. Key concepts and tenets of Positioning Theory were again applied in analysing the Law lecturers' interview and classroom data, to uncover their positionings and beliefs underlying their classroom practices.

The findings revealed three main reflexive positionings adopted by the Law lecturers: (1) as guides to legal content and legal English, (2) as Socratic pedagogues, and (3) as flexible content assessors. These positionings correspond to the lecturers' (teaching) content, pedagogy, and assessment duties, three categories of teaching duties drawn from the Vietnamese EMI policy documents (see Chapter 6 for details). These positionings were also associated with several instructional adaptations made by the lecturers in their English-medium instruction. To lay the foundation for the later discussion of the lecturers' positionings and practices, this chapter starts with a description of the case, which includes information about University B, its High-Quality Program (HQP) in Law, the three Law lecturers, and their EMI courses.

8.1 A case description

8.1.1 University B

As outlined in Section 5.3.1, University B is one member of University AB - the "principal" university of which University A is also a member. University B is a mono-disciplinary institution majoring in legal studies. It has been publicly acknowledged as

one of Vietnam's three best legal education institutions in Vietnam. The university also takes pride in having the highest number of well-qualified teaching staff among all Vietnamese legal education institutions, with 89.5% of its tenured lecturers holding doctoral degrees. The university's 83 tenured lecturers belong to six faculties, and some of them also take on extra positions at University B's five research centres. The tenured lecturers and hundreds of external collaborators deliver courses to over 4,000 undergraduate and graduate students at University B.

University B's website declares that its mission is to educate high-quality human resources in legal disciplines, and its vision is to become a renowned research-oriented university in legal studies in South East Asia. The university aims to become Vietnam's leading legal education institution by 2030, with all its programs being nationally accredited and at least 40% accredited by the ASEAN (the Association of South East Asian Nations) University Network - Quality Assurance (AUN-QA). Until 2022, about 20% of its undergraduate and Master's programs have had their quality certified by AUN-QA.

University B also emphasises international collaboration in academic and research activities to build its international reputation and improve the quality of its legal research and education. University B has student exchange programs with several universities in South East Asia and its educational programs, such as some Master's programs, have been professionally supported by Dutch, Australian, British, and Irish universities. The Master's program on International Collaboration and International Business has been jointly delivered by University B and its French partners since 2001. Developing English-taught programs is also one of University B's strategies to update its curriculum and enhance the competencies of its teaching staff to meet regional and international standards.

Frequent meetings, conferences, and seminars are other strategies adopted by University B to enhance its lecturers' instructional and research capabilities. In the school year 2021-2022, 31 conferences and seminars were held, all of which focused on different legal branches and aspects. According to the lecturers, these events are also their professional

learning opportunities because they keep the lecturers updated on current legal trends and issues.

Furthermore, University B possesses sufficient infrastructure to provide high-quality tertiary education. It has one library, a multi-media room, two halls, and 18 smart classrooms, fully equipped with projectors, interactive boards, and air-conditioners. It also shares several large lecture halls with other member colleges of University AB. Free internet access is available throughout the campus.

With its consistent record of successful educational outcomes, highly qualified teaching staff, and adequate infrastructure, University B's proposal to open the High-Quality Program in Law (HQP) taught in English was approved by Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training in 2018. The university started admitting students to the HQP in the school year 2018-2019. The following section will provide further information about this program at University B.

8.1.2 The High-Quality Program in Law

To better understand the Law lecturers' EMI practices, it is essential to have an overview of the EMI program in which the lecturers are involved. This section therefore highlights some fundamental contextual information about University B's HQP in Law, including its content, students, and lecturers. Such information was drawn from related curricula, the university website, and an interview with the leader of University B's EMI facilitation team, who was also the Head of University B's English for Law Department (see Section 5.3.1.2 for details about the EMI facilitation team at University B).

Before going into details of the HQP in Law, a clarification of its name is necessary. The Vietnamese full name of the HQP in Law investigated in this study is "High-Quality Program Circular 23" because the program was established according to Circular 23 issued in 2014 by Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training. The ending "Circular 23" is to differentiate this program from another program also named "High-Quality", now referred to by the lecturers as "the real High-Quality Program", which was discontinued upon University B's establishment of HQPs according to Circular 23. The

"real" HQP was an educational scheme for students in social sciences disciplines, similar to the talented program for students in natural sciences (as explained in Section 7.1.2). This HQP selected about 30 top students enrolled in a social sciences major every year, based on their secondary academic achievements or a special set of tests. The students selected would then study a more challenging program than their mainstream counterparts and receive preferential treatment regarding lecturers, scholarships, and other resource allocations, with a view to becoming experts or scholars in their field of study. Despite preferential treatment, these "real" High-Quality students were charged the same tuition fees as mainstream students, which was the lowest level of tuition fees required. In contrast, students in the later "High-Quality Program Circular 23" are full-fee students committed to paying higher than mainstream students for the opportunity to learn in English and other advantages as the "real" High-Quality students used to enjoy. In this thesis, the High-Quality Programs (or HQPs) refer to the High-Quality Programs Circular 23, unless otherwise stated.

Compared to the Advanced Program in Chemistry at University A, the HQP in Law at University B is relatively new because it commenced admission in the school year 2018-2019. Table 8.1 below presents an overview of the HQP in Law as compared to its Vietnamese-medium instruction (VMI) counterpart at the time of this study.

Table 8.1: The HQP and the Standard program (SP) in Law: A comparison

Points of comparison	HQP in Law	Standard Law program
Program duration	4 years	4 years
Total credits (excl. PE and National defence education):	147	132
- General knowledge block (excl. PE and National defence education)	21	16
- General knowledge of the field	8	8
- General knowledge of the discipline group	27	24
- Basic knowledge of the discipline subgroup	48	53
- Specialised knowledge of the discipline	43	31
Admission criteria	**2020** - High school graduation scores: min 23.75 - English language score (in the high school graduation exam): min. 4/10 **2021** - High school graduation scores: min 25.85 - English language score (in the high school graduation exam): min. 6/10	**2020** - High school graduation scores: 23.25 - 27.5 (depending on which group of subjects) **2021** - High school graduation scores: 25.15 - 27.75 (depending on which group of subjects)
English language proficiency (ELP) required upon graduation	B2	B1

(Source: HQP and SP 2019 curricula and university admission web portals)

As summarised in Table 8.1, the amount of content in the HQP in Law is more or less similar to that of the standard VMI program. Nevertheless, the main difference between the two, except for the HQP's use of English to teach 20% of the total credits of its specialised subjects, is the HQP's better preparation of students for the workplace. Traditional tertiary programs in Vietnam are often widely criticised for not meeting this need (see Section 2.2 for details). This work-readiness feature of the HQP is reflected in the higher number of credits for professional skills training, internship, and practicum in the block of specialised knowledge of the discipline in Table 8.1 above. Another difference between the HQP and the standard VMI program is the former's enhancement

of English language proficiency, including English for Law, at the expense of a few legal subjects, to prepare HQP students for English-medium instruction and to help improve their English language proficiency (ELP) to the B2 CEFR level as required upon graduation. It is of note that the English for Law course is taught by EMI lecturers at University B, rather than English language lecturers.

One point covered in the interview with the EMI facilitation team leader, which was related to the content of the HQP, was the criteria to decide which subjects were to be taught in English. In response to this question, Han, the team leader, mentioned two main criteria: availability of human resources and "internationality" (or the international orientation) of the content delivered.

> Extract 8.1:
>
> One of the criteria was that, firstly, availability, whether there are lecturers who can teach that subject in English. Secondly, that subject should be international, meaning it's not much locally bounded, not unique to the context of Vietnam. For example, for Commercial and Intellectual Property Law, there are several similarities in regulations among different countries. For legal subjects that are unique to Vietnam, it's difficult to teach them in English, for example, Marriage and Family Law or Land Law. (Han, EMI facilitation team leader)

In addition to human resources availability and the "internationality" of the subject content, Han's comments also pointed to another minor criterion that University B initially set for the courses to be taught in English. Their early idea was that EMI should be reserved for foundational, introductory subjects with basic and less challenging content. However, after teaching a few cohorts of EMI students, they realised that students need a good understanding of basic concepts and foundational knowledge to better prepare themselves for more specialised courses. Therefore, foundational legal subjects should have been delivered in Vietnamese, the students' mother tongue. Han talked about this change in perspective when she elaborated on the EMI subject selection criteria:

> Extract 8.2:
>
> However, in the near future, we're thinking of making some adjustments because previously the former Head of our division allocated Civil Law 1, Civil Law 2 to be taught in English, and Civil Law 3 in Vietnamese. This created difficulties for us, so we'd like to change. Civil Law 3 is actually more suitable to be taught in English because it's about contract laws, which are quite universal in concepts and language. That's the first reason. Secondly, Civil Law 1 and 2 are about property and inheritance laws, which are unique to Vietnam so it's hard to communicate the content in English. (...) Thirdly, right from the beginning of the program, when we teach Civil Law 1 in English, it's

hard for students to process the content since they haven't been equipped with any basic legal concepts, even in Vietnamese. Without some foundational knowledge, it's hard for them to learn the English content immediately. (Han, EMI facilitation team leader)

Regarding the HQP in Law students, at the time of the study, HQP students were enrolled at almost similar entry requirements to those of their VMI counterparts. As presented in Table 8.1 above, entry scores for admission into the HQP in Law were often 0.5 points lower than the average scores required for the standard VMI program. However, the gap in admission scores was being closed as students' demand for HQPs increased because of their inability to study overseas due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Furthermore, the required English score for 2021 HQP admission was also higher, meaning that this HQP cohort might have better ELP than their seniors. Nevertheless, there is still a significant variation in ELP among the enrolled students, as Han shared:

Extract 8.3:

Students' English language proficiency upon admission is so heterogeneous. There are students very good at English because they learnt in international or top high schools with high-quality English language education. There are also students coming from provinces where English language education is not so good. (Han, EMI facilitation team leader)

Han's comment revealed an ELP gap that was hard to bridge among HQP students at University B. Even with the newly raised English language threshold (6/10 in 2021 compared to 4/10 in 2020), the score range was still large: six was just above average while ten was the maximum score. This was not to mention that students from top Vietnamese high schools often take international standardised tests like TOEFL iBT or IELTS instead of the national high school graduation English language test. The international tests can be used for both high school graduation in Vietnam and admission to tertiary education abroad. Nevertheless, due to the COVID-19 pandemic, these "internationally-qualified" students now decided to sit in the same class as those who took the grammar-vocabulary multiple-choice English high school graduation test. According to Han, this situation created several difficulties for EMI lecturers at University B.

The number of University B's lecturers who could teach in English was about 10 out of 83, which, according to Han, was not many, but still a large number compared to other Vietnamese legal education institutions. Nevertheless, these lecturers varied in their ability to teach in English, as Han pointed out below:

Extract 8.4:

Saying that they can teach in English doesn't mean they can use English equally well in teaching. You know, not every person has to use spoken English while doing a Ph.D. abroad, especially using technical English in oral communication. People mostly use reading and writing skills instead. If they hadn't done any tutoring or teaching while studying overseas, it's hard for them to have quick linguistic reactions. (...) Generally, those who have experience of interpreting for specialised workshops or conferences are better while those graduating overseas might still not be able to speak English well. (Han, EMI facilitation team leader)

While overseas graduation is a stipulated criterion for EMI lecturer selection, Han's remark suggested that this requirement is inadequate, since teaching in English requires different English language skills compared to studying or doing PhD in English. Therefore, according to Han, not every EMI lecturer at University B felt comfortable with teaching through English, and using English as the medium of instruction might have produced some challenges for them.

Despite this, University B did not prepare their lecturers for EMI through professional training. Instead, it conducted an English-medium instruction appraisal, in which a potential EMI lecturer had to teach in English in front of a judging panel consisting of a department Head, an external language expert, and a member of the EMI facilitation team (see Section 6.2.2.1 for details). This showed the university's commitment to EMI quality, but unfortunately, up until 2021 only two EMI lecturers had gone through this teaching review process, and Han's comments indicated that there would possibly be no more EMI appraisal in the future.

In conclusion, the HQP in Law at University B was in its inception stage when this study was conducted. Therefore, it was still in the process of gaining the public's attention. While admission scores for this program were at first slightly lower than those of the VMI programs, there were signs of these requirements being raised, because of the increasing demand for EMI programs following the COVID-19 pandemic. However, HQP students' ELP variation due to the wide range of accepted English scores seemed to create difficulties for the lecturers, who not only instruct their subjects in English but also teach English for Law for HQP students. The next section provides a detailed depiction of the three EMI lecturers participating in this study.

8.1.3 The Law lecturers and their EMI courses

Being familiar with the lecturers to understand their teaching practices is important, so this section is dedicated to profiling the three Law lecturers: Han, Kha, and An. Based on the information provided in their interviews, most important details regarding their educational and professional experiences are presented, which helps shed light on their positionings and practices later.

Han, Kha, and An were all in their late 30s and their educational and professional experiences had many things in common. They all graduated with high distinctions from prestigious universities in Vietnam. While Han and Kha had their undergraduate studies in the "real" HQP of University B, An did her undergraduate in another institution. Compared to An and Kha, Han had the longest record of English learning. Han's English language competence during her undergraduate studies was already very good because she could almost fully understand lectures in English given by an American visiting scholar. Kha and An learnt English much later than Han. In fact, these two lecturers used to learn French during their undergraduate years (An since high school) and only took to English after their university graduation.

Nevertheless, according to Han, Kha and An's English language competence was good as admission to postgraduate Law degrees overseas often requires at least IELTS 7.0. The lecturers all undertook their Masters' and doctoral studies in English-speaking countries: Kha in the UK, An in Belgium, and Han in the United States. Before their academic positions, Kha and An had a short industry experience, working for law firms for a few years after their undergraduate studies. Han, in contrast, remained in University B as an assistant lecturer after graduation, and was promoted to the position of an official lecturer after a few years.

At the time of this study, although the three lecturers had been teaching Law in Vietnamese for some time, with An teaching Vietnamese Labour Law for eight years, Han Vietnamese Intellectual Property Law for 6 years, and Kha Vietnamese Civil Law for 5 years respectively, their EMI experiences were quite recent. Before teaching in English at University B, the three lecturers had been involved in EMI in other tertiary

institutions for about three years. While Han had been teaching Law-majored and non-Law students in English, Kha and An's EMI experiences were with non-Law students only. At University B, a Law-majored institution, Kha just taught his course in English to two cohorts of the High-Quality Program (HQP) students, Han did it once, and An was about to. An did not start teaching Vietnamese Labour Law in English until the beginning of 2021 when the first HQP cohort entered their junior year. Nevertheless, the experience they gained from teaching in English in other institutions apparently facilitated their transition from VMI to EMI in University B.

The three lecturers did not receive any official training for English-medium instruction. As described in Section 6.2.2.1, University B conducted an EMI micro-teaching review to prepare for EMI implementation. Kha was one of the two EMI lecturers in University B to have undertaken that review. Nevertheless, that one-off event did not really prepare Kha for EMI. According to him, the best preparation for EMI was his overseas studies when he could observe professors from different legal traditions deliver their lessons and learn from them. Han and An prepared themselves for EMI in different ways. Before teaching in English, Han was already quite experienced in Vietnamese-English interpretation and vice versa, as she often did conference interpretation, so it was not difficult for her to communicate in English spontaneously. At the interview, Han shared with me that during her postgraduate studies in the US, she learnt a great deal about pedagogy from her supervisor, who, in Han's opinion, was one of the best Law lecturers she had ever encountered. An, on the contrary, followed a rather formal approach to prepare herself for EMI. She was the only among the three lecturers, and one of the two lecturers in her university, to attend an EMI workshop organised by a Vietnamese university in collaboration with the University of South Australia. She also personally contacted Kha to observe his EMI classes. In other words, An took her initiative to explore what EMI is and what she should do in EMI.

In addition to teaching, the three lecturers take on other professional duties. Han is the Head of her department and the leader of University B's EMI facilitation team to which both Kha and An belong. Kha is the Vice President of a social sciences research institute and hosts a popular TV show similar to the BBC "Hardtalk", which features in-depth interviews with famous personalities about sensitive topics, using "hard-hitting"

questions. Although An does not seem to take on any management tasks in University B, she is quite active in her research work. After my data collection, An conducted research in Korea for six months on a post-doctoral scholarship. In addition to teaching, research, and management duties, the three lecturers are all involved in textbook writing for their university.

At University B, Kha, Han, and An are lecturing about Vietnamese laws but using English. Their courses are compulsory for students in all majors. While Kha's course, Vietnamese Civil Law, occurs in the third semester of the High-Quality Bachelor's in Law Program, Han's course, Vietnamese Intellectual Property Law, is run in the fifth semester, and An's course, Vietnamese Labour Law, in the sixth semester. Kha's class that was recorded for this study belonged to the second cohort of the HQP, while Han's and An's classes were the first one. In fact, the class recorded for Han's and An's classroom data was the same. In terms of students, all students in Kha's class are Vietnamese, while there is one Korean student in Han's and An's class.

In general, the Law lecturer participants were well-trained and highly qualified. As a result, they were selected to deliver EMI courses at University B. Despite not receiving official training for EMI, the three lecturers believed they did not start teaching in English unprepared. Their accounts show that their educational and professional experiences provided them with valuable lessons that assisted their transition from VMI to EMI. The following section will present their practices in EMI in light of Positioning Theory.

8.2 The law lecturers' positionings and practices in EMI

Drawing on the three Law lecturers' interview and classroom data, this section analyses their positionings and teaching practices in EMI. Findings are organised around three main aspects of the lecturers' EMI duties: (teaching) content, pedagogy, and assessment. In each aspect, the lecturers' core positioning is highlighted. Data analysis reveals a considerable similarity in positionings and practices among the three Law lecturers in all aspects of their English-medium teaching. The following sections will describe their positionings and practices in detail.

8.2.1 Content: The law lecturers' self-positionings as guides to legal knowledge & legal English

The interview data indicate that two important content components taught in the EMI Law classrooms at University B were legal knowledge and legal English, and the three lecturers' self-positionings in relation to their students regarding content were as knowledge guides, rather than knowledge providers. These reflexive positionings of the three lecturers were manifested not only in the lecturers' descriptions of their classroom practices but also in their classroom discourses when they interacted with the students.

The focus on content (i.e., legal knowledge) and technical language was clearly expressed in the lecturers' view of their duties in EMI as compared to VMI. Generally, the lecturers were in unanimous agreement that content teaching was their main task. However, as they were teaching in a foreign language, the "language issue" and the instruction of technical English became inevitable. This is illustrated below in Kha, Han, and An's responses to my question about the comparison between their EMI and VMI duties:

> Extract 8.5:
>
> The responsibilities are the same, being a lecturer and the teaching objectives are the same. Especially now when we have outcome-based curriculum, we have specific outcomes for our courses, so whether it's an English or a Vietnamese course, it's all the same. However, in reality, EMI lecturers have more diverse roles because they have to take care of not only the content, but also the language issue. When seeing students not understand what I am saying in English, I will have to switch to Vietnamese immediately. (Kha)
>
> Extract 8.6:
>
> The duties are not much different, only double hardship in EMI as I always have to consider how much content the students have grasped to decide when to explain again in Vietnamese. Another thing is that besides content I also have to teach language, technical English. (Han)
>
> Extract 8.7:
>
> It's a bit different. As you know, in Vietnamese-medium instruction I don't have these language problems but in EMI in addition to content, when teaching in English I have to clarify all these terms for students, they need to know these firmly. (An)

The three lecturers' remarks point to some commonalities in their perspectives. They seem to agree that their duties in EMI and VMI are generally the same. The only difference lies in the language issue, which to Kha meant the need to use Vietnamese in EMI to explain content, whereas Han and An centred around technical English and terminology clarification. Nevertheless, Han also agreed with Kha on the parallel use of

both English and Vietnamese for content explanation, considering it as the "double hardship" involved in EMI content delivery. Although there is no mention of their positions as guides to their students in their remarks above, these self-positionings seem to unfold as the lecturers depicted their classroom practices in the interviews. The following sections will explain in detail the three lecturers' positionings as guides in legal content and legal English.

8.2.1.1 Legal knowledge

Data from the interviews point to three types of legal knowledge in University B's EMI courses: legal philosophy, Vietnamese legal rules, and international legal rules/ practices. While referral to international legal rules/practices is to some extent evident as the lecturers are teaching Vietnamese laws but using English terminologies, which are often socio-culturally and politically bound, the instruction of legal philosophy is, according to Kha and Han, a distinctive tradition of University B as compared to other legal education institutions in Vietnam.

With regard to content, the three lecturers' main self-positionings are as content guides to their students. These implicit reflexive positionings are evident in their accounts of EMI classroom practices. Instead of simply providing knowledge to their students, the lecturers often guided them to self-explore content, especially deeper and more advanced knowledge, through the lecturers' stimulating questions, extra readings, or assignments. An's statement typified the three lecturers' views towards content in their teaching:

> Extract 8.8:
>
> The subject are Law students so we have higher requirements for them, meaning that we just introduce content items while the content, of course we have to introduce Vietnamese legal rules, but for the more difficult, deeper content they have to research at home, they have to team work and report to lecturers. (An)

An's comment demonstrates the general attitude of lecturers at her university towards legal content instruction. Indexing a category of lecturers in which she also belongs through the pronoun "we", An highlighted her and her colleagues' role as lecturers of Law-majored students. This role allowed them to have different expectations and make certain requests to their students, which otherwise would not be appropriate. In particular,

the lecturers' request in this case is students' self-exploration of the more difficult and deeper aspects of the content introduced in class. Positioning her students as Law students, to differentiate them from non-Law ones who might also study a Law course, An was placing her students in a position where they had the duty to perform a more demanding task of self-studying difficult content of their discipline, and that they had the sufficient capacity to do so, especially with team support.

This assigned duty of autonomous learning requires the students to work harder, not only to complete the compulsory and supplementary readings, but also to take the initiative to participate in class discussions, to search beyond those provided materials to deepen their legal knowledge. In the positions of content guides, the lecturers initiate questions to provoke students' thinking, supply reference materials for students to read, and suggest the learning path, but the students must carry out the learning by themselves.

The lecturers' accounts of their practices demonstrate their reflexive positionings as guides in their students' process of knowledge construction very clearly. Rather than imposing their thinking process and ideas on the students because "this is not like maths, there will always be two or three different perspectives" (Han), the lecturers often allowed their students to take control and use their questioning skills to guide students in discussions to discover new content knowledge. For example, Kha, An, and Han described their approach to content instruction as below:

> Extract 8.9:
>
> My objective is always to engage students in discussions, of course based on my guided structure, but allowing space for students to share so it's very open, much freedom to express ideas. I always encourage my students to have their own opinions. (Kha)
>
> Extract 8.10:
>
> Depending on the topic, if it's too theoretical, it's hard to come up with a scenario for students to discuss. But I usually draw diagrams, mindmaps, subset, intersect, separate and its sub-elements. (…) I draw on the board because I want to develop from students' ideas so none of my drawings are similar to one another, they all depend on how students answer my questions. For example, a topic with three issues and this year students' answers mention issues 1 and 2. My job is then to lead from issues 1 and 2 to issue 3. But next year students can only mention issue 3, so I will have to start from issue 3 and find the way back to issues 1 and 2. (An)
>
> Extract 8.11:
>
> In a lesson, firstly I do the lead-in. I often ask students questions, always try to make them think, (…) as my lecturer said, make them think *what the law should be*, make them find out *what the law should be* not *what the law is*. *What the law is* is later. (Han)

By engaging their students in discussions for ideas to develop new lesson content, the Law lecturers were implicitly positioning their students as problem solvers who hold an important source of information to build the content of their lessons. Without students contributions, the quality of their lesson content would probably be negatively affected.

The classroom observation data shows numerous classroom incidents illustrating the three lecturers' performance as guides on legal content for their students. The incident below from Han's class illustrates this. In this vignette, her class had just finished a short discussion on some reflection questions that she had put together in the previous session. The questions were whether the format of TV shows, AI-created works, and animal-created works are protected by copyright. Han had asked her students to read the supplementary readings at home to prepare for these questions. After a few students had voiced their opinions, Han said:

> Extract 8.12:
>
> **Han:** Thank you so much V *(the student's name)*. About format of TV shows should think it again and I will give the class more materials, some articles that they analyse copyright in the TV shows format for you to have a better understanding. Same with AI. Three years ago I wrote an article and it was published in a book by School of Law on Industry 4.0 and the law. You can read it in the library, I think they have in the library. (...)
>
> **A student:** Em thưa cô em muốn hỏi chút cá nhân của cô ý ạ thì cô cho rằng cái trường hợp con khỉ đấy, cái trường hợp đấy thì liệu con khỉ hay là AI có quyền tác giả, bảo hộ tác giả không ạ?
>
> [Teacher, I would like to ask you in your opinion do you think the monkey case, in that case whether the monkey or AI have copyright, are protected by copyright?]
>
> **Han:** Actually, I have expressed my view in the article, and I want you to read first (laugh) to stimulate your curiosity stimulate your passion for reading instead of giving you the answer immediately. So, I just give you a hint that you look at the purpose the goal of copyright law, why do we have copyright protection, for what purpose and then if we provide copyright protection for the monkey will it further that goal, OK?
>
> (A few students then tried to answer this question.)
>
> **Han:** So nowadays on the internet there are plenty of materials on AI and copyright or animals and copyright or AI and intellectual property so not just depend on what I give you, but you yourself can go on the internet and search, to build your habit to search for what you don't know. That's what I do. I don't know everything, right? So always keep you curious stay curious and you try to search and the internet gives you a variety of knowledge so you read first and when you think that you know enough then you can engage in discussion and argument or debate with your friends or your professor. (Han, EMI session 3)

In this vignette, Han resisted giving answers to her student's question. Instead, she insisted that this student and others in the class find the book she recommended to read, reasoning that they should form a habit of searching in different sources to find answers to their questions. Positioning herself as not knowing everything and thus having to search

for information herself, Han implicitly told her students not to see her as a knowledge provider and rely on her for knowledge. In other words, Han was just perceiving herself as a guide, and thus she encouraged the students to activate their learner autonomy. By so doing, Han also reminded her students of their duty as problem solvers to actively search for answers to their questions and take responsibility for their own knowledge development.

Han's classroom vignette also demonstrates her focus on the legal knowledge that the lecturers considered very important. In the interviews, they called it "legal philosophy". As Kha and Han explained, legal philosophy is about legal thinking or the underlying reasons for issuing legal rules. According to Kha, understanding legal philosophy is very important as "legal rules change regularly, if you follow legal rules, you'll die" while "legal thinking remains the same for thousands of years" (Kha). Once the students know legal philosophy, they are better positioned to critique legal rules and deal with emerging legal issues. In the classroom vignette above, Han drew her students' attention to legal philosophy by reminding them to think about "the goal of Copyright law, why do we have copyright protection" (Han), which she introduced at the beginning of the course, in order to answer the question whether AI- or animal-created works should be protected. Despite the importance of legal philosophy to students' deep understanding of law, according to Kha and Han, University B is the only legal education provider in Vietnam that takes this seriously, while other institutions tend to focus on teaching legal rules to their students.

In the lecturers' accounts, the instruction of legal philosophy is often closely associated with introducing international legal rules/practices to the students. According to An, legal comparison was used to a certain extent by her and her colleagues when teaching in Vietnamese, but in EMI, it became "inevitable" for her due to the incompatibility between Vietnamese and English legal terms (see Section 8.3.1.2 for details). An also cited another reason for including international legal practices in her course. That was the advice she received from a seminar on EMI, which suggested that "lecturers have to connect, meaning that comparing, introducing international legal issues so that students can have a broader view" (An). For Kha and Han, legal comparison is also important because "we [Vietnamese law makers] learnt from them [foreign law makers]" (Kha) and "their [American] market economy is ahead of us for hundreds of years, so they've encountered

many [legal] cases that we don't have yet" (Han). Han emphasised that even Vietnamese lawyers in IP "have to read American cases in their practice (...) to learn how to approach and deal with those [new] issues from the American experience".

As a result, the lecturers incorporated foreign legal rules/practices in various components of their courses: the oral delivery of the lesson content, their PowerPoint slides, supplementary learning materials, and class discussions. In her lessons, An compared how UK workers and Vietnam employees are protected under the two countries' labour laws. Kha's students were asked to read several foreign civil codes such as Louisiana Civil Code, European Draft Common Frame of Reference, German Civil Code, and French Civil Code in English, to compare and contrast with Vietnamese civil laws. Han's students were provided important American IP cases to read at home for in-class discussions, in addition to readings and videos by the World Intellectual Property Organisation (WIPO), to name a few. Kha and Han explained their reasons for providing these materials to their students as follows:

> Extract 8.13:
> I would like them to read [American legal cases] so that they can see the process of legal reasoning to arrive at the verdict, what the stages are and how the lawyers of different sides argued with one another, for students to learn about legal reasoning, not about American legal rules. (Han)

> Extract 8.14:
> When they know how German civil code regulates a certain issue and then learn about that issue in Vietnamese Civil Code, they would have comparison and will find it more interesting. (Kha)

Having more opportunities to be exposed to international legal practices is indeed an advantage of EMI students over their VMI counterparts. According to Han, "Vietnamese legal cases do not often include reasoning and analysis of legal issues". Since the lecturers at University B prioritised legal thinking over legal rules, the inclusion of international legal practices in their courses appears to have enriched the content of their lessons, and helped them achieve the goal of teaching legal philosophy. Kha gave the following example in relation to how his students' legal thinking and knowledge could be deepened through their reading of foreign legal materials:

Extract 8.15:

For example, a very simple question is why Vietnamese code stipulates that majority begins at the age of 18 while German code 16, or in the past some South African countries stipulated that majority began at puberty. Why does Vietnamese code stipulate that males and females can only get married once they reach 18 and 20 years old respectively? When they read and there are always differences like that, their curiosity will be stimulated and once they are curious, they'll try figuring it out. (Kha)

In the classroom data, Kha appears to be the one who incorporated the greatest amount of information on international legal practices in his lessons. He compared Vietnamese and foreign legal rules, not only to clarify the meaning of terms, but also to critique Vietnamese laws, or as he told his students, "to point out the stupidity of Vietnamese law" so that his students could "know how to deal with these [loopholes]" in their future practices (Kha). In the following vignette, Kha was teaching about representation in the Vietnamese Civil Code (VCC). However, his lesson content and the PowerPoint slides were structured based on the same Louisiana Civil Code (LCC) provision. Out of the 17 PPT slides for this unit, only four refer to articles in the Vietnamese law, parallel to corresponding articles in the Louisiana law. The other 13 slides are all about different articles related to representation in the LCC. As Kha was lecturing about the second duty of the mandatary, he said:

Extract 8.16:

Secondly, standard of care. Standard of care một cái từ mà chưa xuất hiện trong tiếng Việt dù rằng luật cả thế giới này nó đều nhắc đến. Standard of care tức là nghĩa vụ phải cẩn trọng, tức là trong quá trình thực hiện công việc của mình không được gây thiệt hại cho bất kỳ ai và cho cả bên ủy quyền nữa. Standard of care là gì, là anh phải act reasonably và với great care giống như công việc đấy là của anh. Anh nhìn thấy con cá rõ ràng thối mà anh vẫn mua thì đấy là anh không standard of care rồi. Anh không thể về nói rằng đây em mua đúng con cá rồi chứ. Không được, nếu cho anh, anh có mua một con cá thối không? Trong trường hợp này có chấp nhận được không? (Students: Không được) Rõ ràng không được đúng không. Nhưng vì chúng ta không có cái standard of care đấy nên trên thực tế xảy ra rất nhiều tranh chấp ở chỗ đó. "Tôi bảo anh ra mua con cá thì anh lại mua cá chết." "Thì em vẫn mua đúng con cá còn gì nữa, anh cãi cái gì em?" Đấy, chết chỗ đấy. Luật Việt Nam cực kỳ dở hơi, thiếu đi những cái rất cơ bản như thế. Nhưng các bạn phải nhớ trong đầu, trong trường hợp ví dụ như vậy, nếu luật Việt Nam không có các bạn ủy quyền thì các bạn phải làm thế nào để đảm bảo là người ta làm đúng trách nhiệm? (A student: Phải chi tiết) Phải chi tiết hóa nó ra. Mày mua con cá nhưng mà phải mua cá sống nhá, ko được cá ươn nhá, nếu mua về mà không đúng là tao không nhận đâu. Đấy cái dở hơi của luật Việt Nam là ở chỗ đấy. (Kha, EMI session 2)

[Secondly, standard of care. Standard of care is a word that has not appeared in Vietnamese even though it is mentioned in law all over the world. Standard of care means the obligation to be careful, that is, in the process of performing one's work, not to cause damage to anyone, including the principal. What is the standard of care, meaning that you must act reasonably and with great care as if the work is yours. If you see a fish that is clearly rotten and you still buy it, it means you don't have a standard of care. On returning you can't just say that "here I bought exactly a fish". No, if it were for you, would you buy a rotten fish? Is it acceptable in this case? (Students: No) Obviously unacceptable. But since we don't have that standard of care, a lot of disputes happen in reality. "I

told you to buy a fish but you bought a dead fish." "I bought exactly a fish. Why do you argue with me?" That's a dead point. Vietnamese law is extremely stupid, lacking such basic things. But you have to keep in mind, in such a case, if the Vietnamese law doesn't stipulate, and you are a principal, what should you do to make sure that the mandatary does the right thing? (A student: Must be detailed) It must be detailed. "You buy a fish but you have to buy a live fish, you can't have a rotten one. If you don't buy the right one, I won't accept it." That's the stupidity of Vietnamese law.]

Figure 8.1: A sample of Kha's slides that incorporate foreign legal rules

> ## Duties of the mandatary
>
> - Art. 3001. Mandatary's duty of performance; standard of care. The mandatary is bound to fulfill with prudence and diligence the mandate he has accepted. He is responsible to the principal for the loss that the principal sustains as a result of the mandatary's failure to perform.
> - Art. 3002. Gratuitous mandate; liability of a mandatary. When the mandate is gratuitous, the court may reduce the amount of loss for which the mandatary is liable.

In this extract, on acting as a guide to international legal practices while positioning students as problem solvers, particularly future legal professionals, Kha has been able to help his students "become legal critiques rather than legal citizens" (Kha), who only know legal rules. By connecting the students to international legal practices, the lecturers also interactively positioned their students as problem solvers who need "a broader view" (An) in order to perform their future jobs effectively.

Despite Kha and Han's efforts in finding and offering reference materials to their students, including foreign legal materials, their interview and classroom data indicated that not many students did the required reading. Han shared with me that she was "very excited in the first year, wishing to change, to do something new", to include famous American IP cases in the required reading list of her course, but "the students' laziness gradually drained my motivation" (Han). Dan also reluctantly admitted, "only a few do the reading". The students' lack of reading seems to have adversely affected the quality of their lesson content, contributing to the lecturers' failure to foster learner autonomy and enrich their lesson content with the students' quality input that was likely derived from their extensive reading. This situation was best captured in Han and Kha's following statements recorded in their classroom data:

Extract 8.17:

Last time after the class I sent you a lot of materials: the syllabus, the slides, the textbook and also the two electronic lectures by the H Law University for you to listen. So have you done all of the homework before you come to this class? If you don't work, I have no way to teach you, if you don't work hard. (Han, EMI session 1)

Extract 8.18:

Phần việc của các bạn thế này. Một, các bạn về đọc luật VN. Thứ 2, đọc thật kỹ. Tôi biết các bạn chưa đọc nhưng phải đọc lại, đọc rất tử tế, đọc luật Vn các quy định về đại diện, dựa trên khung này để so sánh xem Louisiana có gì Vn thiếu cái gì. Thứ 2 các bạn đọc giáo trình để giải thích nhá. Giáo trình của thầy D, TV ý, để các bạn có thể hiểu rõ hơn. Thầy sẽ gửi slide này cho các bạn. (Kha, EMI session 2)

[Your job is as follows. First, at home you read Vietnamese law. Second, read carefully. I know you haven't read, but you have to, read thoroughly, read Vietnamese regulations on representation, based on that compare with Louisiana to see what it has but Vietnam doesn't. Second, please read the textbook for the explanation. The book by Mr D, in Vietnamese, to understand better. I'll send these slides to you.]

By stating overtly that the students "haven't read" and they "have to read (…) to understand better" (Kha), and "if you don't work, I have no way to teach you" (Han), Kha and Han once again emphasised that it was students' duty to perform the learning and do the reading to enrich their knowledge. In other words, the two lecturers implicitly positioned themselves as just guides for their students' content learning.

Students' lack of reading in Kha and Han's courses might have affected An's pedagogical practices as An taught the same group of students as Han, but only one semester later. At the time of the interview, An told me that she had not been able to find any "reading materials suitable to the students' English proficiency level" (An). This was An's first time teaching Vietnamese Labour Law in English, and her consultation with Han about this group of students, whom Han frequently complained about their laziness in reading and class participation, might have resulted in An's decision not to provide her students with any English reference materials on Labour Law. In An's classroom data, there was no evidence of An requiring her students to read any materials in English. Rather, An just incorporated information on English legal rules and practices in her oral lesson delivery. Her students were only required to refer to Vietnamese Labour Law in her classes.

In brief, the three lecturers' accounts and practices reveal their reflexive positioning as guides to legal content, while at the same time interactively positioning their students as problem solvers who are capable of constructing their own knowledge. As content guides, the lecturers provided many opportunities both inside (via their questioning and class

discussions) and outside the classroom (via their provision of reference materials to their students so that the students can take their initiative to build and expand their disciplinary knowledge). In fact, as the lecturers delineated, the reference materials in English also served the purpose of developing their students' competence in legal English. The next section will discuss in more detail the lecturers' position as guides to legal English and their practices related to legal English instruction.

8.2.1.2 Legal English

As stated at the beginning of Section 8.2.1, the three lecturers all mentioned "language" as part of their duties in EMI. However, a closer analysis revealed that this word took on different meanings in their discourses.

Han considered teaching technical English as part of her duties in EMI. Nevertheless, the instruction of technical English was restricted to explaining meanings of English legal terms, as Han exemplified her point of technical English instruction with her provision of an English glossary of about 20-30 legal terms to her students at the beginning of her EMI course on Vietnamese Intellectual Property Law. Han contended that "Intellectual Property Law is highly international, meaning there is high harmonisation of Intellectual Property regulations among countries", so she did not encounter many problems finding equivalent English to Vietnamese legal terms. However, there might still be confusion as "many English terms have similar meanings in Vietnamese" (Han). Therefore, in her lessons, Han often highlighted the meanings of English words or phrases commonly found in legal documents and how they should be translated into Vietnamese, and vice versa. The following extracts from Han's lessons precisely demonstrated what Han meant by teaching specialised English in EMI:

> Extract 8.19:
>
> What is content of copyright? We have learnt from the first class that copyright is not just an individual right, not a single right, it's a system of rights or a bundle of rights. You know the word bundle of rights, it's a very common word in English or Anglo-Saxon law, bundle of rights là một bó quyền, *(Han typed "bundle of rights" on the slide.)* bundle là một bó, a bundle of rights một tập hợp các quyền. (Han, EMI session 3)

> Extract 8.20:
>
> Moral rights là quyền nhân thân, economic rights là quyền tài sản. Moral ở đây không dịch là đạo đức theo cái nghĩa thông thường của tiếng Anh mà chúng ta dịch là quyền nhân thân. Còn economic

rights chúng ta cũng không dịch là property rights mà gọi là economic rights because these are internationally-recognised terminologies and they are used in international treaties, international conventions like the Berne Convention on Copyright Protection so we will use these terms as official terms in copyright law. So, from now on don't translate quyền nhân thân into a different word and don't translate quyền tài sản into property rights because in copyright they have specific meanings. (Han, EMI session 3)

Similar to Han's thoughts, An also explicitly emphasised this as her duty in content teaching in EMI because of the nature of her subject, Vietnamese Labour Law, which is locally and politically bound. According to An, "there is no one single English term equivalent to one single Vietnamese term" in Vietnamese Labour Law, and the terms are all "different in connotations and scope". As a result, An would like to ensure her students "know these [basic legal terms] firmly" by recursively mentioning the terms and their meanings in her lessons. In the following classroom extract, An not only repeated the difference in the terms "worker" and "employee" between UK and Vietnamese laws, which she already explained in the previous lesson, but also emphasised twice, both in English and in Vietnamese, the meaning associated with the word "worker" when she referred to it in her class:

> Extract 8.21:
>
> So the first thing I need to highlight is that the group of workers working without employment relations just be included within the personal scope in the labour code 2019. It means before the first of January 2021 workers working without employment relations is not protected by labour regulations because under labour code 2012 only employees, apprentice, trainees are included within the personal code (...) So the very interesting question here is that how to determine workers working without employment relations? (...) so we need to come back to the content of the term workers. Workers under the UK legal system is a group of people who can be employees, but workers can be considered as the person who is not employee but do the work in a quite similar way as employees and because of that they are entitled to the protection of employment regulations as similar as employees. (...) From now I will use the term workers instead of talking about the whole and quite long term workers working without employment relations, OK? But I just want to make sure that when I tell the term workers you need to refer to the whole term "workers working without employment relations", OK? Nào, thế thì để nhấn mạnh hơn về 2 nhóm đối tượng chính yếu được áp dụng bởi luật lao động, đó là người lao động và người làm việc không có hợp đồng lao động thì từ bây giờ mình hi vọng rằng khi mình nói tiếng Việt thì mình sẽ nói là người làm việc nhưng các bạn hiểu giúp mình là mình đag nói đến cả một thuật ngữ rất dài là người làm việc không có hợp đồng lao động (...) Nếu như mình nói tiếng Anh thì mình sẽ nói từ workers để thay thế cho cả cụm từ "workers working without employment relations", được không ạ? (An, EMI session 1)
>
> [All right, so to emphasise the two main groups regulated by labour laws, that is, employees and workers working without employment contracts, from now on I hope that when I speak in Vietnamese, I say workers but you should understand it as a very long term, that is, workers working without contracts. (...) If I speak in English, I will use the word workers to replace the whole phrase "workers working without employment relations", OK?]

Not being explicit about legal terms instruction like Han and An, Kha's perspective of EMI lecturers' duties appears to be content-focused. Although Kha mentioned lecturers'

duties to care about the language issue in EMI, what Kha actually meant was that "when seeing students not understand what I am saying in English, I'll have to switch to Vietnamese immediately" (Kha). In other words, what Kha meant by language duties is actually lecturers' duties to use the language that can deliver comprehensible content to the students. Therefore, when the English language could not do the job, Kha would have to use Vietnamese instead. This is similar to Han's earlier remark that EMI involves "double hardship" because lecturers have to closely monitor the students to identify when they need to switch to Vietnamese for content explanation.

Nevertheless, this does not mean that Kha ignored the explanation of English legal terms in his teaching. Highlighting the meanings of English legal terms and similar terms in Vietnamese appears to be part of Kha's content instruction duties since it is difficult for him to find English terms to convey meanings in Vietnamese laws. According to Kha, Vietnamese Civil Law, his course, originates from French and Russian legal traditions, which are totally different from the Common Law system that the UK and English-speaking countries follow. Therefore, finding English legal terms equivalent to Vietnamese terms is a "very advanced" issue (Kha), to which Kha had to rely on his knowledge from comparative legal sciences to find a solution. Nevertheless, he was not always satisfied with the English terms he discovered because the Civil Law and Common Law systems "simply do not share terminologies" (Kha). That is why Kha always needed to remind his students of terminological differences in his content instruction:

> Extract 8.22:
>
> I always remind them. I even always say that English terminology is like this, it should be understood as that in Vietnamese, it is that word in Vietnamese so as to remind the students. Sometimes I also tell them that there are terms that they use these words in English to express the ideas and they convey the same meaning as those Vietnamese terms, but these English words are not very accurate, but because there are no real equivalents so these words are not standardised. We can only have standard Vietnamese, not English. These terms are very complex and honestly Vietnamese people don't have the need to translate these terms into Vietnamese. (Kha)

The three lecturers had to guide their students through legal English terminologies since legal English is "very advanced" (Kha), meaning that it requires a good level of general English competence to learn legal English. Their classroom data include several incidents where they lingered on terminological explanations. For example, in the following extract, as An was lecturing about the issue of wages in Vietnamese Labour Law, a

student raised a question about the difference in meaning between "thù lao" and "tiền công" (which are two Vietnamese terms both referring to the amount of money one receives for a service provided). An took this opportunity to distinguish related terms in English, i.e., "wages", "salary", "remuneration", and "income". However, a student was not satisfied with An's definition of wages, so she voiced her concern:

> Extract 8.23:
>
> **A student:** Em không rõ cái wage. Em thấy cái definition trong Cambridge ý ạ thì nói là khoản tiền trả theo công việc trong khoảng thời gian ngắn thì em nghĩ là nếu dựa theo cái definition ấy thì cái này nó sẽ là wage, thế còn nếu mà sang tiền lương thì em không nghĩ nó là tiền lương.
>
> [I am not clear about wage. I see that the Cambridge definition says an amount of money paid for work done during a short period of time so I think based on this definition this word is wage, while wage I don't think it means *tiền lương*.]
>
> **An:** P (the student's name) ạ, vấn đề ở đây là chúng ta phải dựa trên khái niệm của luật, không phải dựa trên định nghĩa của Cambridge. [P, the thing is we need to base on the legal definition, not a Cambridge one.] Định nghĩa của Cambridge là cái [Cambridge definition is a] social perspective, rather than a legal one. Also we need to answer the question based on the definition of Vietnamese law rather than a legal definition somewhere. (An, EMI session 3)

By reminding the student to refer to laws to find the meaning of legal terms, not general dictionaries, An was exercising her power of having more disciplinary expertise, to guide her students in learning English legal terminologies. While her students seemed to be used to finding the meanings of English words in general English dictionaries, An reminded them that such dictionaries often contain only the social meaning of words. In this extract, An has been able to distinguish for her students the social and legal meanings of the word "wages", and thus instruct the students to form a new habit of searching in laws if they would like to find definitions of legal terms in the future.

As if in-class explanations were not enough, Kha and Han also provided their students with extra reading and video materials to familiarise them with legal English and facilitate their technical English absorption. According to the two lecturers, the type of reference materials offered to their students constitutes a difference between their EMI and VMI classes. For example, Kha introduced his students to "some TedTalks by famous lawyers to get them used to terminologies", because "the subtitles are available", and the students can see and hear the terms and "will feel more comfortable when using them" (Kha). Han also supplied several legal readings to her students as her language learning experience showed her that "vocabulary is best learnt through context" (Han). She explained the purpose of reading the reference materials as below to her students:

Extract 8.24:

So you read the WIPO material and you'll have a better understanding and also you will improve your legal English on copyright because many legal terms I put in the slides but it may be not easy to understand so remember to read that material and it'll be included in the required materials for you to review for the final exam. (Han, EMI session 1)

Positioning the students as those who might not fully understand legal terms if they encounter them only in one context of the lecturer's PowerPoint slides, Han offered a variety of reading materials to her students, with a view to helping them be exposed to several contexts of legal language use. Han was careful in choosing the materials to maximise the students' content comprehension. According to Han, WIPO materials use easy language to discuss basic concepts of Intellectual Property Law, so they are very accessible to her students. Han even supplied her students with American legal cases in both English and Vietnamese versions so that "if they don't understand in English, they can always refer to the Vietnamese translation of the case" (Han).

As discussed in Section 8.3.1.1, not many students, however, appeared to have read the materials Kha and Han's provided, resulting in the fact that the students' legal English competence in general might not have been effectively acquired. In such a learning environment, the few students who had done the reading might not have had a chance to develop their legal English competence further, as many students around them had not done the reading, and thus were unable to use legal English in class. This situation, coupled with An's decision not to provide English reference materials to her students, might not bring about a desirable legal English learning outcome for EMI students in the three lecturers' courses.

With their disciplinary expertise, the three lecturers have guided their students' learning of legal English terminologies while delivering their lesson content in English. In fact, the instruction of Vietnamese legal rules, which are highly contextualised, using a foreign language, has rendered explanation of the meaning of English terminologies an integral part of the three lecturers' content teaching. To have a more comprehensive idea of the lecturers' positionings and practices in EMI, the following section will elaborate on the lecturers' pedagogy in detail.

8.2.2 Pedagogy: The law lecturers' self-positionings as Socratic pedagogues

Analysis of the interview and classroom data reveals that in the storyline of instruction, the three lecturers tend to see themselves as Socratic pedagogues. Being Socratic pedagogues, the lecturers frequently used the Socratic method in their teaching, which relies heavily on questioning to tap into and draw out individual students' knowledge, to construct new knowledge from there. The Socratic method also assists the lecturers in guiding their students in legal knowledge and language. Via assuming the positions of Socratic pedagogues, the lecturers simultaneously positioned their students as problem solvers, who can discover the best solutions to their problems, under the lecturers' guide.

In fact, Kha did not mention the Socratic method in his account; in the interview, he explicitly positioned himself as a traditional lecturer instead. By traditional, Kha did not refer to the Vietnamese traditional teacher-centred pedagogy, where lecturers are authoritative knowledge providers and students are knowledge recipients. Rather, Kha meant the traditional, minimal use of teaching tools, as compared to the technology-enhanced classroom that modern pedagogy tends to advocate:

> Extract 8.25:
>
> Indeed I belong to the traditional type, I don't use many tools because that's how Law is. Law takes thinking as the most important, what's the point in playing games, doing quizzes, just destroy legal thinking. I particularly hate multiple-choice questions in Law because these questions never have correct answers. There are no absolutely correct answers in Law, nor are there totally wrong answers. (Kha)

This extract was part of Kha's response to my question about his methods for engaging students in his class. According to Kha, his class always received good student feedback in terms of engagement. He attributed this to two major factors: the knowledge and expertise of the lecturer and the use of real cases to engage students in discussions. Kha contrasted his teaching methods with using games, quizzes, and multiple-choice questions in a lesson. By considering his teaching methods traditional and truly reflecting the nature of laws, Kha implicitly regarded the other method as modern but unsuitable for legal education. In fact, the use of several teaching tools and modern educational technologies has often been equated with interesting and engaging lessons and has, for

the last two decades or so, been promoted in Vietnam, as stated in national and institutional EMI policies (see Chapter 6 for details). Nevertheless, in the extract above, Kha directly attacked that type of modern pedagogy, saying outright that such methods and activities "destroy legal thinking" (Kha). Kha gave an example of his method to engage students in discussions to commence a new lesson content as below:

Extract 8.26:

For example, we start [the lesson] with the definition of assets. "Now I'd like to ask you if Bitcoin is an asset or not". Yes, I usually start an issue with provoking questions like that, forcing students to think. Because I studied in the UK, I'd like to make full use of real cases and provoking situations to make students think, for example, another question like "is a sex contract a contract for the sale of an asset". Or "when iPhone 12 is being released, on some websites people are saying they would be selling their kidneys to buy iPhone 12, so are your kidneys your assets?" After uncovering all dimensions of the concept assets, I would lead the students to the formal definition of assets by saying something like "so you can see that what is considered an asset in our daily life is too complicated, very diverse. We almost can't provide a standard, overarching definition. There are a few methods to define something" and so on. I would draw out a mind-map on the board and throughout that process is always students' discussion. (Kha)

This extract demonstrated Kha's use of provoking questions to engage his students and guide them in the thinking and knowledge construction process. Prepositioning himself as a graduate from the UK, a typical Case Law system, Kha frequently incorporated "real cases and provoking situations" into his lesson. By mentioning the students' high ratings of his classes in terms of engagement, Kha implicitly positioned himself as a successful user of "the questioning approach".

Similar to Kha, An did not explicitly position herself as a Socratic pedagogue. However, her description of her teaching methods resembled Kha's in many ways. An would also try to produce scenarios for students to discuss, and she developed the lesson content based on the outcome of her students' discussion:

Extract 8.27:

Depending on the topic, if it's too theoretical, it's hard to come up with a scenario for students to discuss. But I often draw diagrams, subset, intersect, separate and its sub-elements. I draw on the board because I want to develop from students' ideas so none of my drawings are similar to one another, they all depend on how students answer my questions. For example, a topic with three issues and this year students' answers mention issues 1 and 2. My job is then to lead from issues 1 and 2 to issue 3. But next year students can only mention issue 3, so I will have to start from issue 3 and find the way back to issues 1 and 2. (An)

Although the lecturers did not explicitly position themselves as Socratic pedagogues, the Socratic method, as Han described it, seems to have been the focus in their pedagogy. As Han recalled her postgraduate experiences in the United States, she mentioned that the Socratic method is the popular method adopted by Law schools there, where lecturers routinely involve students in questions and answers to build and deepen the lesson content. According to Han, although she does "not have a fixed format" for her lessons because "it depends on the content" she was teaching (Han), she always tried to use questions to elicit ideas from her students before presenting legal rules. Han described her teaching as below:

Extract 8.28:

With each content I modify a bit but always following the approach that requires students to, as my lecturer said, make them think *what the law should be*, make them find out *what the law should be* not *what the law is*. *What the law is* is later, meaning that normally legal education providers just tell students what the law is, the current legal rules are like this and let's now apply them to the reality. But here I teach at a higher level, that is students have to think by themselves what the law should be and from their ideas I will then introduce to them what the current Vietnamese legal rules are, for them to see whether the rules are appropriate. (Han)

By "requiring students to find out what the law should be" before she presents "what the law is" (Han), Han was implicitly positioning her students as problem solvers who can figure out legal justice. Han's change in storylines, from the storyline of her own instruction to the broader storyline of legal education in Vietnam, and her engagement in an intergroup positioning explicitly positioned her own, which is also her university's approach to legal education as being "at a higher level". As Han later delineated, this approach fosters students' critical thinking and deepens their understanding of legal philosophy, which is important for their future legal practices.

According to Han, the approach of starting with "what the law should be" before introducing "what the law is" was a way of starting a new content item that she was

"strongly impressed with" (Han). The following section will describe this method and the lecturers' ways of starting their lessons in EMI.

8.2.2.1 Lesson introduction

Classroom data analysis did not point to many differences in the way the three lecturers started their EMI lessons, particularly in the cases of An and Han. Generally, the three lecturers started a lesson by reviewing the main content learnt in the previous lesson, then introduced the content of the current lesson, or what the students were about to learn, and explained its significance, before teaching the new content. While An and Han often reviewed previous content by spending 5-10 minutes on questions and answers with their students, Kha briefly summarised it in his own words, before leading into the new lesson content.

Han's interview data indicate two ways of presenting a new content item to the students in her discipline. Han referred to one way as "traditional" and another as "extremely interesting". Han was introduced to the "extremely interesting" way of presenting new content during her undergraduate years as she attended a class by an American scholar visiting University B at the time. This experience left a strong impression on Han that the new method of starting a content item became Han's desirable way in her later teaching practices. Han described this method as follows:

> Extract 8.29:
>
> Prior to that, my lecturers often taught in a very formal, traditional way, starting with definitions first, then characteristics, and so on, and finally scenarios or exercises to apply theory. But she did just the opposite. She started with scenarios, which made me feel that laws were so close to life, that these were the situations that I would encounter in real-life, so how laws could deal with these, so students have to think by themselves. I found it extremely interesting. (Han)

This educational experience allowed Han to broadly compare the so-called "traditional pedagogy" and the eye-opening new one. In Han's point of view, traditional teaching methods are less interactive, less practical, and more theoretical, always starting with theory and ending with applying theory into practice via addressing related legal scenarios. In contrast, the new method is characterised by lecturers presenting scenarios first, then their continual probing questions to require students to think and search for

solutions, before the lecturers introduce solutions offered by current legal rules. This is indeed one manifestation of the Socratic method, which Han later named in her interview.

By explicitly expressing her preference for the Socratic method and describing her practices as following her American lecturer's method, i.e., starting with scenarios and "requiring students to find out what the law should be, not what the law is", Han was implicitly positioning herself as a Socratic pedagogue. Nevertheless, Han also admitted that sometimes she was "swept away by legal rules" or just continued with the remaining content of the previous session, so she did "not have a fixed format" for her lessons.

Analysis of the classroom data confirms Han's admission. Of her four recorded EMI sessions, none started with scenarios requiring students to think about "what the law should be". Rather, Han often went straight into teaching the new content on the slides after a short introduction and about 10-15 minutes reviewing the content of the previous session. It took Han nearly three sessions to finish the first unit content, and her oral lesson delivery indicated that her class was two weeks behind schedule. Despite not starting with scenarios like "the extremely interesting" method that Han described, Han did not wait until the end of her lessons to engage students in practice questions, as in her description of the traditional method. In between her oral lesson delivery of different content items, she often put forward scenarios and small questions for students to discuss, to deepen their content comprehension.

None of the three lecturers' recorded teaching sessions started exactly like the "extremely interesting" method that Han described; that is, a scenario to stimulate students' discussion about *what the law should be*, before the lecturer presented *what the law is*. Among the three lecturers, Kha was the only one that started every new content with a scenario and a number of related questions. These questions appeared to help provoke the students' thinking, arouse their interest in the topic, and aid them in understanding the significance of learning that content item in practice. Nevertheless, neither of the two starter discussions really led to students' proposal of *what the law should be*. A snapshot of Kha's classroom vignette exemplified the idea of starting a new content with scenarios:

Extract 8.30:

Kha: OK. So now we move to another important topic, the fourth one, also the key. I think 99% of your daily life activities would be governed by this institution, by this provision. I mean 99%. In the morning, you wake up, you buy some food for your breakfast. (...) And that kind of activities go on and go on you know. You might think that they are different but actually in the eyes of law they are only one. (...) For example think about you buying a kind of bread, pate bread, only after a few minutes you had stomach-ache, you get admitted to hospital and then the doctor said, "oh you get poisonous food". Can u come back and sue the seller? But the seller said "yeah, OK, I sold the bread to you but I also bought from somebody else, I bought the bread from one vendor, I bought the meat from another one, (...) so you have to say specifically and precisely which are the cause of your problem, because of the bread, because of the meat (...). So here whether you have to go further and to go after a very specific seller who have sold their product to the canteen or you only need to sue the canteen for the product they have offered you. So that is the kind of a very how can I say headache question (...) This is also the most important legal provision of all kinds, the thing that you face every day so we need to understand what does it mean by juridical acts. Today we would discuss about the definition of juridical acts and then we go further to identify how a juridical act can become biding, biding means enforceable, biding means you can bring a lawsuit against the person who sign the contract and say that you violate, you infringe the contract now you have to be held liable, you have to pay damages, you have to correct your mistake, you have to correct your wrongdoing. (...) And we will discuss about the idea like what do you think about your parents' promise to you like if you go to the college I will buy you a new Vinfast car, anybody here get the promise from your parents when you prepare to take the national examination to go to college, like if you pass the exam I will give you a tour to Europe. (...) Now just think it like how many parents actually keep their promise?

Students: None.

Kha: None haha. The second question in that case is can you bring a lawsuit against your parents.

Students: No.

Kha: Why not?

Student A: Có thể vì đây là hứa thưởng [Possible because this is a promise of reward]

Kha: So u think it's binding, legally binding, so you say your parents have the obligation to perform the duty

Student A: yeah.

Kha: So you see, the guy here thinks that it's actually binding so the parents have to pay for that. Well we have to answer that question, we have to answer such questions together, we have to distinguish between unilateral juridical and bilateral juridical acts. (...) So the first thing in everyday life we have so many acts (...) (Kha, EMI session 1)

By placing the students in the position of problem solvers who had to deal with very likely life situations such as getting food poisoning and needing to sue someone for damages, Kha had been able to spark his students' interest in the new lesson topic, as evidenced in the class's attention and the students' responsiveness to his questions.

As the lecturers continued their lessons, one of the interesting features that I noticed was their different design and use of PowerPoint (PPT) slides in EMI as compared to that in VMI.

8.2.2.2 ICT design and use

As mentioned at the beginning of Section 8.2.2, self-positioning as a traditional lecturer, Kha was overtly against using technologies in Law classes, as technologies "destroy legal thinking" (Kha). By technologies, Kha also meant PPT slides. Kha further elucidated:

> Extract 8.31:
>
> I never bring anything to class. For me, there's only a board and for each class, even with the same course, each class I teach differently because based on that class, how much the students can absorb knowledge and their background knowledge. My objective is always to engage students in discussions based on my guided structure. (Kha)

Because Kha structured his lesson content around the outcome of his students' discussions, he opposed using PPT slides. Therefore, he did not use PPT slides in his Vietnamese-medium classes. According to Kha, PPT slides "frame our thinking", "eliminate students' critical thinking" and "diminish my [his] creativity". However, Kha still designed PPT slides for his EMI students because of the following reasons:

> Extract 8.32:
>
> Because I'd like to help the students, because I'm aware that their competence is not very high. Secondly, in fact the students have to learn two laws, both Vietnamese law in English and Vietnamese law in Vietnamese. Given that there isn't a standard textbook about Vietnamese law in English, my slides serve the function of reminding students of main content points that they need to acquire. For my teaching I teach differently. (Kha)

Positioning his students as learners who needed help due to their lack of relevant English learning materials and low ELP, Kha designed PPT slides to assist them in their learning. Kha contended that "legal English is very advanced language" so "to learn legal English they have to be very good in English". Since his students' situation was "the opposite", as a guide for his students to legal knowledge and legal English, Kha "ha[d] to help them [the students]" (Kha) by designing PPT slides and provided the slides to their students for reference. Kha's lesson recordings showed that he did not refer his students to the PPT slides once in his speech, nor did he appear to follow the slides in his teaching. His slides also looked minimalist in content, as in the sample below.

Figure 8.2: A sample of Kha's slides for EMI lessons
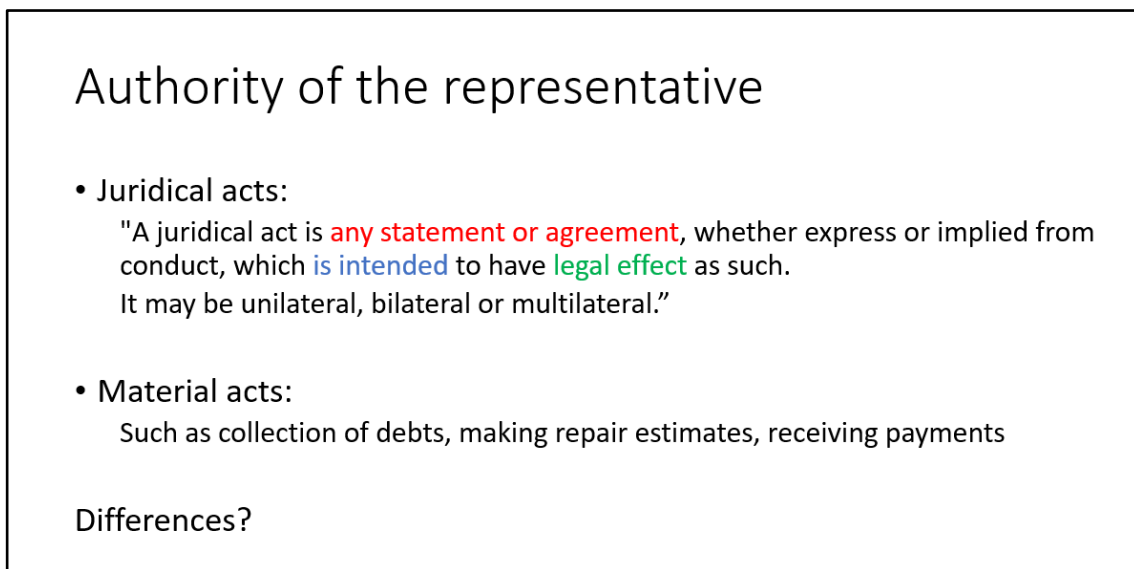
Similar to Kha, An also preferred using a blackboard to PPT slides. As An said, she "usually draw[s] diagrams, mindmaps so students often see only images on my board". An explained to me that she did not draw on PPT slides "because I want to develop from students' ideas so none of my drawings are similar to one another" (An). Despite her agreement with Kha that PPT slides are not suitable for flexible presentation of ideas, An still designed PPT slides for both her Vietnamese and English classes.

Nevertheless, her PPT slides for EMI and VMI were different. Although An had what she called "reflection questions" on both English and Vietnamese slides, the frequency of these questions on her English slides was much higher. Examining An's PPT slides for her three recorded EMI sessions revealed that An had a "reflection questions" slide for almost every content point in her lessons. This contrasts with one "reflection questions" slide for a section of content in her VMI classes. For example, in the EMI lesson on wage and working hours, the wage section lists five content items on her outline slide: concept, principles for paying wages, bases for determining wages, minimum wage, and rights and obligations of parties. An almost had one "reflection questions" slide after each of these content items (see, for example, Figure 8.3 below) while in her corresponding PPT slides for the Vietnamese-medium classes, she had only one "reflection questions" slide at the end of the wage section.

Figure 8.3: A sample of An's slides for EMI lessons

An's addition of more reflection questions to her EMI lessons revealed her concern about content comprehension by her EMI students. As An mentioned in the interview, her experience teaching Business Law in English showed her that students could "easily get confused" with the content she introduced. Her colleagues also shared that when they tested EMI students in the final oral exams, they found out that "many students did not understand the content thoroughly" (An). An and her colleagues "do not know the reasons why" but "we just see that the students have quite a lot of difficulties learning in English" (An). Interactively positioning her students as learners who had challenges in content learning in EMI, An adapted her PPT slides design to promote her students' content comprehension.

Being aware of her two colleagues' preference for using a blackboard and particularly Kha's opposition to PPT slides, Han defended for her use of PPT slides. Han cited her health condition worsened because of the chalk dust, so she only made very limited use of a blackboard. Han added that writing on the blackboard or reading a scenario for students to write down "takes a lot of time" (Han). Particularly for her course on Intellectual Property (IP) law, which "involves examples of many artworks, brands, and logos", using PPT slides will make the content livelier and "not put students at a disadvantage" (Han). Nevertheless, Han admitted a weakness with PPT slides. She confided to me that in the past when there was no projector in class, and thus no use of PPT slides, she could "remember all important articles in legal codes" (Han). Now with PPT slides, she can no longer recall such details very well because "I can always glance over the slides" (Han). By acknowledging both the advantages and disadvantages of PPT slides, Han was in fact engaging in a second-positioning of herself as a lecturer who knows how to utilise modern technologies for effective teaching. Han's repositioning might represent her rebuttal to Kha's claim that technologies "destroy legal thinking", and thus to his implicit positioning of lecturers who use technologies in Law classes as possibly ineffective lecturers.

Seeing the advantages of using PPT slides for her health and her IP course, Han had PPT slides for both VMI and EMI classes, but the design of these slides was different. On many of her PPT slides for EMI, there was a Vietnamese translation under the same content in English. Han explained as below when she showed one PPT slide like that (see Figure 8.4 as an example) to her students in one of her lessons:

> Extract 8.33:
> So in the slide I have both English and Vietnamese for you to easily follow because I know that studying a Law course in English is very challenging for you. (Han, EMI session 1)

Figure 8.4: A sample of Han's slides for EMI lessons

Again, Han's adaptation in her design of PPT slides resulted from her positioning of the students as learners who encounter many challenges when learning in English. Therefore, she believed that by incorporating Vietnamese translations of important legal rules, she would help reduce students' learning difficulties to some extent.

Other than the differences regarding PPT slides design and use, the three lecturers' lessons had many features in common. Sharing the same positionings as Socratic pedagogues, who take questioning as the main teaching method, the lecturers' classroom activities mostly alternated between the lecturers' lecturing and whole-class discussions. In general, their lessons were interactive although the extent of interactivity varied. The following section will elaborate further on the interaction in the three lecturers' EMI classes.

8.2.2.3 Classroom interaction

As Socratic pedagogues, the three lecturers often asked their students a series of open-ended questions to explore their thoughts and beliefs related to a home or an in-class reading, or a scenario associated with a specific content item in the lessons. The classroom data showed that while Han often held in-class discussions based on her assigned home readings to deepen students' content knowledge, An often asked her students to read legal rules right in class to answer her questions which aimed at checking students' self-

analysis of the information, hence, their content comprehension. On the contrary, Kha did not refer to any readings in his questions, but as he told me, these questions helped him check whether the students had done the required readings.

The students could also pose questions of their own, which might get answered by the lecturers or might compel their classmates to think further, to deepen their understanding of a lesson topic. The following vignette from Han's class occurred after the class's discussion about an important American copyright case that students were supposed to have read at home. As the discussion finished, a student voiced her opinion:

Extract 8.34:

Student A: Tác phẩm phái sinh ý ạ, đặc biệt là tác phẩm dịch thuật ý ạ thì em nghĩ là nó ko đảm bảo được tính sáng tạo bởi vì nó chỉ thể hiện được tính định hình thôi, còn tính nguyên gốc thì.

[Derivative works, especially translations, I don't think they meet originality condition because they only have fixation, not originality.]

Han: So you don't think that derivative works have originality? OK. So who can respond to VA's question?

Student B: Em có thể trả lời được ko ạ? (Yes) Ví dụ như là một bài hát nguyên gốc và có một người khác đã lấy lại cái nhạc đó và làm ra một bài hát chế thì nó vẫn đảm bảo được cái tính original do cái ideas mà người đó sáng tác ra, và nó vẫn được định hình bởi một cái hình thức cụ thể cho nên là nó vẫn được bảo hộ theo luật SHTT ạ.

[Can I answer? For example there's an original song and someone took the music and created another song, the new song is still original because of the ideas of the new author, and it is also fixed in a specific format so it is still copyrightable.]

Student C: Em thưa cô em nghĩ ý của bạn A ở đây là cái translation ý ạ.

[Teacher, I think what A meant is translation.]

Student B: Translation thì tớ nghĩ là nó có nhiều phong cách dịch khác nhau miễn là nó đạt được cái ý tưởng của người sáng tác ban đầu chứ ko nhất thiết là y xì đúc.

[For translations I think there are many translation styles, as long as it reflects the original author's ideas, it doesn't need to be precise word by word.]

Han: So A, you only concern about translation works or all types of derivative works that they have no originality, A? Only translation?

Student A: Yes

Han: Đối với tác phẩm dịch thì [For translation works] you have to follow you have to translate and make it reliable, you cannot create new ideas but you, have you ever translated before, do you think that you don't have to put any creativity in that? Cùng một tác phẩm các bạn có thấy có nhiều cách dịch khác nhau không? [With the same works, do you see there are many ways to translate?] (Students: Yes) Có người dịch hay có người dịch dở đúng không? [There are both good and bad translators, right?] (Students: Yes) So do you think translators they have creativity or not? (Student C: I think yes) Các bạn có thấy human translation is different from Google translation không? (Students: Yes) Yeah, so you see, the translation works it still has a minimum level of creativity it still has the translators' own expression. They have to carefully select the words that can best express the original author's ideas. Understand?

Student C: Em thưa cô cho em hỏi một câu được không ạ? [Teacher, could I ask a question?] (Han: Yes) Ví dụ như là sau này ý [For example in the future] AI will be promoted and the translation it

may be great so cái việc bảo hộ cái sản phẩm dịch ấy thì nó sẽ thuộc về ai ạ, về người viết cái chương trình đấy hay là chính nó ạ? [who will own the copyright of the translation, the one who wrote the program or the program itself?]

Han: Yes, very good question, but I'll make you research more before we discuss. Now the class, you have a discussion question raised by C that works created by AI, can it be protected by copyright and if so, then who will own the copyright? Các bạn ghi lại câu hỏi này và các bạn về tìm hiểu trước, nghiên cứu trước, cả C nữa, [Please note down this question and at home do research about it, C does as well] so you need to study by yourself first before we come to the result. Các bạn về tìm xem các case đấy, học cách tự [You search such cases at home, learn how to] self-study and you will find it more interesting than I just give you the answer. OK? (Han, EMI session 2)

This classroom extract demonstrated not only Han's use of the Socratic method, and thus her implicit reflexive positioning as a Socratic pedagogue, but also her self-positioning as a guide to legal content, and her interactive positioning of her students as problem solvers who have the capability and also the duty to do research to find solutions to their own questions. By inviting other students to share their viewpoints regarding student A's concern, Han was expanding the scope of the discussion, to involve more students in the class. In other words, Han was trying to draw out more perspectives and expose her students to the complexities and ambiguities behind the issue, which characterises the Socratic method. Han's action of giving the floor to her students also revealed her positioning of the students as capable problem solvers who might also hold the necessary knowledge to deal with the question/situation. The fact that several students were involved in the discussion by self-initiating and voluntarily answering questions indicated that they accepted the position that Han assigned to them. Han's resistance to providing immediate answers to the students' questions and her request that they self-study and search for the solutions themselves have also clearly indicated her reflexive positioning as a guide to, rather than a provider of, legal knowledge.

Analysis of the collected classroom data revealed more similarities than differences in the types of questions the lecturers initiated. Most of the questions raised were Wh-questions (e.g., what, when, where, why, who, how), which required an elaborated rather than a short yes-no response. The questions were often display questions aiming at uncovering students' knowledge about a certain topic. While Han and An also posed retrospective questions because they reviewed their lessons by questioning the students, Kha did not have any questions of this type; he used referential and rhetorical questions instead. Kha particularly used referential and rhetorical questions at the beginning of his

lessons to provoke his students' thinking, arouse their interest in the new content and lead into his lessons.

One possible difference between the lecturers' questioning styles was in their presentation of their questions. Han and An often asked one question at a time. Their questions were often short and clear-cut. On the contrary, Kha usually posed a series of related questions, each paraphrasing one another, and helped guide students' thinking in a certain perspective. The classroom extract below typified Kha's questioning style:

Extract 8.35:

Kha: Do you think is that possible that a legal entity has more than one legal representatives, or in other words, it has more than one mind, one acting body because legal representatives when they act on behalf of a legal entity, it means that that is the acting of the entity itself. Can we have more than one or we are allowed only to have one? Can, for example, School of Law have two legal representatives or not? Can a company like joint stock company or limited liability company have more than one legal representative or not? What do you think? *(8 sec pause)* Is there any problem with that? If we recognise that or if we allow a legal entity to have more than one legal representative, is there any problem? What kind of conflict? *(6 sec pause)* So now the question, yeah?

A student: Thua thay (*Kha: yeah*) kieu nhu la, y em la neu co (*Kha: ừ nói đi*) nguoi dai dien y a (*Kha: ừ*) thi quyet dinh do minh dua ra thi lieu nguoi kia co phai chiu trach nhiem khong a?

[Teacher, (Kha: yeah) for example, I mean if (Kha: yes, go ahead) having a representative (Kha: yes), we make a decision, will he be held liable?]

Kha: So when a legal representative renders an act, for example, or do something on behalf of a legal entity, who will be held liable? What do you think? Who will be held liable, the representative themselves or the company? *(3 sec pause)* The company would be held liable, so actually has nothing to do with the other representative. In principle the company would be held liable because the company would be considered to be the one who completes or executes the act. Is there any problem? Other problem that you think that might arise if we have more than one representative for a legal entity? *(7 sec pause)* Sometimes we might not know who is really a legal representative. We don't know who have the power, for example, to sign a contract. It might be another problem. And what else? (Kha, EMI session 1)

In this classroom vignette, despite Kha's continual questions and abundant wait time, his questions were met with silence. Similar to Han, Kha also referred a student's question back to the audience, inviting their opinions, but again he received no response. This forced Kha to answer the questions himself. Kha's persistence in asking questions, but in vain, seemed to make him angry as he told the students:

Extract 8.36:

You have to think. Otherwise, if you just expect me to say everything, you would know nothing about that. So you have to brainstorm a little bit. (Kha, EMI session 1)

Acting as a guide and positioning his students as problem solvers, the fact that his students did not fulfil their duty by not providing solutions or answers to Kha's questions upset him. When I asked Kha about the possible reasons for his students' silence in this classroom vignette, he said:

Extract 8.37:

The students who are hard-working and read will know how to answer. My questions in fact are all to check whether they have read the textbook so that I wouldn't waste time repeating textbook content, because my principle is not to repeat what the textbook already dictates. I want to provide students with another perspective, or a new comment, or a critique so I always need to ask. Of course I ask a lot, firstly to engage students and secondly to check whether they have read, and when I found out that they haven't, I was a bit angry, just that. In that case, I just tell them directly that if you don't answer, we'll move onto another content because we don't have much time. (Kha)

Acting as a Socratic pedagogue who used questions to engage his students and check their background knowledge, Kha also considered it his duty as a content guide to expand his students' knowledge beyond textbook ideas. However, his students' failure to fulfil their reading duty caused Kha not to complete his duty and his teaching objectives. This possibly resulted in Kha being unable to provide "advanced knowledge" to his students as he often aimed (Kha).

The issue of insufficient student responses was also present in Han's EMI classes. In fact, in almost every recorded lesson, Han overtly complained to her students about their lack of responsiveness and reminded the students to do the assigned home readings. Han directly told her students that only a few interacted in her lessons while "other people you seem to be invisible" (Han). In one of the lessons, since Han wanted to start a whole-class discussion based on a home reading, she checked whether the students had read the material because if not, "we won't have time for discussion" (Han). As a few students signalled their completion of the reading, Han started the discussion, but as Han posed the questions, only two students responded. When Han invited other students to contribute, there was again silence in the class, so she said:

Extract 8.38:

Ok, some of you have read the case, have read the materials but why don't you say anything? If you don't discuss then I'll move on. This is YOUR right, so if u want to learn in-depth about IP then I can go in-depth. If not then it's fine. I want you to learn more in-depth so I assign you to read more materials, but if you don't, if you don't like it, then it's your choice. Ok, then we move on. Thank you so much V. (Han, EMI session 3)

Stressing that it was the students' right to understand their course content in-depth, which necessitated Han's duty as a content guide to provide extra reading materials for the students, to enable their attainment of their right, Han reminded her students to take action to exercise their right; otherwise, it would be forfeited. Han explained to the students that their right to deep learning was also her desire. That the students did not respect their right and enforce it upset her because, just like Kha, her plan to deepen the students' knowledge had to be abandoned. In response to my question about her perspective on classroom interaction in EMI versus VMI, Han replied:

Extract 8.39:

Of course classroom interaction is better in Vietnamese because they [the students] listen in the mother tongue, they understand better. In EMI, firstly the students' English language proficiency is heterogeneous so I'm sure some students won't understand. Once they don't understand, they'll get bored, lose concentration and self-confidence. When they're unconfident, they won't speak up. Maybe the same student but in VMI class at least he or she can understand so he or she can say a few sentences, he or she can speak up, but in English it's much harder. Also due to the particular feature of this class, their inertia is too big, even the lecturers teaching in Vietnamese have to complain. (Han)

Although Han and Kha appeared to be a little disappointed about their students' lack of initiative for their learning, their "inertia" (Han) or "laziness" (Kha), the two lecturers' accounts generally showed an empathy for their EMI students. As Han expressed her viewpoint in the above statement, learning in a foreign language presented a cognitive and also an emotional challenge to some of her students, who would lose their self-confidence, and thus would never speak up. At the time of the interview, An had not started her EMI course on Vietnamese Labour Law, so she said she was not in the right position to comment on the EMI students. Nevertheless, she also displayed her empathy for the students despite her awareness of her colleagues' complaints. The three lecturers all acknowledged the students' "too big challenges" in EMI (Kha), as they explained:

Extract 8.40:

The students' work increases ten-fold in EMI because students have to read both in Vietnamese and in English. (Kha)

Extract 8.41:

For students, Vietnamese legal terms in Intellectual Property Law is already new vocabulary to them, not to say the terms in English. In their everyday language, they never encounter those words. Now they have to learn, have to understand what they mean in Vietnamese, and have to be able to translate those terms into English, to use them in a context to answer lecturers' questions, so the difficulty level is doubled. So I feel empathy for them. (Han)

Other lecturers often complain that EMI students are not as engaged as VMI ones, but I think it'd be subjective to say that. I think it's more difficult for them. (An)

Positioning their EMI students as learners with considerable challenges when they had to learn Vietnamese law in a foreign language due to their increased workload and technical language difficulties, the lecturers tended to do their best to support their students' content learning. As shown in the classroom vignettes above, one of the lecturers' methods to support their students' content comprehension was through the use of Vietnamese, the lecturers', and most of the students' L1. In fact, using Vietnamese constituted the most significant difference between An's and the two other lecturers' "questioning style", and their pedagogy in general. The following section will fully discuss the three lecturers' use of Vietnamese in their EMI lessons.

8.2.2.4 Language use

The interview and classroom data indicated the lecturers' general reluctance to employ Vietnamese in their EMI lessons. There was considerable variation in their use of Vietnamese, especially between An and the other lecturers: Han and Kha. The lecturers' attitudes towards L1 use in EMI were best captured in Kha's statement below when I asked him about his perspective regarding the use of Vietnamese in EMI classes:

Extract 8.43:

Indeed nobody wants to do that. Frankly speaking. I myself also like teaching 100% in English because it helps me a lot in keeping pace with English. But I have to, the ultimate target is to help learners understand content so I can't, when I discover that the students can't understand in English, I have to use Vietnamese, no way, although nobody wants that. (Kha)

Kha's remark revealed a conflict between his moral and personal positioning. What Kha meant by "nobody wants to do that" was indeed nobody wants to break the rule of using English only in EMI. Nevertheless, as a content guide, Kha considered it his duty to help students understand the content of his lessons. When recognising that English was an obstacle to the students' content comprehension, he had to find another means to deliver the content, namely using Vietnamese. Despite the general assumption of using English only in EMI and Kha's personal preference for using English solely to help his own professional development, he prioritised the students' content comprehension, seeing it

as "the ultimate target". Kha's decision was in fact not peculiar. As he referred to "nobody", he was positioning himself as having a similar viewpoint or solution as other EMI lecturers, who also have to use Vietnamese in their EMI classes, against their own will. Also in this extract, Kha's students were again positioned as learners with comprehension challenges if they were learning in English only.

Due to his reluctance, Kha minimised the use of Vietnamese in his EMI classes, using it in only two instances: "the last 10-15 minutes to summarise [the main content] in Vietnamese" or "when I'm speaking and I see their faces go blank". Other than these, he taught in English only. His classroom data also showed that Kha's lessons were mostly conducted in English. He lectured in English, posed questions in English, and gave his answers in English even when his students' questions were in Vietnamese. Although Kha said he encouraged his students to speak English, if they found it too hard to convey their ideas, he was accepting of their use of Vietnamese anyway. In addition to Kha's self-reported two instances of Vietnamese use in his EMI classes, the data show that he also taught in Vietnamese when he elaborated on special circumstances which represent a legal loophole or a creative application of law. Take the classroom vignette regarding "standard of care" obligation of the mandatary as an example (see Section 8.2.1 for details). As Kha explained to his students, this provision exists in civil codes "all over the world" (Kha), but not in the Vietnamese one, and when Kha elucidated this provision, he used Vietnamese.

Han also expressed her discomfort in speaking English only to her EMI students at University B. According to Han, the only course that she could "comfortably speak in English for about 90-95%, almost no need to use Vietnamese" was the course for practicing lawyers at another tertiary institution, "whose English is very good". Other than this course, Han's EMI experiences with undergraduate students in other universities showed her that "lecturers speaking 50% in Vietnamese is a common situation" (Han). By this, Han implied that the need to use Vietnamese for students at her university (University B) was not an exception. In other words, from Han's viewpoint, her students' English language proficiency (ELP) was more or less similar to the English language competence of undergraduate students elsewhere in Vietnam. Since "the students' English language proficiency is heterogeneous" and "some students are still dragging

their B1 or B2 [ELP] level", Han found it "impossible" for her to use English only in class (Han).

Like Kha, Han's interactive positioning of her EMI students as learners whose ELP might not allow them to fully understand English only lessons had compelled her to perform her moral duty as a content lecturer to support them by using Vietnamese alongside English. According to Han, she often used Vietnamese to explain content items that she deemed important, including having the Vietnamese translation of some legal rules on the PowerPoint slides (see Section 8.2.2.2 for details). Han's classroom data indicated that she started her lessons in English and then mostly lectured in English. She only used Vietnamese to explain vocabulary or elucidate some content items. Even when some students raised questions in Vietnamese, Han would respond to them in English; when Han answered a question in Vietnamese, she would paraphrase her response in English later. Han's language use practice might reflect her awareness of the one Korean student in her class, which she mentioned several times in the interview. Han always ensured that this Korean student would not miss out on any important information due to her use of Vietnamese.

Since An started EMI at University B one semester later than Han, teaching the same class that Han taught Vietnamese IP Law in English earlier, Kha and Han's language use experiences, especially with this cohort of EMI students, appeared to have influenced An's pattern of language use in her English-medium Vietnamese Labour Law class. Like Han, An's EMI experiences with external tertiary students involved "speaking in Vietnamese 50% of the time" (An). An told me in the interview that if she lectured a content item "by going from A to B to C to D, A is the beginning and D is the conclusion, she would speak from A to D in English, then omit unimportant details and definitely speak about A and D in Vietnamese again" (An). By doing so, An would "require the students who don't understand to ask questions" (An). Nevertheless, she seemed to be concerned with this practice, adding that "it might be risky" because her communication with other lecturers of Law-majored EMI students indicated that "at the end-term oral exams many students appeared not to understand the content very well" (An). In addition to her colleagues' shared experience, An's concern might have led her to decide to use Vietnamese in parallel to English in her Vietnamese Labour Law course for the Law-

majored students at University B. The following classroom vignette exemplifies the influence of other lecturers' experiences on An's language use decision. In this vignette, An was lecturing for about 12 minutes in English when she suddenly asked:

Extract 8.44:

An: Do you need me to translate myself in Vietnamese? Các bạn có cần mình phải nhắc lại bằng tiếng Việt không ạ? Thông thường thì mình sẽ không đặt câu hỏi đó tuy nhiên thì theo kinh nghiệm của một số các thầy cô đã dạy ở lớp các bạn thì có chia sẻ rằng là đôi khi nên nói lại một chút bằng tiếng Việt thì có thể sẽ giúp cho sinh viên sẽ lưu ý hơn. Các bạn có cần mình nói lại bằng tiếng Việt không ạ? [*Do you need me to translate myself in Vietnamese?* Do you need me to repeat in Vietnamese? Often I don't ask this question but from the experience of your former lecturers, they shared with me that sometimes repeating a little in Vietnamese might help remind you of the content. Do you need me to repeat the content in Vietnamese?]

A student: Cô nói cái phần Approaches to labour law đi ạ.

[Please say about the section Approaches to labour law again.]

An: À ok, rồi. Đây phần này, nội dung này đúng không ạ? [Ah ok, right. This section, this content, is it right?]

(An, EMI session 1)

In this classroom vignette, a new moral landscape had seemingly been created in An's EMI class. Positioning the students as learners who need to listen to Vietnamese to remember the content better, An seems to have granted the students the right to listen to the Vietnamese translations of lecture content. An's tactful positioning of her students appears to have successfully saved face for the low ELP students, as one student raised her voice to request An to explain a specific content item in Vietnamese again. The fact that this student responded positively to An's question and An's overt willingness to explain the section again in Vietnamese seems to have created a different moral landscape in An's EMI classroom. In this moral landscape, the students took up the right to Vietnamese translations of lecture content and An, as a result, accepted the duty to provide Vietnamese translations to her students. As shown in An's classroom data, her subsequent questions of "Do I need to repeat myself in Vietnamese?" were always received positively, with various student voices raised to request Vietnamese translations of different sections. Consequently, An asked less of this question and used Vietnamese in parallel with English, as illustrated in the following classroom vignette.

In this classroom vignette, An was starting a new content item in her lesson about the elements of employment contracts. Since the students had learnt about Vietnamese Contract Law, An would like to elicit their background knowledge about contracts in

general, and then based on their answers, she would guide them to discover the differences between employment contracts and general contracts. As she turned to the new slide (Figure 8.5 below), she posed a series of questions related to different points on the slide to elicit information from the students:

Figure 8.5: An's PPT slide (related to her code-switching practices in EMI)
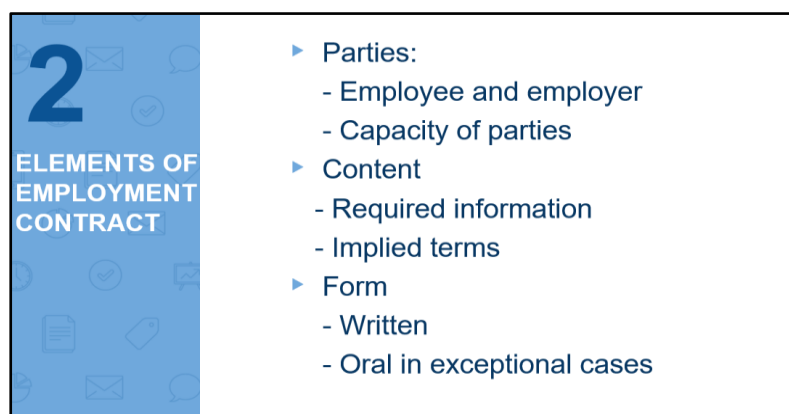
Extract 8.45:

An: So now we move to the elements of employment contract. Elements it means the factor or the content, or the requirement for a contract. So now before moving into this part, think about what you have learnt in the subject of contract in general. So in employment contract, like other type of contract we have to pay attention on determining who could be the parties of employment contract and after that, is there any regulation on the content of employment contract or the next one is how about the form of the contract. Remember about what you have learnt in the contract. Ok? Nhớ lại những nội dung các bạn đã học ở trong hợp đồng đúng không ạ. Trước khi chúng ta đi vào các yếu tố cấu thành nên hợp đông lao động thì quay trở lại vấn đề về hợp đồng nói chung, các bạn chắc vẫn còn nhớ đúng không ạ, khi nói đến một hợp đồng thì chúng ta có những điều kiện nào để một hợp đồng có hiệu lực hả các bạn, hợp đồng cần phải đảm bảo những tiêu chuẩn gì hả các bạn, và chúng ta thử xem xem các quy định đó có được đề ra trong hợp đồng lao động hay không, đề ra ở mức độ thấp hơn hay ở mức độ cao hơn, và có khác gì so với contract nói chung không? Vậy thì trước khi đi vào phần này hãy cho mình biết xem các điều kiện hay các yếu tố cấu thành của hợp đồng nói chung là gì các bạn còn nhớ không ạ? *(11 sec pause)*

Student A: Em thưa cô là để hợp đồng không vô hiệu thì trước hết mình phải đảm bảo những điều kiện luật định, ví dụ điều kiện về chủ thể, đối tượng của hợp đồng thì không được trái với điều cấm của luật hay trái với đạo đức xã hội. Cái tiếp theo là phải đảm bảo về mặt ý chí tự nguyện này. Và cái cuối cùng là phải đảm bảo về mặt hình thức của hợp đồng.

[Teacher, for a contract to be valid, firstly it has to meet legal requirements, for example requirement of parties, subject of the contract must not fall within legal bans or go against the society's moral standards. Next there must be free will. And lastly the requirement of form must be met.]

An: OK. Yeah. It's correct. OK. So compare this knowledge to employment contract. So the first one student A talked about the parties, right. Chủ thể của hợp đồng. Chủ thể của hợp đồng bản chất chính là các bên tham gia hợp đồng. OK let me know that the requirements on the parties of general contract. Do you have any idea about this? Cho mình biết xem các bạn còn nhớ gì về chủ thể để tham gia hợp đồng không ạ? Có yêu cầu gì đối với chủ thể khi tham gia hợp đồng nói chung không ạ? *(4 sec pause)*

Student B: They have to have the capacity of act and the legal of act.

An: OK. Yep. Anything else? Is there any distinction between capacity of natural person and capacity of legal entity? Có sự phân biệt về cách thức xác định năng lực hành vi của chủ thể là tự nhiên nhân và pháp nhân không ạ? Chắc các bạn còn nhớ nội dung này đúng không ạ? *(4 sec pause)*

Student B: So the natural person has to have enough age, like above 18 years old. But the legal entity if they have the registration so they actually have the capacity of act, I guess.

<div align="right">(An, EMI session 2)</div>

This classroom extract clearly demonstrates An's parallel use of Vietnamese in addition to English. As An's questions existed in two versions, one in English and the other in Vietnamese, the students could always understand her questions. Some students chose to respond to An in English, while others used Vietnamese. As a result of An's bilingual practices, her EMI class appeared to be the most interactive among the three recorded EMI Law classes. That different students' voices were heard meant that more students were able to participate in An's lessons, as compared to Han's. However, as this vignette reveals, when student A replied to An in Vietnamese, An did not fully summarise or translate student A's answer into English. Instead, An confirmed the response's correctness and took part of the answer to pose a new question. As An's whole classroom data unfolded, there were several instances where An's content explanation in Vietnamese was more detailed and thorough than the information she provided in English. An's content review at the beginning of a lesson was often performed in Vietnamese. Given that An's EMI class was the same class that Han taught a semester earlier and there was a Korean student in this class, An's insufficient Vietnamese-English translations might have accidentally affected this student's content learning.

Positioning the students as learners having challenges learning in English only, the three lecturers were quite open to their students' use of Vietnamese in class. Lesson recordings indicated that the students could ask or answer questions in either language no matter whether the lecturers' questions were posed in English or not. Nevertheless, if the questions were raised in Vietnamese, it was more likely that the lecturers would receive a Vietnamese response from the students. The students having higher English proficiency were "encouraged to speak English" (Kha) while those feeling they could not communicate in English were given the freedom of language selection. Although the lecturers considered the issue of EMI students speaking in Vietnamese in their classes "a big problem of the [EMI] story" (Kha) and "so miserable" (Han), this situation was somehow inevitable. As Han recalled her overseas study experience, she realised that the

quality of learning with Vietnamese lecturers in the Vietnamese environment is much less because "students always have the idea of reliance on lecturers, if they don't understand, lecturers will repeat in Vietnamese, and they can always answer in Vietnamese" (Han).

In general, the interview and classroom data both indicated Kha's, Han's, and An's bilingual practices for the same purposes in their EMI lessons, though to a different extent. While Kha tended to minimise his Vietnamese use and Han used Vietnamese moderately, An employed Vietnamese significantly more than her colleagues. In the lessons recorded, Vietnamese was used mainly for content transmission, namely pedagogical purposes. There were only three instances of using Vietnamese for classroom management functions, one in each lecturer's class. The following section will describe another teacher duty in EMI: assessment duty.

8.2.3 Assessment: The law lecturers' self-positionings as flexible content assessors

The data for assessment, an important area of teacher duty, could only be obtained via the lecturers' self-reported practices, as real assessment tasks or assessment criteria were considered confidential institutional materials. As described in Section 6.2.2.2.3 about University B's course assessment regulations, its lecturers have the right to decide continuous assessment activities for their classes, which account for 40% of the total score of a course. This 40% is usually divided between class attendance and/or participation and a mid-term exam/assignment. Detailed information on course assessment is often provided in course guides, but again the course guides in University B were not very useful for information on assessment because lecturers "are free to decide what to do with the 40% of the subject score" (An, Han) no matter what is written on the course guide. Kha even sent me a wrong course guide which belonged to "the real High-Quality Program" taught in Vietnamese (see Section 8.1.2 for details on the differences between this program and the High-Quality EMI program). This accidental mistake of Kha's and the other two lecturers' comments suggested that course guides for them are more of an administrative requirement than of real practical value, because the lecturers did not need to refer to course guides in their teaching.

Analysis of the interview data revealed that the three lecturers consistently positioned themselves as flexible content assessors. Their emphasis on content rather than language assessment was manifested in the lecturers' comments below, which typify their stance on course assessment in EMI:

Extract 8.46:

The assessment criteria are in fact not different, not different from VMI, and I don't care much about language, mostly marking ideas. (Han)

Extract 8.47:

When scoring papers, I only mark the content, if their handwriting or their English is good, I will give them a bonus point of 0.5 to 1 point, but I never mark their language. (Kha)

Extract 8.48:

Content only. Language is not my expertise so I don't mark students' language. (An)

Positioning themselves as content assessors, the three lecturers did not include language in their assessment criteria. In fact, language only constituted "a bonus point" (Kha) while ideas were the key. The lecturers' reflexive positioning as content assessors might imply an implicit interactive positioning of their EMI students as content learners, whose language competence and language learning do not really play a role in their EMI course success.

The three lecturers' discourses revealed the differences in their interactive positionings of their students, and their practices to generate the students' class attendance scores. Positioning the students as learners who cannot yet self-regulate their learning behaviours, particularly their class attendance and participation, Han marked the class register every teaching session to "monitor the students more closely" (An). She then used the outcome of this attendance check and the students' active in-class participation to generate her students' 20% class attendance and participation score.

In contrast, An and Kha did not check their students' attendance. Positioning his students as learners who should be held accountable for their study, because "that is their right", Kha told his students directly that "university study is self-study". He therefore did not require his students to attend lessons, and "never mark[s] the class register". Instead, he required the EMI students to write a short essay at home to express their viewpoint on a

legal rule, and automatically awarded the 10% attendance mark to every student with an essay submission.

At the time of the interview, An had not started her EMI class on Vietnamese Labour Law, but she was considering using the same assignment she had for her VMI class. Perceiving the students who did not ask questions as not understanding her lessons fully or being possibly shy, An would design a group assignment in which students could work together to lead the class discussion on a certain content topic on the class Facebook page. An would then evaluate the group performance for the group members' 20% attendance score. According to An, this activity not only helps "deepen the students' understanding of course topics", but it also fosters their autonomy in raising and answering questions so that "weak or shy students, who are afraid to ask lecturers, can always ask their peers instead" (An).

While the three lecturers' ways of generating their students' class attendance scores were different, their mid-term assessment tasks, and end-term tests were almost similar in purpose and format. According to the lecturers, legal philosophy or legal reasoning is one of the foci of legal education at University B and hence, the focus of their mid-term and end-term assessment tasks. As Han explained, "we don't want to check our students' memory of legal rules, but their application of legal rules and legal reasoning". Therefore, students at University B are always given open-book exams, which allow them to consult materials such as legal codes, textbooks, and class notes to answer their mid-term or end-term exam questions. For mid-term assessment, the students were often required to use their legal knowledge to analyse a scenario and apply legal rules to solve the legal problem. EMI students in Kha's class were expected to go one step further – to critique the related Vietnamese legal rules and "point out its weaknesses in dealing with such situations" (Kha). Kha's students would receive 30% of the course GPA for their mid-term assignments while Han's and An's students would receive 20%. For end-term tests, in addition to a scenario, the students would have one or two theory synthesis questions, "which students can't just copy from anywhere" (Han) and "if they don't really learn, they won't have enough time to look for information" (Kha).

Analysis of the lecturers' accounts revealed that while the format of their assessment tasks for EMI classes was the same as that for VMI ones, the difficulty level of the tasks and the expected performance of the students were different. Specifically, Han designed easier end-term exam questions for her EMI students, while Kha lowered his expectations of the EMI students' assessment task performance. The two lecturers described their assessment adaptations as follows:

> Extract 8.49:
>
> I have to make it [the assessment tasks] easier regarding content, meaning the difficulty level of questions is reduced. (Han)
>
> Extract 8.50:
>
> We remind each other to support the students because their challenges are too big. Therefore, instead of, for example with VMI classes if students write a one-page essay, we'll think they don't respect us, but for EMI students writing one-page essays, we understand that they already make efforts. So our expectations are lowered a bit, not because the students are incompetent but simply because they have to struggle with that. (Kha)

Using verbs of strong modality (i.e., "have to"), Han's and Kha's remarks seem to suggest that the students' challenges are inevitable and it is the lecturers' duty to adapt their assessment practices to support the students. In the interview, Han defended her adapted assessment practice by recounting her overseas study experience when international students got 20 minutes extra for every one-hour exam that American students did, meaning that "for a three-hour exam, international students would get 60 minutes more than American students" (Han). According to Han, this practice is "to be fair for international students because they have to process exam questions and do the exams in their foreign language" (Han). Concurring with Han, Kha also considered the students' challenges as not competency-based, but rather obvious and unavoidable, because "they have to struggle with that" (Kha). Acknowledging the students' challenges with doing assessment tasks in a foreign language, the two lecturers appeared to have accepted a duty to support their students. They performed their duty by adapting their assessment practices.

By adapting their assessment practices, Han and Kha implicitly positioned themselves as flexible content assessors, while interactively positioning their students as content learners with big challenges performing their assessment tasks in English. Since it was not University B's policy to allocate more exam time for EMI students, Han decided to

reduce the difficulty level of her exam questions. Though not modifying the level of complexity of his exam questions, Kha lowered his expectation of EMI students' exam performance, seeing this as a unanimous practice among EMI lecturers at his university as the lecturers "remind each other" to do so (Kha). Since An had not experienced assessing the Law-majored students in EMI, she did not provide any comment on the mid-term and end-term exams for her course.

In brief, the lecturers' accounts of their assessment practices in EMI have revealed not only their reflexive positioning of themselves and interactive positioning of their students, but also their adaptations. Han and Kha implicitly positioned themselves as flexible content assessors by reducing the difficulty level of the exam questions and lowering their expectations of the EMI students' assessment task performance. At the same time, their students were placed in the position of content learners with challenges in doing their assessment tasks in English, and thus in need of the lecturers' support. Although these adaptations, as the lecturers argued, made it "fair" for their EMI students, a question remains on how the lecturers' assessment practices would foster the students' legal English development, given the lecturers' positioning as guides for their EMI students to both legal content and legal English.

Summary

This chapter has explored the three Law lecturers' positionings and teaching practices in EMI regarding the content taught in their classrooms, the pedagogy they used, and the assessment practices they performed. In general, the lecturers appeared to adhere to their content focus in EMI, although their discipline required them to draw more students' attention to language, i.e., legal English. Therefore, regarding content, the three lecturers tended to view themselves as guides to their students' legal knowledge and legal English development. Despite the change in the language medium of instruction, their pedagogy in EMI remained almost the same as in VMI, which mainly employed the Socratic method to engage students in their self-exploration and self-construction of knowledge, hence the lecturers' positioning as Socratic pedagogues. Nevertheless, the lecturers appeared to be adaptive with their assessment practices, perceiving themselves as flexible content

assessors. In total the lecturers' accounts revealed the following adaptations that they have made in their English-medium instruction:

(1) supply of more and different types of reference materials,

(2) an increased amount of information on international legal rules/practices,

(3) different ICT design and use (i.e, PowerPoint slide),

(4) the use of Vietnamese as a remedy,

(5) focus-on-meaning assessment practices,

(6) simplification of assessment tasks, and

(7) lowered expectations of students' assessment task performance.

The next chapter will collect all these findings together and discuss the positionings and teaching practices of both the Law and the Chemistry lecturers in light of Positioning Theory and the related literature.

CHAPTER 9: DISCUSSION

Introduction

Following the presentation of findings from the documentation, interview, and classroom data in Chapters 6, 7, and 8, this chapter draws out the most salient themes from these chapters and discusses them in relation to the relevant EMI literature and Positioning Theory.

The discussion in this chapter responds to the two research questions guiding this study, which aimed to explore EMI lecturers' teaching practices from the Positioning Theory perspective:

1. How do Vietnamese lecturers position themselves in their accounts of English-medium instruction practices?

2. How do Vietnamese lecturers' self-positionings interact with their teaching practices, particularly their instructional adaptations (if any), in English-medium instruction?

The chapter has two main sections, which discuss the findings of two research questions. This chapter ends with a short summary.

9.1 The lecturers' self-positionings in EMI

This section discusses the findings of the first research question regarding how Vietnamese lecturers position themselves in their accounts of EMI practices. Drawing on an adapted positioning triangle, particularly Van Langenhove's (2017) typology of moral orders (see Section 4.3 for details), the lecturers' self-positionings are viewed from two perspectives: (1) narrowly, from within the local moral orders of their EMI accounts, and (2) broadly, from across different layers of moral orders. These zoom-in and zoom-out analyses allow a more comprehensive and deeper understanding of the lecturers' positionings in their EMI contexts.

9.1.1 The lecturers' self-positionings: Disciplinary alignments in personal moral orders

Within the local moral orders of EMI practices, as reflected in the lecturers' accounts of EMI teaching practices, the evidence in this study indicates that the lecturers' self-positionings remained almost the same in EMI, compared to VMI. In other words, the lecturers' rights and duties in EMI were still content-focused, and the change in the language medium of instruction did not significantly affect the lecturers' views of their rights and duties (see Chapters 7 and 8 for details). Although the Law lecturers mentioned their duty to teach legal English to their students, their language instruction was limited to terminology explanation, which is arguably part of lecturers' regular content teaching duties. As the Danish EMI lecturers in Kling's (2015) study posit, vocabulary explanation is a fundamental element of teaching, regardless of the language medium of instruction. The only possible difference lay in the lecturers' self-positionings regarding their assessment practices, since in VMI, the lecturers would consider it their duty to assess students' Vietnamese language use.

The finding of the lecturers' almost unchanged perceptions of their rights and duties in EMI both corroborates and extends the current state of knowledge in the EMI literature. EMI lecturers' unwillingness to assume the language teaching duties, and thus, the role/position as language teachers is widely reported (Airey, 2012; Block & Moncada-Comas, 2019). Many EMI lecturers do not include English language as an assessment criterion in their course (Doiz et al., 2019; Kao & Tsou, 2017), indicating their similar self-positionings as content assessors. This was also the case for the lecturers in this study. Nevertheless, this study's findings extend the EMI literature by looking beyond the lecturers' language duties, and comparing the lecturers' perceptions of their rights and duties in EMI with their perceived rights and duties in their teaching in the first language.

This study not only adds evidence to the content lecturers' views of their language duties in EMI, but also provides insights into the impact of language on content lecturers' perceptions of their rights and duties as they transition from teaching in their mother tongue to teaching in English. If viewing lecturers' rights and duties from the teacher identity perspective, as other EMI researchers often do (e.g., Block, 2021), the evidence

in this study suggests a possibly unchanged professional identity of content lecturers, under the change in the language of instruction. However, this suggestion should be considered in relation to the particular characteristics of the lecturers in this study and the specific features of their teaching contexts. The EMI literature indicates many factors impacting EMI lecturers' professional identity such as their age (Dafouz, 2018) and EMI teaching experience (Soren, 2013). With this suggestion, the present study partly addresses the shortage of research into the professional identity implications of EMI (Pappa & Moate, 2021), though teacher identity was not the focus of this study.

The literature indicates the alignment between STEM EMI lecturers' self-positionings and the rights and duties required of lecturers in these academic disciplines (Block, 2021). This is consistent with the finding in this study, which adds further evidence from the Social Sciences lecturers (i.e., the Law lecturers). The participant lecturers' reflexive positionings as providers of knowledge, traditional teachers, knowledge guides, or Socratic pedagogues are closely related to the typical features of teaching and learning in their disciplines. Disciplinary differences therefore help explain, at least partially, the variation in self-positionings between the Chemistry and Law lecturers in this study. Research into tertiary education points out the relations between academic disciplines and lecturers' approaches to teaching (Lindblom-Ylänne, Trigwell, Nevgi, & Ashwin, 2006). Specifically, lecturers from hard sciences such as Chemistry and Maths often emphasise knowledge transmission and adopt teacher-centred instructional approaches. In contrast, soft sciences lecturers, such as those in Law and Psychology, focus on students' change in their conceptual understandings, and thus tend to employ student-centred approaches in their teaching. Lindblom-Ylänne et al.'s (2006) research findings might explain the Chemistry lecturers' positionings as providers of knowledge and traditional teachers, who adopted a teacher-centred approach to teaching, while the Law lecturers saw themselves as knowledge guides and Socratic pedagogues, who underscored the need to uncover students' background knowledge and facilitate students' knowledge construction.

The Chemistry and Law lecturers' self-positionings as providers of knowledge and guides to legal knowledge and legal English respectively also reflect the dissimilar role of language in their disciplines. For the Chemistry lecturers, language appeared to be less important than content knowledge in EMI success (see Section 7.2.1 for details). The

Chemistry lecturers did not consider it their duty to help students with language in their teaching. Dan, the only Chemistry lecturer who referred to a language teaching duty of providing Vietnamese meanings of English terms, performed this self-assigned task because of its value to his students' future job performance, not because of seeing language as his students' challenges (see also Section 7.2.1). In contrast, the Law lecturers' reflexive positionings as guides to legal English reflected the significant role of language in content acquisition in their discipline.

The evidence in this study confirms disciplinary differences in the role of language, which has been demonstrated in other EMI studies. For example, Dang et al. (2021) review the literature on professional learning of EMI academics and find the dominant role of content over language in hard sciences disciplines. Lecturers of the hard sciences are reported to be "saved by the formula" despite their language challenges (Airey, 2011). In contrast, EMI lecturers in the soft sciences generally agree on the significant role of language in acquiring knowledge and skills in their disciplines (Henriksen et al., 2018; Hu & Duan, 2019).

The absence of language teaching duties in the six lecturers' self-positionings and their unanimous reflexive positionings as content assessors indicate the lecturers' detachment from the self-positionings as language teachers. This finding is similar to what has been found in many previous EMI studies (Aguilar, 2017; Airey, 2012; Block, 2021). The contribution that this study makes, however, is explaining EMI lecturers' unwillingness to assume the duties and the position of language teachers, by drawing on the tenets of Positioning Theory.

From the Positioning Theory perspective, EMI lecturers' detachment from the position and the duties of language teachers is because of their lack of language teachers' rights. According to Positioning Theory, there need to be three components to establish a position: rights, obligations, and duties (see Section 4.1.2.2 for definitions of these concepts). In EMI contexts, there is ample evidence of language teaching episodes (Basturkmen, 2018; Block & Mancho-Barés, 2021; Costa, 2012), suggesting the existence of actions, or obligations, taken to perform the language teaching duty. However, the language teaching duties of EMI lecturers are often missing in policy

documents (Macaro, 2018). Even when some EMI lecturers took on the language teaching duties by themselves, to provide personal support to their students, the lecturers still refused the role/position of language teachers (Dinh Thanh & Barnett, 2022; Nguyen, 2016b; Tri, 2020). This refusal can be explained by the lack of language teachers' rights. It is highly unlikely that EMI lecturers receive professional training as English language teachers. Nor are EMI lecturers allocated time or provided resources to teach English in their EMI classes, as similarly argued by Chinese EMI lecturers in Jiang et al. (2019). This lack of language teachers' rights explains the reasons why EMI lecturers hesitate to correct students' language errors (Ament & Pérez-Vidal, 2015), perceiving their English language competence as insufficient (Aguilar, 2017), or seeing themselves just as English language learners (Block & Moncada-Comas, 2019). This new understanding accorded by Positioning Theory somehow reveals a solution to EMI lecturers' unwillingness to take on the language teaching duties, which an explanation related to "disciplinary identities" (as in Block, 2021) might not.

There is also evidence in this study indicating that the lecturers' self-positionings were affected by their professional learning. Ha's self-positioning as a pedagogical innovator resulted from her successful participation in a professional development (PD) course on innovative teaching in higher education (see Section 7.2.2 for details). Han's self-positioning as a Socratic pedagogue derived from her undergraduate and postgraduate learning experiences, where the American lecturers she encountered frequently employed the Socratic Method in legal education (see Section 8.2.2 for details). Kha's implicit positioning as a Socratic pedagogue took its roots in his postgraduate studies in the UK, where he became familiar with using real cases to provoke students' discussions (see Section 8.2.2 for details). In the EMI literature, several studies indicate the positive impact of professional learning on changing EMI lecturers' beliefs or perceptions of their rights and duties in classroom practices (Macaro & Tian, 2020; Webster & Herington, 2021). The finding in this study therefore adds evidence to this body of scholarship, demonstrating the impact of professional learning on the lecturers' self-perceived rights and duties in EMI.

Nevertheless, the fact that Ha positioned herself as a pedagogical innovator regarding pedagogy, but a content knowledge provider regarding content, suggests a lack of

systematic professional training for EMI lecturers in the Vietnamese HE. In Ha's view, the evidence of a student-centred approach in her teaching lay in her asking for the students' opinions, allowing them to make choices in learning tasks, and diversifying her teaching/assessment activities to engage her students in learning (see Sections 7.2.2 and 7.2.3 for details). Nevertheless, it can be argued that what Ha had been doing is just on the periphery of student-centred teaching approaches, and the core of these approaches indeed lies in students' co-construction of knowledge with the lecturers (O'Neill & McMahon, 2005). Without systematic professional training, which introduces theoretical underpinnings of student-centred learning to Vietnamese EMI lecturers, the pedagogical innovations of lecturers like Ha would turn out to be mere mechanical applications of methods and techniques. A similar warning has been put forward by Nguyen and Nguyen (2019) who investigated professional learning of university academics in Vietnam.

Evidence from this study indicates a tension between the Law lecturers' desired and performed self-positionings. This was particularly true in the cases of Kha and Han, whose self-positionings as Socratic pedagogues were not fully realised in their classrooms due to the EMI students' challenges in fulfilling or failing to perform their duties as problem solvers (see Section 8.2.2 for details). An, the other Law lecturer, did not seem to experience this tension due to her considerable employment of Vietnamese in her English-medium teaching. This finding thus points to a potential conflict between adopting an English-only EMI environment and promoting classroom interaction as an indicator of a student-centred teaching approach (Macaro, 2018). This conflict has been witnessed in many contexts, often resulting in lecturers adopting bilingual or code-switching teaching practices (Macaro et al., 2020; Ploettner, 2019).

Because of the relational nature of positionings, or the interrelation between reflexive and interactive positionings (as described in Chapter 4), it is necessary to discuss how the lecturers in this study positioned themselves in relation to others.

To begin with, the data analysis shows that the lecturers mainly positioned themselves in relation to their students. On the one hand, this is to be expected as students are direct beneficiaries of the teaching process and another key educational stakeholder (besides lecturers). On the other hand, the few interactive positionings of other lecturers in the

same contexts, i.e., (EMI) colleagues of the participant lecturers in this study, might indicate the lecturers' lack of professional interaction/ collaboration for their teaching role in Universities A and B. This limited professional collaboration among university academics has been reported in both Vietnamese tertiary contexts (Nguyen & Nguyen, 2019) and elsewhere (Dang et al., 2021). This study thus adds more evidence to this issue from a Positioning Theory perspective, and puts forward a similar call for more collaboration among content lecturers (Lu, 2022) or between content and language lecturers (Macaro & Tian, 2020) to better address EMI challenges.

Like the lecturers' self-positionings, their positionings of the students seem to have been affected by their views of the role of language in their disciplines. That the Chemistry lecturers downplayed the role of language in their discipline might explain their ignorance of their EMI students' language challenges and their resulting interactive positioning of their students as "lazy" and "lack of efforts". In fact, students' linguistic challenges were not present in the three Chemistry lecturers' accounts (see Chapter 7 for details). Instead, the lecturers just mentioned their students' linguistic incompetence, meaning that in their opinion, the students' English language proficiency was insufficient for their active and effective learning in English. On the contrary, although there was evidence that the EMI Law students were also "lazy", the Law lecturers consistently positioned their students as "having big challenges", and thus generally showed their empathy for, rather than placing the blame on, the students (see Chapter 8 for details). The EMI literature confirms disciplinary differences in students' challenges in EMI, with natural sciences students encountering fewer challenges than their social sciences counterparts (Dearden, 2014). Nevertheless, the literature has not pointed out disciplinary differences in the lecturers' views towards their students in EMI. Therefore, this study has contributed a new perspective towards lecturers' perceptions of and attitudes towards their EMI students.

The lecturers' interactive positionings of their students also align with the nature of knowledge in their disciplines or courses. As a hard pure science, chemical knowledge is cumulative, with highly related concepts and principles, while knowledge in soft sciences disciplines such as Law is functional, broad, and general, with concepts not closely related to each other (Becher, 1987; Neumann, 2001; Neumann, Parry, & Becher, 2002). Consequentially, firm background knowledge is very important for students in Chemistry

if they want to absorb new concepts and principles. Due to the interrelation between chemical concepts, students can possibly acquire chemical content quickly if they put effort into doing so. This explains why Tam and Dan attributed their AP students' struggle with content learning in English to the students' weak background knowledge and lack of effort in study, thus positioning the students as incompetent and lazy learners (see Section 7.2.1 for details). In the same discipline however, Ha's course content (i.e., Fundamentals of Biochemistry) is interdisciplinary in nature and is only at the introductory level, with several concepts already acquired by the students during their secondary schooling. Therefore, Ha's students did not seem to struggle as much as Dan and Tam's in EMI; hence, Ha did not position her students as incompetent or lazy.

Similarly, the Law lecturers' belief that the students possess their own knowledge, which can be useful for the lessons, derives from the nature of legal knowledge, which is general and closely related to life situations. This resulted in their positionings of their students as problem solvers, despite the students' lack of reading that can hamper their problem-solving capacity (see Section 8.2.1 for details). Although students' learning challenges are not the focus of this study, the evidence in this study provides insights into the topic of student learning in EMI. In particular, this study's findings suggest that not only disciplines (or disciplinary knowledge) but also courses (or course content) (as in Ha's case) can be a factor influencing students' content learning in EMI.

In sum, disciplinary features, e.g., the nature of knowledge, the nature of teaching and learning, and the role of language are the main factors influencing the lecturers' self-positionings and their interactive positionings of their students in EMI. The lecturers generally perceived their rights and duties in relation to their content teaching, even when they were using a different language medium of instruction. The following section will discuss the lecturers' self-positionings from a broader perspective, across different layers of moral orders.

9.1.2 The lecturers' self-positionings: Policy misalignments across layers of moral orders

This section discusses the lecturers' self-positionings across four levels of moral orders. When the four layers of moral orders in this study (i.e., cultural, legal/national, institutional, and personal moral orders) are taken into consideration, a number of misalignments and tensions emerge among teacher positionings in different moral orders.

To begin with, the lecturers' self-positionings in this study misalign with their positionings in the policy documents. As described in Section 6.2, EMI lecturers are positioned at the legal/national and institutional moral orders as highly qualified teachers and pedagogical innovators. As such, EMI lecturers are supposed to make innovations in their teaching, and to take the role of change agents in their contexts. Although the EMI lecturers in this study all satisfied the legal and institutional criteria of EMI lecturers, and thus, can be considered highly qualified teachers, their perceptions of their duties were far from the duties of pedagogical innovators that the national and institutional policies assign to them (see Section 6.2.2.3 for details on Vietnamese EMI lecturers' stipulated duties). The lecturers considered it their duty to transmit comprehensible knowledge to their students, not the "advanced" or difficult knowledge which their students could not process. The lecturers also did not seem to employ so-called modern teaching and assessment methods, nor did they appear to embrace educational technologies in their teaching. The teaching and assessment methods they used in EMI were the same as those they adopted in VMI, with just a change in the language medium (see Sections 7.2.2, 7.2.3, 8.2.2, 8.2.3 for details). Even for Ha, the only lecturer who positioned herself as a pedagogical innovator, her self-positioning was in relation to her colleagues, rather than to the policy mandates, meaning that her self-perceived duties did not really match with the duties assigned to her by the policies (see Section 7.2.2 for details).

This finding both confirms and provides further insights into the mismatch between the macro-level policies and micro-level beliefs and practices as noted in other EMI studies (Hu et al., 2014; Tri, 2020; Vo et al., 2022). While the EMI literature tends to emphasise the macro/micro mismatch regarding language use (Pun et al., 2023), or entry language requirements of EMI lecturers and students (Nguyen, 2016b), the findings in this study

point to a greater misalignment in the Vietnamese EMI context. This misalignment in the perception of teacher duties across the micro- (i.e., teachers, classrooms), meso- (i.e., institutional), and macro- (i.e., national) levels presents a significant challenge for the Vietnamese tertiary system to successfully implement EMI to transform its higher education.

This study also uncovers misalignments even within the legal/national moral order. Firstly, under the Positioning Theory perspective, prepositioning is to justify the assignment or resistance of rights or duties (Harré & Slocum, 2003). As discussed in Section 6.2.2.1, in Vietnam's national policy documents, EMI lecturers are prepositioned as highly qualified teachers by the recruitment criteria. Hence, they are assigned the more demanding duties of pedagogical innovators who teach more difficult content in English using modern teaching and assessment methods, and modern technologies to facilitate teaching and learning (see Section 6.2.2.3 for details). The interviews with two Program Coordinators in this study revealed Vietnamese EMI policymakers' erroneous presumption that makes the prepositioning of EMI lecturers as highly qualified teachers unable to justify the duties of pedagogical innovators. As these Program Coordinators pointed out, overseas graduation does not guarantee good instruction in English. Good instruction in English requires higher-level competence in spoken English; however, during their studies, most overseas graduates would have concentrated more on reading and writing in English (see Section 6.2.2.1 for details).

Secondly, from the Positioning Theory perspective, rights and duties must correspond to one another (see Section 4.1.2.2 for details). Although Harré (2012) tends to focus on the rights and duties assumed by conversation partners in the local/conversational moral order, this understanding of the compatibility between rights and duties could be arguably extended to examine a larger, implicit conversation between micro-level (i.e., lecturers) and macro-level (i.e., policymakers) agents. In order for EMI lecturers to perform the duties of pedagogical innovators, they should be granted adequate rights to, for example, professional learning related to innovative pedagogy, application of modern technologies in tertiary education, and ongoing systematic support. The right to higher pay only (see Section 6.2.2.2 for details) seems to underestimate the efforts and resources needed to

innovate and transform the whole Vietnamese higher education system. As a result, desirable outcomes of the innovation process might not be guaranteed.

The evidence of these internal tensions in the national EMI policies presents a new understanding of two old problems. The first problem is that despite satisfying the recruitment criteria, Vietnamese EMI lecturers are reported to have insufficient English language proficiency to teach effectively in English (Tran et al., 2018; Tri, 2020; Vu & Burns, 2014), especially inadequate oral English skills, resulting in poorer content lessons, with less elaboration and explanation (Pham & Barnett, 2022). The second problem is that Vietnam's Higher Education Reform Agenda 2005 and other educational reform initiatives at the tertiary level, despite huge financial investments, have all been reported to fail to achieve their major targets (Harman, Hayden, & Pham, 2010; Hayden & Le-Nguyen, 2020; Tran & Marginson, 2018).

This study provides a new perspective for understanding these issues. It does not attribute the first issue to legal non-transparency (i.e., not clearly stipulating that lecturers have to graduate from English-speaking countries), or an institutional problem (i.e., taking advantage of the legal non-transparency above to assign lecturers graduating from non-English-speaking countries, e.g., Russia, to teach in EMI programs due to the shortage of EMI staff) (Nguyen, 2016b). Rather, this study's theoretical framework, Positioning Theory, indicates another cause. That cause is the mismatch between prepositioning and positioning, resulting in recruiting highly qualified academics, who cannot perform the duty of teaching in English effectively.

Positioning Theory also points to a different cause of the second problem, which, according to this study, lies in the incompatibility between lecturers' granted rights and their prescribed duties. This is not to say that this right-duty incompatibility is the only cause of the second problem. However, it is arguably one of the most fundamental causes as it affects the capacity to act of a key stakeholder in educational reforms, i.e., lecturers.

The adapted positioning triangle in this study allows the direct unveiling of a misalignment between the national/legal and the cultural moral orders in the Vietnamese EMI context. As described in Section 6.2.2, national EMI policies promote an image of EMI lecturers as pedagogical innovators, who employ student-centred teaching

approaches to enhance students' learning autonomy, to enable more knowledge co-construction between lecturers and students. Nevertheless, the traditional image of Vietnamese teachers is as knowledge providers with full authority, who transmit knowledge to students and direct them on a learning path that their teacher has drawn out for them (Phuong-Mai et al., 2005). These ideological, pedagogical, and cultural clashes between Vietnamese EMI policies and the country's national culture have been reported in the literature (Tran et al., 2020; Tran et al., 2017). However, in those studies, these clashes are inferred based on research participants' discourses, rather than directly revealed by a conceptual framework. Therefore, an explicit view of the national-cultural clashes, enabled by this study's adapted positioning triangle, presents a methodological strength and also a possible theoretical contribution of this study to EMI and educational research.

The EMI literature has acknowledged the impact of the local culture on EMI implementation (Pham & Barnett, 2022; Zuaro, 2022), but how to directly examine the impact of cultures on lecturers' teaching practices in EMI remains a research gap (Zuaro, 2023). This study addresses this gap by adapting the positioning triangle used in Positioning Theory. The adapted triangle directly uncovers an alignment between the lecturers' self-positionings and their positionings in the cultural moral order, given the absence of other factors such as effective PD schemes and disciplinary peculiarity (e.g., the Socratic Method as the classic method in legal education). In other words, without adequate professional training for lecturers, traditional beliefs and customary habits in the local educational system will play the dominant role, influencing lecturers' beliefs and actions. The influence of the Vietnamese culture on the lecturers' self-positionings was manifested in the Chemistry lecturers' self-positionings as content knowledge providers and traditional teachers who transmit knowledge to their students in a one-way approach, their beliefs of providing all necessary knowledge for their students, and their corresponding actions of pre-teaching (see Sections 7.2.1 for details). The Vietnamese culture might also affect the lecturers' beliefs and actions in another way, as discussed further in the next section.

In brief, a broader view of the lecturers' self-positionings, enabled by the adapted positioning triangle in this study, has provided insights into several misalignments not

only within the legal moral order, but also between the legal, institutional, and personal moral orders. As reported in the EMI literature in the Vietnamese HE context, these misalignments create challenges and inconsistent EMI implementation at the institutional and classroom levels (see Sections 2.5.2.2 and 2.5.2.3 for details). The nuanced understandings of teachers' positionings across layers of moral orders highlight the complex interrelationship between the lecturers' self-positionings at the micro-level and the broader institutional, national, and social contexts within which their teaching practices occur. The lecturers' self-positionings in EMI also interacted with their teaching practices, particularly their instructional adaptations. The following section will discuss this interaction in detail.

9.2 Interaction between the lecturers' self-positionings and their instructional adaptations

This section discusses the findings of the second research question, which is about how the lecturers' self-positionings interact with their teaching practices, particularly their instructional adaptations, in EMI. This discussion is directed by the study's theoretical framework, Positioning Theory.

As discussed in Section 9.2, the fact that the lecturers' self-positionings are closely related to their disciplines means that the lecturers' instructional adaptations are content- rather than language-focused, and their adaptations also differ between the Chemistry and Law disciplines. The Chemistry lecturers provided fewer elaborations on their lesson content, posed fewer questions, pre-taught content in Vietnamese, and changed the design or purpose of their PowerPoint slides to suit their students' level of content and language competencies and to facilitate the students' learning in English (see Section 7.2 for details). The Law lecturers supplied more diverse reference materials, incorporated more information on international legal practices, and also changed the design and purpose of their PowerPoint slides (see Section 8.2 for details). Both groups of lecturers used Vietnamese in their EMI lessons, mainly to serve the purpose of content explanation, though to a different extent. Their assessment practices were also meaning-focused as linguistic errors such as spelling or grammar were ignored (see Sections 7.2.3 and 8.2.3 for details). The Law lecturers' simplifying assessment tasks for their EMI students, and

lowering their expectations of the students' assessment task performance, were also content-related.

The lecturers' instructional adaptations not only varied between two disciplines but also among the lecturers of the same discipline. Not every one of the six lecturers made all the adaptations mentioned above. Indeed, Ha, the only Chemistry lecturer who positioned herself as a pedagogical innovator, did not seem to change her English-medium instruction. She conducted students' needs analysis in both VMI and EMI classes, though questions in the EMI needs analysis were modified to suit the nature of that class and its course content. She simplified language in EMI by employing general English vocabulary to explain academic English concepts where necessary, but that practice could be similarly adopted when teaching in Vietnamese. Ha also confirmed in the interview that there was nothing different between her English-medium and Vietnamese-medium instruction.

From the Positioning Theory perspective, the three components of the positioning triangle (i.e., positions/positionings, acts/actions, and storylines) are interrelated and a change in one component will lead to changes in the other components (Harré, 2012). Hence, a question arising is why their actions/ teaching practices changed in EMI, as evidenced in their instructional adaptations in their English-medium classes, given the lecturers' unchanged self-positionings in EMI, or their similar perceptions of their rights and duties in EMI as in VMI.

As discussed in Sections 7.2 and 8.2, although the lecturers' major self-positionings regarding content, pedagogy, and assessment in EMI did not change, their interactive positionings of their students did. The AP students in the Chemistry program were positioned as academically and linguistically incompetent (by Dan and Tam). In contrast, the HQP students in the Law program were positioned as learners having "big" challenges in English-medium instruction (by all three Law lecturers: Kha, Han, An) (see Sections 7.2 and 8.2 for details). These changes in the interactive positionings of their students, due to the new contexts of teaching and learning in a foreign language, might necessitate certain changes in content, pedagogy, and assessment to ensure the lecturers' successful completion of their long-perceived content teaching duties.

However, the EMI literature, at least in the Vietnamese tertiary contexts, has recorded cases of lecturers making almost no adaptations in their EMI teaching, despite students' content comprehension problems. Nguyen (2016b) investigated Vietnamese EMI academics' agency and categorised the non-adaptive lecturers into two groups: "compliant" and "non-engaging" (see Section 2.5.2.3 for details). Compliant lecturers would just follow the policy and perform their duty of teaching in English only, while non-engaging lecturers would invest no effort in their English-medium instruction due to their resentment towards their institutional EMI policies. Clearly, both groups of lecturers tend to ignore students' challenges in EMI, and just continue their teaching as usual, no matter which language of instruction they are using.

This situation suggests that there should be another factor influencing EMI lecturers to make adaptations in their teaching, and changes in the lecturers' interactive positionings of their students alone might not work. In the end, it is not stipulated in any policies that EMI lecturers have the duty to provide comprehensible knowledge to their students, as attempted by the lecturers in this study. According to Harré and Langenhove (1991), a positioning act can be either moral or personal (see Section 4.1.2.1 for definitions of moral and personal positionings). If people are not acting according to their moral positionings or prescribed roles, then the personal positioning is at play. In other words, explanations for these people's actions should be found in their individual particularities or their personal characteristics. It means that the lecturers in this study made adaptations to facilitate their students' content learning in English because of their work commitment and their care for the students' learning. Hence, they took on an extra, personal duty to support their students' content comprehension, although no specific policies require them to do so.

From the Positioning Theory perspective, the lecturers' personal positionings (or their personal characteristics) and their different interactive positionings of the EMI students (compared to their VMI students) constitute the necessary and sufficient conditions for the lecturers to make adaptations to their EMI practices. This explanation seems to resonate with the lecturers' descriptions of their adaptations, which all indicated their deviation from their major self-positionings, and their supportive attitudes towards their EMI students' content learning (see Sections 7.2 and 8.2 for details). Ha did not appear

to change her English-medium instruction because her interactive positioning of the EMI students did not change.

This explanation for the lecturers' instructional adaptations in EMI from the Positioning Theory perspective is not only consistent with findings from other EMI studies, but also enhances our understanding of EMI lecturers' instructional practices. Nguyen (2016b) and Ali and Hamid (2018) investigate EMI lecturers' agency in the Vietnamese and Malaysian higher education contexts respectively. These researchers both find that the EMI lecturers demonstrated different forms of agency such as adaptive, supportive, accommodation, and dedication. No matter what forms of agency the lecturers adopted, their agentic actions leading to adaptations in their teaching were dependent on their own sense of responsibility and dedication to their students. That is to say, in light of Positioning Theory, it was the lecturers' personal positionings that induced their adaptive actions.

It is important to note that since the lecturers' moral positionings, or their perceived rights and duties, did not change, the adaptations that they made in their teaching tended to be pragmatic, rather than innovative. In other words, the lecturers in this study adapted their teaching to accommodate their students' learning challenges, rather than innovating their teaching and their students' learning. Therefore, although the Chemistry and Law lecturers' instructional adaptations were based on good intentions, their adaptive actions might not always positively impact their students' learning.

An example of this is that by positioning their students as not competent in both content and language, the Chemistry lecturers adapted their teaching by providing less elaboration or less difficult content, posing fewer questions, and pre-teaching content in Vietnamese. By so doing, the weak students in their classes would feel more comfortable learning new content in English. However, these adaptive actions would also deprive the better students in the groups of a chance to deepen their understanding of lesson content and exercise their learner autonomy. Similarly, viewing her Law students as facing significant challenges learning in English only, An employed Vietnamese alongside English in her EMI lessons. Nevertheless, although her extensive use of Vietnamese in her lessons generally enhanced her students' understanding of the lesson content and

increased her class interaction, it accidentally disadvantaged a Korean student in her class. These incidents indicate a potential risk of the lecturers' pragmatic adaptations in EMI. The more teacher-centred the lecturers' practices are, the higher the risks their pragmatic adaptations pose to a certain group of students in their class, because the students tend to rely on these lecturers for knowledge. This might be the case with the Chemistry lecturers' instructional adaptations in this study.

The EMI literature supports this pragmatic adaptation-potential risk relationship. Lecturers in many EMI contexts have been reported adopting different pragmatic strategies to address the linguistic challenges in EMI, such as reduced speed of delivery (Goodman, 2014), repetition and rephrasing to facilitate students' content learning (Jiang et al., 2019), speaking more slowly and providing more explanations (Kim et al., 2018). These strategies often result in less content delivered in an EMI lesson compared to a similar lesson in the first language (Chang, 2021), and thus very slow progress of an EMI course (Kim et al., 2018).

While Dan's pre-teaching actions at the beginning of some EMI lessons appear reasonable, Tam's organisation of extra online teaching sessions to pre-teach content to her EMI students might be beyond common expectations, thus stimulating the question of why. Tam said her actions were "out of devotion" (see Section 7.2.1 for details), but her rather extreme extent of devotion made me wonder about its source. Since there was no particular evidence from Tam's descriptions of herself, or her educational and professional background that might explain Tam's devoted actions, a potential explanation comes from the societal culture of Vietnam. In particular, the Confucian Heritage Culture (CHC) positions teachers as moral exemplars, thus strongly advocating for teachers' commitment to their work, and devotion to and sacrifice for their students (see Sections 2.1, 6.1 for details). Examples of teachers sacrificing time, finances, and even lives for their students have always been publicly praised by the media.

Tam's devotion to her students to the extent of sacrificing a significant amount of her free time could be seen as her exercising the moral duty of a moral exemplar, who cares about and does her best to support people in need, namely the students in this case. This explanation, on the one hand, aligns with a Positioning Theory tenet that a person's

actions can be impacted by many moral orders or many positions they take in different spheres of their life (Harré & Slocum, 2003). On the other hand, it suggests a new understanding of the role of Confucianism in educational reforms in Vietnam. Confucianism might no longer be seen as a barrier to successful EMI implementation in Vietnam, although some studies have indicated the otherwise (Tran et al., 2020; Tran et al., 2017). In contrast, Confucianism, with its teachers' high sense of commitment and devotion to their work, might enable lecturers to heighten their agentic roles in addressing challenges to their work and obstacles to their students' learning, in the context of poorly guided and badly supported educational reforms in Vietnam, such as the EMI phenomenon.

Evidence in this study also indicates a positive but potentially much stronger impact of professional learning on the lecturers' self-positionings and their ensuing pedagogical adaptations. Specifically, Tam's professional collaboration with the American professors from the University of Illinois during her teaching in the AP in Chemistry made her aware of the so-called "indirect" approach to content introduction. Her own reflection about the differences between this approach and the Russian/direct approach that she and her colleagues had been familiar with had led her to adopt the position of a flexible content knowledge provider, who "leads into the new topic" rather than teaches it directly as in the textbook sequence (Tam) (see Section 7.2.2.1 for details). Her reported instructional adaptations of leading into a new lesson content and redesigning exam questions by contextualising them (see Sections 7.2.2.1 and 7.2.3 for details), according to her, had produced "so much better" students (Tam). Nevertheless, the "indirect" approach, as Tam named it, could have produced a more powerful impact had it been the focus of a formal professional learning initiative; this could influence not only her and her department's teaching and learning, but also on a larger scale, such as the teaching and learning at her faculty and her university, or the whole Vietnamese Science education system at the tertiary level.

In fact, Tam's description of the indirect approach to content introduction (see Section 7.2.2.1 for details) reminded me of the problem-based approach in Science education. A Google search about problem-based learning produced many results, one of the first of which came from the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, the foreign partner of

Tam's university in the AP in Chemistry (see https://citl.illinois.edu/citl-101/teaching-learning/resources/teaching-strategies/problem-based-learning-(pbl)). This might not be just a coincidence. Information provided on the University of Illinois' website helped me realise that Tam's description of the lead-in to the content lesson is just "a tip" of "the problem-based learning iceberg". Had Tam known about this approach more thoroughly and systematically, with her position as the Head of a department, her devotion and commitment to her teaching job and students' learning, and her extensive professional activities at the national level (see Section 7.1.3 for details), she could have made a difference to Science education at her university and possibly in Vietnam, given the high status of University A in the Vietnamese higher education system.

This, however, did not happen. Due to the lack of policy-making vision and systematic support to lecturers to enable them to take on the role of pedagogical innovators or change agents in their contexts, committed and reflective people like Tam could only go that far and produce impacts within their narrow contexts of practices. Nguyen and Nguyen (2019) investigated the professional learning of university lecturers in Vietnam, stating that without a firm understanding of theoretical principles underpinning their actions, Vietnamese lecturers' pedagogical actions are a mere mechanical adoption of methods and techniques. Ha's peripheral application of the student-centred approach to her teaching and Tam's minimal application of the problem-based approach are examples of this mechanical adoption.

There is also more meaning in Tam's self-positioning as a devoted lecturer and her instructional adaptation of pre-teaching difficult content to her students. Despite her tight working schedule (see Section 7.1.3 for details), she still devoted her time to organising free online sessions to pre-teach her students because of her realisation that if she did not do so, her students would not understand her English-medium lessons. In other words, in Tam's opinion, without pre-teaching, her teaching in English to her students would be valueless because of the students' incomprehension. Tam's reasoning has an important implication for PD program design (see Section 10.2.2 for details). When lecturers like Tam see the value in their work, they might be willing to go to extraordinary lengths to support their students. It is also important to note here that neither Tam nor Dan was aware of the concept of "pre-teaching" in education. They just did it out of their belief in

the important role of background knowledge in their students' content learning in English. It is the researcher who uses this concept to describe their pedagogical action, because what they said in Vietnamese (i.e., "dạy trước cho sinh viên") could also be literally translated as "pre-teaching" or "teach some content for students in advance".

A new perspective towards designing PD programs for EMI lecturers is needed. That necessity derives from Tam and Dan's "pre-teaching", and Ha's language simplification despite her lack of awareness of such applied linguistic concepts as "language awareness, Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills, Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency". There should be a change in the viewpoint of EMI research regarding EMI lecturers, seeing them as fully competent to deal with their EMI challenges, rather than positioning them as deficient and a possible cause of problems in English-medium education. Ortega (2014) has made the same argument, but for English language learners, regarding the perspective that EMI research often takes when examining EMI learners' language issues.

With the evidence in this study, I would like to extend Ortega's argument to EMI lecturers, especially those in non-English-speaking contexts like Vietnam. After all, EMI lecturers are successful EMI learners, who overcame the difficulties of learning in English in their disciplines. Applied linguists are not in a better position than EMI lecturers to understand specific linguistic features of their courses or the challenges they and their students face or might face. Therefore, the applied linguists' role is to empower EMI lecturers so that these lecturers can confidently tackle their own issues by making more informed decisions. EMI researchers in other contexts, though they might not take the view of EMI lecturers as fully competent to address their EMI issues, share my view on the need for contextualised and discipline-specific PD for EMI lecturers (Gustafsson, 2020; Park & Pawan, 2016; Tong, Wang, Min, & Tang, 2020).

In conclusion, the lecturers' instructional adaptations have interacted with their personal positionings or their personal characteristics, rather than their moral positionings or their prescribed roles in the legal and institutional policies. Despite the lecturers' generally unchanged perceptions of their rights and duties in EMI as compared to VMI, they still changed their teaching practices to support their students' content learning in English. Nevertheless, the lecturers' adaptive actions tend to have practical rather than pedagogical

value. In other words, these adaptations constitute the lecturers' pragmatic strategies in EMI, rather than their pedagogical innovations.

Summary

This chapter has summarised the study's findings and discussed them in relation to the related literature and Positioning Theory. The findings show that the participant lecturers' self-positionings, or their perceptions of their rights and duties in EMI remained the same as in VMI. The lecturers' positionings (i.e., both self- and other-positionings) tended to align with the unique features of their academic disciplines, and thus varied across the two disciplines of Chemistry and Law. The lecturers' self-positionings appeared to misalign with their positionings in the legal and institutional moral orders, meaning that the lecturers' views of their rights and duties were different from the rights and duties that the EMI policies assign to them. Positioning Theory also helped to pinpoint other misalignments within the legal moral order.

Under the theoretical lens of Positioning Theory, the lecturers' positionings were found to influence their instructional adaptations in EMI. However, it was not the lecturers' moral positionings (i.e., their prescribed roles), but their personal positionings and their positioning in the cultural moral order, that were involved in this interaction. In other words, the lecturers' personal characteristics and the invisible cultural values and beliefs had a significant role in their instructional practices, particularly their adaptations in EMI.

The next chapter draws conclusions from this research study and provides some recommendations for policymakers and designers of PD programs for EMI lecturers in Vietnamese tertiary education and similar contexts.

CHAPTER 10: CONCLUSION

10.1 Introduction

This study investigated Vietnamese English-medium-instruction (EMI) lecturers' teaching practices, particularly their instructional adaptations, as the lecturers transitioned from teaching in their mother tongue, i.e., Vietnamese, to teaching in English, a foreign language. An instructional adaptation in this study was understood as a conscious cognitive and/or behavioural act of departure from the lecturers' usual teaching practices in the Vietnamese-medium instruction (VMI) programs. The teaching practices that this study examined were related to (1) (teaching) content, (2) pedagogy, and (3) assessment.

The study aimed to explore Vietnamese EMI lecturers' teaching practices through the theoretical lens of Positioning Theory (Harré, 2012), which concerns the relationship between lecturers' beliefs and perceptions of their rights and duties (i.e., their self-positionings) and their actions. Therefore, the study addressed the following research questions:

> 1. How do Vietnamese lecturers position themselves in their accounts of English-medium instruction practices?

> 2. How do Vietnamese lecturers' self-positionings interact with their teaching practices, particularly their instructional adaptations (if any), in English-medium instruction?

To answer these questions, the study employed a qualitative embedded multiple-case study research design, focusing on EMI practices in two academic disciplines: Chemistry and Law. Six lecturers (three from each discipline) and two Program Coordinators were purposively selected to participate in this study. Data were collected from multiple sources: semi-structured interviews with the lecturers and the Program Coordinators, lesson audio recordings of the lecturers' EMI lessons (and VMI ones, where possible), and documents, including those demonstrating the Vietnamese educational culture, EMI

policies at the national and institutional levels, and classroom materials such as course guides and PowerPoint slides.

The analysis of the documentation, interview, and classroom data, through the analytical lens of Positioning Theory, revealed both alignments and misalignments in the lecturers' self-positionings. The lecturers' self-positionings, or their perceptions of their rights and duties, aligned fully with the nature of teaching and learning in their disciplines, particularly the nature of knowledge, the typical teaching and learning activities, and the role of language in their disciplines. The lecturers' perceived rights and duties were mainly content-focused, with language acting as a means to achieve content goals. The lecturers' self-positionings were affected by their professional learning activities, both informal and formal. Although the students did not influence how the lecturers perceived their major (moral) rights and duties, they did impact the lecturers' performance of their rights and duties, or their "performed" self-positionings, in the EMI classroom realities.

The adapted positioning triangle as the analytical framework in this study helped uncover several misalignments in the lecturers' positionings that previous studies could not identify or explain coherently. These misalignments come from within the legal/national moral orders, between the legal and the cultural moral orders, and between the personal and the legal-institutional moral orders. The mismatches between prepositioning and positioning, between stipulated rights and duties of EMI lecturers, between EMI lecturers as pedagogical innovators and their traditional image of authoritative knowledge providers, and the lecturers' unchanged perceptions of their rights and duties despite their engagement in EMI as an educational reform have all painted a complex picture of EMI implementation in Vietnam. However, one alignment emerged between different layers of moral orders. That was the alignment in teacher positionings between the personal and the cultural moral orders, which Vietnamese EMI policies have certainly tried but seemingly failed to break.

Positioning Theory also shed light on the relationship between the lecturers' self-positionings and their EMI teaching practices, especially their instructional adaptations. Under the lens of Positioning Theory, the teacher factor contributing to the lecturers' instructional adaptation is known as the lecturers' personal positionings. The lecturers'

personal characteristics, particularly their commitment to their work and devotion to their students, motivated them to take on extra personal duties to support the students in overcoming challenges in learning content in a foreign language. However, despite the lecturers' ethical intentions, their lack of pedagogical training and institutional support might bring about unintended consequences for some students' content and language learning in EMI. Nevertheless, in the context of educational reforms in Vietnam that typically provide minimal guidance and support for classroom practitioners, the lecturers' Confucianism-induced qualities of moral exemplars are arguably valuable for maintaining the quality of teaching and learning in the tension-filled EMI in the local contexts.

The key findings of this study have important implications for EMI policy-making and EMI professional development design in the Vietnamese educational context, which is the focus of the following section.

10.2 Implications of the study

10.2.1 Implications for EMI policy-making in Vietnam

Given the disciplinary alignments in the lecturers' self-positionings, Vietnamese higher education policymakers need to consider disciplinary differences when planning policies, "to make the governance of higher education fairer and more effective" (Neumann, 2001, p. 135). This is particularly important in the case of EMI policies, as the role of language varies across academic disciplines, as do the tertiary lecturers' attitudes towards the English language medium of instruction. Without disciplinary differences being considered, EMI policies are unlikely to positively impact the development of Vietnamese students' English language proficiency.

The impact of Confucianism on the lecturers' self-positionings and teaching practices in EMI, and the misalignment between the national reform agenda and Vietnamese traditional values, necessitate culturally-appropriate policies. These policies need to address shortcomings of the Confucian Heritage Culture (CHC) in teaching and learning while promoting its strengths in encouraging lecturers' agency to deal with professional

challenges in their micro contexts. Since the CHC filters out foreign practices incompatible with Vietnamese traditional values (Tran et al., 2020), the lack of cultural sensitivity in policy-making will not only waste the country's limited resources but also fail its higher education system in the quality and ranking race against foreign competitors.

This study has pointed out an important strategy for policymakers to tackle the shortcomings of the CHC, and achieve the national target of innovating the higher education system is systematic and ongoing support for tertiary lecturers and students. Along with planning educational reforms, Vietnamese policymakers should envision compatible support schemes enabling teachers and students to fulfil their newly assigned roles (including duties). Such support schemes could exist in many forms and formats, but as this study revealed, professional development (PD) programs, professional exchanges, and professional collaboration might constitute the most crucial support for lecturers, since these experiences could bring about changes in lecturers' professional beliefs and practices. Higher education is highly conducive to changes in the context of increased global interactions; hence, professional support for lecturers needs to be systematic and ongoing.

Since students are equally important stakeholders in educational reforms, policies that aim at supporting students are vital to allow lecturers to maximise the effectiveness of their professional learning. Supporting students is even more important in the context of Vietnam, where educational reforms promote students' learning autonomy, while the traditional culture prefers obedient and submissive learners. Not until Vietnamese students are well prepared with the learning strategies and skills of autonomous learners will they be adequately empowered to co-construct knowledge with their lecturers and take full advantage of educational reforms. Since this study focuses on Vietnamese EMI lecturers, the following section will provide some guidelines for designing PD programs for EMI lecturers that suit the Vietnamese educational context.

10.2.2 Implications for professional development design for Vietnamese EMI lecturers

The findings in this study indicated that Vietnamese EMI lecturers need systematic professional training on both general educational issues and EMI-specific matters. General professional training introduces the lecturers to innovative educational approaches/methods appropriate to their disciplines, such as the problem-based learning approach to science education, or the Socratic Method to Law education. These professional training events will equip lecturers with a thorough understanding of the theoretical underpinnings of these approaches/methods so that they might employ them more flexibly and effectively in their teaching.

For EMI-specific issues, although the EMI literature highlights an urgent need for professional training and development that is discipline- and context-specific, the literature has not provided directions for the design of PD programs in the Vietnamese EMI context. With the findings generated, this study proposes some guidelines for developing these PD schemes that are not only research-based but also culturally sensitive, to address EMI-specific problems.

This study proposes a "student-centred" approach to designing PD programs that aim at EMI lecturers, to tackle context-, discipline-, and course-specific EMI issues. The "student-centred" approach takes improving students' learning as the core, rather than addressing EMI lecturers' challenges, as is often the case with other PD programs. Although a close link exists between lecturers' teaching challenges and students' learning problems, this connection might not be a direct causal relationship. Furthermore, there is research evidence that EMI lecturers' challenges will gradually resolve over time as the lecturers become accustomed to teaching in English and take an English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) perspective to language use (Jin et al., 2021; Pappa & Moate, 2021; Soren, 2013). Given their already very busy schedules, if the lecturers are no longer pressured about EMI, they will not feel motivated to participate in EMI PD programs.

Nevertheless, that the lecturers feel confident about English-medium instruction does not necessarily mean that their teaching has positively impacted their students' learning, and

that the students no longer encounter any challenges in their EMI classrooms. The opposite direction, however, seems to be more certain. If students' learning outcomes are enhanced and they no longer feel tense about their English-medium learning, positive changes in lecturers' English-medium teaching must have occurred. A student-centred approach to EMI lecturers' professional learning will likely be effective for both lecturers' teaching and students' learning.

The student-centred approach to EMI lecturers' professional learning is particularly relevant to the Vietnamese tertiary context. Accorded high status in Vietnamese society, Vietnamese teachers generally possess high self-esteem, and thus would not easily and comfortably see themselves as a cause of classroom problems. This attitude is much stronger at the tertiary level, which comprises the most knowledgeable and the brightest of all Vietnamese teachers, or "teachers" of teachers, at least in the Vietnamese people's mindsets. EMI lecturers might arguably embrace the strongest sense of selves among Vietnamese tertiary lecturers, as they are not only positioned by national and institutional policies as highly qualified, but their names are also associated with "special", "Advanced", and "High-quality" educational programs, which all suggest the lecturers' superior qualities. Therefore, targeting students' learning improvement rather than lecturers' challenges would make it easier to get investment from Vietnamese EMI lecturers and make them less hesitant to participate in PD programs. Furthermore, as Confucianism advocates teachers' commitment to work and devotion to students, if EMI lecturers realise their PD efforts will bring about positive learning outcomes, they will be more willing to dedicate their time to professional learning.

The student-centred approach to PD design for Vietnamese EMI lecturers will place EMI lecturers as problem solvers and language lecturers in the roles of facilitators, advisers, and supporters. The PD scheme should be ongoing and might have the following features:

1. Surveying students' needs and difficulties: Since the approach to designing PD programs for Vietnamese EMI lecturers is student-centred, surveying EMI students' learning needs and difficulties should be one of the first steps in the PD program. Before surveying students' opinions, lecturers might brainstorm their ideas about students' needs and challenges, so that later comparison between lecturers' and students' ideas is possible.

This comparison might raise the lecturers' awareness about their students' content learning in EMI, and facilitate some reflection on their current teaching practices.

2. Disciplinary and interdisciplinary collaboration: EMI literature indicates a positive impact of lecturer collaboration in EMI professional learning (Ball & Lindsay, 2012; Lu & Dearden, 2021). The literature therefore calls for more collaboration among content lecturers (Lu, 2022) or between content and language lecturers (Macaro & Tian, 2020). Vietnamese EMI lecturers from similar disciplines, particularly from the same faculty or university, should be encouraged to work with each other. Not only do they share an understanding of their disciplinary issues but they can also contribute their personal experience with learning disciplinary content in English to effectively deal with students' EMI challenges in their disciplines. The collaboration between content and language lecturers is also necessary, as many of the students' challenges in EMI are language-related. Therefore, language lecturers can contribute the perspective of language experts to the content lecturers' process of solving their own classroom problems.

3. Establishment of a micro-community of practice at the department/faculty level: The collaboration among content lecturers or between content and language lecturers should occur in a micro-community of practice (Lu & Dearden, 2021), which facilitates regular communication/interaction among community members. This community of practice is particularly important for the ongoing professional support that Vietnamese EMI lecturers are reported to lack.

4. Lecturers' individual and collaborative reflection: Reflection is considered an important skill to enhance EMI lecturers' capacities to deal with their pedagogical issues and adapt their teaching (Farrell, 2019). As problem solvers in their own classroom contexts, EMI lecturers should be provided with a number of opportunities for individual and collaborative reflections in their group/communities of practice. Their reflections might be on, for example, their students' difficulties, their own challenges when learning in English, the strategies they employed to overcome their own EMI learning challenges, the support they received (if any) during their EMI studies and its effectiveness, and the changes they recognise in their class after employing a strategy/technique.

Since this study did not aim to generate a professional learning model for EMI lecturers in the Vietnamese HE context, the above-mentioned ideas need further development. For enjoyable and successful professional learning experiences, consideration should be given to EMI lecturers' workload and their primary duties as content specialists. This is to ensure an appropriate amount of attention is given to the language aspect of content teaching, but not at the expense of content teaching and content learning. More research is certainly needed to complete the student-centred professional learning model for EMI lecturers in Vietnamese and similar contexts, and validate the model in practice.

10.3 Contributions of the study

This study has provided an in-depth understanding of Vietnamese EMI lecturers' teaching practices through the theoretical lens of Positioning Theory, which drew on the relationship between the lecturers' perceptions of their rights and duties and their ensuing pedagogical practices. This study makes a number of contributions to Positioning Theory, EMI research, and EMI practices in the Vietnamese and similar tertiary contexts.

10.3.1 Theoretical contributions

By incorporating the concept of "moral order", particularly the typology of moral orders (i.e., cultural, legal, institutional, and personal levels) by Van Langenhove (2017), into the positioning triangle, this study has made an important contribution to Positioning Theory as an analytical framework.

The adapted positioning triangle proved to be fruitful in this study. Key concepts of Positioning Theory, i.e., rights and duties, were examined across four layers of moral orders, generating a deep and comprehensive understanding of EMI lecturers' self-positionings and their teaching practices in the context of EMI implementation in Vietnam. Specifically, the lecturers' self-positionings, or their perceived rights and duties, were not only viewed from their personal moral orders, but also zoomed out to the general moral orders (i.e., institutional, legal, and cultural), which shed light on the intricacies of EMI implementation in Vietnam from a new perspective.

Particularly important is that the adapted positioning triangle was able to fill a theoretical gap in EMI research and demonstrate a coherent way to bridge a gap between micro- and macro-level discourses in Positioning Theory. The adapted positioning triangle, with the four layers of moral orders (see Section 4.3 for details), allowed for an explicit investigation of the relationship between EMI lecturers' classroom practices and the local culture, and thus addressed the lack of a theoretical perspective to examine the local culture factor in EMI directly. It also helped locate the lecturers' micro-level discourses within the macro-level discourses of their institutions, their country, and their societal culture. Hence, a deeper and more comprehensive understanding of not only the lecturers' perceptions and practices but also their relationship with the broader contexts, and the overall system as a whole, was generated.

Positioning Theory was also useful in clarifying the complex relationship between the lecturers' beliefs of their rights and duties in their contexts of practice and their pedagogical actions. It permitted a nuanced analysis of the lecturers' changing beliefs and perceptions in their classrooms, viewing the classroom itself as a moral landscape where new rights and duties might be negotiated and distributed, which as a result impacted the lecturers' pedagogical decisions.

10.3.2 Empirical contributions

The use of Positioning Theory as a theoretical framework and the adapted positioning triangle as an analytical lens to investigate EMI lecturers' teaching practices through their perceived rights and duties generated findings that have expanded the EMI literature in several ways. The theory not only provided a coherent explanation for the EMI lecturers' rejection of the language teaching duties, and thus of the position as language teachers, but also suggested a way to change the EMI lecturers' perceptions of their language duties. That is, not until language duties and language rights are officially assigned and granted to EMI lecturers will they be willing to accept the language teaching role. Otherwise, EMI researchers should approach this issue from the content teaching perspective, viewing language as an inherent part of content, and thus aim at the improvement of content teaching through EMI lecturers' increased language awareness,

rather than requiring EMI lecturers to do more of the language teaching duties in their content classrooms.

This study provided another perspective to understand the inherent problems in EMI implementation in Vietnam and similar contexts. These problems do not just lie in the misalignment between the macro-/meso- and micro-levels in language use, but in EMI contexts like that of Vietnam, these issues can be much more pervasive and thus not easily addressed. That is the problem with policy-making mindsets that lack vision and coherence, resulting in inherently conflicting policies and an arguable waste of national resources while impeding innovations and reforms.

This study also generated insights into the EMI lecturers' pragmatic strategies to tackle their and their students' EMI challenges. The Positioning Theory perspective suggested that pedagogical actions, not deriving from the changes in the lecturers' perceived rights and duties but from their moral, ethical selves, though temporarily alleviating problems, might pose permanent risks to EMI teaching and learning quality. Only through regular monitoring and constant professional learning support for EMI lecturers can they be empowered to make more pedagogically informed decisions to positively influence their classroom teaching and learning.

This study revealed another factor that affected the lecturers' self-positionings and the teaching and learning in EMI: course content. Previous studies mainly focused on disciplinary differences as one of the main factors influencing numerous aspects of EMI implementation such as lecturers' and students' perspectives, EMI pedagogy, and students' learning outcomes. However, as knowledge at the tertiary level is increasingly interdisciplinary, the boundaries between academic disciplines might become blurred. Hence, the discipline factor alone might not be sufficient when researchers, for example, evaluate the impact of EMI on students' content learning.

Despite these original contributions to theory and knowledge, this study had a number of limitations, which are presented in the next section.

10.4 Limitations of the study

This study encountered several limitations.

First, a limitation was associated with the generalisability of the case study research design. Although this study did not aim at generalising its findings, the limited power of generalisation of case study research meant that the findings generated from this study might only apply to the time, place, and people specified in it. Generalisation across universities, lecturers, academic disciplines, and beyond the public university sector was not intended, nor would it be suitable.

Second, the COVID-19 pandemic considerably impacted the scope and richness of the data collected. Instead of collecting the data on-site in natural settings, as characterised by qualitative research, the data were generated online, with classroom observations replaced by lesson recordings (audio or Zoom video). Therefore, other semiotic features of the lecturers' pedagogy such as non-verbal language were unavailable, rendering it impossible to conduct an adequate multimodal data analysis, which potentially added more insights into Vietnamese EMI lecturers' pedagogy. The lack of in-person and direct interaction with the lecturers and the students did not allow for a deeper understanding of the participants' teaching and learning contexts. Distant communication also complicated building our interpersonal relationships, limiting the number and the type of participants recruited for this study, and the number of recorded lessons and institutional documents. This clearly affected the richness of the data generated.

Third, a theory is limited by its perspective, as is the Positioning Theory adopted in this study. Positioning Theory mainly concerns lecturers' beliefs about their rights and duties and their pedagogical actions in light of those beliefs. Nevertheless, other beliefs about, for example, lecturers' professional learning or life experiences, might also affect lecturers' instructional practices. By adopting the Positioning Theory perspective, this study acknowledges that other factors surrounding EMI lecturers' teaching practices might not be given appropriate attention.

Finally, research knowledge and research skills need time and opportunities to develop. Although the candidature was a valuable time to develop my research knowledge, it is just the beginning of a research journey. I have begun to develop a personal agenda for my development as a principled and reflexive researcher. This agenda is informed by my reflections, recorded in a research journal, on the data collection and analysis processes I followed in this study. My journal notes recorded after I conducted each of the interviews, which focus on what interview strategies were or were not effective, will be particularly useful in my development as a qualitative researcher.

10.5 Suggestions for further research

With regard to the limitations mentioned above, this study recommends further research in the following directions:

The limitations regarding generalisability present an opportunity for future research to investigate EMI teaching practices on a larger scale to gain a more comprehensive understanding of EMI teaching practices at the tertiary level in Vietnam. Since lecturers' beliefs about their rights and duties and their corresponding teaching practices might vary according to their age, their professional experiences, their disciplines, and their personal situations, among other factors, more participants should be recruited in an institution to obtain deeper insights into that institution's EMI implementation. Similarly, a more comprehensive range of institutions (e.g., public/private, national/regional/provincial, top-tier/middle-tier) might be recruited to examine other possible factors influencing EMI lecturers' self-positionings and their pedagogical actions.

Future research might develop the methodology of this study further to generate richer data and a more insightful understanding of EMI teaching practices in Vietnam or elsewhere. As this study's findings suggested, course content can be an important factor influencing the lecturers' teaching practices, and within a course, unit/module content might vary in terms of theoretical and practical knowledge, possibly necessitating different pedagogy. Therefore, to gain a holistic and more accurate understanding of a lecturer's EMI teaching practices, one recommendation is to conduct a longitudinal study (e.g., semester or year-long), with classroom observations throughout the course. Another

recommendation is to collect different types of semiotic data, to allow for a multimodal analysis, which can arguably enhance the value of Positioning Theory (McVee, Silvestri, Schucker, & Cun, 2021). Future research could also investigate the conversational moral orders in the lecturers' classroom interactions, to examine the power distribution inside EMI classrooms and its effect on lecturers' teaching and students' learning.

It would also be valuable if future research employed a different qualitative research methodology, such as narrative inquiry, or more data collection methods and more participants. For example, stimulated recall can be adopted so that a researcher and a lecturer can discuss particular classroom vignettes at length, to develop more insights into the lecturer's beliefs and practices. Focus group interviews might be conducted with lecturers from the same or different disciplines to understand collective or individual beliefs and practices better. Lecturers from more than two academic disciplines might be involved in generating a better understanding of EMI teaching and learning at the tertiary level, and to have a clearer picture of the differences between academic disciplines in terms of their EMI teaching and their instructional adaptations (if any). Future research should endeavour to involve students so that lecturers' positionings and students' positionings can be compared. The issue of EMI implementation would then be viewed from more perspectives, promising more insightful understandings, especially about students' EMI challenges, lecturers' understanding of the students' challenges, and how the lecturers' pragmatic strategies impact students' EMI learning.

Lastly, future studies could employ different theoretical lenses to investigate EMI teaching practices so that a more comprehensive understanding of EMI pedagogy and EMI implementation is possible. As this study demonstrated, Positioning Theory could offer many valuable insights about EMI implementation in Vietnam. Nevertheless, Positioning Theory concerns mainly the relationship between a person's beliefs about his/her rights and duties and his/her resulting actions. Other theoretical lenses might provide different perspectives, and thus enrich our understanding of EMI pedagogy to better inform EMI policies and EMI professional learning for lecturers.

10.6 Concluding remarks

This study explored Chemistry and Law lecturers' English-medium teaching practices in the context of two public higher education institutions in Vietnam. It employed Positioning Theory as its theoretical lens and adapted the positioning triangle (the analytical framework of Positioning Theory) as the study's analytical framework. This study adopted an embedded multiple-case study design and multiple data collection tools.

Drawing on key tenets of Positioning Theory, this study revealed the complexities of Vietnamese EMI implementation, characterised by tensions across the micro-, meso-, and macro-levels. The Positioning Theory perspective of the EMI lecturers' teaching practices highlighted their lack of adequate rights to perform their assigned duties. Hence, the lecturers' performance of their EMI duties did not significantly differ from their performance of VMI duties.

The study argues for granting sufficient rights to Vietnamese EMI lecturers, particularly in the form of ongoing, systematic PD support that can enable the lecturers to handle their EMI duties effectively. Similarly, adequate support should be provided to Vietnamese EMI students to enable them to fully access their rights and successfully exercise these rights to develop themselves academically and professionally.

An important note worth revisiting here is the power of Positioning Theory as an explanatory tool for making sense of the Vietnamese lecturers' EMI teaching practices. This theory sheds light on the relationship between the lecturers' perceived rights and duties and their teaching practices or instructional adaptations. It clarifies the reasons why granted rights might not lead to the performance of assigned duties. The adapted positioning triangle in this study contributes more analytical power to Positioning Theory, since it connects the micro-level classroom discourses to the macro-level ones at not only the institutional and national, but also the cultural levels. Thus, the intricacies of EMI implementation are coherently unveiled. Although this study was conducted in the Vietnamese context, the adapted positioning triangle has the potential for analysing lecturers' EMI teaching practices in other contexts as well. Using Positioning Theory to investigate EMI practices in other contexts would then enable a comparison of EMI

implementation across geographical areas, and thus a more coherent and comprehensive understanding of the EMI phenomenon.

As this study is completed, my professional questions at the beginning of the research project regarding the future of English Language Teaching (ELT) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in the presence of EMI have been answered. Although EMI is unlikely to replace ELT or ESP at the tertiary level, this emerging phenomenon certainly requires me and my students to take on new roles, to prepare ourselves better for a potentially more pervasive internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam.

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Appendix 1: Ethics documents

a. Ethics approval letter
b. Invitation letter to Head of School/ Dean of Faculty (in English and Vietnamese)
c. Invitation letter to Program Coordinators (in English and Vietnamese)
d. Invitation letter to lecturers (in English and Vietnamese)
e. Participation information sheet (PIS) and Consent form for Program Coordinators (in English and Vietnamese)
f. PIS and Consent form for lecturers (in English and Vietnamese)
g. PIS and Consent form for students (in English and Vietnamese)

1-a. Ethics approval letter

From: Research.Ethics@uts.edu.au

To: Research Ethics; Lesley Harbon; Trang Hoang

Subject: HREC Approval Granted - ETH20-4950

Date: Monday, 12 October 2020 1:35:19 PM

Attachments: Ethics Application.pdf

Dear Applicant

Re: ETH20-4950 - "Teacher Adaptation in English Medium Instruction: A Multiple-case Study in Vietnamese Higher Education"

Thank you for your response to the Committee's comments for your project. The Committee agreed that this application now meets the requirements of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007) and has been approved on that basis. You are therefore authorised to commence activities as outlined in your application.

You are reminded that this letter constitutes ethics approval only. This research project must also be undertaken in accordance with all UTS policies and guidelines including the Research Management Policy.

Your approval number is UTS HREC REF NO. ETH20-4950.

Approval will be for a period of five (5) years from the date of this correspondence subject to the submission of annual progress reports.

The following standard conditions apply to your approval:

- Your approval number must be included in all participant material and advertisements. Any advertisements on Staff Connect without an approval number will be removed.

- The Principal Investigator will immediately report anything that might warrant review of ethical approval of the project to the Ethics Secretariat (Research.Ethics@uts.edu.au).

- The Principal Investigator will notify the UTS HREC of any event that requires a modification to the protocol or other project documents, and submit any required amendments prior to implementation. Instructions on how to submit an amendment application can be found here.

- The Principal Investigator will promptly report adverse events to the Ethics Secretariat. An adverse event is any event (anticipated or otherwise) that has a negative impact on participants, researchers or the reputation of the University. Adverse events can also include privacy breaches, loss of data and damage to property.

- The Principal Investigator will report to the UTS HREC annually and notify the HREC when the project is completed at all sites. The Principal Investigator will notify the UTS HREC of any plan to extend the duration of the project past the approval period listed above through the progress report.

- The Principal Investigator will obtain any additional approvals or authorisations as required (e.g. from other ethics committees, collaborating institutions, supporting organisations).

- The Principal Investigator will notify the UTS HREC of his or her inability to continue as Principal Investigator including the name of and contact information for a replacement.

This research must be undertaken in compliance with the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research and National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research.

You should consider this your official letter of approval. If you require a hardcopy please contact the Ethics Secretariat.

If you have any queries about your ethics approval, or require any amendments to your research in the future, please don't hesitate to contact the Ethics Secretariat and quote the ethics application number (e.g. ETH20-xxxx) in all correspondence.

Yours sincerely,

Prof Beata Bajorek

Chairperson

UTS Human Research Ethics Committee

C/- Research Office University of Technology Sydney

E: Research.Ethics@uts.edu.au

Ref: E38

1-b. Invitation letter to Head of School/ Dean of Faculty

Dear …………...... (the Head of the School/Faculty),

My name is Trang Hong Hoang and I am a student at the University of Technology Sydney (UTS). I am also a lecturer at University of Languages and International Studies, Vietnam National University.

As part of my doctoral study at UTS, I am conducting research into teacher adaptation in English medium instruction, or the changes that the lecturers make in their teaching practices as they transition from teaching their subjects in Vietnamese to teaching them in English. I would be grateful if you could allow me to conduct my research at your institution.

In this research, I would like to recruit one EMI program coordinator and three EMI lecturers in your institution. I would also like to collect documents related to EMI policies in your institution and the curriculum, as well as the course guides and teaching materials related to the courses concerned.

To be specific, I would like to interview the EMI program coordinator and EMI lecturers in order to understand the EMI contexts and practices. I would also like to observe the lecturers teaching in both Vietnamese and English, to understand the changes that they make in their teaching.

This research does not aim to evaluate EMI implementation in your institution, nor does it evaluate the competence and teaching practices of your lecturers. Instead, it aims at generating more understanding about EMI teaching practices so that the lecturers can be better supported in the future EMI professional training and development programs available to your staff.

Furthermore, all private information related to your institution and your staff, including the name and address of your institution, will be kept confidential in this research as well as in its related future publications (if any), under UTS ethical research conduct and regulations.

If you approve of my research in your institution, I would highly appreciate it if you could contact me at tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au, or my supervisors Prof. Lesley Harbon at Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au or Dr. Neil England at neil.england@uts.edu.au.

Yours sincerely,

Trang Hong Hoang (Ms.)
PhD Candidate
School of International Studies and Education – Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences
Email: tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au
Mobile number: ……

NOTE:
This study has been approved by the University of Technology, Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any aspect of your participation in this research which you cannot resolve with the researcher, you may contact the Ethics Committee through the Research Ethics Officer (ph: +61 2 9514 2478 Research.Ethics@uts.edu.au), and quote the UTS HREC REF NO. ETH20-4950reference number. Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated fully and you will be informed of the outcome.

Kính gửi ……….….... (tên Thầy/Cô Trưởng đơn vị),

Tên em là Hoàng Hồng Trang và em hiện là nghiên cứu sinh tại Đại học Kỹ thuật Sydney (tên tiếng Anh: the University of Technology Sydney) (viết tắt là "UTS"). Hiện em cũng là giảng viên trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ - Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội.

Để hoàn thành khóa học tiến sỹ ở UTS, em đang nghiên cứu về sự điều chỉnh của giáo viên trong giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh, cụ thể là những thay đổi của giáo viên trong giảng dạy khi chuyển từ giảng dạy bằng tiếng Việt sang giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh. Em rất biết ơn nếu Thầy/Cô cho phép em được thực hiện nghiên cứu này tại trường của Thầy/Cô ạ.

Trong nghiên cứu này, em sẽ lựa chọn một cán bộ điều phối của một chương trình giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh, một người thiết kế khóa học và ba giảng viên trong chương trình này. Bên cạnh đó, em cũng xin được thu thập một số tài liệu, bao gồm văn bản liên quan đến chương trình giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh của trường mình và khoa liên quan, khung chương trình và bản mô tả khóa học, cũng như tài liệu giảng dạy của một vài buổi học trong khóa học đó.

Cụ thể hơn, em dự định phỏng vấn cán bộ điều phối chương trình, cán bộ xây dựng khóa học và ba giáo viên giảng dạy khóa học đó, để từ đó em có thể hiểu hơn về bối cảnh cũng như thực tiễn giảng dạy của các thầy cô. Em cũng sẽ xin được dự giờ mỗi thầy cô bốn buổi, trong đó có hai buổi thầy cô dạy bằng tiếng Việt, và hai buổi thầy cô dạy bằng tiếng Anh, để em có thể hiểu hơn về những điều chỉnh trong giảng dạy mà thầy cô đã thực hiện.

Nghiên cứu của em không nhằm đánh giá việc triển khai các chương trình giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh trong trường mình, cũng như không có ý định đánh giá năng lực cũng như việc giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh của các thầy cô. Thay vào đó, mục đích nghiên cứu của em là để hiểu hơn về thực tiễn giảng dạy của các thầy cô, để có thể hỗ trợ các thầy cô tốt hơn trong các chương trình bồi dưỡng chuyên môn phù hợp hơn với các giảng viên giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh trong trường mình nói riêng, và ở Việt Nam nói chung.

Ngoài ra, tất cả các thông tin riêng liên quan đến trường mình và các thầy cô trong trường, bao gồm tên và địa chỉ của trường, đều sẽ được giữ bí mật trong nghiên cứu này, cũng như trong các xuất bản liên quan (nếu có) trong tương lai, phù hợp với các quy định về Đạo đức trong nghiên cứu của trường UTS.

Sự chấp thuận của Thầy/Cô là rất quan trọng đối với việc xây dựng một chương trình bồi dưỡng chuyên môn phù hợp với giảng viên trường mình, khi mà các nghiên cứu tại Việt Nam và châu Á đều chỉ ra rằng giáo viên giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh trong khu vực này nhìn chung đều thiếu các cơ hội bồi dưỡng chuyên môn trong lĩnh vực giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh, đặc biệt là thiếu các chương trình bồi dưỡng phù hợp với bối cảnh và thực tiễn giảng dạy trong khu vực.

Nếu Thầy/Cô chấp thuận cho em được phép thực hiện nghiên cứu tại trường của Thầy/Cô, thì em rất biết ơn nếu Thầy/Cô có thể liên lạc với em theo địa chỉ email tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au, hoặc giáo viên hướng dẫn của em là GS. Lesley Harbon theo địa chỉ email Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au, hoặc TS. Neil England theo địa chỉ email neil.england@uts.edu.au.

Em xin chân thành cám ơn Thầy/Cô.

Kính thư,

Hoàng Hồng Trang

Nghiên cứu sinh

Trường Nghiên cứu Quốc tế và Giáo dục *(School of International Studies and Education)*

Khoa Văn hóa nghệ thuật – Khoa học xã hội *(Faculty of Arts and Social sciences)*

Email: tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au

Số di động: ….

LƯU Ý:

Nghiên cứu này đã được thông qua bởi Ủy ban Đạo đức Nghiên cứu trong Nghiên cứu liên quan tới Con người của trường Đại học Kỹ thuật Sydney. Nếu anh/chị có bất cứ khiếu nại hay băn khoăn nào liên quan tới bất cứ khía cạnh nào trong việc tham gia của mình vào nghiên cứu này, mà anh/chị không thể giải quyết được với nghiên cứu viên, thì anh/chị có thể liên hệ với Ủy ban Đạo đức Nghiên cứu thông qua Cán bộ phụ trách theo số điện thoại +61 2 9514 2478 hoặc email Research.ethics@uts.edu.au, kèm theo mã số được thông qua của nghiên cứu này là UTS HREC REF NO. ETH20-4950. Bất cứ khiếu nại nào của anh/chị cũng sẽ được giải quyết bí mật và thấu đáo, và anh/chị sẽ được thông báo về kết quả.

1-c. Invitation letter to Program Coordinators

Dear …………...... (the program coordinator's name),

My name is Trang Hong Hoang and I am a student at the University of Technology Sydney (UTS). I am also a lecturer at University of Languages and International Studies, Vietnam National University.

As part of my doctoral study at UTS, I am conducting research into teacher adaptation in English medium instruction, or the changes that the lecturers make in their teaching practices as they transition from teaching their subjects in Vietnamese to teaching them in English. I would be grateful if you could agree to be part of this important study.

The research should take no more than 60 minutes of your time and will involve your participation in one audio-recorded interview.

I have asked you to participate because you are involved in the EMI program in your institution as either a program coordinator or a course designer.

Your participation is important because it will help generate more understanding about the contexts of EMI teaching practices in your institution in particular and in Vietnam in general, which will lay the foundation for the design of future professional training and development programs for your colleagues as EMI lecturers.

Your participation is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw and discontinue at any time without having to give a reason.

This research does not aim to evaluate the implementation of EMI programs in your institution, but to understand it to better support the lecturers involved. All your personal information will be kept confidential not only in this research but also in all of its related future publications (if any), under UTS ethical research conduct and regulations. The data for this research will also be destroyed after five years.

If you are willing to participate in this research, I would be glad if you could contact me at tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au, or my supervisors Prof. Lesley Harbon at Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au or Dr. Neil England at neil.england@uts.edu.au.

Yours sincerely,

Trang Hong Hoang (Ms.)
PhD Candidate
School of International Studies and Education – Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences
Email: tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au
Mobile number:

NOTE:
This study has been approved by the University of Technology, Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any aspect of your participation in this research which you cannot resolve with the researcher, you may contact the Ethics Committee through the Research Ethics Officer (ph: +61 2 9514 2478 Research.Ethics@uts.edu.au), and quote the UTS HREC reference number ETH20-4950. Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated fully and you will be informed of the outcome.

Kính gửi Thầy/Cô .... (tên người điều phối chương trình),

Tên tôi là Hoàng Hồng Trang và tôi hiện là nghiên cứu sinh tại Đại học Kỹ thuật Sydney (tên tiếng Anh: the University of Technology Sydney) (viết tắt là "UTS"). Hiện tôi cũng là giảng viên trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ - Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội.

Để hoàn thành khóa học tiến sỹ ở UTS, tôi đang nghiên cứu về sự điều chỉnh của giáo viên trong giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh, cụ thể là những thay đổi của giáo viên trong giảng dạy khi chuyển từ giảng dạy bằng tiếng Việt sang giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh. Tôi rất biết ơn nếu thầy/cô có thể tham gia vào nghiên cứu cần thiết này.

Nghiên cứu của tôi sẽ cần thầy/cô dành không quá 60 phút cho một buổi phỏng vấn được thu âm.

Tôi gửi thư này tới thầy/cô vì thầy/cô đang tham gia vào chương trình Giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh tại đơn vị mình với vai trò người điều phối chương trình.

Sự tham gia của thầy/cô vào nghiên cứu này là rất quan trọng bởi việc đó sẽ giúp chúng ta có được hiểu biết nhiều hơn về bối cảnh của việc giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh ở đơn vị thầy/cô nói riêng và Việt Nam nói chung, từ đó chúng ta có thể thiết kế các khóa bồi dưỡng chuyên môn phù hợp cho các thầy cô đang giảng dạy chuyên ngành bằng tiếng Anh.

Việc tham gia của thầy/cô vào nghiên cứu này là hoàn toàn tự nguyện và thầy/cô có thể quyết định rút khỏi nghiên cứu này vào bất cứ thời gian nào mà không cần đưa ra lý do.

Nghiên cứu này không nhằm mục đích đánh giá việc triển khai chương trình giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh tại đơn vị của thầy/cô, mà chỉ muốn tìm hiểu về bối cảnh của việc giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh, để từ đó có thể hỗ trợ tốt hơn cho các thầy/cô đứng lớp. Tất cả thông tin cá nhân của thầy/cô sẽ được sự bí mật, không chỉ trong nghiên cứu này mà còn trong các xuất bản liên quan (nếu có) về sau, theo đúng những quy định về đạo đức trong nghiên cứu của trường UTS. Tất cả dữ liệu liên quan tới để tài nghiên cứu này cũng sẽ bị hủy sau 5 năm.

Nếu thầy/cô sẵn lòng tham gia nghiên cứu này, thầy/cô vui lòng liên hệ lại với tôi theo địa chỉ email tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au, hoặc giáo viên hướng dẫn của tôi GS. Lesley Harbon theo email Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au hoặc TS. Neil England theo email neil.england@uts.edu.au.

Tôi xin chân thành cám ơn.

Kính thư,

Hoàng Hồng Trang
Nghiên cứu sinh
Trường Nghiên cứu Quốc tế và Giáo dục *(School of International Studies and Education)*
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Email: tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au
Số di động:

LƯU Ý:

Nghiên cứu này đã được thông qua bởi Ủy ban Đạo đức Nghiên cứu trong Nghiên cứu liên quan tới Con người của trường Đại học Kỹ thuật Sydney. Nếu anh/chị có bất cứ khiếu nại hay băn khoăn nào liên quan tới bất cứ khía cạnh nào trong việc tham gia của mình vào nghiên cứu này, mà anh/chị không thể giải quyết được với nghiên cứu viên, thì anh/chị có thể liên hệ với Ủy ban Đạo đức Nghiên cứu thông qua Cán bộ phụ trách theo số điện thoại +61 2 9514 2478 hoặc email Research.ethics@uts.edu.au, kèm theo mã số được thông qua của nghiên cứu này là UTS HREC ETH20-4950. Bất cứ khiếu nại nào của anh/chị cũng sẽ được giải quyết bí mật và thấu đáo, và anh/chị sẽ được thông báo về kết quả.

1-d. Invitation letter to lecturers

Dear .... (the lecturer's name),

My name is Trang Hong Hoang and I am a student at the University of Technology Sydney (UTS). I am also a lecturer at University of Languages and International Studies, Vietnam National University.

As part of my doctoral study at UTS, I am conducting research into teacher adaptation in English medium instruction, or the changes that the lecturers make in their teaching practices as they transition from teaching their subjects in Vietnamese to teaching them in English. I would be grateful if you could agree to be part of this important study.

The research should take no more than 180 minutes of your time and will involve:

> 1. Your participation in one 60-minute interview and three 15-30 minute interviews throughout the semester. All interviews are audio-recorded.

> 2. My observation of your usual lessons (about 4 lessons in total) in both Vietnamese and English. The class observations are audio-recorded.
> **Or**
> Your help with audio-recording your lessons (2 in Vietnamese and about 2 in English) and sending the audio files to me.
> **And/Or**
> Your provision of your available lesson recordings (if any) in Vietnamese and in English

> 3. Your provision of the teaching materials of the observed lessons.

I have asked you to participate because you have the experience with teaching in English for at least a few years and you have had a rather positive perception of EMI, as referred by your colleagues.

Your participation is important because it will generate more understanding about EMI teaching practices and the factors influencing EMI lecturers' practices in Vietnam, which will lay the foundation for future professional training and development programs appropriately designed for EMI lecturers in your institution in particular and in Vietnam in general.

Your participation is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw and discontinue at any time without having to give a reason. However, if you are willing to support this study and committed to it till the end, there will be various opportunities available for your professional learning and development during and after this study.

This research does not aim to evaluate your professional practices, but to understand and finally support them. The interview transcripts will be sent to you for your review and comments if you wish. All your personal information will be kept confidential not only in this research but also in all of its related future publications (if any), under UTS ethical research conduct and regulations. The data for this research will also be destroyed after five years.

If you are willing to participate in this research, I would be glad if you could contact me at tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au, or my supervisors Prof. Lesley Harbon at Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au or Dr. Neil England at neil.england@uts.edu.au.

Yours sincerely,

Trang Hong Hoang (Ms.)
PhD Candidate
School of International Studies and Education – Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences
Email: tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au
Mobile number:

NOTE:

This study has been approved by the University of Technology, Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any aspect of your participation in this research which you cannot resolve with the researcher, you may contact the Ethics Committee through the Research Ethics Officer (ph: +61 2 9514 2478 Research.Ethics@uts.edu.au), and quote the UTS HREC reference number ETH20-4950. Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated fully and you will be informed of the outcome.

Kính gửi ....(tên thầy cô),

Tên em là Hoàng Hồng Trang và em hiện là nghiên cứu sinh tại Đại học Kỹ thuật Sydney (tên tiếng Anh: the University of Technology Sydney) (viết tắt là "UTS"). Hiện em cũng là giảng viên trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ - Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội.

Để hoàn thành khóa học tiến sỹ ở UTS, em đang nghiên cứu về sự điều chỉnh của giáo viên trong giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh, cụ thể là những thay đổi của giáo viên trong giảng dạy khi chuyển từ giảng dạy bằng tiếng Việt sang giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh. Em rất biết ơn nếu anh/chị có thể tham gia vào nghiên cứu này của em.

Nghiên cứu của em sẽ cần anh/chị dành khoảng 180 phút trong suốt học kỳ và bao gồm những việc sau ạ:

1. Anh/chị tham gia 1 buổi phỏng vấn khoảng 60 phút và 3 buổi phỏng vấn ngắn 15-30 phút, vào các thời điểm khác nhau trong suốt học kỳ. Các buổi phỏng vấn sẽ được thu âm ạ.

2. Em xin được dự giờ (khoảng 4 buổi) trong lớp học của anh/chị dạy bằng tiếng Việt và tiếng Anh. Buổi dự giờ sẽ được thu âm.

Hoặc

Anh/chị giúp em thu âm giờ dạy của anh/chị (2 buổi dạy bằng tiếng Việt và khoảng 2 buổi bằng tiếng Anh) và gửi file thu âm cho em ạ.

Và/Hoặc

Anh/Chị cho em xin file thu âm buổi dạy mà anh/chị đã có.

3. Anh/chị cho em xin tài liệu dạy học của anh/chị dành cho những buổi dự giờ/thu âm ạ.

Em gửi thư này cho anh/chị vì anh/chị đã có kinh nghiệm giảng dạy bằng cả tiếng Việt lẫn tiếng Anh trong một số năm và anh/chị có cái nhìn tương đối tích cực đối với việc giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh, theo như giới thiệu từ đồng nghiệp của anh/chị ạ.

Sự tham gia của anh/chị vào nghiên cứu này là rất quan trọng bởi việc này sẽ giúp những giảng viên thuộc nhiều chuyên ngành khác nhau có được hiểu biết nhiều hơn về thực tiễn giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh cũng như các yếu tố bối cảnh liên quan, để từ đó có thể thiết kế các khóa bồi dưỡng chuyên môn phù hợp với nhu cầu của giảng viên ở ĐHQG nói riêng và ở Việt Nam nói chung.

Việc tham gia của anh/chị vào nghiên cứu này là hoàn toàn tự nguyện và anh/chị có thể rút khỏi nghiên cứu này vào bất cứ thời gian nào mà không cần đưa ra lý do. Tuy nhiên, nếu anh/chị sẵn lòng ủng hộ nghiên cứu này và tham gia tới cùng, thì em chắc chắn sẽ có nhiều cơ hội phát triển chuyên môn mà có thể hữu ích với anh/chị cả trong và sau nghiên cứu ạ.

Nghiên cứu này không nhằm mục đích đánh giá việc giảng dạy của anh/chị, mà chỉ muốn tìm hiểu về thực tiễn giảng dạy để từ đó có thể hỗ trợ tốt hơn cho anh/chị và các thầy cô giảng dạy chuyên ngành bằng tiếng Anh trong tương lai. Em sẽ gửi anh/chị nội dung phỏng vấn sau khi được đánh máy ra để anh/chị rà soát và làm rõ nếu cần. Tất cả thông tin cá nhân của anh/chị sẽ được giữ bí mật, không chỉ trong nghiên cứu này mà còn trong các xuất bản liên quan (nếu có), theo đúng những quy định về Đạo đức trong nghiên cứu của trường UTS. Tất cả dữ liệu liên quan tới đề tài nghiên cứu này cũng sẽ bị hủy sau 5 năm.

Nếu anh/chị sẵn lòng tham gia nghiên cứu này, mong anh/chị liên hệ lại với em theo địa chỉ email tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au, hoặc giáo viên hướng dẫn của em GS. Lesley Harbon theo email Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au hoặc TS. Neil England theo email neil.england@uts.edu.au.

Em chân thành cám ơn anh/chị ạ.

Kính thư,

Hoàng Hồng Trang
Nghiên cứu sinh
Trường Nghiên cứu Quốc tế và Giáo dục *(School of International Studies and Education)*
Khoa Văn hóa nghệ thuật – Khoa học xã hội *(Faculty of Arts and Social sciences)*
Email: tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au
Số di động:

LƯU Ý:

Nghiên cứu này đã được thông qua bởi Ủy ban Đạo đức Nghiên cứu trong Nghiên cứu liên quan tới Con người của trường Đại học Kỹ thuật Sydney. Nếu anh/chị có bất cứ khiếu nại hay băn khoăn nào liên quan tới bất cứ khía cạnh nào trong việc tham gia của mình vào nghiên cứu này, mà anh/chị không thể giải quyết được với nghiên cứu viên, thì anh/chị có thể liên hệ với Ủy ban Đạo đức Nghiên cứu thông qua Cán bộ phụ trách theo số điện thoại +61 2 9514 2478 hoặc email Research.ethics@uts.edu.au, kèm theo mã số được thông qua của nghiên cứu này là UTS HREC ETH20-4950. Bất cứ khiếu nại nào của anh/chị cũng sẽ được giải quyết bí mật và thấu đáo, và anh/chị sẽ được thông báo về kết quả.

1-e. PIS and Consent form for Program Coordinators

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET (PIS)
(PROGRAM COORDINATORS)

Teacher Adaptation in English Medium Instruction: A Multiple-Case Study in Vietnamese Higher Education

UTS HREC APPROVAL NUMBER ETH20-4950

WHO IS DOING THE RESEARCH?

My name is Trang Hong Hoang and I am a student at UTS. My supervisors are Prof. Lesley Harbon (Email: Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au, Phone no.: +61 2 95143863) and Dr. Neil England (Email: neil.england@uts.edu.au, Phone no.: +61 2 95143741).

WHAT IS THIS RESEARCH ABOUT?

This research is to find out about lecturers' adaptation in their teaching practices when they move from teaching in Vietnamese to teaching in English.

FUNDING

Funding for this project has been received from UTS as a HDR scholarship under UTS International Research Training Program (IRTP) Scholarship.

WHY HAVE I BEEN ASKED?

You have been invited to participate in this study because you are involved in the EMI program in your institution as either a program coordinator. Your contact details were obtained from your university website.

IF I SAY YES, WHAT WILL IT INVOLVE?

If you decide to participate, I will invite you to participate in one 60-minute interview, which is audio-recorded.

ARE THERE ANY RISKS/INCONVENIENCE?

Yes, there are some risk/inconvenience. They are:
- you might feel uncomfortable when being audio-recorded in the interview.
- you might feel inconvenient about giving time for the research.
Steps will be taken to minimise your discomfort and inconvenience. Nevertheless, this research does not aim at evaluating, in any aspect, the EMI implementation at your institution, and the audio-recording only serves the purpose of retrieving accurate information for data analysis.

DO I HAVE TO SAY YES?

Participation in this study is voluntary. It is completely up to you whether or not you decide to take part.

WHAT WILL HAPPEN IF I SAY NO?

If you decide not to participate, it will not affect your relationship with the researcher or the University of Technology Sydney. If you wish to withdraw from the study once it has started, you can do so at any time without having to give a reason, by emailing me at tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au or my supervisors at Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au or neil.england@uts.edu.au.

If you withdraw from the study, I will not collect additional information from you, although the information already collected will be retained to ensure that the results of the research project can be analysed properly. You should be aware that data collected up to the time you withdraw will form part of the research project results.

CONFIDENTIALITY

By signing the consent form you consent to the research team collecting and using the information you have provided for the research project. All this information will be treated confidentially and will only be used for the purpose of this research project. All data will be stored in password-protected formats (if electronic) and archived in a locked filing cabinet at the researcher's office. All personal identifiable information will be removed before the data analysis.

We plan to publish the results as thesis at UTS, articles in journals, conference presentations and proceedings. In any publication, information will be provided in such a way that you and your institution cannot be identified.

WHAT IF I HAVE CONCERNS OR A COMPLAINT?

If you have concerns about the research that you think I or my supervisors can help you with, please feel free to contact me on tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au or my supervisors, Prof. Lesley Harbon at Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au or Dr. Neil England at neil.england@uts.edu.au.

You will be given a copy of this form to keep.

NOTE:

This study has been approved in line with the University of Technology Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee [UTS HREC] guidelines. If you have any concerns or complaints about any aspect of the conduct of this research, please contact the Ethics Secretariat on ph.: +61 2 9514 2478 or email: Research.Ethics@uts.edu.au], and quote the UTS HREC REF NO. ETH20-4950. Any matter raised will be treated confidentially, investigated and you will be informed of the outcome.

CONSENT FORM

Teacher Adaptation in English Medium Instruction: A multiple-case Study in Vietnamese Higher Education
UTS HREC APPROVAL NUMBER ETH20-4950

I _____ agree to participate in the research project "Teacher adaptation in English medium instruction: A multiple-case study in Vietnamese higher education", approved via UTS HREC *approval reference number* ETH20-4950 being conducted by Trang Hong Hoang (Email: tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au). I understand that funding for this research has been provided by UTS International Research Training Program Scholarship.

I have read the Participant Information Sheet or someone has read it to me in a language that I understand.

I understand the purposes, procedures and risks of the research as described in the Participant Information Sheet.

I have had an opportunity to ask questions and I am satisfied with the answers I have received.

I freely agree to participate in this research project as described and understand that I am free to withdraw at any time without affecting my relationship with the researcher or the University of Technology Sydney.

I understand that I will be given a signed copy of this document to keep.

I agree to:
☐ Participate in the 60-minute audio-recorded interview

I agree that the research data gathered from this project may be published in a form that:
☐ Does not identify me in any way
☐ May be used for future research purposes

I am aware that I can contact Trang Hong Hoang if I have any concerns about the research.

_____   ____/____/____
Name and Signature [participant]   Date

_____   ____/____/____
Name and Signature [researcher]   Date

PHIẾU THÔNG TIN CHO ĐỐI TƯỢNG NGHIÊN CỨU
(ĐIỀU PHỐI VIÊN CHƯƠNG TRÌNH)

Điều chỉnh của giáo viên trong Giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh: Nghiên cứu đa cá thể trong Giáo dục Đại học ở Việt Nam

Mã số thông qua Ủy ban Đạo đức nghiên cứu của UTS: ETH20-4950

AI THỰC HIỆN NGHIÊN CỨU NÀY?

Tên tôi là Hoàng Hồng Trang và tôi hiện là nghiên cứu sinh tại Đại học Kỹ thuật Sydney (viết tắt là "UTS"). Giáo viên hướng dẫn của tôi là GS. Lesley Harbon (Email: Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au, ĐT: +61 2 95143863 và TS. Neil England (Email: neil.england@uts.edu.au, ĐT: +61 2 95143741).

NGHIÊN CỨU NÀY VỀ VẤN ĐỀ GÌ?

Nghiên cứu này tìm hiểu những thay đổi của giáo viên trong giảng dạy khi chuyển từ giảng dạy bằng tiếng Việt sang giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh.

KINH PHÍ

Kinh phí cho nghiên cứu này được cấp từ nguồn học bổng dành cho sinh viên quốc tế của UTS, với tên gọi Chương trình Đào tạo Nghiên cứu dành cho sinh viên Quốc tế.

TẠI SAO TÔI ĐƯỢC MỜI THAM GIA?

Thầy/cô được mời tham gia nghiên cứu này vì thầy/cô đang tham gia vào chương trình Giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh tại đơn vị của mình với vai trò người điều phối chương trình. Thông tin liên hệ của thầy/cô được lấy từ trang web của đơn vị thầy/cô đang công tác.

NẾU TÔI ĐỒNG Ý, ĐIỀU ĐÓ CÓ NGHĨA LÀ GÌ?

Nếu thầy/cô đồng ý tham gia, thầy/cô sẽ tham gia một buổi phỏng vấn khoảng 60 phút. Buổi phỏng vấn sẽ được thu âm.

CÓ RỦI RO/BẤT TIỆN NÀO KHÔNG?

Có, có một chút rủi ro/bất tiện với thầy/cô. Đó là:
- thầy/cô có thể cảm thấy không thoải mái khi bị thu âm trong thời gian phỏng vấn.
- thầy/cô có thể thấy bất tiện khi phải dành thời gian cho nghiên cứu này.

Tôi sẽ thực hiện một số biện pháp để giảm thiểu cảm giác không thoải mái hay bất tiện cho thầy/cô. Thêm vào đó, tôi muốn nhấn mạnh rằng nghiên cứu này không nhằm đánh giá việc triển khai chương trình giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh tại đơn vị của thầy/cô hay năng lực và việc giảng dạy của các giáo viên liên quan. Việc thu âm chỉ phục vụ mục đích trích xuất thông tin một cách chính xác nhất cho việc phân tích dữ liệu.

TÔI CÓ BUỘC PHẢI ĐỒNG Ý KHÔNG?

Việc tham gia của thầy/cô là hoàn toàn tự nguyện. Thầy/cô có quyền lựa chọn tham gia vào nghiên cứu này hoặc không.

CHUYỆN GÌ SẼ XẢY RA NẾU TÔI KHÔNG ĐỒNG Ý?

Nếu thầy/cô không đồng ý tham gia, việc đó cũng sẽ không ảnh hưởng gì tới mối quan hệ của thầy/cô với tôi hay với trường Đại học Công nghệ Sydney. Nếu thầy/cô muốn rút khỏi nghiên cứu sau khi đã tham gia một thời gian, thầy/cô có thể làm vậy mà không phải đưa ra bất kỳ lý do nào, bằng cách gửi thư điện tử cho tôi tại địa chỉ tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au hoặc cho giáo viên hướng dẫn của tôi theo địa chỉ Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au hoặc neil.england@uts.edu.au.

Nếu thầy/cô rút khỏi nghiên cứu này, tôi sẽ không tiếp tục thu thập thêm thông tin từ thầy/cô. Mặc dù vậy, thông tin đã được thu thập sẽ vẫn được giữ lại để đảm bảo kết quả nghiên cứu có thể

được phân tích một cách hợp lý. Thầy/cô cũng cần biết rằng dữ liệu thu thập được cho tới thời điểm thầy/cô rút khỏi nghiên cứu sẽ vẫn là một phần trong kết quả nghiên cứu của đề tài.

AN TOÀN THÔNG TIN

Bằng việc ký vào phiếu chấp thuận, thầy/cô đồng ý cho nhóm nghiên cứu thu thập và sử dụng thông tin mà thầy cô cung cấp cho nghiên cứu này. Tất cả những thông tin này sẽ được xử lý bí mật và sẽ chỉ được sử dụng cho mục đích của nghiên cứu này. Mọi dữ liệu sẽ được lưu trữ dưới hình thức đặt mật khẩu (nếu ở dạng điện tử) và cất giữ trong các tủ có khóa tại nơi làm việc của nghiên cứu viên. Tất cả những thông tin cá nhân sẽ được xóa bỏ trước khi phân tích dữ liệu.

Chúng tôi dự định công bố kết quả nghiên cứu dưới dạng luận án tại UTS, bài báo trong tạp chí chuyên ngành, báo cáo và bài kỷ yếu tại hội thảo. Dù ở hình thức xuất bản nào, thông tin sẽ được cung cấp theo cách mà không ai có thể xác định được danh tính của thầy/cô hay đơn vị mà thầy/cô công tác.

NẾU TÔI CÓ BĂN KHOĂN HOẶC KHIẾU NẠI THÌ SAO?

Nếu thầy/cô có băn khoăn về nghiên cứu này mà thầy/cô nghĩ rằng tôi hoặc giáo viên hướng dẫn của tôi có thể giải đáp, các thầy/cô hãy liên lạc với tôi theo địa chỉ thư điện tử là tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au hoặc với giáo viên hướng dẫn của tôi GS. Lesley Harbon theo địa chỉ Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au hoặc TS. Neil England theo địa chỉ neil.england@uts.edu.au.

Thầy/cô sẽ được nhận một bản của phiếu thông tin này để lưu giữ.

PHIẾU CHẤP THUẬN
(ĐIỀU PHỐI VIÊN CHƯƠNG TRÌNH)

Điều chỉnh của giáo viên trong Giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh: Nghiên cứu đa cá thể trong Giáo dục Đại học ở Việt Nam

Mã số thông qua Ủy ban Đạo đức nghiên cứu của UTS: ETH20-4950

Tôi, _____, đồng ý tham gia nghiên cứu "Điều chỉnh của giáo viên trong Giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh: Nghiên cứu đa cá thể trong Giáo dục đại học ở Việt Nam", được thông qua bởi Ủy ban Đạo đức nghiên cứu của UTS với mã số UTS HREC REF NO. ETH20-4950 và được thực hiện bởi chị Hoàng Hồng Trang (Email: tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au). Tôi hiểu rằng kinh phí cho nghiên cứu này được cấp từ học bổng Chương trình Đào tạo Nghiên cứu dành cho sinh viên Quốc tế của trường UTS.

Tôi đã đọc Phiếu thông tin cho Đối tượng nghiên cứu hoặc đã được người khác đọc cho tôi nghe bằng ngôn ngữ tôi có thể hiểu được.

Tôi hiểu mục đích, quy trình, và rủi ro của nghiên cứu này như được miêu tả trong Phiếu thông tin cho Đối tượng nghiên cứu.

Tôi đã có cơ hội đặt câu hỏi và tôi hài lòng với các câu trả lời mình nhận được.

Tôi tự nguyện đồng ý tham gia vào nghiên cứu này như nó được mô tả và hiểu rằng tôi được tự do rút khỏi nghiên cứu này bất cứ lúc nào mà không ảnh hưởng tới mối quan hệ của tôi với nghiên cứu viên hay với Đại học Công nghệ Sydney.

Tôi biết rằng mình sẽ nhận được một bản đã ký của Phiếu chấp thuận này để lưu giữ.

Tôi đồng ý:

☐ Tham gia vào 1 buổi phỏng vấn được thu âm

Tôi đồng ý rằng dữ liệu thu thập được từ nghiên cứu này có thể được xuất bản dưới hình thức mà:

☐ Không xác định danh tính của tôi bằng bất cứ cách nào

☐ Có thể được sử dụng cho những mục đích nghiên cứu trong tương lai

Tôi biết rằng tôi có thể liên lạc với chị Hoàng Hồng Trang nếu tôi có bất cứ băn khoăn gì về nghiên cứu này.

_____   ____/____/____
Tên và Chữ ký [Đối tượng nghiên cứu]   Ngày

Production Note:
Signature removed prior to publication.

_____   15 / 10 / 2020
Tên và Chữ ký [Nghiên cứu viên]   Ngày

1-f. PIS and Consent form for lecturers

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET (LECTURER)
Teacher Adaptation in English Medium Instruction: A multiple-case Study in Vietnamese Higher Education
UTS HREC APPROVAL NUMBER: ETH20-4950

WHO IS DOING THE RESEARCH?

My name is Trang Hong Hoang and I am a student at UTS. My supervisors are Prof. Lesley Harbon (Email: Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au, Phone no.: +61 2 95143863) and Dr. Neil England (Email: neil.england@uts.edu.au, Phone no.: +61 2 95143741).

WHAT IS THIS RESEARCH ABOUT?

This research is to find out about lecturers' adaptation in their teaching practices when they move from teaching in Vietnamese to teaching in English.

FUNDING

Funding for this project has been received from UTS as a HDR scholarship under UTS International Research Training Program (IRTP) Scholarship.

WHY HAVE I BEEN ASKED?

You have been invited to participate in this study because you have the experience with teaching in English for at least a few years and you have had a rather positive perception of EMI, as referred by your colleagues. Your contact details were obtained from your university website.

IF I SAY YES, WHAT WILL IT INVOLVE?

If you decide to participate, I will invite you to:

    1. Participate in one 60-minute interview and three 15- to 30-minute interviews throughout the semester. All interviews are audio-recorded.

    2. Allow me to observe about 4 of your usual lessons (2 lessons taught in Vietnamese and 2 in English). The class observations are audio-recorded.

    Or help me audio-record your lessons and send the audio files to me.

    3. Provide me the teaching materials of the observed/recorded lessons.

ARE THERE ANY RISKS/INCONVENIENCE?

Yes, there are some risks/inconvenience. They are:

- you might be asked to share your experiences with teaching in English, including bad ones.
- you might feel uncomfortable being observed in your lessons.
- you might feel uncomfortable when being audio-recorded in the interviews and your lessons.
- you might feel inconvenient about giving time for the research.

Steps will be taken to minimise your discomfort and inconvenience. Besides, it should be emphasized that this research does not aim at evaluating your competence or your teaching practices and audio-recordings only serve the purpose of retrieving accurate information for data analysis.

DO I HAVE TO SAY YES?

Participation in this study is voluntary. It is completely up to you whether or not you decide to take part.

WHAT WILL HAPPEN IF I SAY NO?

If you decide not to participate, it will not affect your relationship with the researcher or the University of Technology Sydney. If you wish to withdraw from the study once it has started, you can do so at any time without having to give a reason, by emailing me at tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au or my supervisors at Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au or neil.england@uts.edu.au.

If you withdraw from the study, I will not collect additional information from you, although the information already collected will be retained to ensure that the results of the research project can be analysed properly. You should be aware that data collected up to the time you withdraw will form part of the research project results.

CONFIDENTIALITY

By signing the consent form you consent to the research team collecting and using the information you have provided for the research project. All this information will be treated confidentially and will only be used for the purpose of this research project. All data will be stored in password-protected formats (if electronic) and archived in a locked filing cabinet at the researcher's office. All personal identifiable information will be removed before the data analysis.

We plan to publish the results as thesis at UTS, articles in journals, and conference presentations and proceedings. In any publication, information will be provided in such a way that you and your institution cannot be identified.

WHAT IF I HAVE CONCERNS OR A COMPLAINT?

If you have concerns about the research that you think I or my supervisors can help you with, please feel free to contact me on tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au or my supervisors, Prof. Lesley Harbon at Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au or Dr. Neil England at neil.england@uts.edu.au.

You will be given a copy of this form to keep.

NOTE:

This study has been approved in line with the University of Technology Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee [UTS HREC] guidelines. If you have any concerns or complaints about any aspect of the conduct of this research, please contact the Ethics Secretariat on ph.: +61 2 9514 2478 or email: Research.Ethics@uts.edu.au], and quote the UTS HREC reference number ETH20-4950. Any matter raised will be treated confidentially, investigated and you will be informed of the outcome.

CONSENT FORM (LECTURER)

Teacher Adaptation in English Medium Instruction: A multiple-case Study in Vietnamese Higher Education

UTS HREC APPROVAL NUMBER ETH20-4950

I _____ agree to participate in the research project "Teacher adaptation in English medium instruction: A multiple-case study in Vietnamese higher education", approved via UTS HREC approval reference number ETH20-4950, being conducted by Trang Hong Hoang (Email: tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au). I understand that funding for this research has been provided by UTS International Research Training Program Scholarship.

I have read the Participant Information Sheet or someone has read it to me in a language that I understand.

I understand the purposes, procedures and risks of the research as described in the Participant Information Sheet.

I have had an opportunity to ask questions and I am satisfied with the answers I have received.

I freely agree to participate in this research project as described and understand that I am free to withdraw at any time without affecting my relationship with the researcher or the University of Technology Sydney.

I understand that I will be given a signed copy of this document to keep.

I agree to:

☐ Participate in the 4 audio-recorded interviews

☐ Have the researcher in my class

☐ Be observed in my lessons and audio-recorded/ **Or** self-record my lessons and send the files to the researcher **And/Or** provide the researcher my available lesson recordings

☐ Provide the teaching materials of the observed/recorded lessons

 I agree that the research data gathered from this project may be published in a form that:

☐ Does not identify me in any way

☐ May be used for future research purposes

I would like to:

☐ Be sent the interview transcripts for review and comments

☐ Be sent the research findings for reference

☐ Be contacted for discussions on the research findings in the future

I am aware that I can contact Trang Hong Hoang if I have any concerns about the research.

_____   ____/____/____
Name and Signature [participant]   Date

_____   ____/____/____
Name and Signature [researcher]   Date

PHIẾU THÔNG TIN CHO ĐỐI TƯỢNG NGHIÊN CỨU
(GIẢNG VIÊN)
Điều chỉnh của giáo viên trong Giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh: Nghiên cứu đa cá thể trong Giáo dục Đại học ở Việt Nam

Mã số thông qua Ủy ban Đạo đức nghiên cứu của UTS: UTS HREC REF NO. ETH20-4950

AI THỰC HIỆN NGHIÊN CỨU NÀY?

Tên tôi là Hoàng Hồng Trang và tôi hiện là nghiên cứu sinh tại Đại học Kỹ thuật Sydney (viết tắt là "UTS"). Giáo viên hướng dẫn của tôi là GS. Lesley Harbon (Email: Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au, ĐT: +61 2 95143863 và TS. Neil England (Email: neil.england@uts.edu.au, ĐT: +61 2 95143741).

NGHIÊN CỨU NÀY VỀ VẤN ĐỀ GÌ?

Nghiên cứu này tìm hiểu những thay đổi của giáo viên trong giảng dạy khi chuyển từ giảng dạy bằng tiếng Việt sang giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh.

KINH PHÍ

Kinh phí cho nghiên cứu này được cấp từ nguồn học bổng dành cho sinh viên quốc tế của UTS, với tên gọi Chương trình Đào tạo Nghiên cứu dành cho sinh viên Quốc tế.

TẠI SAO TÔI ĐƯỢC MỜI THAM GIA?

Thầy/cô được mời tham gia nghiên cứu vì thầy/cô có kinh nghiệm giảng dạy bằng cả tiếng Việt lẫn tiếng Anh trong một số năm và thầy/cô có cái nhìn tương đối tích cực đối với việc giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh, theo như giới thiệu từ đồng nghiệp của thầy/cô. Thông tin liên hệ của thầy/cô được lấy từ trang web của đơn vị thầy/cô đang công tác.

NẾU TÔI ĐỒNG Ý, ĐIỀU ĐÓ CÓ NGHĨA LÀ GÌ?

Nếu thầy/cô đồng ý tham gia, thầy/cô sẽ:

1. Tham gia một buổi phỏng vấn khoảng 60 phút và 3 buổi phỏng vấn ngắn 15-30 phút. Các buổi phỏng vấn sẽ được thu âm.

2. Cho phép tôi dự giờ thầy/cô khoảng 4 buổi (2 buổi thầy cô dạy bằng tiếng Việt và 2 buổi bằng tiếng Anh). Buổi dự giờ sẽ được thu âm.

Và/Hoặc thầy/cô tự thu âm giờ dạy của thầy/cô và gửi file thu âm cho tôi.

Và/Hoặc thầy/cô cung cấp cho tôi file thu âm giờ học mà thầy/cô đã có sẵn.

3. Cung cấp cho tôi tài liệu dạy học của thầy/cô dành cho những buổi được dự giờ/thu âm.

CÓ RỦI RO/BẤT TIỆN NÀO KHÔNG?

Có, có một chút rủi ro/bất tiện với thầy/cô. Đó là:

- thầy/cô có thể được yêu cầu chia sẻ những trải nghiệm của mình với việc giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh, bao gồm cả trải nghiệm không tích cực.

- thầy/cô có thể cảm thấy không thoải mái khi bị dự giờ.

- thầy/cô có thể cảm thấy không thoải mái khi bị thu âm trong thời gian phỏng vấn và trong giờ dạy của mình.

- thầy/cô có thể thấy bất tiện khi phải dành thời gian cho nghiên cứu này.

Tôi sẽ thực hiện một số biện pháp để giảm thiểu cảm giác không thoải mái hay bất tiện cho thầy/cô. Thêm vào đó, tôi muốn nhấn mạnh rằng nghiên cứu này không nhằm đánh giá năng lực hay việc giảng dạy của thầy/cô, và việc thu âm chỉ phục vụ mục đích trích xuất thông tin một cách chính xác nhất cho việc phân tích dữ liệu.

TÔI CÓ BUỘC PHẢI ĐỒNG Ý KHÔNG?

Việc tham gia của thầy/cô là hoàn toàn tự nguyện. Thầy/cô có quyền lựa chọn tham gia vào nghiên cứu này hoặc không.

CHUYỆN GÌ SẼ XẢY RA NẾU TÔI KHÔNG ĐỒNG Ý?

Nếu thầy/cô không đồng ý tham gia, việc đó cũng sẽ không ảnh hưởng gì tới mối quan hệ của thầy/cô với tôi hay với trường Đại học Công nghệ Sydney. Nếu thầy/cô muốn rút khỏi nghiên cứu sau khi đã tham gia một thời gian, thầy/cô có thể làm vậy mà không phải đưa ra bất kỳ lý do nào, bằng cách gửi thư điện tử cho tôi tại địa chỉ tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au hoặc cho giáo viên hướng dẫn của tôi theo địa chỉ Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au hoặc neil.england@uts.edu.au.

Nếu thầy/cô rút khỏi nghiên cứu này, tôi sẽ không tiếp tục thu thập thêm thông tin từ thầy/cô. Mặc dù vậy, thông tin đã được thu thập sẽ vẫn được giữ lại để đảm bảo kết quả nghiên cứu có thể được phân tích một cách hợp lý. Thầy/cô cũng cần biết rằng dữ liệu thu thập được cho tới thời điểm thầy/cô rút khỏi nghiên cứu sẽ vẫn là một phần trong kết quả nghiên cứu của đề tài.

AN TOÀN THÔNG TIN

Bằng việc ký vào phiếu chấp thuận, thầy/cô đồng ý cho nhóm nghiên cứu thu thập và sử dụng thông tin mà thầy cô cung cấp cho nghiên cứu này. Tất cả những thông tin này sẽ được xử lý bí mật và sẽ chỉ được sử dụng cho mục đích của nghiên cứu này. Mọi dữ liệu sẽ được lưu trữ dưới hình thức đặt mật khẩu (nếu ở dạng điện tử) và cất giữ trong các tủ có khóa tại nơi làm việc của nghiên cứu viên. Tất cả những thông tin cá nhân sẽ được xóa bỏ trước khi phân tích dữ liệu.

Chúng tôi dự định công bố kết quả nghiên cứu dưới dạng luận án tại UTS, bài báo trong tạp chí chuyên ngành, báo cáo và bài kỷ yếu tại hội thảo. Dù ở hình thức xuất bản nào, thông tin sẽ được cung cấp theo cách mà không ai có thể xác định được danh tính của thầy/cô hay đơn vị mà thầy/cô công tác.

NẾU TÔI CÓ BĂN KHOĂN HOẶC KHIẾU NẠI THÌ SAO?

Nếu thầy/cô có băn khoăn về nghiên cứu này mà thầy/cô nghĩ rằng tôi hoặc giáo viên hướng dẫn của tôi có thể giải đáp, các thầy/cô hãy liên lạc với tôi theo địa chỉ thư điện tử là tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au hoặc với giáo viên hướng dẫn của tôi GS. Lesley Harbon theo địa chỉ Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au hoặc TS. Neil England theo địa chỉ neil.england@uts.edu.au.

Thầy/cô sẽ được nhận một bản của phiếu thông tin này để lưu giữ.

PHIẾU CHẤP THUẬN
(GIẢNG VIÊN)
Điều chỉnh của giáo viên trong Giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh: Nghiên cứu đa cá thể trong Giáo dục Đại học ở Việt Nam

Mã số thông qua Ủy ban Đạo đức nghiên cứu của UTS: UTS HREC REF NO. ETH20-4950

Tôi, _____, đồng ý tham gia nghiên cứu "Điều chỉnh của giáo viên trong Giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh: Nghiên cứu đa cá thể trong Giáo dục đại học ở Việt Nam", được thông qua bởi Ủy ban Đạo đức nghiên cứu của UTS với mã số UTS HREC REF NO. ETH20-4950 và được thực hiện bởi chị Hoàng Hồng Trang (Email: tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au). Tôi hiểu rằng kinh phí cho nghiên cứu này được cấp từ học bổng Chương trình Đào tạo Nghiên cứu dành cho sinh viên Quốc tế của trường UTS.

Tôi đã đọc Phiếu thông tin cho Đối tượng nghiên cứu hoặc đã được người khác đọc cho tôi nghe bằng ngôn ngữ tôi có thể hiểu được.

Tôi hiểu mục đích, quy trình, và rủi ro của nghiên cứu này như được miêu tả trong Phiếu thông tin cho Đối tượng nghiên cứu.

Tôi đã có cơ hội đặt câu hỏi và tôi hài lòng với các câu trả lời mình nhận được.

Tôi tự nguyện đồng ý tham gia vào nghiên cứu này như nó được mô tả và hiểu rằng tôi được tự do rút khỏi nghiên cứu này bất cứ lúc nào mà không ảnh hưởng tới mối quan hệ của tôi với nghiên cứu viên hay với Đại học Công nghệ Sydney.

Tôi biết rằng mình sẽ nhận được một bản đã ký của Phiếu chấp thuận này để lưu giữ.

Tôi đồng ý:

☐ Tham gia vào 4 buổi phỏng vấn được thu âm

☐ Cho phép nghiên cứu viên vào lớp của tôi

☐ Cho nghiên cứu viên dự giờ và thu âm bài dạy của tôi **Và/Hoặc** Thu âm bài dạy của tôi và gửi file cho nghiên cứu viên **Và/Hoặc** Cung cấp cho nghiên cứu viên file thu âm bài dạy tôi sẵn có.

☐ Cung cấp cho nghiên cứu viên tài liệu giảng dạy liên quan đến môn học và buổi học được thu âm/dự giờ.

Tôi đồng ý rằng dữ liệu thu thập được từ nghiên cứu này có thể được xuất bản dưới hình thức mà:

☐ Không xác định danh tính của tôi bằng bất cứ cách nào

☐ Có thể được sử dụng cho những mục đích nghiên cứu trong tương lai

Tôi muốn:

☐ Nhận được bản đánh máy nội dung buổi phỏng vấn để rà soát và cho ý kiến

☐ Nhận được kết quả của nghiên cứu này để tham khảo

☐ Được liên hệ sau này để bàn thêm về kết quả của nghiên cứu này

Tôi biết rằng tôi có thể liên lạc với chị Hoàng Hồng Trang nếu tôi có bất cứ băn khoăn gì về nghiên cứu này.

_____   ____/____/____

Tên và Chữ ký [Đối tượng nghiên cứu]   Ngày

Production Note:
Signature removed prior to publication.

                                                    14 / 10 / 2020
Tên và Chữ ký [Nghiên cứu viên]   Ngày

1-g. PIS and Consent form for students

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET
(STUDENTS)
Teacher Adaptation in English Medium Instruction: A multiple-case Study in Vietnamese Higher Education

WHO IS DOING THE RESEARCH?
My name is Trang Hong Hoang and I am a student at UTS. My supervisors are Prof. Lesley Harbon (Email: Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au, Phone no.: +61 2 95143863) and Dr. Neil England (Email: neil.england@uts.edu.au, Phone no.: +61 2 95143741).

WHAT IS THIS RESEARCH ABOUT?
This research is to find out about lecturers' adaptation in their teaching practices when they move from teaching in Vietnamese to teaching in English.

FUNDING
Funding for this project has been received from UTS as a HDR scholarship under UTS International Research Training Program (IRTP) Scholarship.

WHY HAVE I BEEN ASKED?
You have been asked to participate because you might have attended **and/or** will possibly be attending the lessons that I would like to request the audio-recordings **and/or** observe and audio-record; thus, your voice might be present in these audio-recordings.

IF I SAY YES, WHAT WILL IT INVOLVE?
If you agree to participate, it means that you allow me to have your voice in the audio-recordings of your lessons. This also means that you allow me to use the information that you provide in your lessons, e.g. your answer to your teacher's question, for my research purposes if necessary.

ARE THERE ANY RISKS/INCONVENIENCE?
Yes, there may be a slight risk of feeling discomfort when being audio-recorded. However, steps will be taken to minimize this risk and make you feel as comfortable as in your normal classroom conditions.

DO I HAVE TO SAY YES?
Participation in this study is voluntary. It is completely up to you whether or not you decide to take part.

WHAT WILL HAPPEN IF I SAY NO?
If you decide not to participate, it will not affect your relationship with the researcher or the University of Technology Sydney. Your refusal to participate merely means that I cannot have your voice in the audio-recordings of your lessons and cannot use the information that you provide in the lessons for my research purposes. In that case, I will remove your voice from the lesson recordings.

CONFIDENTIALITY
By signing the consent form you consent to the research team collecting and using the information you have provided in our research project. All this information will be treated confidentially and will only be used for the purpose of this research project. All data will be

stored in password-protected formats (if electronic) and archived in a locked filing cabinet at the researcher's office. All personal identifiable information will be removed before the data analysis.

We plan to publish the results as thesis at UTS, articles in journals, conference presentations and proceedings. In any publication, information will be provided in such a way that you and your institution cannot be identified.

WHAT IF I HAVE CONCERNS OR A COMPLAINT?
If you have concerns about the research that you think I or my supervisors can help you with, please feel free to contact me on tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au or my supervisors, Prof. Lesley Harbon at Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au or Dr. Neil England at neil.england@uts.edu.au.

You will be given a copy of this form to keep.

NOTE:
This study has been approved in line with the University of Technology Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee [UTS HREC] guidelines. If you have any concerns or complaints about any aspect of the conduct of this research, please contact the Ethics Secretariat on ph.: +61 2 9514 2478 or email: Research.Ethics@uts.edu.au], and quote the UTS HREC reference number ETH20-4950. Any matter raised will be treated confidentially, investigated and you will be informed of the outcome.

CONSENT FORM
(STUDENTS)

Teacher Adaptation in English Medium Instruction: A multiple-case Study in Vietnamese Higher Education
UTS HREC APPROVAL NUMBER ETH20-4950

I _____ agree to participate in the research project "Teacher adaptation in English medium instruction: A multiple-case study in Vietnamese higher education", approved via UTS HREC approval reference number ETH20-4950, being conducted by Trang Hong Hoang (Email: tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au). I understand that funding for this research has been provided by UTS International Research Training Program Scholarship.

I have read the Participant Information Sheet or someone has read it to me in a language that I understand.

I understand the purposes, procedures and risks of the research as described in the Participant Information Sheet.

I have had an opportunity to ask questions and I am satisfied with the answers I have received.

I freely agree to participate in this research project as described and understand that my refusal to participate in this research will not affect my relationship with the researcher or the University of Technology Sydney.

I understand that I will be given a signed copy of this document to keep.

I agree to:
☐ Have my voice included in the lesson audio-recordings
☐ Allow the research team to use the information that I provide in the lessons for research purposes

I agree that the research data gathered from this project may be published in a form that:
☐ Does not identify me in any way
☐ May be used for future research purposes

I am aware that I can contact Trang Hong Hoang if I have any concerns about the research.

_____   ____/____/____
Name and Signature [participant]   Date

_____   ____/____/____
Name and Signature [researcher]   Date

PHIẾU THÔNG TIN CHO ĐỐI TƯỢNG NGHIÊN CỨU
(SINH VIÊN)

Điều chỉnh của giáo viên trong Giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh: Nghiên cứu đa cá thể trong Giáo dục Đại học ở Việt Nam

Mã số thông qua Ủy ban Đạo đức nghiên cứu của UTS: ETH20-4950

AI THỰC HIỆN NGHIÊN CỨU NÀY?

Tên tôi là Hoàng Hồng Trang và tôi hiện là nghiên cứu sinh tại Đại học Kỹ thuật Sydney (viết tắt là "UTS"). Giáo viên hướng dẫn của tôi là GS. Lesley Harbon (Email: Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au, ĐT: +61 2 95143863 và TS. Neil England (Email: neil.england@uts.edu.au, ĐT: +61 2 95143741).

NGHIÊN CỨU NÀY VỀ VẤN ĐỀ GÌ?

Nghiên cứu này tìm hiểu những thay đổi của giáo viên trong giảng dạy khi chuyển từ giảng dạy bằng tiếng Việt sang giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh.

KINH PHÍ

Kinh phí cho nghiên cứu này được cấp từ nguồn học bổng dành cho sinh viên quốc tế của UTS, với tên gọi Chương trình Đào tạo Nghiên cứu dành cho sinh viên Quốc tế.

TẠI SAO EM ĐƯỢC MỜI THAM GIA?

Em được mời tham gia nghiên cứu này vì em có thể đã **hoặc** sẽ đi học trong một số buổi học mà đã được thu âm, **hoặc** tôi sẽ xin phép dự giờ và thu âm nội dung; do đó, giọng nói của em có thể xuất hiện trong những file thu âm buổi học đó.

NẾU EM ĐỒNG Ý, ĐIỀU ĐÓ CÓ NGHĨA LÀ GÌ?

Nếu em đồng ý tham gia, điều đó có nghĩa là em cho phép tôi có giọng nói của em trong các file thu âm đó, và có thể sử dụng thông tin mà em cung cấp trong buổi học, ví dụ như câu trả lời của em cho câu hỏi mà giáo viên đưa ra, để làm dữ liệu nghiên cứu nếu cần.

CÓ RỦI RO/BẤT TIỆN NÀO KHÔNG?

Có, em có thể cảm thấy một chút không thoải mái khi bị thu âm. Tuy nhiên sẽ có một số biện pháp được sử dụng để em cảm thấy thoải mái như trong điều kiện lớp học bình thường.

EM CÓ BUỘC PHẢI ĐỒNG Ý KHÔNG?

Việc tham gia của em là hoàn toàn tự nguyện. Em có quyền lựa chọn tham gia vào nghiên cứu này hoặc không.

CHUYỆN GÌ SẼ XẢY RA NẾU EM KHÔNG ĐỒNG Ý?

Nếu em không đồng ý tham gia, việc đó cũng sẽ không ảnh hưởng gì tới mối quan hệ của em với tôi hay với trường Đại học Công nghệ Sydney. Việc em từ chối tham gia chỉ có nghĩa là tôi không thể giữ giọng nói của em trong các file thu âm buổi học, cũng như tôi không thể sử dụng thông tin mà em cung cấp trong những giờ học đó cho mục đích nghiên cứu. Trong trường hợp đó, tôi sẽ xóa giọng nói của em khỏi các file thu âm buổi học.

AN TOÀN THÔNG TIN

Bằng việc ký vào phiếu chấp thuận, em đồng ý cho nhóm nghiên cứu thu thập và sử dụng thông tin mà em cung cấp cho nghiên cứu này. Tất cả những thông tin này sẽ được xử lý bí mật và sẽ chỉ được sử dụng cho mục đích của nghiên cứu này. Mọi dữ liệu sẽ được lưu trữ dưới hình thức

đặt mật khẩu (nếu ở dạng điện tử) và cất giữ trong các tủ có khóa tại nơi làm việc của nghiên cứu viên. Tất cả những thông tin cá nhân sẽ được xóa bỏ trước khi phân tích dữ liệu.

Chúng tôi dự định công bố kết quả nghiên cứu dưới dạng luận án tại UTS, bài báo trong tạp chí chuyên ngành, báo cáo và bài kỷ yếu tại hội thảo. Dù ở hình thức xuất bản nào, thông tin sẽ được cung cấp theo cách mà không ai có thể xác định được danh tính của em hay đơn vị mà em đang theo học.

NẾU EM CÓ BĂN KHOĂN HOẶC KHIẾU NẠI THÌ SAO?

Nếu em có băn khoăn về nghiên cứu này mà em nghĩ rằng tôi hoặc giáo viên hướng dẫn của tôi có thể giải đáp, em hãy liên lạc với tôi theo địa chỉ thư điện tử là tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au hoặc với giáo viên hướng dẫn của tôi GS. Lesley Harbon theo địa chỉ Lesley.harbon@uts.edu.au hoặc TS. Neil England theo địa chỉ neil.england@uts.edu.au.

Em sẽ được nhận một bản của phiếu thông tin này để lưu giữ.

PHIẾU CHẤP THUẬN
(SINH VIÊN)

Điều chỉnh của giáo viên trong Giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh: Nghiên cứu đa cá thể trong Giáo dục Đại học ở Việt Nam

Mã số thông qua Ủy ban Đạo đức nghiên cứu của UTS: ETH20-4950

Tôi, _____, đồng ý tham gia nghiên cứu "Điều chỉnh của giáo viên trong Giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh: Nghiên cứu đa cá thể trong Giáo dục đại học ở Việt Nam", được thông qua bởi Ủy ban Đạo đức nghiên cứu của UTS với mã số UTS HREC REF NO. ETH20-4950 và được thực hiện bởi cô Hoàng Hồng Trang (Email: tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au). Tôi hiểu rằng kinh phí cho nghiên cứu này được cấp từ học bổng Chương trình Đào tạo Nghiên cứu dành cho sinh viên Quốc tế của trường UTS.

Tôi đã đọc Phiếu thông tin cho Đối tượng nghiên cứu hoặc đã được người khác đọc cho tôi nghe bằng ngôn ngữ tôi có thể hiểu được.

Tôi hiểu mục đích, quy trình, và rủi ro của nghiên cứu này như được miêu tả trong Phiếu thông tin cho Đối tượng nghiên cứu.

Tôi đã có cơ hội đặt câu hỏi và tôi hài lòng với các câu trả lời mình nhận được.

Tôi tự nguyện đồng ý tham gia vào nghiên cứu này như nó được mô tả và hiểu rằng v iệc từ chối tham gia của tôi cũng sẽ không ảnh hưởng tới mối quan hệ của tôi với nghiên cứu viên hay với Đại học Công nghệ Sydney.

Tôi biết rằng mình sẽ nhận được một bản đã ký của Phiếu chấp thuận này để lưu giữ.

Tôi đồng ý:
☐ Cho phép nhóm nghiên cứu có giọng nói của tôi trong các file thu âm của buổi học
☐ Cho phép nhóm nghiên cứu sử dụng thông tin tôi cung cấp trong các buổi học cho mục đích nghiên cứu

Tôi đồng ý rằng dữ liệu thu thập được từ nghiên cứu này có thể được xuất bản dưới hình thức mà:
☐ Không xác định danh tính của tôi bằng bất cứ cách nào
☐ Có thể được sử dụng cho những mục đích nghiên cứu trong tương lai

Tôi biết rằng tôi có thể liên lạc với cô Hoàng Hồng Trang nếu tôi có bất cứ băn khoăn gì về nghiên cứu này.

_____   ____/____/____
Tên và Chữ ký [Đối tượng nghiên cứu]   Ngày

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_____   19/ 10/ 2020
Tên và Chữ ký [Nghiên cứu viên]   Ngày

Appendix 2: Interview Protocol for EMI Program Coordinators

NOTE: *All interviews are semi-structured and the exact questions and question wordings to be asked are subject to the participant and his/her responses in the particular context of the interview. Therefore, the questions below just act as a guide for the interview.*

Researcher: Thank you again for agreeing to participate in this interview. As you know, this interview is undertaken to understand the contexts of practices of EMI lecturers in the EMI program that you are managing. All the information obtained during this interview will remain confidential. The interview should take approximately 60 minutes. Do you have any questions about the study or interview procedures? (Pause. Answer any interviewee questions before proceeding.)

Questions:

Section 1: Personal information

1. How long have you been coordinating this program?

2. Do you have any other tasks in addition to coordinating this program?

3. What are the tasks of a program coordinator at your university?

Section 2: EMI curriculum

4. When was this EMI program developed and when it was first implemented?

5. (For HQP) Which foreign programs did your team consult when developing the curriculum for this EMI program? Why were those programs selected for reference?

6. What are the program objectives?

>   (How are they as compared to those of Vietnamese-medium instruction programs?
>
>   How are the objectives of different EMI programs different, eg. Advanced vs High-Quality programs?
>
>   What are the principles of the program development?)

Section 3: EMI teaching and learning

7. What are the criteria for selecting lecturers in this program?

>   (What are the criteria for assigning courses for lecturers to teach in this program?
>
>   How many EMI lecturers are there?)

8. What are the criteria for selecting students into this program?

>   (How are those enrolment requirements similar or different from students in VMI?)

9. How are the teaching and learning conditions in the English-medium instruction program(s)?

>   (similar to or different from corresponding programs in Vietnamese? infrastructure – room size/type, facilities; teaching-learning equipment; course materials)

10. What are the benefits/priorities given to lecturers and students in this program?

(e.g., professional learning and development? exchange opportunities? academic/English support?)

Section 4: General comments

11. What are the advantages and disadvantages of implementing this program in your institution?

12. What have been the outcomes of this program so far? What is the university's plan with this program in the near future?

13. What are the ease and the difficulty of being a coordinator in this program?

Researcher: Thank you again for agreeing to be a part of my study. I greatly appreciate the time you have given up in order to answer my questions. If you think of anything else you would like to add or have any further questions, please feel free to email me at tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au or call me at   . Again, thank you for sharing your information and insight.

Researcher: Một lần nữa em cảm ơn anh/chị đã đồng ý tham gia phỏng vấn cho nghiên cứu của em. Như anh/chị đã biết, buổi phỏng vấn ngày hôm nay được thực hiện để em hiểu hơn về bối cảnh của việc giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh trong chương trình mà anh/chị đang điều phối. Tất cả thông tin thu được từ buổi phỏng vấn này sẽ được giữ bí mật. Buổi phỏng vấn dự kiến kéo dài khoảng 60 phút. Anh/chị có câu hỏi nào về nghiên cứu của em hay về tiến trình của buổi phỏng vấn này không ạ? (Dừng lại. Trả lời câu hỏi của họ trước khi tiếp tục.)

Questions:

Phần 1: Thông tin điều phối viên

1. Anh/chị điều phối chương trình này bao lâu rồi?
2. Ngoài công việc điều phối chương trình, anh/chị có tham gia nhiệm vụ gì ở khoa nữa ko?
3. Điều phối chương trình cụ thể là làm những việc gì?

Phần 2: Khung chương trình dạy bằng TA

4. Các chương trình bắt đầu xây dựng khi nào?
> (Bắt đầu tuyển sinh khi nào?
> Đến giờ được bao khóa SV?)

5. (CLC TT23) Tham khảo từ chương trình nào, của trường nào? Tại sao lại chọn chương trình đó, trường đó?

6. Mục tiêu chương trình là gì?
> (Khác thế nào so với chương trình chuẩn bằng TV?
> Khác thế nào với chương trình bằng TA khác?
> Nguyên tắc xây dựng chương trình là gì?)

Phần 3: Dạy và học trong chương trình TA

7. Tiêu chí chọn lựa giảng viên cho chương trình tiếng Anh?
> (Tiêu chí phân công giáo viên nào dạy môn nào?
> Có bao nhiêu giảng viên dạy bằng TA trong khoa?)

8. Tiêu chí tuyển sinh chương trình TA?
> (Tiêu chí tuyển sinh này khác chương trình chuẩn bằng TV thế nào?
> Chỉ tiêu tuyển sinh bao nhiêu mỗi năm?)

9. Điều kiện dạy học trong chương trình TA?
> (giống/khác so với chương trình chuẩn bằng TV thế nào? cơ sở vật chất, tài liệu dạy học, v.v)

10. Chính sách đãi ngộ/ ưu tiên dành cho giảng viên và sinh viên trong chương trình TA?
> (VD: tập huấn chuyên môn? cơ hội trao đổi giảng viên/sinh viên?? hỗ trợ tiếng Anh/ học thuật?)

Phần 4: Nhận xét chung

11. Thuận lợi và khó khăn khi triển khai chương trình này tại đơn vị?
12. Kết quả triển khai chương trình tính đến nay? Trường/Khoa có kế hoạch gì với chương trình này sắp tới?
13. Thuận lợi và khó khăn khi điều phối chương trình này?

Researcher: Một lần nữa em cám ơn anh/chị vì đã dành thời gian tham gia nghiên cứu của em Nếu anh/chị muốn bổ sung thông tin gì hoặc có câu hỏi gì thêm, anh/chị cứ gửi thư cho em theo địa chỉ tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au hoặc gọi em theo số _____. Em cám ơn ạ!

Appendix 3: Interview Protocol for EMI Lecturers

NOTE: *All interviews are semi-structured and the exact questions and question wordings to be asked are subject to the participant and his/her responses in the particular context of the interview. Therefore, the questions below just act as a guide for the interview.*

Researcher: Thank you again for agreeing to participate in this interview. As you know, this interview is to understand you, your contexts of teaching, and your teaching practices. It is not for any evaluation of you as a person or as a lecturer. All the information obtained during this interview will remain confidential and a pseudonym will be chosen to protect your identity. The interview should take approximately 90 minutes. Do you have any questions about the study or interview procedures? (Pause. Answer any interviewee questions before proceeding.)

Questions:

Section 1: Background info

1. How did you become a VMI lecturer/ an EMI lecturer?

>   (training to be a VMI lecturer?
>   teaching experience in Vietnamese and in English?
>   preparation for EMI teaching?
>   the subjects you are teaching, either in Vietnamese or in English, in this institution or in other institutions?

2. Are there any critical incidents in your personal or professional life that influence the way you teach now, particularly teaching in English?

Section 2: Pedagogy in VMI

3. How is a VMI course guide developed?

>   (course objectives, learning content, teaching-learning materials, assessment activities, assessment weightings, assessment criteria?

4. Could you describe a typical lesson of yours?

- Before a lesson? (what do you do, how you do it, when, for how long, regarding lesson preparation, eg. sources of materials, selection of teaching materials – criteria + how to adapt, how to prepare slides, handouts, equipment)

- During a lesson?

>   + How do you start a lesson?
>   + What are your class rules?
>   + What are the steps/procedures in a lesson?
>   + What do you do when approaching a new content (procedures, method)?
>   + How do you explain a new concept (what types of examples/scaffolds given)?
>   + What to do to motivate Ss, to facilitate their content comprehension?
>   + How to know if your students understand or don't understand the content?
>   + What to do if your students do not really understand?
>   + Do you introduce English terms in the VMI lessons? Why?
>   + What are students' difficulties with the subject you're teaching?
>   + What do you often do in each lesson/throughout the semester to help the students learn this subject more effectively?
>   + What do you often do at the end of each lesson?

Section 3: Pedagogy in EMI

5. Lecturers' conceptualisation of EMI:

- What are the roles of EMI lecturers in your opinion?
  (How similar or different are they as compared to those of VMI lecturers?)

- What are the roles/responsibilities of EMI students?

(How similar or different are they as compared to those of VMI students?)

- Does your school have any requirements about teaching in English?

6. How is the EMI course guide different from the corresponding VMI one?

(teaching materials, teaching and learning activities, assessment activities and weightings)

7. Could you describe a typical EMI lesson of yours?

- Before a lesson? (what do you do, how you do it, when, for how long, regarding lesson preparation, eg. sources of materials, selection of teaching materials – criteria + how to adapt, how to prepare slides, handouts, equipment, etc.)

 (→ Is anything different from what you do for lessons in Vietnamese?)

- During a lesson? (different from lessons in Vietnamese?)

+ Do you set rules about Ss' language use in your class?

+ What are the steps/procedures in a lesson (as compared to lessons in Vietnamese)?

+ How do you organize activities in class (as compared to lessons in Vietnamese)?

+ What do you do when approaching a new content (procedure, methods)?

+ How do you explain a new concept (what types of examples/scaffolds given)?

(What if that concept doesn't exist in the Vietnamese language or culture?)

+ What do you do if you find it difficult to explain something to students in English?

+ Do you use Vietnamese in your lesson, for what purposes, and how often? What do you think about it?

+ How to know if your students understand the content?

+ What to do if your students do not really understand?

+ What do you think about teacher-student interactions in your EMI class?

+ What are students' general difficulties with the subject you're teaching?

+ What do you often do in each lesson/throughout the semester to help the students learn this subject more effectively (eg. use Vietnamese teaching materials, refer students to good materials in Vietnamese, provide glossary, test students on technical terms, etc.)

+ What do you often do at the end of each lesson?

8. How is the assessment of your EMI course similar to or different from that of the VMI course? (regarding requirements - any language requirements?, assessment criteria, assessment methods/activities)?

9. What are the ease and challenges for you as an EMI lecturer?

10. What are the difficulties of students in learning your EMI courses? (content knowledge, language competence, skills and strategies, attitudes, etc.)

Researcher: Thank you again for agreeing to be a part of my study. I greatly appreciate the time you have given up in order to answer my questions. If you think of anything else you would like to add or have any further questions, please feel free to email me at tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au or call me at ⬛⬛⬛⬛⬛⬛. This interview has been audio-recorded. Again, thank you for sharing your information and insight.

Researcher: Một lần nữa em cảm ơn anh/chị đã đồng ý tham gia phỏng vấn cho nghiên cứu của em. Như anh/chị đã biết, buổi phỏng vấn ngày hôm nay được thực hiện để em có thể hiểu hơn về anh/chị, cũng như bối cảnh giảng dạy và thực tiễn giảng dạy của anh/chị. Chứ không hề để đánh giá anh/chị theo bất cứ khía cạnh nào. Tất cả thông tin thu được từ buổi phỏng vấn này sẽ được giữ bí mật và em sẽ dùng một bí danh để bảo vệ danh tính của anh/chị. Buổi phỏng vấn dự kiến kéo dài khoảng 90 phút. Anh/chị có câu hỏi nào về nghiên cứu của em hay về tiến trình của buổi phỏng vấn này không ạ? (Dừng lại. Trả lời câu hỏi của họ trước khi tiếp tục.)

Phần 1: Thông tin cá nhân

1. A/c có thể chia sẻ về quá trình trở thành GV dạy chuyên ngành bằng TV và bằng TA ko ạ?

+ A/c trở thành giảng viên Hóa/Luật & GV Hóa/Luật bằng TA như thế nào?

+ A/c có được đào tạo, bồi dưỡng hoặc hỗ trợ gì để dạy chuyên ngành bằng TA ko? Nếu có, anh chị thấy trải nghiệm đó ntn? Nếu ko thì a/c đã chuẩn bị ntn cho việc dạy bằng TA?

+ Kinh nghiệm giảng dạy bằng TV/ TA?

+ Dạy môn gì bằng TV/ TA, tại đơn vị mình/ đơn vị khác?

2. Có sự kiện/mốc thời gian quan trọng trong cuộc sống cá nhân cũng như công việc của a/c mà có thể đã giúp hình thành/ảnh hưởng đến cách dạy của a/c hiện nay, cả bằng TV lẫn bằng TA?

Phần 2: Phương pháp giảng dạy bằng tiếng Việt

3. Đề cương môn học bằng tiếng Việt mà anh/chị đang dạy được biên soạn thế nào?

(mục tiêu khóa học, nội dung học tập, tài liệu học tập, hoạt động kiểm tra-đánh giá, trọng số điểm thành phần, tiêu chí đánh giá SV?

4. Một buổi dạy bằng TV điển hình của a/c diễn ra như thế nào?

- Trước khi dạy? (chuẩn bị gì, như thế nào, vào lúc nào, mất bao thời gian, lựa chọn tài liệu dạy – tiêu chí + điều chỉnh tài liệu thế nào, chuẩn bị slides như thế nào, handouts, trang thiết bị, v.v)

- Trong buổi dạy?

+ rule-setting của lớp học thế nào?

+ các quy trình/bước trong 1 buổi dạy?

+ cách tiếp cận 1 nội dung mới?

+ khi 1 khái niệm mới xuất hiện trong bài, a/c thường làm gì để làm rõ nó?

(eg. lấy ví dụ ntn, giải thích qua công thức khác-liên hệ với nh gì SV đã học, làm mẫu-demonstrate how to do the task, làm đơn giản hóa bằng việc chia nhỏ thành các bước/các nhiệm vụ, etc.)

+ tương tác trong lớp học như thế nào? (GV-SV; SV-SV? mức độ tương tác, yếu tố nào ảnh hưởng đến tương tác trong 1 lớp học; dạy ol vs offline khác nhau không?)

+ làm thế nào để a/c biết SV có hiểu bài không?

(nếu SV không hiểu thì a/c làm gì, GV thường làm gì để SV dễ hiểu bài/ học môn này - trong buổi dạy/ trong học kỳ nói chung?)

+ Đâu là khó khăn đối với SV khi học môn học này bằng TV? Phản hồi của SV đối với môn học nói chung là gì?

+ cuối buổi dạy a/c thường làm gì?

Phần 3: Phương pháp giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh

5. A/c suy nghĩ thế nào về việc dạy chuyên ngành bằng TA?

+ Vai trò của GV dạy chuyên ngành bằng TA là gì? Giống or khác thế nào so với dạy bằng TV?

+ Trách nhiệm của SV học chuyên ngành bằng TA là gì? Khác thế nào so với SV học bằng TV?

+ Trường/khoa a/c có yêu cầu gì với việc giảng dạy bằng TA không?

6. Đề cương môn học anh chị dạy bằng TA giống hay khác thế nào so với đề cương môn học tương ứng dạy bằng tiếng Việt? (mục tiêu, tài liệu dạy học, nội dung học, kiểm tra đánh giá, v.v.)

7. Một buổi dạy điển hình bằng TA của a/c diễn ra như thế nào?

- Trước khi dạy? (a/c làm gì để chuẩn bị cho buổi dạy, làm như thế nào, vào lúc nào, mất bao thời gian (khác so với dạy bằng TV ko), lựa chọn tài liệu dạy – tiêu chí + điều chỉnh tài liệu tn để tài liệu vừa phù hợp về nd, mà lại phù hợp với năng lực ngôn ngữ của SV, chuẩn bị slides – ngôn ngữ sử dụng (thuần TA hay cả Anh-Việt), handouts, chuẩn bị trang thiết bị, tìm hiểu thêm về nguồn gốc/lịch sử của các khái niệm mà TV không có, v.v)

- Trong buổi dạy? (→ giống/khác gì so với dạy bằng TV?)

+ rule-setting của lớp học thế nào? có khác so với lớp tiếng Việt ko?

+ quy định với SV về ngôn ngữ sử dụng trong lớp bằng TA?

+ các quy trình/bước trong 1 buổi dạy ntn (khác gì so với dạy bằng TV)

+ cách tiến hành, tổ chức hoạt động học ntn (khác gì so với học bằng TV)

+ khi tiếp cận 1 nội dung mới, a/c thường làm thế nào để làm rõ nó?

(e.g., lấy ví dụ kiểu ntn, giải thích qua công thức khác, liên hệ với nh gì SV đã học, làm mẫu-demonstrate how to do the task, làm đơn giản hóa bằng việc chia nhỏ thành các bước/các nhiệm vụ, vẽ hình, visuals, realia, experiments, multi-modality – gestures, explicit teaching of language forms (eg. quasi-....), etc.

+ nếu ko có khái niệm tương đương trong TV thì a/c làm gì?

+ tương tác trong lớp học (GV-SV, SV-SV, cách thức tương tác, mức độ tương tác, yếu tố ảnh hưởng: online vs offline?) (→giống or khác lớp TV?)

+ sử dụng các thiết bị dạy học (khi nào dùng bảng/slides, vai trò của các công cụ hỗ trợ như Google Classroom, G meet, etc.)

+ GV thường làm gì để SV học bằng TA dễ hiểu bài?/ để tăng hứng thú học tập cho SV?

(vd: liên hệ kiến thức đg học với thực tiễn công việc sau này, liên hệ với thực tiễn nghiên cứu của GV, cung cấp cho SV tài liệu tham khảo bằng TV, refer SV đến các tài liệu hay bằng TV, cung cấp glossary, test các em cả về kiến thức lẫn từ vựng chuyên ngành, đánh giá việc đọc thêm-tự học/chuẩn bị bài của SV, v.v.)

+ nếu a/c gặp khó khăn trong việc giải thích bằng TA cho SV hiểu thì a/c làm gì?

+ A/c có suy nghĩ gì về việc dùng TV trong lớp TA?

(a/c có dùng TV trong khi dạy không, mục đích gì, thường xuyên ntn, dùng khi nào, chiếm khoảng bao nhiêu % thời lượng một buổi học)

+ làm tn để a/c biết SV có hiểu những nội dung m đang dạy không?

+ cuối buổi dạy a/c thường làm gì

8. Việc kiểm tra đánh giá môn học trong chương trình bằng TA giống hay khác thế nào với chương trình bằng TV (yêu cầu với SV, tiêu chí đánh giá, phương pháp đánh giá, đánh giá ngôn ngữ không)?

9. A/c thấy mình có thuận lợi và khó khăn gì khi dạy bằng TA?

10. Theo a/c khó khăn của SV khi học môn này bằng TA là gì? (kiến thức, kỹ năng, ngôn ngữ, thái độ, v.v.)

Researcher: Một lần nữa em cám ơn anh/chị vì đã dành thời gian tham gia nghiên cứu của em Nếu anh/chị muốn bổ sung thông tin gì hoặc có câu hỏi gì thêm, anh/chị cứ gửi thư cho em theo địa chỉ tranghong.hoang@student.uts.edu.au hoặc gọi em theo số ▮▮▮▮▮▮▮▮. Buổi phỏng vấn hôm nay đã được thu âm lại. Em cám ơn anh/chị ạ!

Appendix 4: Classroom Observation Protocol

Classroom observation scheme

Date: _____   Week/Semester: _____
Start time/duration: _____   No. of students: _____ Level: _____
Lesson topic: _____

Time/ Stage	Teacher activity/Pedagogy	Features of T-L	Comments/ Questions
	- What is being done? - Any key activities/ procedure(s)/step(s)?	- Features of the teaching-learning in this class/course, revealed via T's talk/classroom activities: + materials, resources + assignments, assessments + language use + teaching tools, equipment + T-S interaction + T's language to address Ss + content-teaching & language-teaching (form-focused, meaning-focused) + how T helps Ss understand concepts	Questions to explore further with the teacher in the interview/ social media conversations(?)

My overall impression/thoughts: