

**ENGLISH AS A MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION
IN ENGLISH-AS-A-FOREIGN-LANGUAGE PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN VIETNAM:
POLICIES AND IMPLEMENTATION**

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Abstract

The use of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) primary school classrooms is vital to enhance students' English skills. The earlier EMI is engaged in teaching, the better EFL students improve their English skills. This research aimed to explore the perceptions of English language primary school teachers towards the implementation of EMI in the South of Vietnam and to analyse both the use of EMI in EFL classrooms and the extent to which students responded in English.

With the employment of both qualitative and quantitative methods, this study consisted of two phases. Phase One included the large-scale conduct of an online survey to investigate 600 English language primary school teachers' perceptions of EMI and their implementation in three provinces in the South of Vietnam. Phase Two consisted of interviewing teacher trainers of English-for-Teaching module, English language specialists in charge of primary education and English language primary school teachers and observing teaching practice with the implementation of EMI in teachers' EFL classrooms.

Data show that English language primary school teachers possessed positive attitudes towards the implementation of EMI. They were able to implement EMI when greeting students, checking their attendance, reviewing previous lessons, communicating lesson content and so on. English language primary school students could respond in English in familiar situations such as: their study, free time activities and hobbies as well as contexts relevant to their lessons.

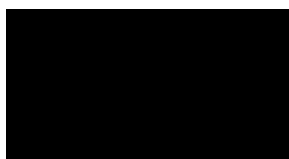
Declaration

“I, Duy Bao Truong, declare that the PhD thesis entitled *English as a Medium of Instruction in English-as-a-Foreign-Language Primary Schools in Vietnam: Policies and Implementation* is no more than 100,000 words in length including quotes and exclusive of tables, figures, appendices, bibliography, references and footnotes. This thesis contains no material that has been submitted previously, in whole or in part, for the award of any other academic degree or diploma. Except where otherwise indicated, this thesis is my own work”.

Signature

Date in full

March 01, 2021

A solid black rectangular box used to redact the signature of the author.

Duy Bao Truong

Dedication

I am dedicating this thesis to my two beloved people who have meant and never stop meaning so much to me. Although they have left this world, their memories keep regulating my life. First and foremost was my grandmother Vo Thi Hanh whose love for me knew no bounds, who taught me how love was as well as the value of dignity. She is my whole world. Thank you so much for your unconditional love. You are always in my heart.

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Table of Contents

Abstract.....	ii
Declaration.....	iii
Dedication.....	iv
Acknowledgement.....	v
Table of Contents.....	vi
List of Figures.....	xii
List of Tables.....	xiii
List of Acronyms.....	xvi
Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. History of teaching foreign languages in Vietnam.....	1
1.1.1. ELT in Vietnam before 1986.....	1
1.1.2. ELT in Vietnam from 1986 to the present.....	3
1.2. Vietnam's policies and the National Foreign Languages 2020 Project.....	4
1.2.1. Domains of an English Teacher Competency Framework.....	4
1.2.2. English as a foreign language subject in primary schools.....	8
1.2.3. Vietnamese policies concerning ELT and the implementation of EMI.....	9
1.3. Research problem.....	13
1.4. Research objectives and research questions.....	14
1.5. Significance of the research.....	14
1.6. Limitations of the study.....	16
1.7. Overview of the study.....	17
Chapter 2: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	18
2.1. Introduction.....	18
2.2. How EMI is understood and why it matters.....	18
2.2.1. Understanding of EMI.....	18
2.2.2. EMI at macro and micro levels.....	20
2.2.2.1. Macro level.....	20
2.2.2.2. Micro level.....	21
2.2.3. Why EMI matters.....	21

2.2.3.1.	Benefits of the implementation of EMI to students	22
2.2.3.2.	Benefits of the implementation of EMI for teachers.....	26
2.3.	International language policy directions visited – Other Asian lenses.....	28
2.3.1.	South Korea	28
2.3.2.	Nepal.....	29
2.3.3.	China	29
2.3.4.	Hong Kong.....	30
2.3.5.	Taiwan.....	30
2.3.6.	Japan.....	31
2.4.	Methodological considerations that have impacted EMI	31
2.4.1.	Communicative Language Teaching	32
2.4.2.	Implementation of Communicative Language Teaching in Vietnam.....	34
2.4.3.	Task-based Language Teaching and how CLT Evolved into Task-based Approaches	35
2.5.	L1 versus L2 use	36
2.6.	International methodological deliberations within other Asian contexts	39
2.6.1.	South Korea.....	39
2.6.2.	Nepal	40
2.6.3.	China	40
2.6.4.	Hong Kong.....	41
2.6.5.	Taiwan.....	41
2.6.6.	Japan	42
2.7.	Curriculum revision	43
2.7.1.	Curriculum revision in Vietnam	43
2.7.2.	Curriculum revision within Asian lenses	44
2.7.2.1.	South Korea.....	44
2.7.2.2.	Nepal	45
2.7.2.3.	China	46
2.7.2.4.	Taiwan.....	47
2.7.2.5.	Japan	47
2.8.	General challenges for school teachers in the implementation of EMI.....	48
2.8.1.	Students’ limited English language proficiency	48
2.8.2.	Teachers’ limited English language proficiency	49
2.8.3.	Teachers’ lack of professional knowledge	50

2.8.4. Insufficient resources available	52
2.8.5. Big class size	52
2.8.6. Learners' commitment.....	53
2.8.7. Lack of teacher professional development training	54
2.9. English language teacher professional development training in Vietnam.....	55
2.9.1. English language proficiency training for teachers.....	56
2.9.2. Skill training for English language teachers	57
2.10. Perceptions of teachers towards the implementation of EMI	60
2.11. Implications for the implementation of EMI	62
2.11.1 EMI policies	63
2.11.2. Teacher professional development training.....	63
2.11.3. Teacher preparedness	65
2.12. Second Language Acquisition and Teaching of English to Children.....	66
2.13. Chapter summary	70
Chapter 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	72
3.1. Theoretical framework	72
3.2. Applying the theoretical framework to the study.....	79
3.3. Research paradigm.....	82
Research methods used by pragmatists	83
3.4. Case study.....	84
3.5. Mixed methods research.....	87
3.6. Data collection methods.....	88
3.6.1. Document review.....	88
3.6.2. Online survey	89
3.6.3. Semi-structured interviews.....	92
3.6.4. Classroom observations.....	93
3.7. Selecting research sites for the study.....	93
3.7.1. Province A	94
3.7.2. Province B	95
3.7.3. Province C	95
3.7.4. Rationale for these settings.....	95
3.8. Data collection procedure	96
3.8.1. Phase One	96

3.8.2. Phase Two	97
3.8.2.1. Interviewing SEAMEO RETRAC trainers	100
3.8.2.2. Case studies.....	101
a. Case study 1	103
b. Case study 2	103
c. Case study 3	104
3.9. Data analysis.....	104
3.10. Ethical issues	105
3.11. Chapter summary	106
Chapter 4: FINDINGS FROM THE ONLINE SURVEY	107
4.1. Demographics and general information	107
4.2. Teachers' perceptions of implementation of EMI in classrooms in Vietnam	116
4.2.1. Teachers' perceptions of benefits of implementation of EMI to students.....	116
4.2.2. Teachers' self-perceptions of the benefits of the implementation of EMI	123
4.3. The extent to which EFL primary school teachers implement EMI in their classrooms	127
4.4. The extent to which primary school students respond in English	133
4.5. Implications for teachers implementing EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam	137
4.5.1. Reasons why English language teachers implemented EMI	138
4.5.2. Implications for teachers implementing EMI in EFL classrooms	144
4.5.2.1. Enhancement of teacher professional development training on the use of EMI.....	144
a. Training on English teaching methodologies.....	146
b. Skills training	147
c. Sharing sessions on the implementation of EMI	147
4.5.2.2. Facility investment	148
4.5.2.3. Smaller class size	149
4.5.2.4. Fewer teaching periods.....	150
4.5.2.5. Less heavy curriculum	150
4.5.2.6. Use of simple English	151
4.5.2.7. Other implications.....	152
4.6. Chapter summary.....	152
Chapter 5: QUALITATIVE FINDINGS FROM FACE-TO-FACE SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS	156
5.1. Qualitative data from SEAMEO RETRAC trainers.....	156
5.1.1. Trainers' perceptions of NFL2020 Project	157

5.1.2. Trainers' perceptions of teachers' implementation of EMI in their EFL classrooms	159
5.1.3. Trainers' perceptions of English-for-Teaching (EfT) module	161
5.1.3.1. EfT module's content	162
5.1.3.2. Trainers' perceptions of EfT module	162
5.1.3.3. Trainees' excitement about EfT module	163
5.1.3.4. Duration of training for EfT module	164
5.1.4. Classroom situations in which English language teachers implement EMI	165
5.1.5. Classroom situations in which primary school students respond in English	166
5.1.6. Factors which limit English language primary school teachers' implementation of EMI	167
5.1.6.1. Teachers' limited English language proficiency	167
5.1.6.2. Teachers' long-lasting habit	167
5.1.6.3. Influence of related parties	168
5.1.6.4. Other factors	169
5.1.7. Recommendations to improve the implementation of EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam	169
5.2. Qualitative data from two English specialists in charge of primary education	172
5.2.1. Specialists' perceptions of NFL2020 Project	172
5.2.2. Specialists' perceptions of teachers' implementation of EMI in EFL classrooms	173
5.2.3. Curriculum used in primary schools	174
5.2.4. Teachers' reactions to the implementation of EMI	174
5.2.5. Classroom situations in which teachers implement EMI	175
5.2.6. Classroom situations in which students respond in English	175
5.2.7. DOETs' plans to encourage teachers' implementation of EMI	176
5.2.8. Factors which limit teachers' implementation of EMI	176
5.3. Qualitative data from English language primary school teachers in three provinces	177
5.3.1. Teachers' perceptions of Vietnam's NFL2020 Project	178
5.3.2. Teachers' perceptions of the implementation of EMI	180
5.3.3. Support teachers receive from DOETs and Units of Education	181
5.3.4. Classroom situations in which English language teachers implement EMI	183
5.3.5. English language teachers' self-evaluation of their implementation of EMI	184
5.3.6. Classroom situations in which students respond in English	185
5.3.7. Strategies English language primary school teachers implement to encourage students' employment of English in the classroom	186
5.3.8. Barriers which limit English language primary school teachers' implementation of EMI	188

5.3.9. English language primary school teachers' recommendations to Units of Education and DOETs about the implementation of EMI.....	190
5.4. Chapter summary.....	192
Chapter 6: QUALITATIVE FINDINGS FROM CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS.....	196
6.1. Qualitative findings from Province A	196
6.2. Qualitative findings from Province B	199
6.3. Qualitative findings from Province C	202
6.4. Chapter summary.....	205
Chapter 7: DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	208
7.1. Chapter overview	208
7.2. Perceptions of Vietnam's National Foreign Languages 2020 Project.....	209
7.2.1. Advantages and disadvantages of Vietnam's NFL2020 Project.....	209
7.2.2. Matters to be considered	211
7.3. Benefits of EMI in English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) primary school classrooms	212
7.4. Current policies about the implementation of EMI in EFL primary school classrooms.....	213
7.5. Classroom situations in which EMI is under implementation	214
7.6. The lens of Theory of Planned Behaviour and Second Language Acquisition	215
7.7. Recommendations	217
7.8. Chapter summary.....	228
Chapter 8: CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH.....	231
8.1. Overview of the chapter	232
8.2. Summary of the findings.....	232
8.3. Implications for further research	238
8.4. Concluding Remarks.....	240
REFERENCES	241
Appendices.....	272

List of Figures

	Page
Figure 3.1: Theory of Planned Behaviour	77
Figure 3.2: Application of Theory of Planned Behaviour to the study	81
Figure 3.3: Map of provinces in the Mekong Delta in Vietnam	94

List of Tables

		Page
Table 1.1:	CEFR for languages – Global scale	5
Table 1.2:	Stipulation of English proficiency levels for Vietnamese graduates and teachers of English	7
Table 2.1:	Summary of classroom activities	58
Table 3.1:	Research questions, instruments and participants	98
Table 4.1:	Number of English language primary school teachers	107
Table 4.2:	Number of male and female teachers	108
Table 4.3:	Highest qualifications teachers obtained	108
Table 4.4:	Teacher levels based on English language proficiency framework	109
Table 4.5:	English language teaching – years of experience	110
Table 4.6:	English language teaching experience in primary schools	110
Table 4.7:	Class size of teachers in three provinces	111
Table 4.8:	Class size of teachers per province	111
Table 4.9:	Ideal class size	112
Table 4.10:	Frequency of teacher professional development training programs	113
Table 4.11:	Teachers’ opinions about whether teacher professional development training programs conducted met their demands	113
Table 4.12:	Teachers’ opinions about service providers of in-service professional development training programs	115

Table 4.13:	Number of teachers taking part in training in the English-for-Teaching module	116
Table 4.14a:	Benefits of teachers' implementation of EMI for EFL primary school students	118
Table 4.14b:	Benefits of teachers' implementation of EMI for EFL primary school students	120
Table 4.14c:	Benefits of teachers' implementation of EMI for EFL primary school students	121
Table 4.14d:	Benefits of teachers' implementation of EMI for EFL primary school students	122
Table 4.15a:	Benefits for teachers' implementation of EMI	124
Table 4.15b:	Benefits for teachers' implementation of EMI	126
Table 4.16:	Classroom situations in which EFL primary school teachers implement EMI	128
Table 4.16a:	Classroom situations in which EFL primary school teachers implement EMI	129
Table 4.16b:	Classroom situations in which EFL primary school teachers implement EMI	130
Table 4.16c:	Classroom situations in which EFL primary school teachers implement EMI	131
Table 4.16d:	Classroom situations in which EFL primary school teachers implement EMI	132
Table 4.16e:	Classroom situations in which EFL primary school teachers implement EMI	133
Table 4.17:	EFL classroom situations in which primary school students respond in English	134
Table 4.17a:	EFL classroom situations in which primary school students respond in English	135
Table 4.17b:	EFL classroom situations in which primary school students respond in English	136

Table 4.17c:	EFL classroom situations in which primary school students respond in English	137
Table 4.18:	Reasons why English language primary school teachers implemented EMI in their EFL classrooms	139
Table 4.18a:	Reasons why English language primary school teachers implemented EMI in their EFL classrooms	141
Table 4.18b:	Reasons why English language primary school teachers implemented EMI in their EFL classrooms	142
Table 4.18c:	Reasons why English language primary school teachers implemented EMI in their EFL classrooms	143
Table 5.1:	Information about SEAMEO RETRAC trainers	157
Table 5.2:	Provincial English teaching experience, grades assigned and average class size	178

List of Acronyms

CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CMI	Chinese as a Medium of Instruction
DOET	Department of Education and Training
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EfT	English for Teaching
ELT	English Language Teaching
EMI	English as a Medium of Instruction
ETCF	English Teacher Competency Framework
GTM	Grammar Translation Method
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
L1	First language/ mother tongue
L2	Second language/ English
MEXT	Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology
MOE	Ministry of Education
MOET	Ministry of Education and Training
MOI	Medium of Instruction
NFL2020	National Foreign Languages 2020
NNES	Non-native English Speaking
SEAMEO RETRAC	Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organisation Regional Training Centre

SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TBLT	Task-based Language Teaching
TETE	Teaching English through English
ToT	Training of Trainers
TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour
TRA	Theory of Reasoned Action
VSTEP	Vietnamese Standardised Test of English Proficiency

Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION

English is currently regarded as a global, international language used in multiple fields of education, business, trade and culture because it facilitates access to knowledge as well as worldwide information (Chu 2014; Coleman 2011; Crystal 2012; Do 1997; Hoang 2009; Nguyen & Nguyen 2007; Nunan 2003; Phillipson 2001; Suleman, Sheikh, Ali, Ali & Rahim 2019). Because of its popularity and the manner in which the language empowers people of all ages, English has become a compulsory subject in most non-native English speaking (NNES) countries and their schools (Dearden 2015). There is a tendency that students begin learning English at a younger age (Choi, Kang, Cho & Sheo 2019; Gatcho & Hajan 2019; Kirkpatrick 2011) and Vietnam is no exception (Nguyen 2011). Dang, Nguyen and Le (2013) indicate that since English has become more universally engaged, the demand for English language proficiency is increasingly developing and there are more schools in which English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) is under implementation to meet the diverse needs of language learners in Vietnam.

The implementation of EMI in Vietnam is, in fact, not new if the history of English language teaching (ELT) is under review. In this chapter, I will start by looking at the history of ELT in Vietnam, Vietnam's policies and the National Foreign Languages 2020 (NFL2020) Project. From this overview, the research problem as well as research questions will be outlined.

1.1. History of teaching foreign languages in Vietnam

According to Do (2006) and Hoang (2009), English as a Foreign Language (EFL), alongside other languages like Chinese, French and Russian has existed for more than a century as the history of 'Vietnam has had direct involvement with such powers as China, France, the Soviet Union and the United States' (Le 2011, p. 32). Teaching those languages has undoubtedly met with many challenges because it has undergone a number of critical periods. With regards to ELT, according to Hoang (2009), two main periods: (1) before 1986 and (2) after 1986, ought to be included.

1.1.1. ELT in Vietnam before 1986

It is unknown when the English language was officially introduced to Vietnam (Do 1997; Hoang 2009); however, it is common knowledge that Vietnamese people have been learning English since at least 1884. This was the year in which France invaded Vietnam. As noted by Le (2011), due to political motivation from this time, French was the dominant second foreign language in Vietnam.

Thus, English was not learned as frequently as French. The languages delivered at schools as well as documents written were officially in French and Vietnamese exclusively. At this time, even though English was taught as a foreign language, French was the official language used in schools across the country. Do (2006) emphasises that all official examinations in Vietnam were thus administered in French, not Vietnamese. This practice caused strong negative reactions from Vietnamese people towards the French language together with the inherent promotion of French culture. It was not until 1945, when Vietnam declared its independence, that Vietnamese was named the official national language. The period from 1945 to 1954 witnessed the resurgence of French in Vietnam. The Vietnamese language had to share its power with the French language because French was used as a medium of instruction (MOI) in education in areas colonised by French authorities while Vietnamese was utilised in remote areas of the country, controlled by the Vietnamese government. From 1954, French was no longer the official *lingua franca* in Vietnam. From 1954 to 1975, Vietnam was divided into two parts. The South was allied with the United States of America whereas the North was aligned with the former Soviet Union (Do 2006; Le 2011). Consequently, English became the dominant foreign language in the South while English was less dominant in the North. In fact, in the North, English was ranked after Russian, Chinese and French.

In 1975, the whole country was reunified and the period from 1975 to 1986 witnessed the dominance of Russian as the foreign language of choice for teaching and learning in Vietnam. According to Wright (2002), at this time, Russian was the most common language employed in secondary schools in Vietnam. Plenty of so-called ‘friendship schools’ were established to offer Vietnamese students opportunities for international contact as well as to encourage accelerated learning of Russian. A great number of Vietnamese students were sent to the Soviet Union to pursue their higher education. During this period, three foreign languages: English, French and Chinese (which had been learned by the majority of Vietnamese students) almost completely vanished from academic courses provided by educational sectors, although ‘they were not banned’ (Wright 2002, p. 237). Whilst there was no record of any push to ban these foreign languages, political reasons and the widespread use of Russian in Vietnam helped explain their gradual disappearance.

1.1.2. ELT in Vietnam from 1986 to the present

The year 1986 marked a crucial time in the history of ELT in Vietnam as the Vietnamese government began to reform the economy of the whole country, applied the open-door policy called '*doi moi*' (Hoang 2009) and forged partnerships with foreign countries (Dang et al. 2013). Wright (2002) stresses that 'this change was to entail economic liberalisation only, accepted as a necessity after a disastrous period of incompetent government and economic isolation that had brought the country close to famine' (p. 238). Within a ten-year period (1986–1996), Vietnam paved the way for collaboration regarding business relations with hundreds of countries and attracted investors from more than fifty countries as recorded (Do 2006). In reality, '*doi moi*' mainly contributed to and centred on promoting English learning as most of the potential countries that Vietnam targeted were English-speaking countries in which English was implemented as the medium of communication. Starting with the application of the open-door policy, English had regained its popularity and became the primary foreign language in Vietnam (Mai & Iwashita 2012; Nguyen 2004). A significant number of people have been recorded as commencing English learning as compared to other foreign languages (Do 2006).

In 1991, English began to be taught as a foreign language subject in secondary schools throughout Vietnam, and how extensively it was taught depended on the availability of teachers and resources. As popular as English was at that time, there were not enough teachers of English to cater to the increasing demands of English learners. Do (2006) points out that besides school students, adults also studied English so that they could work for foreign companies. The demands of English were real; consequently, an increasing number of English language centres mushroomed to meet societal demands at that time. Some of these centres also managed to recruit native English-speaking teachers who helped improve learners' accent and pronunciation. Simultaneously, many schools and institutions also opened English language centres vis-à-vis their networks. In the early 1990s, Do (2006) reports that the number of English learners increased, thus 'English has developed with an unprecedented speed in Vietnam' (p. 8). English has, step by step, become one of the compulsory foreign language subjects that students have to pass if they want to obtain a high school completion diploma (Do 2006).

At tertiary level, English is one of the mandatory foreign language subjects that undergraduate and graduate students must study. In some institutions, English is also considered a prerequisite if students want to graduate and obtain their degrees. Even senior university lecturers are required to

possess certain levels of foreign language proficiency if they want to be granted professorships. The foreign language here is implicitly understood as English. Ho Chi Minh City has the most significant number of learners as compared to other big cities in Vietnam because of the appearance of numerous English language centres (Do 2006). EMI has been implemented in some centres and schools since that time to meet the demand of English language learning.

1.2. Vietnam's policies and the National Foreign Languages 2020 Project

Since '*doi moi*', many plans have been mapped out to improve the teaching and learning of English at all levels of education, but the quality of English language education is still low (Nguyen 2016). Specifically, the demand for English language learning is high and accordingly there are more teacher training institutions; however, the lack of teaching faculty who are qualified and competent remains. This issue is apparent not only in remote areas but also in cosmopolitan cities in Vietnam. As English is the favourite foreign language subject of the majority of Vietnamese people for a multitude of purposes, there have been many projects initiated to support the learning and teaching of English in Vietnam. International organisations have sponsored several projects while others have received direct funding from the Vietnamese government. Until now, the biggest and best-known project to promote the teaching and learning of English in Vietnam is called Vietnam's National Foreign Languages 2020 (NFL2020) Project. NFL2020 was initiated in 2008 by the Vietnamese government and the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) with the purpose of international integration and globalisation (Le, Nguyen & Burns 2017; Nguyen 2011; Nguyen & Nguyen 2007). According to the Decree 1400 (2008), by 2020, it is hoped that Vietnamese graduates from high schools, colleges and/or universities will be able to communicate and engage with English confidently, work in a multicultural environment and make English a competitive advantage for Vietnamese people. Such communicative and cultural competence is an aspiration for all Vietnamese citizens.

1.2.1. Domains of an English Teacher Competency Framework

Le et al. (2017) and Nguyen (2018) affirm that this was an ambitious project which helped change English teaching of the whole nation. They reveal that, to realise the ambitious goals of the NFL2020 Project, Vietnam's MOET introduced an English Teacher Competency Framework (ETCF) with a Vietnamese Standardised Test of English Proficiency (VSTEP) based on alignments with the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). Vietnam's Minister of

Education issued an English competency framework specific to Vietnam in 2014, according to Circular 01/2014/TT-BGDĐT (Circular 2014) (see Table 1.1).

Table 1.1: CEFR for Languages – Global Scale

PROFICIENT USER	C2	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.
	C1	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing the controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
INDEPENDENT USER	B2	Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
	B1	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes & ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
BASIC USER	A2	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
	A1	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.

(Source: Council of Europe 2018)

Similar to CEFR, ETCF consists of six levels from 1 to 6. A1 in CEFR is equivalent to Level 1 in Vietnam and C1 to Level 5 accordingly (Le 2013). Le et al. (2017) concur that ETCF provides teachers of English with much needed information to perform more effectively in the classrooms. This framework is considered an evaluating tool which helps the NFL2020 Project Managing Committee, leaders from Departments from Education and Training (DOETs), Units of Education, trainers and teachers to better identify training areas in which English language teachers need development. Le et al. (2017) and Nguyen (2015) articulate that ETCF includes five domains as follows:

The first domain centres on ‘knowledge of language, language learning, content and curriculum’ (Nguyen 2015, p. 63). This means that teachers of English who are deemed ‘certified’ must reach a required English proficiency level measured by CEFR or VSTEP. New stipulations regarding both students’ and teachers’ English language proficiency have been issued. In particular, students who finish primary schools must reach Level 1 while lower and upper secondary school graduates must attain English proficiency equivalent to Level 2 and 3 respectively. Likewise, Level 4 is for college/university graduates. Similarly, according to the official dispatch 792/BGDĐT-NGCBQLGD (2014) issued by MOET, concerning the language requirements for teachers of English, primary and lower secondary school teachers are required to attain Level 4. Level 5 must be within reach of upper secondary school teachers (see Table 1.2). Besides stipulations of teachers’ English proficiency levels, teachers of English are required to possess knowledge of language regarding the culture of English-speaking countries, content of lessons, language curriculum and more importantly, how they can apply knowledge to their teaching performance. Table 1.2 illustrates in detail different levels of English proficiency stipulated for Vietnamese school graduates and teachers of English benchmarked with CEFR.

Table 1.2: Stipulation of English proficiency levels for Vietnamese graduates and teachers of English

Students and teachers		Level	CEFR
Primary school graduates	Elementary	1	A1
Lower secondary school graduates		2	A2
Upper secondary school graduates	Intermediate	3	B1
College and university graduates	Primary and lower secondary school teachers	4	B2
	Upper secondary school teachers	5	C1
		6	C2

The second domain centres on teachers' 'knowledge of teaching' (Nguyen 2015, p. 63). This relates to how effectively teachers communicate lesson content, prepare lesson plans, evaluate students' performance and give them feedback. This domain is mainly concerned with and addresses teaching methodology. Teaching methodology is understood in the broadest sense here. It encompasses innovative methods and using Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in ELT is one method. Teachers of English are required to know how to search for available resources as well as manipulate and apply them in their EFL classrooms so that students benefit. Furthermore, the national English curriculum, well aligned with CEFR, has been re-designed and updated to meet the requirements for each level. This domain also requires teachers to digitalise English textbooks to enhance their teaching performance (Nguyen 2015).

The third domain centres on 'knowledge of language learners' (Nguyen 2015, p. 63). Teachers are supposed to grasp learners' cognitive abilities and find the most beneficial ways to create their extrinsic plus intrinsic motivations. Learners' values, background knowledge and learning experience are also taken into account in this domain. 'Learners' creativity, autonomy and critical

thinking skills' are thus enhanced (Nguyen 2015, p. 63). English language learners have to be more dynamic by manipulating their enhanced skills. These skills all play a proactive role in the English language learning process.

The fourth domain centres on teachers' 'professional attitudes and values' (Nguyen 2015, p. 63). They are required to perform their teaching professionally. They also need to demonstrate their professionalism when partnering with colleagues in meetings to promote collaboration as well as teamwork skills. This domain also serves as a platform to bridge teachers' knowledge gaps, offering them significant opportunities to attend teacher professional development training activities and importantly, to promote the culture of lifelong learning in teaching communities.

Last but not least, ETCF centres on 'practice and context of language teaching' (Nguyen 2015, p. 63). This domain requires teachers to reflect on their language teaching and learning. In other words, teachers can do action research or write in their diaries about their teaching in classrooms, and enhance the quality of teaching based on experiences from lessons learned daily.

1.2.2. English as a foreign language subject in primary schools

Vietnam's education system in general consists of three levels: primary (Grades 1 to 5 for students aged 6 to 11 years), lower-secondary (Grades 6 to 9 for students aged 11 to 15 years) and upper-secondary (Grades 10 to 12 for students aged 15 to 18 years) (Nguyen 2016). MOET's responsibility is to issue national curricula for teaching content and language subjects from primary to upper-secondary levels. According to Nguyen and Nguyen (2007), in the 1990s, English was a pilot program in English language schools and also in some primary schools in cosmopolitan cities like Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh. Nunan (2003) reports that children in several private language schools start to learn English when they reach the age of five or six. In 1996, to meet societal demands, English language was first taught as an optional subject in Grade 3 with two forty-minute periods per week in some provinces of Vietnam where there were sufficient resources and teaching capacity (Nguyen 2011; Nguyen & Nguyen 2007). The policy in 1996 gained support from not only primary schools but also parents. Since this time, ELT in primary schools has been expanded throughout the nation, starting in cosmopolitan cities then to several smaller towns and even less advantaged areas, provided that those areas have sufficient English teaching staff as well as resources.

Thanks to the significant increase in societal demand for English learning in primary schools, the starting age has been lowered. For example, English has been taught nationwide as an elective subject not only from Grade 3 but also from Grade 1 in some primary schools since 2002 (Hoang 2009). Since 2006, Grade 3 primary school students have engaged in English language learning as a compulsory subject with four forty-minute periods per week (Nguyen & Nguyen 2007). According to MOET (2003), cited in Nguyen and Nguyen (2007), English teaching in primary schools focuses on four skill strands (listening, speaking, reading and writing) so that students can communicate effectively in English within and beyond schools and in familiar social contexts. Besides, English teaching is to embed primary school students with basic knowledge of English to obtain better comprehension of people and cultures in English-speaking countries. Additionally, the learning of English is to help build students' positive perceptions of English.

Though English had been taught for some time in primary schools, the school year 2003–2004 witnessed MOET's introduction of new English curriculum with the focus on speaking and listening skills (Nguyen 2011). Even though students are beginning to learn English as a foreign language subject at school from a younger age, it does not mean that the quality of teaching and learning of English has improved (To 2010). In fact, the English language proficiency level of Vietnamese people is generally not as expected (Tran & Phuong 2019). As cited in Nguyen (2011), Nhan (2013) indicates that the majority of Vietnamese high school graduates who have studied English for seven years used it unsuccessfully for necessary communication. This shows the ineffectiveness of teaching and learning of English in K-12 education in Vietnam. Actions which help remediate such ineffectiveness need to be taken to improve the quality of English language teaching and learning. This explains the need for the initiation of the NFL2020 Project. Besides intensive English programs for students from an early age, NFL2020 also concentrates on the enhancement of English language teacher proficiency from primary to higher education, to ensure teachers are proficient enough to teach their students as well as to meet the language requirements of the NFL2020 Project.

1.2.3. Vietnamese policies concerning ELT and the implementation of EMI

The enactment of Vietnam's NFL2020 Project in 2008 has dramatically influenced language education in Vietnam, especially English (Dang et al. 2013; Le et al. 2017). The stipulated starting age for learning English, the curriculum and teaching methodology have all changed as well. Students begin learning English as a subject at schools from Grade 3 instead of Grade 6 as was the

case before 2012. Further, it is evident that NFL2020 has been the most ambitious project in the history of ELT in Vietnam up to and including the present day, because of its expected goals as follows:

- ‘a) Expediting ten years of English language education, starting from Grade 3 foreign language is a mandatory subject in all levels of basic education. From 2010 to 2011, new foreign language curricula will be applied for around 20% of third graders, and they will be extended to 70% third graders in the 2015-2016 school year; in 2018-2019 school year all the third graders will be able to study new curricula;
- b) Expediting foreign language enhancement training programs for vocational education for around 10% of students at vocational training schools in the 2010-2011 school year, 60% in the 2015-2016 school year and 100% in 2019-2020 school year;
- c) Expediting foreign language enhancement training programs for tertiary education (for foreign language specialised and non-specialised training institutions) for around 10% of college and university students in a 2010-2011 school year; 60% in the 2015-2016 school year and 100% in 2019-2020;
- d) Innovating the teaching and learning of foreign language in regular education training programs with content appropriate to levels of education and qualifications; actively contributing to the training and enhancement of foreign language proficiency for human resources, officers and civil servants; diversifying modalities of learning to cater for demands of learners;

Striving to have 5% of officers and civil servants in government’s sectors to reach at least Level 3 of foreign language proficiency requirement in 2015 and 30% in 2020.’

(Decree 1400 2008, pp. 1-2)

The NFL2020 Project, as asserted by Le and Nguyen (2017), is a memorable milestone in the history of ELT in Vietnam; however, during the process of performance, the activities of the Project were sketched out in haste based on subjective ideas of those members in-charge, leading to the building of unrealistic goals. The Minister of Education of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam confirmed the failure of the Project at the National Assembly in 2016 because its goals were not

achieved. That is the reason why on December 22, 2017, the Prime Minister of Vietnam amended the Project, extended the timeline of its performance and promulgated its general goal, as follows:

‘Innovating the teaching and learning of foreign language in the national education, keeping with the performance of new training programs in foreign language teaching and learning, enhancing the use of foreign language competence to meet the learning and working demands; strengthening competitive capabilities of all human resources in the integration stage, contributing to the building and development of the country; functioning as a basis to universalise foreign language in basic education by the year 2025.’

(Decree 2080 2017, p. 2)

Within the general goal of the NFL2020 Project, the Prime Minister also enumerated specific goals for each level of education, as follows:

‘a) For nursery education:

By the year 2020, issuing programs and course ware which help children familiarise themselves with a foreign language will be completed.

b) For basic education:

By the year 2020, issuing programs in which foreign language is an optional subject in Grade 1 and 2 will be completed.

By the year 2025, striving to have 100% students from Grade 3 to 6 to participate in 10-year programs of foreign language learning (starting from Grade 3 to 12).

c) For vocational education:

By the year 2025, 50% of vocational training institutions execute foreign language training programs as required for graduates and professions trained.

d) For tertiary education:

By the year 2025, 100% of foreign language specialised departments strive to execute foreign language training programs as required for graduates and professions trained; 80% of other departments execute foreign language programs as required for graduates and professions trained; executing some teacher training programs in foreign language.

e) For foreign language teacher training institutions:

By the year 2025, striving to have 100% graduates who reach requirements stipulated for teachers and demands of foreign language teacher competency framework suitable to the levels of education and qualifications.

f) For regular education:

By the year 2025, regular education schools strive to complete their building of foreign language teaching and learning programs in regular education to meet the diverse demands of the society.

By the year 2025, the building of foreign language enhancement training programs for officers and civil servants (excluding foreign language teachers and lecturers) must be completed; self-sponsored training programs are prioritised; training sessions on the enhancement of foreign language for officers and civil servants (excluding foreign language teachers and lecturers) will be conducted.'

(Decree 2080 2017, pp. 2-3)

The timeline for Vietnam's NFL2020 Project has been extended to 2025 and Decree 2080 in 2017 has designated more achievable goals as compared to Decree 1400 in 2008. However, its fundamental goal, which is to make English a competitive advantage for Vietnamese citizens, remains unchanged. To realise this primary goal, English language teachers are strongly encouraged to implement EMI at all levels of education to interact with their students in classrooms as well as to have students accustomed to communicating in English. EMI is defined in this current study as the use of English to teach English in EFL settings. The content taught in the classrooms is English language. Besides the implementation of EMI in EFL classrooms as aforementioned, according to Decree 2080 (2017), EMI will be executed to teach some subjects like Mathematics and Science in the long run. The ultimate goal is to create maximum exposure to English speaking for students at all levels. One of the most challenging stipulations for teachers is their English proficiency level. More specifically, English language teachers in several regions are likely to be dismissed from employment if they fail to meet the English proficiency level as required (Nguyen & Thanh 2015). Given this circumstance, these teachers feel pressured to reach the required level of proficiency (Le et al. 2017) because their English language proficiency decides their

employment (Nguyen & Thanh 2015). The NFL2020 Project aspires to advance the quality of English language teacher professional development training (Dang et al. 2013) in the belief that teacher training can help them become more competent teachers of English. Le (2012) concedes that with impaired English language skills and inadequate professional knowledge, Vietnamese teachers cannot implement EMI to teach. According to Kirkpatrick (2011) and Nguyen (2011), the number of qualified English language teachers is limited not only in Vietnam, but also in other countries in the Asian region. This being the case, the majority of teachers lack personal assuredness in the implementation of EMI when compelled to adopt it in their classrooms. Moreover, the Vietnamese language policy in connection with the implementation of EMI is top-down, but its translation is contingent on local contexts. It is implicit that even though the implementation of EMI is encouraged from Vietnam's NFL2020 Project Managing Committee, the range of its execution is resultant from multitudinous factors, including local language policies, resources, teachers' willingness to implement EMI, and language proficiency of teachers and students (these factors will be discussed in detail in Chapter 2). Le (2012) reveals that even though the idea of the implementation of EMI is regarded as an informed decision from government, there is a clear-cut distinction between the idea and its genuine implementation. Key factors are different regions like rural and urban areas or mountainous and plain areas in Vietnam. The answer to the degree of EMI employment needed is still debatable, requiring more research on this matter, which is a basis of the current inquiry.

1.3. Research problem

With the shift in the economy, Vietnam has become a target destination for many foreign investors as mentioned above (Le et al. 2017). Together with its participation in many trade organisations as a full member, Vietnam has paved the way for collaboration and has been actively involved in globalisation and internationalisation. In order to keep pace with the development of other foreign countries in the process of globalisation and internationalisation, Vietnam's NFL2020 Project was enacted with more focus on English language proficiency of teachers of English.

Under NFL2020, since 2008, many English language teachers across the country have participated in teacher professional development training workshops and seminars on the use of EMI. As stipulated from Vietnam's MOET, EMI is now being encouraged in EFL classrooms from basic to higher education in Vietnam; however, very little research in Vietnam has been conducted to

explore the implementation of EMI and this is especially in the use of EFL in primary schools. Therefore, this study aims to investigate the perceptions and attitudes of English language primary school teachers towards the adoption of EMI in Vietnam, and to analyse the use of EMI in EFL classrooms as well as the extent to which students respond in English. Developing an evidentiary basis for understanding the current uptake of applying English for instruction in primary schools will help Vietnam's MOET, NFL2020 Project Managing Board and provincial leaders of DOETs to develop customised teacher training which is more beneficial to the primary teachers of English, contributing to the establishment of professional learning communities in Vietnam.

1.4. Research objectives and research questions

This study sets out to accomplish three main objectives. Particularly, it aims to explore how English language primary school teachers perceive the implementation of EMI in their classrooms in Vietnam; to investigate the extent to which they use EMI; and to identify the extent to which primary school students respond in English. From these three answers recorded, I offer certain implications for teachers using EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam.

This study thus aims to address three main research questions together with two sub-questions as follows:

Research question 1: What are the perceptions of English language primary school teachers towards the use of EMI in EFL classrooms in Vietnam?

Research question 2: How is EMI implemented in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam?

Sub-questions:

- a. To what extent do teachers implement EMI in their classrooms?
- b. To what extent do students respond in English?

Research question 3: What are the implications for teachers using EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam?

1.5. Significance of the research

Even though English has been taught in Vietnam for some time and Vietnamese students have studied English from a young age, realistically they are unable to communicate well in English (Nguyen 2011). There are many factors which affect Vietnamese students' inability to use English

for their communication. One of the most agreed factors is teachers' frequent use of Vietnamese as a target language in EFL classrooms.

The earlier EMI is employed with learners, the better these EFL students improve their English skills (Muñoz 2006). According to Matsuoka and Smith (2008), age has certain effects on second language learning. For these two researchers, age plays a significant role in studying second languages and in acquiring the first language. If children have access to second language learning at a young age, it is easier for them to acquire native-like language proficiency. When children's age is beyond puberty, they may not succeed in acquiring a native-like proficiency in the second language. Young children find it less challenging to imitate sounds that they hear than adults. Their process of learning a second language happens as naturally as they participate in entertainment activities. In general, it is agreed that 'the earlier children are exposed to a second language the better' they take up that language (Jahromi & Mobaraki 2019, p. 127).

As indicated by Brown (2014, p. 53), when acquiring a second language, children of varying ages 'exhibit a whole array of cognitive, affective, and physical developmental changes'. The neurological considerations concerning hemispheric lateralisation, biological timetables and anthropological evidence might impact on second language success (Brown 2014). The right and left hemispheres of the brain have their specific functions when the human brain develops. Functions related to intellectual, logics and analysis are mostly situated in the left hemisphere whereas emotional and social functions are controlled by the right hemisphere. The left hemisphere usually controls language functions; however, evidence shows that patients with left hemisphere injuries are able to understand and produce some language, according to Zangwill (1971), as cited in Brown (2014). Many researchers had different evidence of the respective specific ages (2, around 5 and before 5) at which lateralisation takes places (Lenneberg 1967, Krashen 1973 & Scovel 1984) as cited in Brown (2014). Lateralisation influences language acquisition. Obler (1981, p. 58), as cited in Brown (2014), finds that '[significant right hemisphere] participation is particularly active during early stages of learning the second language.' Right hemisphere is involved in speculating meanings, employing formulaic utterances (Obler 1981 as cited in Brown 2014) and processing pragmatic functions of language manipulation (Urgesi & Fabbro 2009 as cited in Brown 2014). Biological timetables and anthropological evidence are related to the acquisition of an authentic accent. According to Ortega (2009) as cited in Brown (2014), some

adults are known to have the ability to acquire an authentic accent when they study a second language after their puberty, but these cases are rare.

Using EMI in EFL classrooms helps learners develop their English skills (Dang et al. 2013; Dewi 2017; Kim, Kweon & Kim 2016; Nguyen et al. 2015; Phuong & Nguyen 2019; Rose, Curle, Aizawa & Thompson 2019). When EMI is regularly used, students have more exposure to English. They are forced to familiarise themselves with its use and communicate with their teachers and classmates in English in EFL classrooms. Much as using EMI is productive to the improvement of students' English skills, the majority of research studies concentrate on higher education (Dewi 2017; Kirpatrick 2011; Leong 2017; Phuong & Nguyen 2019; Rose et al. 2019; Tran & Phuong 2019; Trent 2017; Tsui & Ngo 2017), leading to the lack of studies which measure how English language primary school teachers implement EMI in their EFL classrooms. This is a timely investigation into how frequently English language primary school teachers use EMI in their classrooms in Vietnam. It is noted that if primary school teachers exclusively use Vietnamese to explain lessons when teaching English, it is a waste of the Vietnamese government's budget because the funding has been spent; nonetheless, the efficacy of EMI is still under investigation. Additionally, the results from this study could help to better tailor ongoing teacher training on the implementation of EMI in years to come for the whole country. Besides, this study will also revisit the implementation of EMI in EFL primary schools in three provinces which represent three different developmental areas in Vietnam. The results of this study will give an explicit picture of the implementation of EMI in EFL primary classrooms in Vietnam. Countries which share the same educational system and background with Vietnam, might find this project beneficial for professional development training for teachers in their countries.

1.6. Limitations of the study

This study has certain limitations as follows:

- This study was limited to English language primary school teachers' implementation of EMI in three provinces in the South of Vietnam. EMI was understood for the purpose of this study to be the implementation of English in EFL settings.
- Due to restricted data collection, the results of this study may not be generalised or applied to the whole of Vietnam.

1.7. Overview of the study

Chapter 1 investigates the history of ELT in Vietnam, Vietnam's policies and the NFL2020 Project. From this overview, the research problem as well as research questions is described. Chapter 2 begins by addressing how EMI is understood, the broad policy directives in EMI of several NNEs countries in Asia, the call for curriculum revisionist responses and concludes by considering teacher education with a focus on the classroom environment, especially teachers' and students' attitudes towards EMI implementation. Chapter 3 includes the theoretical framework, how to relate the framework to the current study and the application of the research paradigm. Additionally, this chapter also explains why case study and mixed methods are employed in this study and how data are analysed. Chapter 4 presents quantitative and qualitative findings collected from the online questionnaire. Chapter 5 encompasses qualitative data from face-to-face semi-structured interviews, while Chapter 6 clarifies English language primary school teachers' implementation of EMI via findings from classroom observations. Chapter 7 discusses detailed implications of the findings based on multiple data sources and provides recommendations for teachers' more thorough implementation of EMI. Chapter 8 summarises key findings and discusses implications for future research.

Chapter 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

During the past ten years, many studies report that English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) has swiftly increased in many countries (Chuo & Lu 2018; Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra 2012; Hu & Duan 2019; Macaro 2017; Moore & Finardi 2019). As asserted by Doiz et al. (2012), globalisation and the popularity of English are the main reasons to rationalise why English together with EMI, has been widely introduced in many polities. The entry age for students starting to learn English has lowered (Choi et al. 2019; Gatcho & Hajan 2019; Kirkpatrick 2011; Nguyen 2011). Murphy (2014) articulates that EMI primarily occurs in the higher education context; however, primary and secondary education is now following this trend. EMI, according to Dearden (2015), is an emerging phenomenon at all levels of education and its future expansion is confirmed as a significant trend. As Vu and Burns (2014, p. 2) note, ‘in many international educational contexts there is a rapidly growing tendency for English to be adopted as the Medium of Instruction, even when a majority of the population speaks a local language’. Even though EMI permeates all levels of education (Baldauf 2012; Baldauf & Nguyen 2012; Dearden 2015), a systematic preparedness is necessary for full implementation. This systematic preparedness is a call to policymakers and other critical implementers of EMI as well.

In this literature review, I will begin by addressing how EMI is understood, the broad policy directives in EMI of several non-native English speaking (NNES) countries in Asia and the call for curriculum revisionist responses. The chapter will conclude by considering teacher education with attention paid to the classroom environment and especially the teachers’ as well as students’ attitudes towards EMI implementation.

2.2. How EMI is understood and why it matters

There are diverse purposes as to why EMI was and is still needed. Before addressing this need in the literature, it is essential to have a better comprehension of EMI and its strengths in the classroom. Doing so, we can fully comprehend multiple definitions and contextual challenges.

2.2.1. Understanding of EMI

EMI covers a multitude of contexts, which occasions a range of challenges for researchers who wish to define it (Vu & Burns 2014). Even though many researchers have finally defined EMI, no

consensus on its meaning has yet been reached (Airey 2016, cited in Walkinshaw, Fenton-Smith & Humphreys 2017). While EMI is defined by Dearden (2015) as ‘the use of English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the population is not English’ (p. 4), Humphreys (2017) affirms that EMI is a phenomenon that takes place in NNES countries. EMI, by itself, as Dearden defines, does not imply any specific context in which EMI is implemented whereas Humphreys (2017) contends that EMI is a phenomenon which happens in countries where L1 is not English. EMI, as understood by Fang (2018) and Kirkpatrick (2014, 2017), does not always mean using English exclusively in classrooms. In contrast to Fang and Kirkpatrick, EMI for Vu and Burns (2014), by definition, is the practice of the language delivery being solely in English, which makes it different from Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) (Dearden 2015). The teaching and learning contexts of EMI are related to their correlation with L1. If EMI is delivered to learners whose L1 is English, it will be entirely different from teaching a group of learners in NNES countries. EMI in this study was defined differently from Dearden. EMI, as noted in 1.6, was defined as the use of English in EFL settings. The content taught was the English language subject in primary schools, not Mathematics or Science subjects. However, it is also important to explore CLIL to see the differences between EMI and CLIL.

Differences between EMI and CLIL

CLIL, by definition, centres itself on the teaching and learning of academic subjects with two core areas: ‘the teaching and learning of academic contents from non-linguistic areas (e.g. science, technology, history, etc.), and the foreign/second language in which non-language subject matter is imparted’ (Hughes & Madrid 2020, p. 1). EMI is disparate from CLIL because its language learning aims are not definite. Its concentration is merely on teaching the subject content. EMI and CLIL are similar in the sense that English is implemented as the MOI to teach and learners become proficient in English when obtaining knowledge of the subject being taught. Nonetheless, in the context where CLIL takes place, tasks together with activities in the classrooms are clearly focused on language teaching. Teachers in CLIL contexts are supposed to both know and comprehend the language since the subject and the language are integrated (Llinares, Morton & Whittaker 2012) whereas in an EMI context, the focus is usually on the learning of subject content rather than on the development of learners’ language skills (Dearden 2015).

2.2.2. EMI at macro and micro levels

In NNES countries, some governments or institutions require that EMI is mandated; to have a clear-cut understanding of EMI, ‘both the macro level of language policies and the micro level of EMI practitioners’ (Vu & Burns 2014, p. 3) must be investigated. At each level, EMI is comprehended and translated differently.

2.2.2.1. *Macro level*

As indicated by Baldauf (2012), globalisation is the underlying cause of language planning at the macro level because of the popularity of English. According to Dang et al. (2013), ‘at the macro level languages of instruction are determined by national economic and political agendas’ (p. 54). Therefore, since English is becoming more and more popular (Ardayati & Zesti 2018; Chu 2014; Coleman 2011; Crystal 2012; Putri 2019), EMI is an overriding element in language planning in NNES policies, which delineates why EMI programs are presently being mandated by governments and institutions (Bolton & Botha 2017; Dang et al. 2013; Gu & Lee 2019; Guimarães & Kremer 2020; Hino 2017; Kim 2017; Mahboob 2017; Nguyen, Walkinshaw & Pham 2017; Rose et al. 2019; Thompson, Aizawa, Curle & Rose 2019). The influx of the implementation of EMI in English content-based courses is the result of globalisation and internationalisation, helping make English usage a competitive advantage to attract more international students (Baldauf 2012; Belyaeva & Kuznetsova 2019; Byun, Chu, Kim, Park, Kim & Jung 2011; Gu & Lee 2019; Guimarães & Kremer 2020) and to increase the international rankings of schools in which these programs are being delivered (Belyaeva & Kuznetsova 2019; Rauhvargers 2013).

Apart from its benefits, EMI in its popular use of content taught has also been critiqued. Shohamy (2012) provided issues relating to the implementation of EMI in universities. The first issue is content knowledge versus language processes. It is reported that students can find it challenging to comprehend academic content in the language that they are not accustomed to. The second issue is ‘inequality in the global status of English for different groups’ (Shohamy 2012, p. 204). This issue takes place for immigrants or students from minority ethnic groups. In this setting, English is their *third* language while their national language is not properly acquired yet. The final issue is ‘biases due to assessment in second languages’ (Shohamy 2012, p. 205) can arise. It is obvious that English tests are used to measure students’ academic achievements in content subjects; however, it seems unfair for students whose English is their second or third language.

2.2.2.2. *Micro level*

At the micro level, 'EMI practices are influenced by a number of factors other than official policy and planning, including the direct impact of global communications' (Dang et al. 2013, p. 54). EMI practices are not simply top-down. Personnel and resources impact on the feasibility of EMI implementation and the translation of language policy (Airey 2011, cited in Dang et al. 2013). At the micro level, local agencies may compromise the implementation of EMI because personnel and resources at each site are not the same. Language policymakers establish goals for teachers to carry out. At the micro level, teachers are the main conduit for the use of EMI, which is a core issue and crucial to the review. Therefore, it is assumed that teachers have a firm understanding of government policies accompanied by their belief in its benefits, so that their implementation of EMI will bring to their students and themselves a full appreciation of its use. Nevertheless, evidence shows that the translation of top-down policy is not complete, since reforms made at the macro level do not mean they will have an effective implementation in institutions (Ali 2013; Hu, Li & Lei 2014). Furthermore, the translation of top-down policies from the macro to micro level to a certain extent may indeed be inaccurate. Top-down directives might impact on institutions' policies as well as the teachers' implementation of EMI. Hence, the process of policymaking as recommended by Ramanathan and Morgan (2007) needs the active participation of practitioners including administrators, teachers and researchers.

To sum up, since there are multiple understandings of EMI, its implementation varies from institution to institution and from classroom to classroom, depending on how it is understood. In other words, the implementation of EMI is contingent on the perceived value of the policy at the macro level and how teachers at the micro level interpret that direction. Even when teachers have a precise interpretation of the policy, they may not implement EMI. However, it is acknowledged that policy informs areas of EMI (the policies and government directives in regards to the implementation of EMI will be discussed in section 2.3 of this chapter).

2.2.3. Why EMI matters

The review of literature has shown that teacher implementation of EMI is, on the one hand, beneficial to student learning because it advances their English skills (Chapple 2015; Dearden & Macaro 2016; Wong 2010), enhances their English proficiency (Belhiah & Elhami 2015; Chang 2010; Sultan, Borland & Eckerskey 2012; Wong 2010), builds their confidence (Belhiah & Elhami 2015; Chang 2010; Sultan et al. 2012; Wong 2010) and creates an English-speaking environment

(Ikeda 2016; Wong 2010). On the other hand, students are not the sole stakeholders. Teachers also benefit. Specifically, when adopting EMI in their classrooms, teachers can also practise their English daily (Wong 2010) thus becoming more confident users of English (Kabilan 2013). The following sections of the literature review will respectively identify student and teacher benefits in more detail.

2.2.3.1. Benefits of the implementation of EMI to students

As aforementioned, an increasing number of schools are implementing EMI to meet the demands of internationalisation and globalisation (Baldauf 2012; Belyaeva & Kuznetsova 2019; Byun et al. 2011; Doiz et al. 2012; Gu & Lee 2019; Guimarães & Kremer 2020; Macaro 2017). When EMI is implemented, English language school teachers will undoubtedly meet with challenges (Corrales, Paba Rey & Escamilla 2016; Phuong & Nguyen 2019; Tran & Phuong 2019; Vu & Burns 2014). These challenges can be overcome if identified early and promptly remediated. The main issue is whether teachers are persistent in their implementation of EMI and willing to realise its substantial benefits for their students.

In general, teachers' implementation of EMI helps students improve their English skills (Chapple 2015; Evans & Morrison 2017; Lasagabaster 2017; Persey 2015; Wong 2010). In Wong's (2010) study carried out in Hong Kong with forty-nine students in two classes; Class E had twenty-four students while Class P had twenty-five students. Students of both classes had the same level of English proficiency. They were both taught by the same teacher. EMI was implemented with a distinct difference in the two classes. Students in Class P were not allowed to use their mother tongue (L1). If they did, they would be penalised. As for students in Class E, whenever they used L1, they would be verbally reminded by the teacher. Nevertheless, students in Class E were still allowed to use L1 minimally. After 11 months, the data showed that students in Class P had better English skills than those in Class E. Their English skills improved faster than students in Class E. Wong (2010) notes that 'Class P students themselves felt that their English quality had improved due to the strict classroom language policy' (p. 125). Even though students had the same starting point, their English skills can be improved differently with disparate ways of English instruction policy implemented in each classroom (Wong 2010). As a supporter of the implementation of EMI, another study performed by Chapple (2015) in Japan, illustrates most students agree that if they engage in EMI classes, they will improve their English skills. Not only teachers but also

students perceive the effects of the implementation of EMI as the improvement of their English skills.

In particular, the implementation of EMI helps enhance students' listening, speaking, reading and writing skills (Belhiah & Elhami 2015; Corrales et al. 2016; Chang 2010; Lasagabaster 2017; Wong 2010). As contended by Wong (2010), students have to undergo psychological barriers when learning English and once their fear of making mistakes is removed, they will start to make greater efforts in achieving their English language proficiency. In Chang's study (2010) undertaken with 370 students in Taiwan, most students taking part in the survey expressed their agreement that their teachers' implementation of EMI helped them better their English language proficiency, especially in the area of listening skills. They agreed that their efforts in trying to understand their teachers in English contributed to their improved listening skills. Wong (2010) concluded that when EMI was only implemented in classrooms, students were better at both listening and speaking skills. Students no longer felt ashamed when making mistakes in front of their friends and teachers (Corrales et al. 2016). Their listening and speaking skills improved, consequently. Their speaking capacity was advanced. When students enjoyed using English, their academic achievements would be spontaneously enhanced. They did not like the use of L1 any more in classrooms. In other words, they automatically used English (L2) in any in-class activities if it was not beyond their language capacity. In a study undertaken in the Arabian/Persian Gulf by Belhiah and Elhami (2015), 500 students were surveyed to address the effectiveness of EMI. In this instance 75% of the students asserted that the implementation of EMI honed their speaking skills. 79% reported that their exposure to English, with EMI implemented helped them better their listening skills. They showed their agreement that because of the implementation of the EMI policy, 78% and 76% of students had considerable improvements in their writing and reading skills respectively. The interview sessions also clarified the reasons why students' four English skills had improved – with the implementation of EMI cited as the main reason. From the researchers' observations, the teachers' adoption of EMI helped students become more confident as speakers of English. The students did not feel they were being forced to speak in front of their peers, even when they were asked to present. Other students commented that EMI helped them better comprehend, practise and interact naturally in English inside as well as outside their classrooms. Several students underscored that with their listening skills improved and comprehension skills honed, they found it less challenging to watch movies and news without English subtitles.

Regarding the improvements in their writing and reading skills, interviewees voiced that completing class assignments together with writing and reading frequently in English tremendously helped them enhance those skills (Belhiah & Elhami 2015).

With its benefits to improve students' English skills in general and to ameliorate specific skills in particular, the implementation of EMI contributes to the enhancement of students' overall English proficiency levels as well (Belhiah & Elhami 2015; Chang 2010; Evans & Morrison 2017; Persey 2015; Sultan et al. 2012; Wong 2010). Besides, researchers also posit that EMI students use English more regularly. The implementation of EMI has a tremendously positive influence on their learning because students know they have to make greater efforts in understanding and communicating with their teachers and peers in English (Evans & Morrison 2017; Persey 2015). They have no other choice but to use English in their classrooms since the implementation of EMI is mandated. The compulsory use of English has resulted in advancing English proficiency levels, especially when compared to students for whom L1 is used, though very minimally (Wong 2010). This assertion illustrates the importance of teachers' adoption of EMI. In fact, teachers are required to make minimal use of L1 and create more meaningful chances for English to be optimised to make students work harder to understand lessons. Thus, the harder students work in their classrooms, the better students' English proficiency level should be.

The implementation of EMI helps create an English-speaking environment for students in classrooms (Persey 2015; Wong 2010). The use of L1 in English classrooms will deprive students of chances to study and manipulate the use of English in L2 classrooms. This affirmation has demonstrated Wong's support of teachers' creating an English environment for students in classrooms. To carry out this creation, EMI has to be enforced so that students' exposure to English can be maximised. Should L1 be implemented in EFL classrooms, there is a significant reduction in students' chances to interact in English (Alharbi 2015; Alshammari 2011; Kim et al. 2016). Wong (2010) also emphasises that in NNEs countries, maximising students' exposure to English is the chief responsibility of English language teachers. In other words, the fact that teachers themselves will decide on whether or not their implementation of EMI is successful through the exclusive use of English is still a debatable issue (Lo 2015; Sali 2014).

Teachers' implementation of EMI is instrumental in building students' confidence with their English (Belhiah & Elhami 2015; Chang 2010; Evans & Morrison 2017; Sultan et al. 2012; Wong

2010). According to Sakamoto (2012), English language teachers have to be confident in using English for Teaching (EfT). Otherwise, they will fail to deliver successful English lessons to students. If there are shy students, teachers should be tactful in eliciting a spontaneous language (Gudu 2015). With teachers' immediacy behaviours exhibited, students felt free of stress to communicate with their teachers and peers, which created an ambience conducive to learning (Fallah 2014). When feeling assured, students become more fluent as speakers of English without fear of making mistakes in their pronunciation (Wong 2010). Baker and Oswald (2010) and Fallah (2014) recommend that one ideal way to increase shy students' willingness to interact in English is online conversation. Belhiah and Elhami (2015) indicate that the majority of students taking part in their study assured themselves of their willingness to use English to have interaction with their EFL teachers, friends and even foreigners. In fact, 60% of the students mentioned they felt at ease when conversing in English. Data from the interview sessions show that teachers' ongoing motivation helped to increase students' fluency and confidence.

Incontrovertibly, the enhancement of students' exposure to English can be productive to their language acquisition (Ikeda 2016). The more exposure to English students have, the more possibilities for language acquisition they will have. As soon as students' exposure to English is enhanced, students' thinking may also naturally develop. Likewise, they may improve their communication skills as well as their interaction using L2.

The implementation of L2 at schools offers students more exposure to English academic vocabulary, which in turn helps them use English appropriately to produce quality texts (Lin & Morrison 2010). Their advocacy implies that the implementation of L2 can enhance students' writing skills as well (Belhiah & Elhami 2015; Lin & Morrison 2010). There are two aspects of vocabulary. Besides *receptive* vocabulary, students need to know a larger range of *productive* vocabulary: 'Productive use of vocabulary requires activating words for language production, thus demanding more knowledge about individual words than is required simply for understanding' (Lin & Morrison 2010, p. 256). As such, most students find it harder to make good use of *productive* vocabulary. For *receptive* vocabulary, providing that teachers use it every day, students will find it easy to comprehend what is being said because of its daily repetition. The implementation of EMI in classrooms will help students memorise English vocabulary far more readily since their teachers frequently repeat these words. If students also use English for

interaction, it will inevitably quicken the process of their word memorisation, which leads to better comprehension of lessons.

The implementation of EMI accelerates students' thinking in English. As students are required to interact with their teachers and friends in English, they speak English as a target language more freely. Interaction has created habits which help them practise their thinking in English. Noom-ura (2013) points out that students' lack of confidence in optimising English for communication emanates primarily from their lack of persistence in practising or failure to seek out chances to practise. Wong (2010) contends that English language students who study in an EMI-implemented environment are more dynamic than those instructed with minimal implementation of L1. Thus they participate and engage more actively in classroom activities. Therefore, to succeed in English language learning, students have to give themselves opportunities to practise English daily, as several hours of learning in classrooms is not sufficient for language acquisition (Mamun 2016). Sakamoto (2012) adds that 'in order to pursue effective English teaching, efforts are being made to espouse a more communicatively oriented language teaching approach' (p. 418). The addition, once again, re-affirms as well as remakes the importance of EMI implementation.

In summary, as aforementioned, teachers' implementation of EMI brings countless benefits to students (Belhiah & Elhami 2015; Chang 2010; Chapple 2015; Lin & Morrison 2010; Sultan et al. 2012; Wong 2010). To perform their teaching successfully, teachers need to possess an appropriate English language proficiency level (Burns 2017; Corrales et al. 2016; Freeman, Katz, Gomez & Burns 2015; Hahl, Järvinen & Juuti 2016; Le & Renandya 2017) and teaching techniques suitable to varied student comprehensibility (Vu & Burns 2014). This affirms that the benefits to English language teachers on using EMI still need to be more thoroughly investigated as additional research.

2.2.3.2. Benefits of the implementation of EMI for teachers

As concluded by Freeman et al. (2015), there are millions of English language teachers around the world. These teachers usually have to teach a stipulated national curriculum. They face huge pressure from the public, parents, students as well as policymakers, and one of the most visible things which teachers must demonstrate is their command of English. The evidence which proves whether teachers have excellent or good commands of English is shown via their daily communication in English and more specifically, their English use for teaching in classrooms. It

illustrates that teachers' implementation of EMI is fruitful not only for their students but also for themselves. The following literature review will address and explore the benefits of teachers' experience and how this positively impacts the implementation of EMI.

Literature shows that teachers' implementation of L2 helps create an authentic English environment in which both teachers and students interact with one another (Wong 2010). EFL students' lack of authentic English situations outside their classrooms is clear, but these situations are not irreconcilable (Alharbi 2015). For instance, teachers can delegate students to tasks outside classrooms. Students can perform their assigned tasks through reflection or oral presentation. Should these tasks be done regularly, students indisputably benefit as their English is ameliorated. It is also conducive to teachers' advancing their skills in English because when interacting with their students, they are practising their English as well.

Teachers become more assured users of English when obliged to implement L2 (Kabilan 2013). Daily interaction with students in L2 builds teacher confidence. Like students, once their confidence is built and L2 is habitually implemented in classrooms, it is probable that teachers' English proficiency levels will be boosted. It should become cost-effective for students' learning. That is to say, teachers' implementation of L2 in classrooms has positive, reciprocal effects for both student and teacher improvements in English proficiency levels.

Teachers' implementation of EMI helps to develop their English proficiency (Doiz et al. 2012; Yeh 2012). As asserted by Yeh (2012), utilising L2 in classrooms is instrumental in honing teachers' language skills. There is a clear correlation between the frequency of L2 implementation and the enhancement of implementers' English proficiency.

Evidence denotes that the implementation of L2 motivates teachers to improve their pedagogical strategies (Yeh 2012). In a study undertaken by Yeh (2012) in which perceptions of L2 implementation of 22 university lecturers from different institutions in Taiwan were probed, data reported in interview sessions revealed that they employed strategies, including the use of visual aids, handouts, reduced oral speed, simplified wording and so on to make lessons more intelligible to students. Besides, they also made use of code-switching to increase students' participation and comprehension in lectures as well as building student harmony. Students were allowed to optimise code-switching to lessen learning pressure and to stimulate their involvement.

To summarise, this section of the literature review shows that the implementation of EMI helps teachers enhance their English skills (Wong 2010), become more confident users of English (Kabilan 2013) while developing their English proficiency (Doiz et al. 2012; Yeh 2012). Also, when implemented, EMI can function as a motivator to make teachers improve their pedagogical strategies. As such, when EMI is implemented, the English language teachers improve their own English proficiency and their pedagogical strategies simultaneously, which is useful for them. Should they only employ L1 as the target language in EFL classrooms, their English proficiency will diminish with less practice and they are likely to feel less confident when using English when it is needed. The literature on EMI adoption indicates specific benefits though its implementation in classrooms is not effortless. For that reason, challenges that teachers confront upon implementing EMI will be discussed in section 2.8 of this chapter.

2.3. International language policy directions visited – Other Asian lenses

As indicated above, policies at the macro level affect teachers' implementation at the micro level, and teachers themselves ought to accurately translate the policies from the government and authorities so their adoption is not led astray. As a consequence, it is important to revisit policies and government directives regarding EMI implementation. Apparently, there is a sudden increase in the implementation of EMI (Dearden & Macaro 2016; Doiz et al. 2012; Kırkgöz 2019; O'Sullivan 2018; Rose & McKinley 2018). The widespread implementation of EMI from schools at the micro level emanates from countries' policies at the macro level. This section will focus on exploring policy directions regarding the implementation of EMI from several other Asian countries.

2.3.1. South Korea

In the Korean context, the policy of teaching English through English (TETE) was executed by the Ministry of Education (MOE) in 2001 (Nunan 2003); however, at this stage, English language teachers across levels, even in primary schools, were encouraged to implement TETE in their English classes (Kang 2008). In higher education, to encourage lecturers to implement EMI, Korean institutions had to offer them a salary rise (Nunan 2003). In 2004, Korean institutions were provided with financial support from MOE to manipulate an EMI policy (Kim et al. 2016). Though supported, there is frequently controversy concerning the teachers' use of L1 in teaching English. It is reported that some Korean EFL students complain when L1 is used extensively in their EFL

classrooms whereas others object to using EMI excessively. Evidence shows that many schools in South Korea only pretend to implement EMI, but in fact, their MOI is Korean (Kim et al. 2016). Even though the implementation of the TETE policy is promoted, Korean teachers of English do not benefit from its full adoption (Shin 2012; Rabbidge & Chappell 2014). This confirmation reveals that TETE is improperly adopted in South Korea.

2.3.2. Nepal

Sah and Li (2018) note: ‘The global spread of EMI education has also influenced the Nepalese school system’ (p. 110). Private English-medium schools have increased rapidly in Nepal; and they are believed to provide better quality education as compared to public schools because EMI is implemented in these private schools. Therefore, Nepal’s MOE executed the Education Act which promulgated Nepali, English or both as an MOI in public schools (Government of Nepal 2010, cited in Sah & Li 2018). As recorded, more public schools in Nepal have implemented EMI, though they are mostly not provided with sufficient resources and lack qualified teachers who can adopt EMI. It is not explicitly indicated, but it is easily seen that the enactment of the Education Act in Nepal offers opportunities for Nepalese public schools to compete with private medium-instruction schools concerning the quality of education. In Sah and Li’s (2018) study in a Nepali under-resourced public school, parents, teachers and students believe that EMI helps enhance advance their English skills, improve educational accomplishments and provide students with more opportunities to pursue their higher education; nevertheless, the implementation of EMI has caused negative results due to the dearth of teacher preparation, infrastructure and teachers’ limited language proficiency. This evidence implies that belief does not come hand in hand with reality.

2.3.3. China

From 2001, China’s MOE requested all universities under its umbrella to implement EMI to teach specific selected subjects (Hu 2016). Thanks to the 2001 policy, EMI has been expanding at warp speed among Chinese universities. There are several reasons for the issuance of this EMI policy. Firstly, the English language helps China gain full engagement in internationalisation. Secondly, though learning English extensively for many years, graduates still struggle with English use for communication. Therefore, the integration of content teaching with English teaching is undoubtedly a solution to improve graduates’ English communicative competence. Thirdly, China would like to build its reputation by recruiting more international students (Gu & Lee 2019; Yan,

Wen & Yong 2019). According to Wang (2011), cited in Hu (2016), MOE has targeted more than 500,000 international students who will pursue their degrees in China by 2020.

2.3.4. Hong Kong

As indicated by Hu (2007), before 1997, since Hong Kong was a British colony, its students were requested to study English from primary schools. English was not the only language selection, but it was related to economic development. Before 1974, English was the only official language in Hong Kong. Although Cantonese was recognised at that time, as compared to English, it was not as universal. Hu professes that ‘Hong Kong society has been undergoing a transitional period of post-colonialism since the resumption of sovereignty in 1997’ (p. 88). In the late 1990s, according to Fung and Ma (2012), Chinese as a Medium of Instruction (CMI) was introduced into ‘all government and aided secondary schools’ (p. 138) as the new language policy adopted in Hong Kong by the government, owing to the handover of Hong Kong to China (Poon, Lau & Chu 2013). Specifically, followed by this language policy was the government document which highlighted the calibre of the implementation of Chinese in education. As revealed by Evans (2011), September 1998 witnessed most EMI schools switch to CMI in Years 7 to 9. This policy only allowed 112 out of approximately 400 schools to continue using EMI. After twelve years under implementation, the mandatory CMI policy was then superseded by the ‘fine-tuning Medium of Instruction policy in September 2010’ (Poon et al. 2013, p. 946). Thanks to this new MOI policy, secondary schools in Hong Kong have more autonomy in offering EMI, CMI classes and some subjects taught in English (Poon & Lau 2016). Evans (2011) confirms that fine tuning of MOI policy has abolished the labels of CMI and EMI schools in Hong Kong, offering more significant opportunities for ex-CMI schools to implement EMI. The adjustment of MOI policy also marks the period of mixed-mode instruction in Hong Kong.

2.3.5. Taiwan

Taiwanese MOE promotes the implementation of EMI via projects. According to Han and Singh’s (2014) report about the implementation of EMI in Taiwan, ‘EMI is an approach to internationalising university education that requires the structuring of organisational learning of the processes of change; developing the expertise of innovation leaders and skilled teachers committed to researching EMI in their own discipline’ (p. 7). Chen and Tsai (2012) affirm that EMI helps Taiwan be more competitive in the process of globalisation. As stated by Taiwanese

MOE, 'a good command of English is a must, but the ability to use a second foreign language in Taiwan is an asset for employment in multinational corporations' (Chen & Tsai 2012, p. 196). As such, its primary purpose of EMI implementation is similar to other countries, that is, to create a hub to attract international students and to help develop English communicative competence of Taiwanese residents so they can land employment upon graduating from universities or colleges.

2.3.6. Japan

In 2008, the Japanese government initiated the Global 30 Project to attract 300,000 international students to pursue their education in Japan by 2020 (Burgess, Gibson, Klaphake & Selzer 2010; Hashimoto 2013; Phan 2013). This Project was instituted by Japan's Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT). One objective is to build 'English-only' degree programs at thirty top universities. At the initial stage, only 13 universities (6 private and 7 public) were selected, according to Ishikawa (2011). Phan (2013) posits that the Global 30 Project was publicised 'in response to global competitiveness and the increasing worry among the government and its universities about Japan losing its attractiveness to foreign students' (p. 167). This Project is the continuity of the so-called MEXT 2003 action plan to help Japanese with English competence. According to this action plan, 100% of high school graduates in Japan will be capable of conversing in English, whereas university students upon their graduation will be competent in utilising English to secure employment (Hashimoto 2009). As elaborated in the plan, English would be introduced as a compulsory subject from Grades 5 and 6 in primary schools from 2011; however, the plan received considerable criticism in which opponents exhorted Japanese youngsters' proper studying of Japanese before learning English (Burgess et al. 2010). The Ministry was relieved to assert that the learning of English helps deepen the comprehension of Japanese language as well as its culture (MEXT 2008, cited in Burgess et al. 2010).

To summarise, from Asian lenses, the implementation of EMI in different countries relates to their unique circumstances and their specific contexts. Though the contexts are disparate, the countries surveyed in the literature share a prevailing view on building English language proficiency for their citizens as well as attracting more international students to live and study in their countries.

2.4. *Methodological considerations that have impacted EMI*

Students will be incapable of communicating in English effectively if English language teachers persist in using L1 mostly for instruction in their classrooms (Wang 2020). Brown (2007) explains,

during observations of international schools in many countries, English grammar and structure are still emphasised more than oral skills. Brown's findings reflect the status quo of ELT in Vietnam. However, according to requirements from Vietnam's MOET, when the implementation of EMI is requested or encouraged at the macro level, it is the responsibility of English language teachers to modify their methods of teaching to carry out the policy appropriately. As inferred by McKinley (2017), the implementation of EMI is associated with a Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach. Here, I will explore the CLT approach, how it is employed in Vietnam, the concurrent debate of L1 and L2, as well as international methodological deliberations through Asian contexts.

2.4.1. Communicative Language Teaching

CLT first appeared in Western countries with the introduction of British linguists in the late 1960s followed by rapid expansion in the 1970s (Farooq 2015; Le 2011). CLT aims to develop learners' communicative competence (Farooq 2015; Irawan 2019; Le 2011; Lu & Ng 2013; Mai & Iwashita 2012; Mangaleswaran & Aziz 2019; Nguyen 2004; Nguyen, Warren & Fehring 2014; Richards, Platt & Platt 1992; Savignon 2007; Sharma 2017) as they need to use English for real-life communication. Siemon (2010, p. 40) defined CLT as 'a way of teaching in which the application of communication activities and target language aims to develop a learner's competence of understanding and exchanging of concepts, ideas, behavioural modes, values, beliefs and cultures'. CLT is further defined by Ostermiller (2014, p. 6) as 'an approach to language teaching that emphasises interaction amongst the students in a class in order to use language to communicate in an authentic way'.

No matter how CLT is defined, its underpinning concept, which has remained constant for over thirty years, is communicative competence (Hymes 1971; Le 2011; Savignon 1972; Ostermiller 2014). Communicative competence as defined by Wiemann (1977) is 'the ability of an interactant to choose among available communicative behaviours so that he may accomplish his own interpersonal goals during an encounter while maintaining the face and line of his fellow interactants within the constraints of the situation' (p. 198). Hymes (1971) coins the theory of communicative competence as an important component which speakers have to know to communicate competently in a speech community. Hymes (1972) observes:

'a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences not only as grammatical but also as appropriate. He or she acquires competence as to when to speak, when not, and as to what

to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner. In short, a child becomes able to accomplish a repertoire of speech acts, to take part in speech events and to evaluate their accomplishment by others.’ (p. 277)

On the whole, a competent language user has to utilise languages not only accurately, regarding grammar and vocabulary, but also appropriately based on their communicative purposes. It is not undermining the calibre of studying grammatical rules of the language, but instead highlights the accuracy and appropriateness as well as audience when speech is produced.

In CLT classroom settings, tasks and activities are designated to help learners accomplish communicative purposes by their involvement in communication-related processes, including information exchange and negotiation of meaning and interaction with peers and teachers (Richards 2001). The learning processes concentrate more on learners. When the CLT approach is implemented, teachers manage classrooms and maximise students’ chances to use and practise the target language (Lewis 2002).

Evidence shows that CLT has turned out to be a popular approach being applied in many countries because of its communicative purposes (Baker & Jarunthawatchai 2017; Farooq 2015; Le 2011; Thamarana 2015) (exploration of how several Asian countries implement CLT as one of their ELT approaches will be discussed in section 2.6 of this chapter). It is agreed that CLT helps learners converse effectively in daily situations because CLT focuses on language use and provides learners with numerous chances to practise the language (Farooq 2015; Le 2011; Thamarana 2015). It is commonly agreed that the more CLT is employed as an approach in ELT classrooms, the more communicative competence learners develop (Liao 2004; Littlewood 2006; Turnbull & Arnett 2002). Despite the usefulness of the implementation of CLT, Thompson (1996) identifies four misconceptions including: ‘CLT means not teaching grammar’ (p. 10), ‘CLT means teaching only speaking’ (p. 11), ‘CLT means pairwork, which means role play’ (p. 12), and ‘CLT means expecting too much from the teacher’ (p. 13). As asserted, CLT is a phenomenon in language teaching, and it will undoubtedly develop; as a consequence, misconceptions about CLT must be clearly understood. These misconceptions can lead curriculum developers and English language teachers astray from the principles of CLT.

2.4.2. Implementation of Communicative Language Teaching in Vietnam

CLT, as indicated by Mai and Iwashita (2012), has been supported and approved since it was first executed in Vietnam in the early 1990s. Even though MOET stated in 2006 that English language teachers in Vietnam must use communicative skills to teach students from secondary schools, CLT has not been successfully executed (Mai & Iwashita 2012). Evidence shows that many English language students are still unable to communicate effectively in English after quite a long time of studying English (from Grades 6 to 12). In addition, the observations made by Nguyen et al. (2014) prove that the majority of communicative activities implemented have not been successful in Vietnam.

Two influential factors inhibiting the effective adoption of CLT in Vietnam specified by Mai and Iwashita (2012) consist of ‘academic curriculum and grammar-based examinations’ (p. 27) (the curriculum in which CLT activities are embedded will be discussed in section 2.7.1 of this chapter). Examinations have long been the focus. To help students pass their examinations, English language teachers tend to be unwavering in grammar; therefore, communicative activities do not take priority (Pham 2004). Le (2011) points out that tests are designed to mainly measure students’ grammar, reading and writing skills, which is in contradiction to the MOET directive. There is a dearth of listening and speaking parts in both low- and high-stake examinations. Other factors preventing the effective implementation of CLT in Vietnam are a shortage of English language teachers, teaching facilities and textbooks (Mai & Iwashita 2012; Nguyen 2004).

In a study undertaken concerning three Vietnamese university lecturers’ beliefs and implementation of CLT, Pham (2007) indicates they clearly knew about the primary goal of CLT. He contends that when putting theory into practice, they are faced with challenges which are big class size, students’ low English levels, and lack of motivation to use English along with their concerns for examinations. This is still evidenced in many studies (Le 2011; Mai & Iwashita 2012). The consensus is that instead of adopting CLT, English language teachers in Vietnam need to adapt teaching techniques which are appropriate to their contexts. Besides, they should have support from policymakers, colleagues, students and other stakeholders to more effectively implement CLT. Even with such support, they might not be able to fully implement CLT.

In another study conducted by Nguyen et al. (2014) at Ho Chi Minh City University of Technology, they reported that although lecturers conduct group-work and pair-work activities, these only serve

to answer questions from textbooks. Lecturers thus fail to create a space for students to communicate and express ideas. Further, the time allotted for communicative activities is limited. As far as researchers observe, students are offered approximately 10 minutes for communicative activities which is too little time for communication practice. More time should be spent on communicative activities. Also, grammar-oriented teaching style is still prevalent. In four out of eight classes, lecturers spend more time teaching students grammar or reminding them of structures previously learned in secondary and high schools.

To conclude, the literature review shows that the implementation of CLT in Vietnam is not effective (Le 2011; Mai & Iwashita 2012; Nguyen et al. 2014) though CLT has become a goal of ELT in Vietnam. In order to improve the implementation of CLT in Vietnam, Mai and Iwashita (2012) conclude that English language teachers have to listen to students' needs, be sensitive to students' attitudes to modify their appropriate teaching techniques properly and more importantly, 'communicative teaching should be supported by communicative testing' (p. 41).

2.4.3. Task-based Language Teaching and how CLT Evolved into Task-based Approaches

Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) is an approach built on the employment of tasks as the focus in language teaching (Richards & Rodgers 2001). According to Nunan (2004), the development of TBLT was based on CLT and redressed the criticism around the dearth of theoretical bases for CLT. Substantial work has been performed in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) to infuse ample theoretical bases needed for TBLT (Krashen 1985). Proponents argue TBLT is the ostensible development of CLT.

TBLT recommends the employment of tasks as the focal component in the language classrooms since SLA process of learners is formed and developed via tasks occurring in a particular context. Even though there are a variety of definitions of tasks, it is commonly agreed that tasks are conducive to the employment of language. Therefore, Richards and Rodgers (2001) indicate that task-based instruction is strongly similar to CLT. TBLT replaced CLT in primary and secondary schools in East Asian countries, according to Littlewood (2006).

As aforementioned, the implementation of CLT in Vietnam was not successful; therefore, TBLT was embedded in English curricula and textbooks to help students better learn English. Tran (2015) reveals that TBLT was officially introduced in English curriculum in Vietnamese upper secondary schools in 2006 with the modifications of three fundamental areas, including curricular content,

teaching pedagogy and learner assessment. With regard to curricular content, the new curriculum is topic-based to suit students' interests. Concerning teaching pedagogy, TBLT approach is implemented for classroom instruction. To be specific, the textbooks provide a multitude of tasks structured in the sequence of three stages (pre-task, while-task and post-task). Regarding learner assessment, the new curriculum suggests that learners' four language skills (reading, speaking, listening and writing) be tested. With these modifications, English language teachers are required to implement the curriculum innovation.

2.5. L1 versus L2 use

There is always controversy about the use of L1 in L2 learning (Lo 2015; Sali 2014; Inal & Turhanli 2019). The controversy is predominantly about the role of L1 in L2 classrooms (Littlewood & Yu 2011). Many language teachers are persistent in their belief that L1 may be used in L2 classrooms whereas others take exception to executing it. The use of L1 in L2 learning has been strongly supported in the literature (Bao & Du 2015; El-Haj 2019; Forman 2012; Inal & Turhanli 2019; Mart 2013; Shariati 2019; Teimourtash & Shakouri 2016). The following research investigates the use of L1 and L2 in L2 learning as well as the scope in which L1 can be used in the literature.

For many researchers, the implementation of L1 can be advantageous in English classes (Bao & Du 2015; Donoso 2020; El-Haj 2019; Forman 2012; Mart 2013; Öz & Karaazmak 2019; Shariati 2019; Teimourtash & Shakouri 2016). Mart (2013) reveals that the use of L1 in English classes helps students distinguish between L1 and L2. Banning the use of L1 can somehow impact students' comparison of L1 with L2 and may lead to feelings of insecurity when L2 is learnt. Once students feel insecure, their learning of L2 may not be efficacious. Also, non-use of L1 will impede the comprehension of L2 efficiently (Mart 2013). Once L2 is incomprehensible to students, their educational attainment and L2 acquisition are seriously influenced. Though supportive of the use of L1 in L2 teaching, Kieu (2010) and Mart (2013) caution that excessive use of L1 is to be avoided. That is to say, students must feel certain that their L2 communication is successful because their communicative skills develop through their interaction with L2. This is particularly evident where speaking exercises offer students opportunities to improve their communicative skills which manifestly aid their learning if performed in L2. Shin (2006) encourages the use of L1 in L2 learning in familiar contexts with the belief that L1, optimised in these contexts, helps

students connect ‘the new content and language to their own lives and experiences’ (p. 5). Additionally, the use of L1, as Shin (2006) shows, does not obstruct the comprehension of L2, but contributes to students’ maximising their exposure to L2 learning. By way of illustration, with difficult expressions such as ‘Once upon a time’, L1 needs to be used as it is the easiest and most time efficient way to enable students to comprehend its meaning. It is time consuming if teachers persevere in using L2 to explain meaning in such classroom situations. Several English language teachers, in fact, feel guilty when using L1 in L2 classrooms due to their belief that it prevents L2 acquisition. Bao and Du (2015) indicate that L1 use is undoubtedly a mediated process which facilitates verbal interaction between teachers and learners and vice versa so assigned tasks can be completed. Teachers should deliberate on various factors impacted by L1 use in order to deliver engaging lessons for EFL learners without influencing their SLA. Bao and Du (2015) recommend that learners’ perceptions of teachers’ use of L1 should be explored in future research. If learners’ perceptions are not taken into account, the assumption that L1 is effective in L2 learning comes from researchers and teachers and does not therefore consider the point of view of learners. Also, the use of L1 helps students with low L2 levels conceive ideas before they utilise L2 in their writing (Stapa & Majid 2006). L1 should thus be used selectively and discretely. Classroom teachers should decide where and when it is most appropriate to use L1. Moreover, the use of L1 is an efficient way for students to precisely grasp the meaning of vocabulary (Forman 2012; Liu 2008; Zhao & Macaro 2016). Explanations in L1 help them memorise meaning more quickly. L2-only students, however, are reconciled to the challenge of reducing their chances of comprehending the precise meaning of target words when explained in L2 (Zhao & Macaro 2016).

Apart from helping to optimise language learning, L1 use also ensures the actual success of L2 learning (Bao & Du 2015; Donoso 2020; El-Haj 2019; Forman 2012; Mart 2013; Öz & Karaazmak 2019; Shariati 2019; Taylor & Coetzee 2013; Teimourtash & Shakouri 2016). In a study conducted by Taylor and Coetzee (2013) in primary schools, they conclude that students instructed with L1 in early years of schooling (Grades 1 to 3) have better English proficiency when L2 is learned in Grades 4, 5 and 6. In their 2016 study, Teimourtash and Shakouri highlight that ‘in practicality, the taboo against using L1 in the classroom is breaking down’ (p. 401). The most important thing is that depending on English proficiency levels of students, there will be different uptake of L1 and L2 (Lo 2015). When learners are assigned with tasks they can do together, they might use L1 to communicate with their peers and in this case, teachers themselves ‘should observe this carefully

to see what opportunities for learning are occurring' (Nation 1997, p. 25, cited in Teimourtash & Shakouri 2016). As such, although students use L1 more frequently in classrooms, it is also fruitful for learning on the proviso that it serves the purpose of learning and interaction in L2 contexts. Teachers unquestionably find it challenging to monitor if students are using L2 to communicate with their peers since in activities without constant teacher influence, students tend to use L1 to engage in such activities. Forman (2012) concludes that explaining is indubitably a basic process of teaching and the use of L1 or L2 serves different purposes. When L1 is used to explain things, for instance, students have a quicker grasp of content. On the contrary, when L2 is used, 'it can additionally provide message-oriented teacher talk' (Forman 2012, p. 14).

In opposition, some researchers caution that L1 should be used restrictively in EFL classrooms because when learners study English, L2 also needs to be implemented (Alharbi 2015; Alshammari 2011; Devaki 2018; Kim et al. 2016). Although conducive to L2 learning, L1 needs to be judiciously utilised by teachers (Devaki 2018) when they have no other way to explain sophisticated grammar norms together with vocabulary in L2 (Alshammari 2011). The limited use of L1 encourages teachers' implementation of L2. Kim et al. (2016) object to teachers' use of L1 because they emphasise that its use is a hindrance to L2 acquisition. As contended by Alharbi (2015), the unique way in which teachers can enhance students' English-speaking skills is via teachers' and students' mutual interaction in L2 in classrooms. Even though their approval of interactions and explanations in L2 is apparent, Zhao and Macaro (2016) argue that input quality, not quantity decides L2 learning outcomes. As such, students' comprehension must be seen as a priority because if students have a maximum amount of exposure to L2, but fail to comprehend lessons, L2 learning outcomes will not be accomplished.

To sum up, the exclusive use of L2 in EFL classrooms is *not* always the best policy. L1 use in English classrooms is supported in the literature (Bao & Du 2015; Donoso 2020; El-Haj 2019; Forman 2012; Mart 2013; Öz & Karaazmak 2019; Shariati 2019; Teimourtash & Shakouri 2016). L1 has a myriad of functions in L2 language learning. To help learners easily understand lessons, L1 is used to explain English grammar (Forman 2012; Sali 2014), difficult expressions (Shin 2006), vocabulary (Forman 2012; Zhao & Macaro 2016) and so on. Schools and teachers should not deter students from using L1 (Stille, Bethke, Bradley-Brown, Giberson & Hall 2016). Supporting the use of L1 does not mean that opportunities for L2 use are diminished (Forman 2012; Mart 2013). The use of L1 and L2 is mutually beneficial in foreign language learning

(Teimourtash & Shakouri 2016). As such, the precise rate of use of L1 for each level of education has not yet been elucidated. In all likelihood, besides English proficiency levels of students, the rate of EMI engagement may be dependent on many other factors. Even though L1 can be used in EFL classrooms, the implementation of L2 cannot be ignored, since the ultimate goal of learning English is to help EFL learners enhance their English skills. Before identifying English language teachers' implementation of EMI, their perceptions of the adoption of EMI need to be examined because they impact and influence their choice of approaches to EFL teaching.

2.6. International methodological deliberations within other Asian contexts

EMI policy in various Asian countries impact teaching methodologies used to deliver their courses and programs. Thus interaction and communication, according to the CLT approach, are pivotal to the process of how learners acquire the language, and other Asian countries have English language priorities: 'the adoption of English instead of the mother tongue as a Medium of Instruction can thus provide students with ample opportunity to use the language on an everyday basis and in a wide array of communicative situations and capacities, not only with their teachers, but also with other students, administrators and advisors, in meaningful and authentic contexts' (Melati & Arief 2015, p. 2). This idea also coincides with McKinley's (2017) view of the inter-relativity of CLT and EMI. The following sections will shed light on how CLT approach is used in several Asian countries.

2.6.1. South Korea

CLT has been used in South Korea since the government enacted educational policy reform on teaching English to young children in which third graders learned English as an official subject at primary schools (Lee 2014). Even in secondary schools, communicative competence development was also emphasised according to MOE (1997), cited in Lee (2014). This educational policy reform had been promulgated prior to the enactment of TETE policy in 2001. Although the Korean government, as inferred by Yoon (2004), has gradually accepted CLT as a fruitful approach to teaching EFL, Park (2009) notes that CLT has not been implemented fully in South Korea for a multitude of reasons. One of the implied reasons is the incompatibility of the theory of CLT with cultural values of the country. Shin (2007) adds that consensus between government and teachers regarding how English ought to be taught has not been reached, leading to failure of the enactment of CLT in Korean EFL education. In fact, Kim (2004) concurs that the Korean government would

like to adopt a more communicative approach to English teaching, but teachers seem slow to implement communicative techniques. This results in a considerable difference between what is required by government and what has taken place in EFL classroom settings (Dailey 2010).

Dailey (2010) synthesises several reasons why teachers are wavering in implementing CLT. Firstly, an examination-based culture is an obstacle to teachers' implementation of CLT in South Korea. Oral components do not appear in examinations which are heavily driven by grammar and translation. Secondly, teachers' misunderstandings of CLT obstruct their implementation of CLT. Thirdly, teachers' lack of their self-confidence leads to their unwillingness to implement CLT. Jeong (2004) explains that education is not immersed in cultivating teachers' communicative competence. Lastly, it is a matter of Korean cultural values as aforementioned. The proposed reasons demonstrate that CLT has been under improper implementation in South Korea, no matter how strongly the government believes in its feasibility to promote effective English education.

2.6.2. Nepal

CLT has been implemented in primary schools in Nepal since 1994 (Sharma 2017). According to Bhattarai (2001), though textbooks do not consist of any translation drills, the principal language of classroom instruction is Nepali. Teachers tend to translate L2 texts into Nepali and habitually promote rote learning (Shah 2012). According to Sharma (2003), Nepalese teachers, especially those in government schools, have never been offered the opportunity to witness a model of CLT, which explains why they find it challenging to create communicative activities in their classrooms and familiarise themselves with CLT. Bista (2011) adds that the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) is relatively popular among Nepalese teachers of English. Therefore, CLT's implementation has not been successful, but it is still perceived as the best approach for ELT in Nepal (Sharma 2017).

2.6.3. China

The gradual introduction of CLT in Chinese EFL classrooms commenced in the early 1980s; however, in most English classrooms it was not implemented (Liu 2015) due to the dominance of the GTM (Hu 2002a). The enduring popularity of this method meant that Chinese students refrained from communicating in English though they passed examinations in which writing and reading were tested (Wei & Su 2008, cited in Liu 2015). Their findings are echoed by Fang's (2010) study. Earlier, Rao (2002) indicates that Chinese students favoured conventional classroom

activities and possessed negative attitudes towards communicative activities. Besides, English language teachers in China are not confident to implement CLT. Additionally, students think that CLT will take away their chances to study grammar which is necessary for them to pass examinations. Similar to students in other countries, Chinese students have misconceptions about CLT. Siemon (2010) describes ‘administrative, academic, population, economic and cultural causes’ (p. 41) as the main elements impeding the implementation of CLT in China.

2.6.4. Hong Kong

The introduction of CLT into Hong Kong, according to Gu (2003), marks the educational innovation with the purpose of modifying the accepted and enduring learning method which is comprehension via memorisation. As concluded by Lu and Ng (2013), memorisation is an ineffective way of improving learners’ skills in utilising the target language fruitfully for communicative purposes; therefore, CLT has been introduced to help teachers brush up on their English teaching performance and simultaneously help learners acquire better English communicative competence. If these targets are achieved, Hong Kong will become even more of an international cosmopolitan city. Nevertheless, Lu and Ng (2013) observe that after nearly thirty years since the introduction of CLT into Hong Kong, learners’ English proficiency has not improved. In fact, many critics complain that Hong Kong learners’ English proficiency is declining whilst CLT is the optimal approach in classrooms. As such, evidence from the literature has shown that the implementation of CLT in Hong Kong is not as successful as originally planned.

2.6.5. Taiwan

Taiwan’s MOE has initiated numerous reforms since 1994 with the purpose of modifying GTM to CLT to help learners increase their English communicative competence (Huang 2016) and ameliorate their language skills (Chiang 2016) to meet the demands of international integration. Since the introduction of CLT into the educational system in Taiwan, Huang (2016) notes that while the results may be promising, ‘the process has proved to be challenging’ (p. 186). Su (2006) also notes that the majority of Taiwanese teachers have not spent much time on communicative activities. They are still in the habit of sticking to the GTM because it is more convenient. Furthermore, Wang (2002) underscores that English testing assessment has not changed, and this has mostly led to the failure of CLT. It is clear that while the assessment of learners’ outcomes remains constant, CLT implementation will be impossible even though teachers are making greater

efforts. Additionally, Chung and Huang (2009) conclude that teachers find it hard to integrate CLT with deep-rooted GTM. Like the MOE policy, they recommend that ELT in Taiwan should focus on the development of learners' English communicative competence. Pressure from parents is another factor. Parents care about their children's high results rather than effective communication. On the whole, the implementation of CLT in Taiwan is not as successful as evidenced in the existing literature.

2.6.6. Japan

Since 1989, according to Nishino (2008), MEXT has encouraged secondary school teachers to embed CLT into their lesson plans. In a study conducted by Sakui (2004) regarding how Japanese secondary school teachers have understood and adopted CLT, the researcher determined that Japanese teachers of English mostly find it hard to utilise CLT in their classrooms. Fujikawa (2014) explains that numerous English language teachers in Japanese junior and high schools are assigned with the onerous task of 'preparing their students for the high school and university entrance examinations' (p. 126). English results are the most important criterion which determines whether high school graduates are eligible for university education or not. Further, examinations do not focus on communicative testing; as a consequence, Japanese teachers of English have a tendency to teach what students need to pass examinations like grammar, reading and writing (Cripps 2016). Oral communication seems to be neglected by English language teachers in Japanese EFL classrooms. Few teachers are able to execute CLT in their classrooms single-handedly. It is indicated that 'in many cases CLT can be implemented through team-teaching' (Fujikawa 2014, p. 130).

To conclude, the literature shows that all six Asian countries have implemented CLT for approximately twenty years and this is the macro-level policy. English language teachers across these six countries have implemented CLT to some extent, but their implementation has been unsuccessful due to pressure from parents, examinations and so forth. English language teachers still tend to use GTM because it links significantly to grammar-driven examinations. It is recommended that for more comprehensive CLT, English language teachers have to be capable of implementing CLT in their classrooms and more importantly, oral skills must be included in curricula, together with textbooks and examinations to ensure that policy and implementation are well-aligned.

2.7. Curriculum revision

Government policy at the macro level at which EMI is implemented in classrooms has impacted teaching methodologies used to deliver lessons. As reviewed in the literature above, CLT is the primary approach which helps promote the implementation of EMI (Freeman et al. 2015). Moreover, implementation of EMI also leads to revision of the curriculum in which classroom activities and objectives are more connected. The following sections probe how curricula in Vietnam and in several Asian countries have been revised to pave the way for the adoption of EMI.

2.7.1. Curriculum revision in Vietnam

The NFL2020 Project, according to Hoang (2015), consists of three critical stages: from 2008 to 2010, from 2011 to 2015 and from 2016 to 2020. The first stage was prioritised to specifically develop and perfect the 10-year English language curriculum for general education as well as make necessary preparations for piloting the curriculum. CLT as the prime approach has been embedded in the English language curriculum with the purpose of creating more exposure to English for students (Le 2015; Le et al. 2017; Le & Yeo 2016). The second stage was the introduction of the 10-year English language program into the general education system of the entire country. The third stage of the Project was the perfection of its English language program and development of other foreign language programs for secondary vocational and tertiary institutions (Hoang 2015).

As pointed out by Hoang (2015), three principal Decisions were respectively made by the Minister of Education and Training to implement the NLF2020 Project 2020:

- Decision no. 3321/QĐ-BGDĐT dated December 08th, 2010 on his approval of piloting English language curricula for primary schools;
- Decision no. 01/QĐ-BGDĐT dated January 03rd, 2012 on his approval of piloting English language curricula for lower secondary schools; and
- Decision no. 5209/QĐ-BGDĐT dated November 23rd, 2012 on his approval of piloting English language curricula for upper secondary schools.

All English language curricula though revised separately and launched at three different timelines, encompass ‘general objectives, specific objectives, and performance objectives, curriculum content which provides four macro-themes, definition of communicative competence, linguistic knowledge and skills, teaching methodology, assessment and conditions for effective curriculum

implementation' (Hoang 2015, p. 4). In 2016, MOET in collaboration with MacMillan Education and Pearson Education on the so-called 'textbook development project' released fifty-four products including student books, teacher books and audio-CDs. One of the most important tasks that needed to be prioritised when the team worked together was to ascertain whether students' communicative competence was developed in harmony with listening, speaking, reading and writing skills from Grades 3 to 12. Textbooks include core units and review units. Hoang (2015) reveals that the text length as well as the degree of language sophistication depends on the target level. For instance, the content from Grades 3 to 5 commences with a conversation with a few exchanges (2 to 4) concerning the topic together with pictures or photos which enable students to look, listen and repeat easily. The end of each unit consists of a mini-project for students to do tasks related to their real communication in daily contexts. The sequence of the content in each unit goes 'from easy to difficult, from controlled practice to semi-controlled practice to freer practice' (Hoang 2015, p. 9). Similarly, the content from Grades 6 to 12 also follows the same pattern and offers space for students to practise four macro-skills and to fulfill communicative tasks in genuine contexts.

2.7.2. Curriculum revision within Asian lenses

Once the teaching methodology alters, the curriculum must be modified accordingly (Abate 2014), otherwise English language teachers will find it impossible to implement the new teaching methodology. The reality shows that many national curricula in several Asian countries with CLT embedded, as indicated by Le and Barnard (2009), have been launched; however, their success is still in doubt. The following sections will explore how English language curricula in some Asian countries have been revised and adopted.

2.7.2.1. *South Korea*

Since 1964, English curricula in South Korea, according to Lee (2014), have been modified seven times. Communicative competence was added to the fourth national curricula; nevertheless, teaching guidelines were elaborated to improve students' communicative competence in the seventh national curricula. As compared to previous modifications of the national curricula, the seventh modification placed greater emphasis on developing students' communicative competence and their ability to use the language and highlighted oral English language education. Further, it stressed task-based learning. According to Hu (2002b), many English language teachers in South Korea claimed that when implementing CLT in their classrooms, they were not successful in

helping their students communicate effectively in the classrooms. They tended to stick to their traditional approaches rather than communicative methods. Finch (2011) strongly suggested that the employment of TBLT instead of CLT was completely suitable to the South Korean context. As a consequence, a multitude of games, role-plays and songs have been integrated in the curricula to arouse students' interest in learning English. In addition, the seventh national curricula contain more specific examples associated with communicative functions and expanded a volume of vocabulary which is taught meaningfully. Communicative functions embodied in the seventh national curricula are '(1) socialising, (2) exchanging factual information, (3) expressing intellectual attitude, (4) expressing emotions, (5) expressing moral attitude, (6) giving advice and (7) imagining' (Lee 2014, p. 5). In addition, the seventh national curricula offer opportunities for students to deepen their knowledge learned via supplementary activities and help them ameliorate their English language proficiency. Last but not least, they are more student-centred. To summarise, the seventh national curricula in South Korea have brought in several novel activities in English education classrooms with the ultimate purpose of enhancing students' communicative competence.

2.7.2.2. Nepal

Like other countries in Asia, English plays an important role in Nepal. That is why it has been taught as a compulsory subject in Nepal at the very beginning of students' education with the support of government and society. To help establish a solid foundation for English learning for Nepalese students, the curriculum with a focus on all four skills has been designed with the hope that by the end of Grade 5, students will be able to communicate in English effectively in certain situations (Government of Nepal 2008). School curricula at all levels in Nepal are designed and implemented by the Curriculum Development Centre (Bhusal 2015; Bista 2011; Karki 2014; Thakuri 2012). More specifically, an English curriculum with the integration of CLT which has been revised by this Centre, according to Sharma (2017), came into use in English primary school classrooms in Nepal in 1994; however, it has not been successful because Nepalese teachers of English as aforementioned have not become accustomed to implementing CLT (Adhikari 2010). Whilst many Nepalese teachers of English are recorded as unwilling to implement CLT in their classrooms, the current curriculum in Nepal focuses on developing students' English communicative competence and their ability to use it efficiently in genuine situations.

2.7.2.3. *China*

In 2001, according to Zhang (2012), China's MOE promulgated the Standards of English Curriculum for Senior High Schools. The new English curriculum placed more emphasis on oral communication skills as well as the enhancement of literacy skills. Ten years later, minor revisions were made, in particular, with standards appropriate to Grades 3 to 9 due to criticisms of overly high expectations (Hu & Adamson 2012). In other words, the reformed curriculum adjusted English standards to make them achievable for students; however, Hu and Adamson (2012) affirm that this was hindered by decentralisation because there happened to be many agencies whose responsibilities were to develop English textbooks. The 2011 Curriculum Standards, as mentioned by Zhang and Liu (2014), helps English language learners develop the autonomy of their learning and simultaneously enhance pertinent learning strategies. Further, it also creates a platform for English language teachers to guide their students to optimise those strategies to learn English more effectively. Besides, with the 2011 Curriculum Standards, students have ample opportunities to develop their competencies in all four English skills. Specific goals promulgated for Grades 5 to 6 include:

‘(a) collaborate with peers and jointly complete learning tasks, (b) consult with teachers and peers, (c) develop simple English learning plans, (d) take initiative to review and summarise what has been studied, (e) make associations between words and their referents, (f) concentrate on learning, (g) listen attentively and think actively in classroom communication, (h) try reading English stories and other extracurricular English materials, (i) express and communicate what has been learned, (j) observe use of simple English in daily life and the media, and (k) develop basic skills to use reference books to assist English learning.’

(Zhang 2012, p. 74)

As pointed out by Hu and Adamson (2012) and Zhang (2012), one of the limitations of the 2011 Curriculum Standards is to govern compulsory English language education for Grades 3 to 9 only. On the whole, in spite of the limitations, the purpose of the 2011 Curriculum Standards is to develop students' communicative competence, to cultivate their learning autonomy and to stimulate their involvement in classroom activities (Zhang 2012; Zhang & Liu 2014).

2.7.2.4. Taiwan

In September 2001, according to Chen (2013), reform of the English curriculum for primary levels in Taiwan was initiated because the English language had been officially introduced in Grade 5 earlier that year. Main goals specified in the reformed English curriculum were to develop students' basic communicative competence, to foster their interests in English learning and to encourage their awareness of local as well as foreign cultures (MOE 2000, cited in Chen 2013). The reformed English curriculum mapped out two stages of English language instruction for primary and junior high school levels. Specifically, English instruction at primary school level focuses more on students' oral skills whereas junior high school level highlights four language skills. To make students' English learning more enjoyable, the recommended teaching methodology has a greater focus on meaningful communication than rote memorisation.

2.7.2.5. Japan

Since Japanese students' communication in English was poor, the standards for all Japanese schools were set by the 2008 Course of Study, according to Machida and Walsh (2015). Since April 2011, MEXT has required all primary public schools (Grades 5 and 6) to embed one period of English-based activity lessons (45 minutes) into their teaching schedule per week (Machida 2016; Machida & Walsh 2015; Ng 2016). These embedded lessons help Japanese students develop their oral communication thanks to the team-teaching policy in which one classroom English language teacher instructs activities with one native assistant teacher. The new English language curriculum was introduced in primary schools with the focus on oral communication and required English language teachers to implement EMI in their classrooms (Machida 2016).

In 2013, major reforms were made to English language education by MEXT with the purpose of enhancing English education across primary to upper secondary school levels (Ohashi 2018). The common goal of developing students' communicative competence remains unchanged, but based on the guidelines of the new curriculum, English-based activity lessons have been lowered to Grades 3 and 4. This contributes to helping students habitually use English, possess a positive attitude towards the use of CLT as well as enhance their intercultural understanding. As planned, English is likely to become an official language subject, taught twice a week in Grades 5 to 6.

In conclusion, even though their reforms of the curricula are not the same, all five Asian countries under review here denote they have all revised their English language curricula with more

concentration on oral skills to help develop students' communicative competence. With closer attention to oral skills, there is a platform for the implementation of CLT as a teaching approach in their classrooms.

2.8. General challenges for school teachers in the implementation of EMI

As noted above, the implementation of EMI in classrooms is conducive to both students and English language teachers' learning; nonetheless, it must be adopted with due caution for a myriad of factors. One of the fundamental factors that impacts EMI use is teachers' readiness to adopt it. Research studies indicate that when English language school teachers use EMI, they encounter particular challenges (Bahanshal 2013; Corrales et al. 2016; Ikeda 2016; Vu & Burns 2014). Challenges come from multiple sides and each challenge is a genuine pressure for not only teachers but also students. The following seven challenges are identified in the literature and they will be discussed individually.

2.8.1. Students' limited English language proficiency

One of the common challenges that English language teachers face when EMI is implemented is the impact of their students' limited English proficiency (Chou 2016; Corrales et al. 2016; Lee & Curry 2019; Pun & Macaro 2019; Zhang, Zheng, Zhang & Zhang 2019). When English language teachers encounter this challenge in their classrooms, they tend to use L1 automatically to explain lesson content to students (Kyeyune 2003). It is time-consuming to engage students with low English proficiency in activities, so they keep pace with teachers' use of EMI. It is the teachers' responsibility to give more comprehensible explanations if students do not understand (Nguyen & Nguyen 2007; Vu & Burns 2014). English language teachers play a decisive role in the successful learning of primary children as they motivate children to learn English in EFL classrooms (Nguyen & Nguyen 2007). A study conducted by Hamid, Jahan and Islam (2013) concerning the implementation of EMI in one Bangladeshi private university reported that students' learning was influenced and impacted by their limited English proficiency. Students failed to understand the lessons if their lecturers exclusively used L2 to facilitate lessons. If L1 had been utilised as an MOI and students had been offered opportunities to access L1-based resources for learning, students would have had a better comprehension of lesson content. Thus, students' limited English language proficiency levels prevent the feasibility of EMI implementation.

2.8.2. Teachers' limited English language proficiency

Teachers' limited English proficiency also hinders them from using EMI in their classrooms (Corrales et al. 2016; Dearden & Macaro 2016; Hahl et al. 2016; Ibrahim, Anka & Yabo 2017; Ikeda 2016; Sah & Li 2018; Shrestha 2019; Suleman et al. 2019; Vu & Burns 2014). As Le and Renandya (2017) conclude, 'while native-like proficiency may not be necessary for teachers to teach well, ELT experts generally agree that teachers need to have a good level of proficiency to deliver effective lessons' (p. 79). This insight from the literature affirms that one of the most important determinants of the success of an EFL lesson is having teachers with appropriate proficiency in English. Additionally, these teachers need strong English teaching methods and techniques. In other words, having a good level of English proficiency will help teachers gain more confidence in teaching learners as well as performing well in their EFL classrooms (Burns 2017; Freeman et al. 2015; Hahl et al. 2016). Freeman et al. (2015) reason that 'the teacher's "command of English" is typically defined in operational terms as increased general English proficiency, fostering the assumption that increasing the teachers' general capacity in the language will lead to improved classroom teaching, and thus to student learning' (p. 130). When teachers use L1 or L2 in their teaching performance, they need to have a good command of English. Nunan (2003) stresses that in his study in China, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Taiwan and Vietnam, many teachers of English surveyed show their level of English proficiency helps 'to provide learners with the rich input needed for successful foreign language acquisition' (p. 607). EFL primary classrooms do not always need native teachers to be successful and they only require teachers with a high level of English proficiency (Nunan 2003). In a Korean study, Kim (2002) reported that though the number was not high, some teachers taking part in the study frankly responded that they were not confident enough when using EMI. It follows that if they are not confident, they may not use EMI as required. Kim's report concurs with educational researchers. Ibrahim et al. (2017) contend that most Nigerian teachers cannot implement EMI appropriately. Low English proficiency and insufficient confidence in using EMI will have a negative impact on their teaching performance as well as pedagogical practice (Corrales et al. 2016; Hahl et al. 2016; Le & Renandya 2017). That is the reason why Burns (2017) notes that in NNEST countries, there is always concern about English language teachers' proficiency levels and whether they are competent enough to use EMI in their classrooms.

Teachers' limited English proficiency levels in both language and content-based teaching lead to their fear of making mistakes in their classrooms. In interview sessions with four teachers in Taiwan, Huang and Singh (2014) found that teachers did not want to implement EMI in their classrooms because they were afraid that their poor pronunciation and lack of speech clarity might impact students' understanding. All of them perceived they did not have enough skills in the delivery of English though they reported different methods utilised to help students' understanding of lessons. One teacher mentioned his/her use of more natural English at low speed whereas another one indicated that he/she diversified teaching approaches and reiterated what was meant many times.

Research shows that few Vietnamese lecturers are competent enough to converse in English (Le 2012). Due to their limited English language proficiency levels, the majority of academic lecturers have difficulty understanding English materials or journals to keep themselves updated with new insights. Vietnamese teachers' poor English levels will make the classrooms less interesting and create students' confusion because their poorly spoken English impacts students' comprehension. The implementation of EMI becomes a greater challenge undoubtedly for students with limited language proficiency, but in many cases, lecturers with limited language skills face a dilemma (Le 2012). This explains why L1 is still used in some institutions of pedagogy as the MOI in subjects such as EFL teaching methodology, phonetics, semantics and so on (Dang et al. 2013). In a study performed by Dearden (2015) on the status quo of EMI in fifty-five countries, it is reported that the implementation of EMI is less beneficial due to lack of educational infrastructure, including qualified teachers, the support of pedagogy and teachers' willingness to manipulate EMI.

To sum up, teachers' English proficiency levels play a significant role in their willingness to implement EMI in classrooms (Corrales et al. 2016; Dearden & Macaro 2016; Hahl et al. 2016; Ibrahim et al. 2017; Ikeda 2016; Sah & Li 2018; Shrestha 2019; Suleman et al. 2019; Vu & Burns 2014). It is implied that if English proficiency levels are appropriate, their chances to implement EMI are feasible. Otherwise, they may feel compelled to do so.

2.8.3. Teachers' lack of professional knowledge

Using a teaching methodology appropriate for learners is another challenge faced by English language teachers in EMI-implemented classrooms (Hamid, Nguyen & Baldauf 2013; Shohamy 2012; Vu & Burns 2014). Wilkinson (2005), cited in Vu and Burns (2014), indicates that EMI is

conducive to language learning provided suitable instructional techniques like ‘codeswitching’ are modified, and there is more EFL teaching per week. According to Macaro (2005, p. 63), ‘codeswitching (switching between two or more languages) in natural discourse occurs when a speaker and an interlocutor share more than one language or dialect’. Codeswitching takes place regularly and is widely employed in bilingual communities. Codeswitching can be considered an asset and a precious means to effective communication. Nevertheless, Macaro (2005) indicates that many researchers regard codeswitching as neither an asset nor a precious means to effective communication. Therefore, the suitability of codeswitching is still a debatable issue in the context in which EMI is used, because when teachers fail to communicate lessons effectively, as discussed above, they will tend to use L1 to provide a substitute for learning.

Rowe (2018) mentions that translanguaging can be a method for English language teachers to employ in their classrooms. García (2009, p. 140) defined translanguaging as ‘the act performed by bilinguals of accessing different linguistic features or various modes of what are described as autonomous languages, in order to maximise communicative potential’. Rowe (2018) initiated six principles which support bilingual students, including ‘valuing students’ languages and cultures, modeling translanguaging, providing authentic opportunities for multilingual communication, inviting two-way translation, composing dual-language texts, and connecting students with bilingual or multilingual audiences’ (p. 31). Even though translanguaging is not an easy task for English language teachers and it takes time for teachers to design instructional activities for students, there is no doubt that it is an exhilarating activity to manipulate translanguaging capabilities which students bring to the classrooms. These six principles, according to Rowe (2018), can help students better their linguistic and literacy skills which are needed for their L2 development.

English language teachers often tend to vary their teaching approaches. Kim (2002) found that since Korean teachers also showed their concerns about students’ learning differences, it forced them to modify their teaching approaches to better meet the demands of students. English language primary school teachers in Korea found chants and songs together with pronunciation challenging. English language high school teachers reported they had difficulties teaching reading and grammar (Kim 2002). As posited by Ibrahim et al. (2017), it is important that teachers employ the language instruction appropriate to the enhancement of productive teaching and learning; otherwise, it might

impact on students' learning outcomes. Consequently, different EMI contexts and levels of education can lead to different challenges for EFL teachers.

2.8.4. Insufficient resources available

Insufficient resources prevent teachers from fully implementing EMI (Dang et al. 2013; Ibrahim et al. 2017; Sah & Li 2018; Vu & Burns 2014). To illustrate this point, the shortage of instructional resources such as printed materials has obstructed the implementation of EMI in Vietnam (Dang et al. 2013). EFL teachers can employ internet resources like online materials and visual media to facilitate implementation of EMI as well as advance globalisation; however, it is recommended that teachers be supplied with the needed resources to deliver effective and instructional lessons. Although unwavering in the belief that resources are essential in foreign language teaching, Nunan (2003) affirms that some EFL teachers fail to utilise their supplied resources to achieve expected instructional goals. Therefore, once provided with teaching resources, EFL teachers should know how to maximise their use to better serve their instructional purposes. In a study undertaken by Phan (2017) with the participation of twenty-one Vietnamese teachers of English, all of the participants stated in interview sessions that they are not adequately equipped with teaching facilities and materials, and this is the real challenge English language teachers in Vietnam deal with (Nguyen & Le 2015).

2.8.5. Big class size

Experienced English language teachers, in general, and beginning teachers, in particular, find it hard to teach in big classes where students possess mixed English proficiency levels as well as distinct personalities. Class size has a tremendous influence on the quality of English teaching and learning (Bahanshal 2013; Mukhtar 2019; Shah 2020; Shin 2012; Wang & Li 2019). According to Schanzenbach (2014), class size impacts students' learning accomplishments. As contended by Bahanshal (2013), teachers themselves have to make greater efforts with big class size. Le (2011) underscores that 'large classes lead to impersonal relationships between teachers and students, limit the range of instructional activities, cause management problems, and create many difficulties in controlling the students' learning situations and applying the communicative methods so highly valued in teaching nowadays' (pp. 218 & 219). It is certain that small class size is the preference for most English language teachers because it is less challenging to manage students and classroom activities. Byun et al. (2011) report that big class size causes reduced student involvement and

finally students are bereft of the prime chance to reach their EMI goal and to enhance English language proficiency. As recommended by Le (2011), an ideal EFL classroom should not exceed twenty students, thus English language teachers have more time to take better care of students and in turn students are certainly provided with a better chance to interact.

Students feel more connected in relation to small class size (Harfitt & Tsui 2015; Smith 2018). From their survey of four Hong Kong secondary schools, Harfitt and Tsui (2015) found that students and teachers in small classes ‘possessed a stronger sense of belonging or community, developed closer relationships, provided peer support, recognised each other’s expertise and saw classroom arena as a more relaxed and happy environment for learning’ (p. 859). Data collected showed that students had more engagement in learning in small-size classes. Regarding classroom interaction, students in small classes showed their willingness to ask questions as well as to respond to teachers or each other’s questions because their nervousness to speak was far less apparent than in big classes. This explains why they showed their eagerness to engage in classroom activities whereas students in big classes did not. Though students in big classes still had interaction with their peers in group work activities, they were reluctant to join in the whole class (Harfitt & Tsui 2015).

In summary, small class size is supported for learning in the literature review because of its conduciveness to enhancing students’ involvement in classroom activities (Byun et al. 2011; Harfitt & Tsui 2015) as well as boosting their interaction with teachers and classmates (Bahanshal 2013; Harfitt & Tsui 2015; Le 2011). It can be deducted that once students feel at ease and connected in their classrooms, they may commit to learning to a higher degree.

2.8.6. Learners’ commitment

The English language is introduced at an early school level in NNEs countries thanks to support from governments and parents (Kaplan, Baldauf & Kamwangamalu 2011; Nguyen 2011). According to Kaplan et al. (2011), parents spend a large amount of money on their children’s private tutoring in English to maximise future opportunities for their children. This creates a huge pressure on governments to support the introduction of English in primary schools and poses a real challenge for EFL teachers. This is despite no well-defined evidence of its actual benefits. There is no evidence to prove that having access to English early helps improve students’ opportunities in the future (Kaplan et al 2011). Besides, the implementation of EMI in primary school classrooms

does not guarantee that students can use English effectively for communication. Williams (2011) argues that primary school children in NNES countries acquire their L1 more easily than English. Consequently, children's negligible acquisition of English in EMI classrooms depends on many factors, such as their limited exposure to the language at home and teachers' inefficient performance, which results in the downturn of quality of EFL education.

However, according to Oliver and Azkarai (2017), if children start their L2 learning at a young age, they will attain better results than those who commence at a later age. Nevertheless, many researchers are rather cautious about this claim. For example, DeKeyser (2013) recommends that the potential benefits of studying a foreign language at a young age need to be investigated. From a pedagogical view, there is further need to explore what facilitates students' learning as well as in what ways students can perform at their best potential. The ideal time for EFL children's SLA as Palmer, Zhang, Taylor and Leclerc (2010) postulate is around the ages of 8 to 12 years. Simultaneously, other skills of EFL children in their L1 continue to be developed. With the assistance and use of L1, learners at the beginner stage will find it easier to acquire a second language and to efficiently complete the assigned tasks (Bao & Du 2015; Palmer et al. 2010; Teimourdash & Shakouri 2016). There is no certain correlation between children's learning of English at a younger age and their 'near-native English proficiency' (Kaplan et al. 2011, p. 106). To succeed in language learning, learners urgently need to have enough dedicated learning time, learning resources and proficient teachers with suitable teaching methodologies which meet their desired learning outcomes along with continual learning commitment. As such, the decisive factor in the success of language learning, especially English, does not lie in how early learners start learning or how much EMI is utilised in EFL classrooms. Learners' commitments to the language accompanied by proficient teachers with appropriate teaching methodologies which address learners' needs are significant factors contributing to proficiency.

2.8.7. Lack of teacher professional development training

Sufficient teacher professional development training shapes successful teaching performance, but the current professional development training is not adequate or effective enough to meet teachers' genuine demands (Truong 2015a). A small-scale study was undertaken by Dearden and Macaro (2016) in Austria, Italy and Poland to investigate twenty-five university lecturers who engaged in the implementation of EMI to teach academic subjects. This work illustrates that although they had a chance to join a short-term training course on the implementation of EMI, some disclosed in

interviews that their institutions did not support them sufficiently in terms of EMI pedagogy. Lack of EMI pedagogy was a deterrent to their successful implementation of EMI in their classrooms. As such, it is suggested that training be needed, but the MOET, professional development providers and people in-charge have to ascertain that training caters sufficiently to teachers' demands. Dearden and Macaro (2016) reported that they possessed limited self-experience or previously had no comprehension of the implementation of EMI. This begs the question as to whether they were prepared to execute EMI in their classrooms. When Dearden and Macaro inquired about English proficiency levels needed to teach EMI courses, all of the lecturers found it hard to respond precisely. They had not been provided with much needed information about EMI before they were requested to adopt it.

Teacher professional development training is non-existent in many schools (Le & Do 2013; Mai 2014; Nguyen 2011). In a study undertaken by Mai (2014), the researcher admits that a significant number of Vietnamese primary schools have only one teacher of English; as a result, these primary schools receive very little support concerning English teacher professional development training. In addition, teachers of English in these schools have no chances to attend teacher professional development training. In schools with more teachers of English, meetings are conducted more regularly, but they usually target difficulties teachers face when they have to both teach and manage students in classrooms (Le & Do 2013; Mai 2014; Nguyen 2011). In another study carried out by Vo (2016) with the participation of 206 primary school English language teachers in Binh Dinh, Da Nang, Gia Lai and Kon Tum, four provinces in Central Vietnam, it is reported that Vietnamese primary school language teachers mostly lack proper pedagogy techniques to teach English to young children. It is also implied that Vietnamese primary school language teachers do not have opportunities to attend proper teacher professional development training, which leads to inefficient teaching performance in classrooms.

To summarise, in the process of EMI implementation, EFL teachers cope with numerous challenges. These challenges are not limited to a specific group of EFL teachers but apply to all of them. Depending on their country's context, teachers may have differing and particular difficulties.

2.9. English language teacher professional development training in Vietnam

English language teachers must obtain professional knowledge and skills to develop their teaching capacity in classrooms (Truong 2010, 2015a). Without professional knowledge and appropriate

skills, teachers would not be capable of having proper implementation of what is required in their classrooms. The gap in teachers' knowledge has to be bridged by participating in teacher professional development training programs. It is the teachers' responsibility to update their professional knowledge plus pedagogical practices and to know how to integrate their learning with skills in teaching performance. They need to be lifelong learners to continue facilitating lessons conducive to students' learning (Dhaliwal 2015; Pilli, Sönmezler & Göktan 2017). With requirements from the government to encourage English language teachers' implementation of EMI in their classrooms, sufficient teacher professional development training on this topic is yet to be conducted. In addition, since the enactment of Vietnam's NFL2020 Project in 2008, many teacher training programs have been organised throughout the entire country. These teacher training programs are centred on English language proficiency and skills training (Vu 2014). Sections 2.9.1 and 2.9.2 will elucidate these training programs.

2.9.1. English language proficiency training for teachers

As above, NFL2020 has offered teachers opportunities to attend English language training programs. Evidence shows that teachers' own English language proficiency cannot be improved quickly and they need to attend proficiency training courses before they are competent in assisting their students to reach stipulated levels, as discussed in section 1.2. As a matter of fact, since the inception of NFL2020, federal funding has been annually allotted to provincial DOETs to make sure they have sufficient finance to order training institutions to deliver English proficiency training courses for their language teachers. Before participating in proficiency training courses, Vietnamese teachers of English are required to undergo a mandated test, which helps training institutions place them at homogeneous levels. On completion of training courses, they are requested to sit for VSTEP – this test includes four-language-skill components to assess whether they have reached the required levels.

As confirmed by Le et al. (2017), MOET authorised ten training institutions also approved by NFL2020 to deliver VSTEP in different parts of the country. These training institutions include: (1) University of Languages and International Studies, Vietnam National University; (2) Hanoi University; (3) College of Foreign Languages, Hue University; (4) College of Foreign Languages, Da Nang University; (5) Ho Chi Minh City University of Pedagogy; (6) Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Regional Training Centre (SEAMEO RETRAC); (7) Thai Nguyen University; (8) Can Tho University; (9) Hanoi University of Pedagogy; and (10) Vinh University. Should teachers

fail to reach their preferred level, they need to pay to re-sit for the VSTEP test until they are certified. Teachers are encouraged, but do not need to sit for the VSTEP, since IELTS or equivalent test scores are also accepted; nonetheless, most teachers prefer VSTEP due to its affordability. In spite of the fact that federal funding has been annually distributed, it is not enough for all teachers to attend the proficiency training courses. In reality, they need to take turns to participate and the criteria for selecting teachers to join in each province vary. Teachers that have been offered the chance to attend proficiency training courses, but for some reason have not succeeded in reaching their level, can re-join the training at institutions as self-funded learners. It is not necessary for teachers to attend the training. Provided they are confident that their English proficiency level is good enough, they can sit for the test without prior training.

2.9.2. Skill training for English language teachers

Apart from proficiency training courses, NFL2020 has also provided funding for certified teachers nominated by their schools, Units of Education or DOETs to engage in language skill training, including using English for Teaching (EfT), Techniques for Language Teaching, ICT in English Teaching, Action Research and so on. In 2014, NFL2020 worked collaboratively with National Geographic Learning to carry out a training project on the enhancement of teachers' English proficiency in classrooms as 'part of Vietnam's overall Master Training Plan for teachers in the five domains of professional development' (ELTeach 2014, p. 3). The goal of this project was to train teachers of English to use EfT to enhance the quality of English language education, increasing the probability of reaching the goals designated by NFL2020. Initially, 838 certified lecturers/teachers of English from different schools, educational institutions, colleges and universities across the country were nominated for a training-of-the-trainers (ToT) program with the blended learning mode (SEAMEO RETRAC 2018; Ton 2015). Two modules, 'EfT' and 'ICT in Language Instruction' were inclusive in the training program. They aimed to help English language teachers implement EMI in their classrooms and hone ICT skills needed for effective teaching performance. ELTeach (2014) restates that 'the *English-for-Teaching* course is a bounded set of functional words and phrases to enact essential classroom activities in English' (p. 7). The module encompasses three functional areas, consisting of: (1) managing the classroom; (2) understanding and communicating lesson content; and (3) assessing student work and giving feedback. These functional areas which help English language teachers implement EMI in their classrooms were summarised by Freeman et al. (2015, p. 136) (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: Summary of classroom activities

Classroom routine/teacher task	Functional area	Nature of language involved	Language skills
Greeting students	Managing the classroom	Greetings and salutations	Speaking and listening
Organising students to start an activity	Managing the classroom	Directions to students to settle down and begin work	Speaking
Giving instructions and explanations	Understanding and communicating lesson content	Activity instructions and explanations	Speaking/writing
Introducing new vocabulary	Understanding and communicating lesson content	Definitions and explanations of new words; examples	Speaking
Understanding student oral output during a reading activity	Assessing students and providing feedback	Texts of various types as presented in students' instructional materials	Listening and reading
Responding to student's oral output during a role play activity	Assessing students and providing feedback	Feedback on target language, e.g. grammar, vocabulary, register	Listening and speaking

The EfT module was facilitated by international experts whereas the ICT module was conducted by Vietnamese resource persons with internationally recognised expertise in the application of ICT

in English language teaching and learning. Teachers who successfully participate in this training are called ‘Master Trainers’ because they are responsible for training and sharing what they have learned with other teachers in their schools and provinces who have not had a chance to attend training.

After this ToT program, ten training institutions began to conduct training specifically on the same abovementioned topics based on orders from provincial DOETs which had received funding from the federal government. Teachers who successfully participated in ToT training became resource persons (Master Trainers) for the courses in their provinces. This language skill training is effective (Vo 2017) as many English language teachers are able to improve their English language levels. Their language improvements are proved via results from their English proficiency tests. However, the language skill training always tends to limit participants due to budget constraints. DOETs cannot afford to offer chances for all of their certified teachers of English to attend training at one time. Due to the small number of nominated teachers participating in training, teachers who are fortunate enough to be selected to take part are also called trainers (Teacher Trainers). Their responsibility is to train other teachers in their schools or provinces when they return after their training. The question as to whether they actually perform this responsibility remains a matter of concern.

According to the implementation report undertaken by National Geographic Learning, 600 selected teachers of English from Bac Can, Thai Nguyen, Thai Binh, Hai Duong, Nghe An, Hue, Quang Nam, Da Nang, Ben Tre and Dong Thap Provinces were invited to take part in the EFT module (ELTeach 2014; Vo 2017). This selection had a reasonably even distribution of teachers of English from the North, Central and South of Vietnam as well as those from urban and rural areas. The result of the training was positive, proving that teachers were able to use English for Teaching in their classrooms.

NFL2020 helps not only teachers but also students, contributing to the establishment of professional learning communities across the country. In addition to English teacher professional development training activities, NFL2020 frequently conducts conferences, seminars, sharing sessions and expert meetings on innovation in language teaching to which many experts in the field of ELT are invited to share the way they deliver trainings, administer proficiency tests as well as design test items with teachers across the country (SEAMEO RETRAC 2018). Also, NFL2020

targets teachers of other subjects such as Mathematics and Science, as teaching these subjects in English will be one of the future directions of the Project. Even though several schools in big cities, notably Ho Chi Minh and Ha Noi, have commenced teaching Mathematics and Science subjects in English, there is a need for more capacity building activities on a large scale to make it feasible nationwide in the long run.

2.10. Perceptions of teachers towards the implementation of EMI

The literature elicits that positive perceptions and attitudes of EFL teachers towards professional development training influence their successful teaching performance (Al-Seghayer 2014; Truong 2010, 2015a). It can therefore be implied that should teachers possess positive perceptions towards EMI use, they will offer to implement EMI in their EFL classrooms, if obliged to do so (Corrales et al. 2016). Otherwise, they will have the feeling of being compelled to implement EMI as an act of compliance, which may lead to less favourable outcomes in the classrooms. The EFL students may also suffer. Besides those in favour of EMI and those opposed to its implementation, there are teachers who are ambivalent and unsure of the effectiveness of L1 or L2 use. The literature would indicate that these three positions and the perceptions of EFL teachers towards the adoption of EMI could be labelled as ‘positive’, ‘ambivalent’ or ‘negative’. These three points of view or the teacher’s stance are predominant and need to be fully pondered to appreciate the manner in which EMI is actively employed.

Research denotes that the attitudes of teachers, students, parents and researchers towards the implementation of EMI are positive (Al-Qahtani & Al Zumor 2015; Corrales et al. 2016; Kim et al. 2016). In the study conducted by Corrales et al. (2016), both teachers and students confirm they have a positive attitude or stance towards EMI. From their perspectives, they are provided with the chance to employ English ‘in authentic communicative situations and can enhance their technical vocabulary knowledge’ (p. 335). Furthermore, students feel more confident when they use the language for communicative purposes. They, in fact, seem not to be afraid of making mistakes in English communication, which offers them multiple opportunities to practise their English with teachers or with one another. Teachers and students, according to a study conducted by Al-Qahtani and Al Zumor (2015) in Saudi Arabia, reported that Saudi parents possess positive perceptions of teachers’ implementation of EMI in private primary schools because they understand the necessity of English. They also identify that if learning English at an early age,

their children will be likely to acquire the language more productively. According to Kim et al. (2016), EMI is emphasised as a foundation to acquire EFL. In a Korean study undertaken by Jeon (2008), the majority of EFL elementary and secondary school teachers show they understand the concept of EMI and possess positive perceptions around its implementation (more than half of 346 teachers believe that EMI is conducive to improved listening and speaking skills), but they are less likely to implement EMI in their English classrooms. It is implicit here that understanding EMI does not always lead to its execution. In another Korean study, Kang (2008), cited in Kim et al. (2016), stresses that the use of Korean as an MOI does not provide any considerable assistance if EFL teachers want their students to be better at English. They emphasise that the only way to help Korean EFL students enhance their English is to create an environment in the classroom where students are exposed to English. They hold that this is because the students have limited exposure to English outside the classroom. In another study which surveys middle and high school teachers in Korea, Lee and Lee (2011), cited in Kim et al. (2016), highlight the importance of EFL teachers in the implementation of English in their EMI classrooms to ensure that students have time to practise their English as much as possible.

Apart from the positive perceptions, in a study addressing EMI in China, Hu (2016) concludes that some teachers have an ambivalent perception of implementing EMI in their classrooms. They are satisfied with their English and they believe that their English levels are sufficient to carry out assigned teaching goals. However, they also express their concern about the implementation of EMI due to lack of support as well as challenges for both teaching and learning encountered in their daily teaching performance. They believe that the government needs to support them during the process of EMI implementation.

Departing from previous studies, the discernment of many teachers and students towards the implementation of EMI is negative (Jiang, Zhang & May 2016; Kim et al. 2016; Sali 2014). As asserted by Jiang et al. (2016), Chinese teachers who took part in their research possessed a negative perception of the use of EMI due to their limited English proficiency levels. Even though this was the case, they understood that EMI helped students develop their English skills (Jeon 2008): 'From the analysis of classroom language practices and the interview responses, poor English proficiency can be deemed as the primary cause for inconsistency between policy and practice' (Jiang et al. 2016, p. 8). As a result, the genuine use of EMI in their classrooms is relatively limited. Ostensibly, their understanding does not always come with practice, especially

in EMI contexts due to the low English proficiency levels of both learners and teachers, limited support from schools and so on (Corrales et al. 2016; Hahl et al. 2016; Vu & Burns 2014). The negative perception of teachers towards the use of EMI itself is a contributing factor. Also, due to time constraints, these teachers decided not to use English to teach students in spite of the fact that their actions were against policy. Apart from the teachers, Chinese students in this study also have negative perceptions of EMI-based courses (Jiang et al. 2016). Though teachers state they do not like the use of EMI and their limitations in English language proficiency are inevitable, data collected from classroom observations show they are still able to use English to explain specific subject knowledge. This 2016 study illustrates that if these Chinese teachers are required to use EMI, they are indeed capable of implementing it; however, their implementation will also need to be carefully observed by school leaders to ensure their implementation of EMI is appropriate. According to Kim et al. (2016), most of the students in Korea do not select EMI courses voluntarily. They have little confidence with their English ability and think they are not suitable for EMI courses. They also believe that EMI cannot help them improve their English skills. In that study, data show that the number of students opposed to the use of EMI is overwhelming (Kim et al. 2016). In a study undertaken by Sali (2014), Turkish EFL secondary teachers show their positive perceptions of L1 rather than EMI use and believe that L1 facilitates students' comprehension as well as interaction in the classroom. Their decision on the use of L1 is based on students' language proficiency, types of in-class activities and so forth. It is inferred they do not possess positive perceptions of the implementation of EMI; therefore, when explaining things, they prefer adopting L1 to L2.

To conclude, teachers across primary, secondary and tertiary education from different countries possess mixed perceptions of EMI implementation in their classrooms. However, as confirmed by Dearden and Macaro (2016), English language levels of teachers may impact on their attitudes to EMI. Therefore, to help English language teachers possess a positive perception of the implementation of EMI, their English levels must be improved and they need to believe in the genuine benefits that EMI uptake brings to them and their students.

2.11. Implications for the implementation of EMI

As described in the literature review above, the implementation of EMI in the classrooms is fruitful to both students (Belhiah & Elhami 2015; Chang 2010; Chapple 2015; Lin & Morrison 2010;

Sultan et al. 2012; Wong 2010) and teachers who are pivotal to EMI implementation (Freeman et al. 2015; Kabilan 2013). Nonetheless, the implementation of EMI has many implications. Accordingly, the implications have to be explored because if adequately addressed, they will have a tremendously positive influence on students' learning outcomes.

2.11.1 EMI policies

Schools should not force teachers to solely use EMI in their classroom delivery (Kim et al. 2016) because not all teachers possess adequate English proficiency levels for EMI (Corrales et al. 2016; Hahl et al. 2016; Vu & Burns 2014). Additionally, when EMI is under implementation, before and after attending EMI classes, learners' English proficiency levels must be assessed. For low-achieving learners, their skills need to be diagnosed to provide proper training for them when they attend EMI classes (Kim et al. 2016; Vu & Burns 2014). Despite indicating that many researchers take exception to the use of L1 in EFL classrooms because it limits learners' exposure to L2, Kim et al. (2016) assert that 'L1 can function as an effective academic tool for clarification, emphasis, and repetition of important content; as an effective reserve for building and solidifying rapport between the instructor and students who share the same L2; and as an efficient strategy for classroom management' (p. 143). As affirmed by Kim (2011), L1 use can make difficult materials more comprehensible to learners. Fang (2018) and Kirkpatrick (2014, 2017) also agree that EMI policies should not ban the use of L1.

2.11.2. Teacher professional development training

With the rapid development of the world, current teaching approaches and techniques will swiftly become outdated; therefore, teachers need to work in close cooperation with their colleagues to search for innovative directions in their teaching which meet the demands of students as well as help them achieve expected academic learning outcomes (Truong 2015b). Quality and purposeful teacher training are crucial as they help to change teacher behaviours (Barnett 2003). Tam (2012) endorses the belief that policy and resources are not as crucial as teachers' belief systems – it is teachers' beliefs that will have a tremendous effect on their teaching performance in the classroom. According to Fullan (2007), cited in Tam (2015), it is less challenging to change instructional materials and teaching strategies than teachers' beliefs. Tam (2015) defines teacher behaviours as 'actions undertaken by teachers to improve student learning' (p. 23). Teachers' beliefs and behaviours can be changed via proper training. It is implied that if teachers discern adverse effects

towards the implementation of EMI, training activities on its manipulation can make them change their perceptions.

Teacher training on EMI implementation is essential. In a study undertaken in Nigeria by Ibrahim et al. (2017), they conclude that primary school teachers require proper EMI training in their classrooms and need to enhance their proficiency in language, so EMI is executed efficiently. It is also highlighted that teachers do not receive one-off training but they need to be retrained many times. ‘Any program for the effective implementation of EMI should give adequate attention to training and retraining of teachers, policy makers and primary school administrators/ proprietors’ (Ibrahim et al. 2017, p. 71).

Truong (2015b) recommends eight propositions for advancing teacher professional development training in Vietnam. Firstly, teachers need to be interviewed or engaged in such a way to ensure training topics meet their demands. Secondly, teacher training has to be decentralised as each region will have different matters of professional concern to contend with. Thirdly, the training has to focus on low-achieving teachers. Classroom observation is the suggested tool which helps identify low-achieving teachers for training. Fourthly, teachers’ awareness of professional development training must be raised. Fifthly, it is no longer viable to conduct only one training perhaps and then believe that teachers can manage the field of training they have engaged in. Follow-up workshops as well as regular observations should be the norm. Teachers at different stages on their academic pathway will have different notions of training and EMI implementation will therefore be varied. Sixthly, professional learning communities within schools should be established so that teachers never cease ongoing learning. Seventhly, although teachers have already obtained their higher degrees, participating in professional training workshops is a must. ‘Teachers should know that their pursuits of higher education help them generalise theories of teaching while short-term training which focuses on updated teaching skills and techniques will make them more productive teachers in the knowledge-based society’ (Truong 2015, p. 125). Lastly, there is a need for associated teacher training roles advocating and advancing specific training that interested teachers can take part in. The above suggestions may be applied to English language teachers’ implementation of EMI in their classrooms. In reality, Vu and Burns (2014) imply that schools need to offer teachers mentoring programs and ongoing professional development training activities, especially workshops on the effective implementation of EMI. EFL teachers need to be confident in using EMI and techniques that deal with learners’ queries

using English. Some teachers need continued language support to enhance their teaching skills. They are also in need of English materials and facilities at their disposal. English resources will help these teachers reduce their workload and time devoted to searching for instructional resources and materials. In addition, action research on the implementation of EMI or forums in which teachers share their EMI experiences should be encouraged. Babinski, Amendum, Knotek, Sanchez and Malone (2018) posit that with schools' continual support for leading innovations in the classroom, teachers will be capable of refining their English teaching performance for students. Feedback from teachers is of great importance to ongoing professional development training workshops. Thus 'providing specific training in high-impact instructional strategies along with a framework for professional collaboration supports teachers in their implementation of new practices' (Babinski et al. 2018, p. 139). Chang (2010) acknowledges that EMI teaching strategies have to be improved by appropriate professional training which aims to upgrade their capacity. This acknowledgement asserts the positive impacts of professional training on teacher learning and more specifically indicates that if such teacher training courses are conducted well, they will boost teachers' English proficiency levels as well as teaching capacity. Duong and Chua (2016) highlight that training must meet individual teachers' demands and must be conducted suitably to guarantee that teachers are willing to attend. According to Le and Nguyen (2012) 'teachers' personal motivation for learning is an important determinant for their participation in learning' (p. 63). As a matter of fact, they have to perceive that training meets their teaching demands.

As such, English proficiency levels of most NNES teachers are not sufficient to implement EMI in their classrooms (Ibrahim et al. 2017; Le & Do 2013; Nguyen 2011). Therefore, quality English teacher training is inclusive of the enhancement of teachers' EMI teaching proficiency and fruitful implementation strategies which can be employed in the classrooms.

2.11.3. Teacher preparedness

The implementation of EMI needs continued efforts from schools, teachers and students. In a study conducted in Japan by Ikeda (2016), the findings illustrate that EMI implementation is a challenge for not only teachers but also students. Students find it challenging to understand their teachers' English. To minimise these challenges, teachers need to prepare and practise in advance what they plan to say in their EFL classrooms. Although this preparation takes time, it is worthwhile. Further, teachers need to ensure they speak English with confidence and that their English is understandable: 'A certain degree of use of L1 should create a better learning environment where

learners are motivated and face less frustration' (Ikeda 2016, p. 8). Ikeda (2016) does not deny the effect of L1 use, but he argues that teachers should not only use L1 in their EFL classrooms.

To conclude, the implementation of EMI needs teachers with a reasonable English proficiency level and pertinent teaching methodology (Corrales et al. 2016; Hahl et al. 2016; Vu & Burns 2014). Thus, learners' English proficiency levels need to be screened so they can be supplied with suitable EFL education and training (Kim et al. 2016; Vu & Burns 2014). Apart from this, teacher training programs also need to be taken into consideration (Vu & Burns 2014). Additionally, teachers must be provided with sufficient resources to promote effective teaching performance (Vu & Burns 2014). Finally, the literature identifies that L1 use is still relevant and should be encouraged in EFL classrooms if it is utilised in response to learning demands (Bao & Du 2015; Ikeda 2016; Palmer et al. 2010; Teimourtash & Shakouri 2016).

2.12. Second Language Acquisition and Teaching of English to Children

There is no denying that it is challenging to teach English to children because there are many concerns that need to be taken into account. One of the concerns is how children acquire a second language. This section includes two subsections. The first one is the in-depth exploration of the process of SLA. Next is the teaching of English to children.

Second Language Acquisition

People have the capacity to acquire their first language and one or more second languages (Towell & Hawkins 1994). The process of SLA lasts throughout their whole life, but not all are successful in acquiring a second language as compared to their native language acquisition. L2 learners make efforts in acquiring second languages. Plenty of approaches (linguistic, sociolinguistic and psychological or cognitive) were employed by researchers in SLA to explain this phenomenon, according to Towell and Hawkins (1994). Linguistic approaches to the nature of the acquisition of second languages take it for granted that 'infants are born with a language faculty which equips them with biologically determined grammatical tools for the task of acquiring natively the language that is spoken around them' (Towell & Hawkins 1994, p. 4). Many structural modifications have eventually taken place in this language faculty, depending on the individual's maturation or how well his/her L1 has been acquired. These structural modifications happening in the mental language faculty create disparities between the acquisition of L1 and L2 in SLA (Towell & Hawkins 1994).

Sociolinguistic approaches to SLA are relevant to two main issues (Towell & Hawkins 1994). The first issue is L2 learners' attitudes towards L2 learning, speakers of L2 or L2 association with the culture. Learners' positive or negative attitudes towards L2 may determine the extent to which they are directly motivated to learn L2 and indirectly impact on their L2 acquisition. The second issue is the contextual influence on the process of their SLA when they are faced with or use L2 (Towell & Hawkins 1994).

As indicated in their research, Towell and Hawkins (1994) mention that there are at least two issues arising from the psychological or cognitive approaches to SLA. The first one is L2 learners' development of their general cognitive maturity. While L1 learners' acquisition of their mother tongue is inborn, L2 learners are supposed to have background knowledge of the world prior to their SLA. Differences in general cognitive maturity between L1 and L2 learners lead to their language acquisition differences. The second issue is learners' nature of mental comprehension, storage and production of language and how this nature may impact on the acquisition of particular languages of L1 and L2 learners.

Even though SLA research has frequently concentrated on adults, there has been a small but growing tendency to focus on child L2 learners (Muñoz 2006; Oliver & Azkarai 2017; Oliver & Nguyen 2018). It is clear that children significantly differ from adults in SLA (Paradis 2007) since children and adults employ different strategies to cope with a variety of tasks (Pinter 2006). In fact, when children and adults are compared in terms of development, differences emerge. There are disparities existing not only between adults and children but also between younger and older child learners. Adult learners have their independence and autonomy in their language learning, which sets them apart from adolescents and younger children. In reality, adolescents and younger children have shortage of the independence and autonomy of adults. Children are reliant on the support gained from their teachers, parents as well as their classmates to acquire the language which is unfamiliar to them. Furthermore, especially when they are put in an unfamiliar context, the support needs to be strengthened (Philp, Borowczyk & Mackey 2017).

Interaction studies have reported children's age differences when they acquire L2 (Oliver 2009; Butler & Zeng 2015). According to Towell and Hawkins (1994), SLA becomes slow and laborious as compared to how they acquire their L1 when children are older. At the age of five, 'children are almost on the cusp of middle childhood, by which time most children's language reflects a

substantial lexicon and some syntactic complexity’ (Philp et al. 2017, p. 2). By middle childhood, children experience further advancement in perceiving the world around them. Their metacognitive awareness commences to develop and they start to engage in pleasant activities gained from word games and other linguistic play (Cekaite & Aronsson 2005). Thanks to their metacognitive awareness, children are able to develop their complicated thinking of how language functions (Duchesne & McMaugh 2016). Their metacognition makes them realise the differences between languages (Muñoz 2017). After a few years of schooling, children develop their literacy which works as an added instrument helping to further improve communication skills as well as to enhance children’s linguistic perceptions. At school, children are able to ‘provide feedback to one another and to benefit from interaction with one another’ (Philp et al. 2017, p. 2) though this ability varies depending on their age.

In terms of L2 learning, where learners have limited target input exposure, older learners have more benefits. Since adolescents are more cognitively mature, they can more effectively manipulate explicit knowledge for L2 learning and accelerate the process (Muñoz 2006). As such, Paradis (2007) indicates that if teachers are aware of their children’s cognitive maturity at different stages, they will know more efficient ways to teach each particular age group.

Many findings indicate that young children acquire L2 less effectively than their older counterparts in the short to medium term. For example, it was reported that young EFL children aged 8 had slower acquisition of syntax, morphology together with literacy skills than older EFL children aged 11 since their cognition did not grow fully at young age (Muñoz 2006). These two age groups of students from 30 state schools had the same number of English instructional hours. Data were collected at three different stages of English instruction: after 200, 416 and 726 hours of instruction. At each stage, the participants were given a test that consisted of many components to assess their four macro-skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing). The result showed that older EFL children aged 11 scored significantly higher in literacy-oriented tests, meaning that older L2 learners performed better in academic tasks thanks to their greater cognitive development.

Teaching of English to Children

Teaching English to children is not an easy task and it can cause a multitude of challenges to teachers if they fail to have a firm grasp of children’s learning (Hashemi & Azizinezhad 2011). English language teachers are required to comprehend how children acquire the language and

know ways to implement it effectively so that children feel motivated to learn. Activities should encourage children to play and mimic (Scott & Ytreberg 1990; Slattery & Willis 2001). Children's cognitive growth undergoes four major orderly stages, including 'sensory motor stage – 0–2 years', 'preoperational or intuitive stage – 2–7 years', 'concrete operations stage – 7–11 years', and 'formal operations stage – 11–15 years' (Hertherington & Park 1975, cited in Simatwa 2010, p. 367). As this thesis is primarily centred on primary school children, I focus on children from 6 to 10 years old. The following literature explores children's characteristics which English language teachers must consider in order to optimise classroom learning.

To teach English appropriately to children, English language teachers have to understand their young learners' characteristics, as they are quite different from adult learning (Hashemi & Azizinezhad 2011; Scott & Ytreberg 1990; Vo 2016). According to Brown (1987), what differentiates young learners from adult learners, regarding cognitive aspects, is their cognition of development, sensory input, short attention span and concrete thinking ability. As children's attention span is not lengthy, their learning activities must be fun, interesting and memorable. Ghosn (2013) indicates that L2 children have the same characteristics of development as L1 children though they share some differences concerning key aspects of the language. L1 children have immersion in the language, specifically for social interaction, whereas their L2 peers study it as a school subject with limited hours per week. As contended by Lightbown and Spada (2006), L2 children's limited exposure to the language acts as a deterrent to their becoming fluent L2 speakers, no matter how young they start learning it. Irrespective of their L1, most children's cognitive growth has a relatively similar sequence (Kuhn 2006).

Evidence shows that primary school children possess general characteristics (Scott & Ytreberg 1990; Slattery & Willis 2001). As posited by Slattery and Willis (2001), these children have already started learning to read and write in L1. They have cognitively developed as thinkers and can differentiate genuine from imaginary (Scott & Ytreberg 1990; Slattery & Willis 2001) because their basic concepts of things have been formed. At this stage, they are also competent in planning and organising how to perform an assigned activity effectively. They have begun to socialise with people; therefore, they are capable of working in cooperation with and learning from others. They can 'be reliable and take responsibility for class activities and routines' (Slattery & Willis 2001, p. 5). For Scott and Ytreberg (1990, p.3), 10-year-old children are quite mature with the combination of 'an adult side and a childish side'. Children aged 8 to 10 are curious and never stop

asking questions (Hashemi & Azizinezhad 2011). They convey and comprehend meaning via the spoken word as well as the physical world rather than theoretical explications. Indeed, they possess their own ideas about what they like and do not like.

In regards to language acquisition, young children learn via practice (Ghosn 2013). For example, they cannot learn English grammar fruitfully if structures are presented as a rule. They learn best if they hear and use target structures many times in varied contexts. Different from adult learners, the presentation of a grammar rule is not going to work for them. Further, similar to their L1 peers, L2 children are creative in using L2 grammar irrespective of their L1 and errors made are not uncommon. ‘Overextending rule application and producing sentences such as *I wanted to the park*’ (Ghosn 2013, p. 63) regularly occur.

In summary, even though primary school children have general characteristics, not all the children at this age are the same. Some have more cognitive development and SLA than others. It is impossible for English language teachers to conceptualise general characteristics of children and treat them the same way in the classrooms; teachers are supposed to be cognisant of their specific characteristics to consider their relevant teaching performance (Scott & Ytreberg 1990).

2.13. Chapter summary

Studies have shown that EMI is a phenomenon in NNES countries. EMI is understood differently, depending on the contexts. Additionally, EMI should be comprehended at both macro and micro levels. The implementation of EMI is disparate from country to country and from classroom to classroom. EMI implementation is usually encouraged at the macro level, but how teachers interpret it at the micro level is a matter of concern.

When L2 is mandated as an MOI, governments (or MOETs) promulgate pertinent English language policies and provide opportunities for English language teachers to attend proficiency and skills training to increase their awareness of the benefits of EMI execution in their classrooms. Research has elicited that English language teachers have mixed perceptions (positive, ambivalent and negative) towards EMI implementation in their classrooms. Therefore, teacher professional development training on EMI is a productive modality which helps teachers change their own mindsets and become accustomed to its implementation. Moreover, English language curricula have to be revised, concentrating on the development of students’ communicative competence. Moreover, it is a fallacy that EMI implementation uses only English in classrooms. English

language teachers are able to use L1 in their classrooms provided this does not obstruct students' development of their L2 communicative competence.

Research denotes that CLT is the prime approach in the implementation of EMI. All six Asian countries under review illuminate that CLT has been used in the classrooms for some time; nevertheless, its implementation has proved to be not as successful as expected. CLT is not a recent ELT approach in Vietnam. Thanks to the enactment of the NFL2020 Project, English language curricula have been revised more appropriately with a focus on listening and speaking skills, which creates plenty of space for English language teachers to challenge themselves and implement more CLT in their classrooms. Regular implementation of CLT, as an approach, contributes to realising designated goals of Vietnam's NFL2020 Project.

Chapter 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Using English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) classrooms is not new in Vietnam, because it has been implemented in many schools where there are Vietnamese teachers whose English language proficiency is sufficient (Do 2006). Further, the implementation of EMI offers multiple benefits not only to English language teachers (Doiz et al. 2012; Kaliban 2013; Wong 2010; Yeh 2012) but also to English language students (Belhiah & Elhami 2015; Chang 2010; Chapple 2015; Dearden & Macaro 2016; Ikeda 2016; Sultan et al. 2012; Wong 2010). English language teachers, especially in primary schools in Vietnam, need to clearly understand the importance of its benefits as it boosts their implementation of EMI in their EFL classrooms. This chapter includes the theoretical framework, how the framework applies to the current study and the application of the research paradigm. Additionally, this chapter also explains why case studies and mixed methods research were employed in this study and how the data were analysed.

3.1. Theoretical framework

This thesis employed the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) as the theoretical framework, in which Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories functioned as a support. The following paragraphs explain in detail SLA theories and TPB.

Second Language Acquisition Theories

First and second language acquisition theories were developed together (Gitsaki 1998). During the past five decades, many research studies in the field of linguistics have centered themselves on SLA with the purpose of exploring how the second language is acquired as well as probing the different developmental stages of SLA. A multitude of theories of SLA were constructed. Since this thesis was relevant to primary school students' SLA when L2 is implemented, SLA theories were employed to support the theoretical framework of the current study which is specified later in this section.

The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis is one of the first approaches employed to explain some of the observable phenomena of SLA (Towell & Hawkins 1994). The logic of this hypothesis is comprehensible, meaning that when L1 is acquired, a set of habits will be formed. This process

applies the same to SLA, ‘with the difference that some of the habits appropriate to the L2 will already have been acquired in the L1; others will have been acquired in the L1 but will need to be modified or eradicated in the context of the L2; and yet others will need to be acquired from scratch for the L2’ (p. 17). The learning of L2 is to identify which habits are similar and which are dissimilar. This process of learning helps to modify dissimilar habits in order that there may be the formation of novel and appropriate habits of L2. The purpose of this hypothesis is to compare languages’ structure.

Interlanguage Theories

Selinker (1969) first employed the term ‘interlanguage’ to elicit stages of linguistics which second language learners undergo when they are to master their mother tongue. ‘Interlanguage’ is considered one of the important SLA theories. Selinker (1972) as cited in Gitsaki (1998) indicates that interlanguage is a systematic and temporary grammar which consists of five principal cognitive processes: (1) overgeneralisation, (2) transfer of training, (3) strategies of second language learning, (4) strategies of second language communication and (5) language transfer. There is a cognitive emphasis on the interlanguage system described by Selinker with the concentration on strategies which learners implement when studying a second language. Adjemian (1976) as cited in Gitsaki (1998, p. 92) argues that ‘interlanguages are natural languages but they are unique in that their grammar is permeable’.

Perspectives on SLA

According to Brown (2014), there are six perspectives on SLA, including maturation-based approaches, cognitive models, sociocultural viewpoints, identity approaches, ecological viewpoints and dynamic systems theory. Such six perspectives on SLA have overlap among them. The following paragraphs are going to explore the first three perspectives in detail.

a) Maturation-based Approaches

Brown (2014) indicates that Chomsky made one of the earliest claims for L1 acquisition in 1964. Following were other researchers making claims about inborn characteristics of the acquisition of the language. As mentioned by Brown (2014), when the hypothetical language acquisition device was proposed, human beings were believed to have inborn characteristics which helped them

naturally acquire the language. Thanks to this proposal, maturation-based approaches to SLA are recommended.

The Monitor Model

Stephen Krashen initiated the Monitor Model (or called the Input Hypothesis) in the late 1970s that encompassed crucial recommendations for language teaching and this model is regarded as one of the best-known theories of SLA (Gitsaki 1998; Spada & Lightbown 2002). Stephen formed five principal hypotheses in the Model:

i) The Acquisition versus Learning Hypothesis

The acquisition of the first and second language is similar because it is a subconscious process whereas learning is not. Learning cannot lead to acquisition and learning often occurs in a formal setting while acquisition happens spontaneously (Krashen 1976, 1982 as cited in Gitsaki 1998). Subconscious acquisition differs from conscious learning and is ultimately more important (Brown 2014).

ii) The Monitor Hypothesis

Learning assists in monitoring and editing speech through which the process of acquisition production takes place provided that second language learners have time and inclination to concentrate on the accuracy of the messages delivered (Spada & Lightbown 2002).

iii) The Natural Order Hypothesis

First and second language learners undergo ‘a series of predictable stages in their acquisition of linguistic features’ (Spada & Lightbown 2002, p. 113). Learners acquire the second language rules early or late not necessarily relying on the simplicity of form. Learners’ SLA could be impacted by instruction in the classroom (Krashen 1985 as cited in Gitsaki 1998).

iv) The Comprehensible Input Hypothesis

This hypothesis reflects Krashen’s view that first and second language acquisition takes places when learners are exposed to comprehensible, meaningful and diverse linguistic input. Meaningful and contextual linguistic input is helpful in the development of learners’ competence. With the provision of meaningful and contextual linguistic input, learners are able to comprehend the

language which is a bit more complicated than what they have already studied (Brown 2014; Spada & Lightbown 2002).

v) The Affective Filter Hypothesis

Learners will not fully employ the comprehensive input if a mental block, which deters the process of acquisition, occurs (Krashen 1985 as cited in Gitsaki 1998). This hypothesis also recommends that learners can only acquire the language as well as the comprehensive input when they are motivated to learn (Spada & Lightbown 2002). In other words, if the comprehensive input is sufficient and it happens in low-anxiety settings, learners will acquire the language the most effectively (Brown 2014).

The Monitor Model has been criticised for the ambiguity of the structured hypotheses as well as the difficulties explored in empirical research studies (Brown 2014; DeKeyser 1997). However, its significant influence on the field of L2 teaching and learning is undeniable (Spada & Lightbown 2002).

Universal Grammar

According to Bhatia and Ritchie (2009) as cited in Brown (2014), Universal Grammar partly explains most of the phenomena which could be found in the acquisition of both L1 and L2. Universal Grammar researchers believe that ‘innate properties constrain both first and second language acquisition’ (Brown 2009, p. 290).

b) Cognitive Models

Brown (2014) maintains that there are following perspectives in the element of cognitive models as they all concentrate on two main things: learners and framework of language.

An Attention-Processing Model

This model was created in order to save educational psychology from demerits from behavioural theory. Cognitive models were better evaluated as compared to behavioural ones thanks to their ‘conscious thinking, mental processing, and systematic storage and retrieval’ (Brown 2014, p. 292). In terms of mental processing, controlled processing was understood as necessary for any learner studying a totally new skill (L2 beginners) whereas automatic processing happened when learners had their accomplished skills (advanced L2 learners). In SLA, learners’ close attention could be paid to form once in a while and to meaning occasionally; nevertheless, a principal stage

at which learners have to reach SLA is their ability to concentrate on meaning and also to peripherally address form. This perspective on SLA rules out the need to differentiate conscious from subconscious processing (Brown 2014).

Implicit and Explicit Processing

Implicit knowledge is comprehended as information employed in language tasks whereas explicit knowledge encompasses facts which learners have about language (J.N. Williams 2009, as cited in Brown 2014). For example, children implicitly study pragmatic rules of the language, but they gain no access to how those rules are explicitly described. Therefore, implicit processing helps learners to carry out language, but it is not necessary for them to quote rules controlling the performance (Brown 2014).

c) Sociocultural Viewpoints

Different from the maturational and cognitive perspectives, sociocultural viewpoints focus on language and interaction (Brown 2014). In order to provide learners with comprehensive inputs, native speakers have to modify their interaction depending on the contexts. In L1 contexts, teachers might modify their speech to their students. However, as interacting with their L2 students, they might employ many different ways to modify their inputs, including: slowing down speech, offering comprehension checks, requesting clarification and paraphrasing.

Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)

Given powerful societal constructs in Vietnam, TPB initiated by Ajzen (1988, 1991) was used as a theoretical framework for the current study (see Figure 3.1). As indicated by Underwood (2012), TPB was created with the purpose of describing significant human behaviours, and it was designed to formulate feasible interventions to change those behaviours. According to Ajzen and Fishbein (1980), respectively applied by Underwood (2012), Kautonen, Gelderen and Fink (2015) and Paul, Modi and Patel (2016), TPB is the augmentation of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), which has certain limitations in ‘dealing with behaviours over which people have incomplete volitional control’ (Ajzen 1991, p. 182).

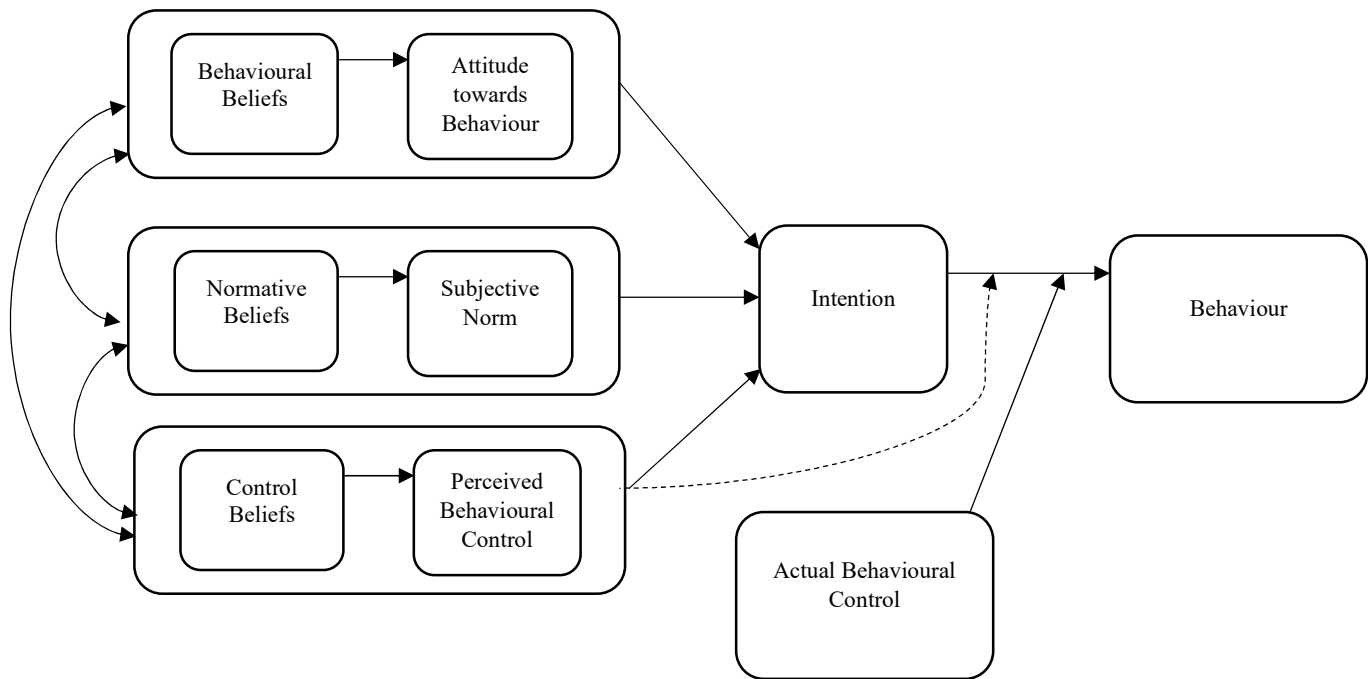


Figure 3.1: Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen 1991)

As explained by Ajzen (1991) and illustrated in Figure 3.1, a principal factor in TPB is the intention of a person or an individual to carry out a specific given behaviour. It is taken for granted that an individual's level of engagement in behaviour demonstrates the likelihood of his/her performance. An individual's intention to perform a behaviour is impacted by 'three main determinants and their perspective attributes: (1) behavioural beliefs and attitudes towards the behaviour; (2) normative beliefs and subjective norms; and (3) control beliefs and perceptions of control' (Underwood 2012, p. 913). Based on TPB, Ajzen (2002, p. 665) suggests that human behaviour is shaped by 'three kinds of considerations: beliefs about the likely consequences or other attributes of the behaviour (behavioural beliefs), beliefs about normative expectations of other people (normative beliefs) and beliefs about the presence of factors that may further hinder performance of the behaviour (control beliefs)'.

Belief, according to Ajzen (1988), is subjective. *Behavioural belief* is not impersonal; it is established by linking the performance of a given behaviour with specific attributes. An individual's *attitude towards behaviour* is governed by how she or he evaluates those attributes or outcomes (Ajzen 2002; Dunn, Hattie & Bowles 2018). Ajzen (2002) indicates that two categories of evaluation are experiential or instrumental. For example, I may consider whether implementing a specific given behaviour is enjoyable or worthwhile. *Normative belief* embodies influences from society and emanates from how an individual perceives they ought to perform a behaviour. His or her perception is exerted not only by himself/herself but also by others. The *subjective norm* as explained in TPB 'represents the person's motivation to comply with this subjective perception of social pressure' (Underwood 2012, p. 913). There is a close correlation between *attitude* and *subjective norms*, which affect an individual's intention to implement behaviour. *Control belief* addresses the existence or dearth of elements which contribute to facilitating or impeding the implementation of behaviour. *Perceived behavioural control* denotes how far an individual perceives himself or herself to exercise control over the needed skills as well as resources to implement behaviour. Ajzen (1991) emphasises that the addition of perceived behavioural control to TPB makes it different from TRA. As confirmed by Ajzen (1991), perceived behavioural control is an essential component in TPB. Reality shows that not all behavioural intentions lead to actual behaviours.

The significance of *actual behavioural control* cannot be denied (Ajzen 1991). Perceived behavioural control and behavioural intention may be utilised to foresee behavioural achievement. To illustrate this point, if two people have firm intentions towards a given behaviour, their efforts to implement it successfully will probably grow with perceived behavioural control. Nevertheless, though their intentions are firm and both strenuously implement the behaviour, the person who is assured of their ability is more likely to persist than the person who is suspicious of their ability. Additionally, perceived behavioural control is often able to be utilised in substitution for measuring actual behavioural control on the proviso that perceptions must be precise. In fact, perceived behavioural control may be unrealistic when an individual has limited information or knowledge about the behaviour or when novelty or unfamiliarity is apparent. Such situations may cause inexactitude in predicting the behaviour. Otherwise, providing that an individual is infused with sufficient resources and opportunities, the probability of his/her behavioural achievement is not beyond reach.

3.2. Applying the theoretical framework to the study

The TPB framework with the support of SLA theories is appropriate to the context of this study. The category of beliefs, defined as *behavioural beliefs* in this study are understood to be Vietnam's English language primary school teachers' beliefs about English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI). Do they, for example, possess strong or weak beliefs in EMI? Based on their beliefs, they have their own *attitude towards EMI*. They tacitly evaluate whether EMI is necessary, productive or counterproductive. The TPB framework enables the question to be asked as to whether or not they possess a positive, negative or ambivalent attitude towards EMI. In other words, at the stage of belief formulation, do these teachers consider the merits and limitations of their capacity to implement EMI? They also need to take into account how their students can acquire L2 effectively. Adhering to a *normative belief* is the sense that they are motivated to adopt Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) and Vietnam's National Foreign Languages 2020 (NFL2020) Project Committee's directives to encourage English language teachers to implement EMI. The TBP framework enables a macro level exploration as to whether these teachers possess a strong belief in the benefits of EMI implementation. The normative belief also includes perceptions of English language teachers regarding whether they should actively implement EMI. Teachers' perceptions are partly influenced by Vietnam's MOET and the NFL2020 Project Committee. In contrast, *subjective norm* here denotes how these English teachers are motivated to implement EMI in their classrooms. The *control belief* accounts for factors which can facilitate or hinder teachers' implementation of EMI. Have they had sufficient training on their English language proficiency? Have training courses on the implementation of EMI been conducted with their participation? Have they been well-equipped with needed resources? These are a few of the factors that can determine English language teachers' success or failure when EMI is implemented. Though English language teachers may have a negative attitude towards EMI, their participation in the training courses on this topic might somehow change their mindset. *Perceived behavioural control* elicits the degree to which English language teachers perceive themselves to have control of skills and resources to implement EMI in their classrooms. If they have control of skills and resources and possess a positive intention, they are likely to implement EMI successfully. Students can be exposed to more meaningful linguistic input from their teachers to properly acquire L2 according to SLA theories (Brown 2014). Depending on the contexts in the classrooms, English language primary schools teachers are supposed to vary their teaching approaches such as: slowing down

speech, offering comprehension checks, requesting clarification and paraphrasing to make lessons learnt more understandable to students. Based on students' English proficiency levels, controlled processing is employed for students learning a totally new skill while automatic processing is implemented if students have already had their accomplished skills (their English level is higher). In summary, in the context of this study, English language primary school teachers' intentions to implement EMI are congruous with the reciprocal relationships between the three core beliefs (behavioural, normative and control) as demonstrated in the TPB and their respective attributes. The training courses that English language primary school teachers have participated in self-evidently help conceptualise their attitudes and perceptions while their implementation of EMI depends on three specific factors: (1) their perceptions; (2) whether they are provided with proper training, facilities, opportunities and so on to implement EMI in their classrooms; and (3) their intention to use EMI. These principal factors taken into consideration in all stages of this study are described in Figure 3.2.

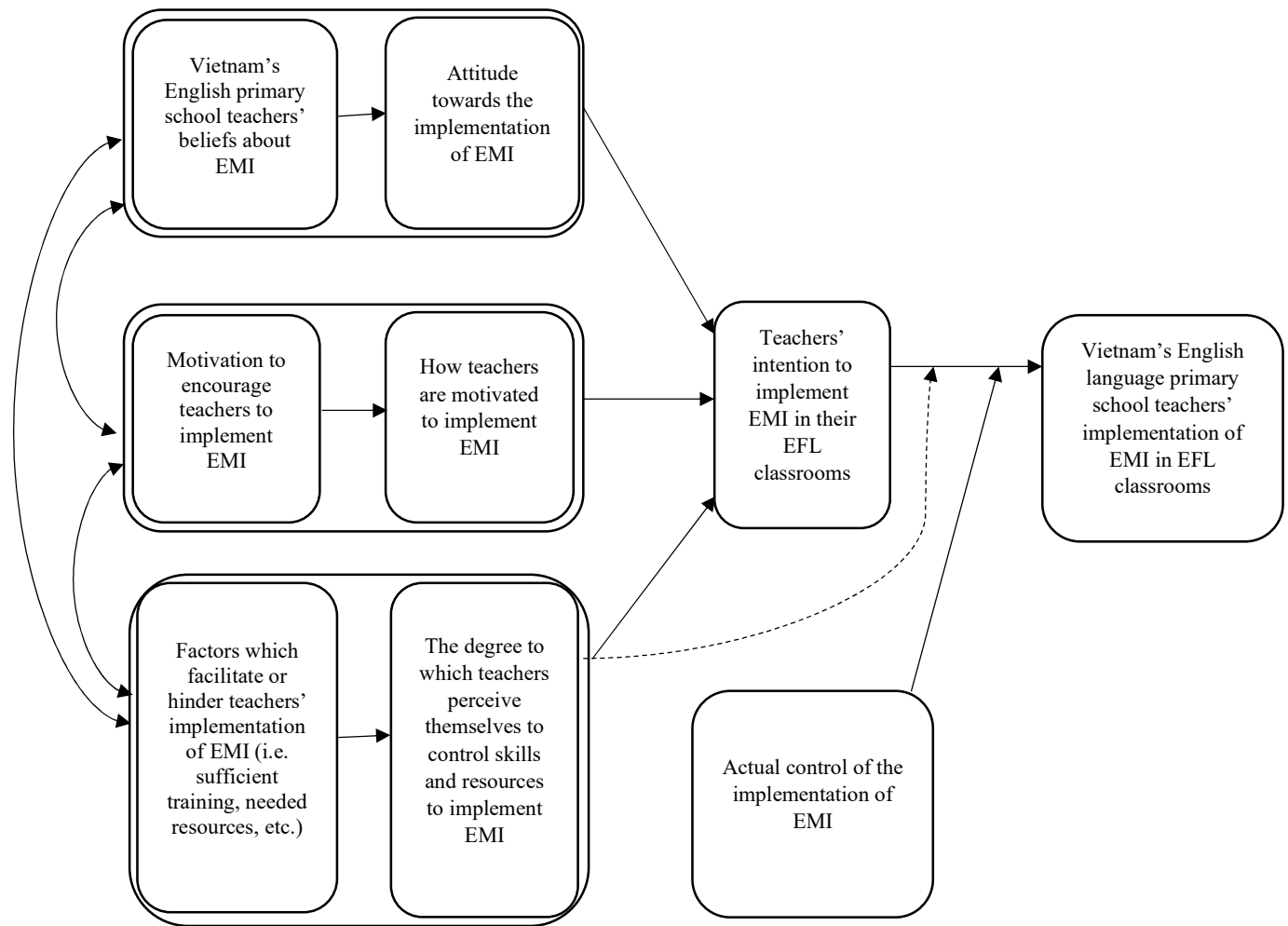


Figure 3.2: Application of Theory of Planned Behaviour to the study

3.3. *Research paradigm*

This research study is positioned within a pragmatic paradigm. According to Feilzer (2010), philosophically there are a multitude of modalities which identify realities based on empirical inquiry. From pragmatists' point of view, the world is real, and each person has his/her unique way to interpret it (Morgan 2007) to seek answers to their inquiries via the employment of numerous methods (Creswell & Plano-Clark 2011; Hathcoat & Meixner 2017; Hesse-Biber 2015; Östlund, Kidd, Wengström & Rowa-Dewar 2011). Therefore, according to Creswell and Plano-Clark (2011), pragmatism primarily plays an essential role in the formation of research inquiries.

Pragmatism is orientated towards outcomes and clarification of what phenomena being studied mean (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson 2006). Morgan (2007, 2014) adds that within the pragmatist paradigm, the ultimate goal of research studies is to seek solutions to temporary issues, not to obtain knowledge. According to Schoonenboom (2017), during the process of conducting the research, pragmatist researchers form their beliefs based on research outcomes, which illuminates that if these outcomes fail to match their current beliefs, their beliefs must be updated. Such beliefs then become the current ones which help pragmatist researchers continue to engage in new experiences. This process is reiterated until temporary issues are handled.

Pragmatism, according to Schoonenboom (2017), functions as an essential criterion which can be utilised with the purpose of identifying whether the outcome of the study is achievable or how successfully the study is conducted. Within the pragmatic paradigm, progress is a criterion to find solutions to temporary issues. In Schoonenboom's sense, the identification of criteria to assess how far inquiries contribute to dealing with the issues is feasible and relevant for investigating the research questions.

Pragmatism, broadly, as presented by Shannon-Baker (2016), seeks answers for social issues through focusing on 'communication and shared meaning-making' (p. 322). Theories in pragmatism are contextualised and generalised given its ability to be transferred from one situation to another, which offers chances for pragmatists or pragmatic researchers to 'maintain both subjectivity in their reflections on research and objectivity in data collection and analysis' (Shannon-Baker 2016, p. 322).

Research methods used by pragmatists

Pragmatists, as upheld by Creswell (2003) and Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), associate the selection of research approaches directly with the purpose as well as the nature of questions studied. Pragmatists believe that researchers seldom fit into an entirely quantitative or qualitative approach when addressing their research questions. The pragmatic paradigm allows researchers to seek answers to questions under investigation, whether they are quantitative or qualitative (Creswell 2003; Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009). Darlington and Scott (2002), echoing this concept, previously pointed out that decisions on using a quantitative or qualitative approach are usually based mainly on beliefs. It is insufficient to seek realities in the real world with a mono-paradigmatic-oriented study (Alise & Teddlie 2010; Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009).

Research methods within the pragmatic paradigm, deemed as pertinent, are to provide a worldview needed for researching the phenomenon (Creswell 2003; Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009). Creswell (2003) indicates that qualitative research studies use a specific paradigm or worldview on which to base their inquiries. In this paradigm, the world must be viewed from a multitude of disparate perspectives as directed by multiple causes. As argued by Lincoln (1990), cited in Morgan (2007), paradigms are ‘alternative worldviews with such pervasive effects that adopting a paradigm permeates every aspect of a research inquiry’ (p. 52). Morgan (2007) affirms that it is a fallacy to regard paradigms as worldviews which consist of what people entirely think or believe; nonetheless, he highlights that knowing what exists in a worldview is far more necessary since researchers’ thoughts will be concentrated on the nature of research: ‘At a fundamental level, paradigms create new worldviews and social contexts that have widespread impacts on the conduct of inquiry’ (Morgan 2014, p. 7). Morgan (2014) argues new paradigms help initiate and renew actions since new beliefs emerge.

Pragmatic paradigms help optimise every methodology with its own goal to discover the knowledge and questions being investigated (Creswell 2003; Feilzer 2010; Schoonenboom 2017; Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009). In pragmatic paradigms, mixed methods (a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods) are used as an appropriate way to interpret human behaviours and their beliefs (Kivunja & Kuyini 2017; Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009). According to Kivunja and Kuyini (2017), because the pragmatic paradigm supports the use of mixed methods, methodologies consist of naturalist methodology, case study, phenomenology, ethnography, action research, experimental methodology, quasi-experimental methodology and casual comparative

methodology. In this study, case studies and mixed methods (with a combination of document reviews, online questionnaire, face-to-face semi-structured interviews and classroom observations) were employed to triangulate data and to optimise opportunities for new ideas to emerge in the Vietnamese EMI context.

3.4. *Case study*

A case study approach was chosen because a case is a ‘bounded system’ (Stake 1978). A bounded system is defined by Merriam (2009, p. 40) as ‘... a single entity, a unit around which there are boundaries’. Miles and Huberman (1994) described a case study similar to a phenomenon taking place in a bounded context. According to Stake (1995), a case study approach is used to explore and analyse a single or collective case with the purpose of capturing the sophistication of the object researched. A case study, as comprehended by Stake (1995), is not only the process but also the product for learning. Case studies, understood by Yin (1994, 1999, 2009), are utilised to give explications, descriptions or exploration of the phenomena in daily contexts. A case study defined by Crowe, Cresswell, Robertson, Huby, Avery and Sheikh (2011) is used to ‘generate an in-depth, multi-faceted understanding of a complex issue in its real-life context’ (p. 1). Case study is the research design set up with widespread use in many disciplines, specifically in the social sciences (Crowe et al. 2011; Elman, Gerring & Mahoney 2016). There are multiple understandings of the case study approach, but Stake’s is considered to be the most influential to scientific enquiry (Crowe et al. 2011).

A case study approach was employed in this study for two reasons. Firstly, as aforementioned, a case study can have a deeper understanding of the phenomenon being explored (Chu 2014; Stake 1995). The case study approach investigates the phenomenon through a variety of lenses so that its multitude of perspectives can be shown and comprehended (Baxter & Jack 2008; Tellis 1997). Case study as an approach used in qualitative research (Aczel 2015) takes place in the natural working environments from which comprehension of the phenomenon is obtained (Creswell 2007; Merriam 1998; Stake 1995). It can be viewed as a valid triangulated research strategy (Tellis 1997) with the employment of many sources of data for analysis (Yin 1984). In this study, English language primary school teachers’ perceptions of the use of EMI were collected through an online questionnaire and face-to-face semi-structured interviews before teaching performances in their EFL classrooms with the implementation of EMI were observed. The extent to which they

implemented EMI, as well as the students' response in English was recorded. Their implementations of EMI were observed and note-taking occurred in classrooms. This is appropriate in the natural working environment (Creswell 2007; Merriam 1998; Stake 1995) and is required in the case study method. Qualitative data collected from the interviews and classroom observations illustrated how these English language primary school teachers perceived and implemented EMI respectively. This study concurs with the insights of Chu (2014, p. 104), who notes, 'data reflects the meanings, understandings and lived experiences participants brought with them to their working life'.

Secondly, case study is appropriate to find answers for research questions (Chu 2014). According to Crowe et al. (2011), a case study is used to seek information on 'how', 'what' and 'why' queries which are commonly posed in research. The first and third overarching research questions posed in this study as below constitute 'what' queries and they are exploratory.

What are the perceptions of English language primary school teachers towards the use of EMI in EFL classrooms in Vietnam?

What are the implications for teachers using EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam?

The second research question is 'how is EMI implemented in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam?' This constitutes a 'how' query; the answer can be addressed through the use of case study design (Aczel 2015; Baxter & Jack 2008). The two sub-research questions underlying the second overarching research question: "To what extent do primary school teachers of English in Vietnam implement EMI?" and "To what extent do primary school students respond in English?" constitute 'what' queries. As inferred by Merriam (1998), the employment of case study in research, in which issues relevant to educational practice are addressed, should be done so that better comprehension of the phenomena or issues emerging from the research can ultimately inform and lead to policy reform, amelioration of practice as well as the orientation of future studies.

According to Yin (1993), case studies are classified into three types: exploratory, explanatory and descriptive. The *exploratory* case study is used to explore a situation or a phenomenon in which there are unclear results in the intervention being investigated. An *explanatory* case study is used to find the connections in real-life interventions which are too complicated for a survey. The

descriptive case study is by definition, used to describe a phenomenon that takes place in a real-life context.

Alternatively, Stake (1995) categorised case studies into three main types: intrinsic, instrumental and collective. In his typology, an intrinsic case study is optimised to mainly explore the uniqueness of the phenomenon whereas the instrumental form of case study employs a specific case to generate an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon being researched. The collective case study includes studying numerous cases at the same time or in a time sequence to gain a deeper understanding of a specific phenomenon (Merriam 2009). Tumele (2016) indicates that case study research categorised by Stake (1995) and Yin (1993) is based on the primary objectives of the studies. As highlighted by Tellis (1997), choosing which type of case study is a must-do task to augment what needs to be studied. Hyett, Kenny and Dickson-Swift (2014) add that ‘classification of the case and case selection procedures informs the development of research design and clarifies research question’ (p. 2). In my study, Stake, Tellis and Yin’s concepts were integrated. My mode of case study is an amalgamation of both the collective (after Stake) and exploratory case study (after Yin). My case study employed collective and exploratory goals when applied to the research conducted in three provinces in the South of Vietnam. Each province represented one specific case study.

In a collective case study, as interpreted by Stake (2006), all individual cases have a common or collective characteristic; and they are therefore bound together in a uniform study. The inclusion of all individuals, yet collectively linked insights in a case study leads to greater variation while producing more interesting results. This variation can also advance the external validity of the study’s findings (Merriam 2009). External validity is understood as ‘generalisability of the results available via the direct case out through replication of the results to other cases within the same research domain’ (Aczel 2015, p. 20).

A collective case study, according to Creswell (2013), has one underlying topic which is familiar across several cases. In this study, the topic was the implementation of EMI in primary EFL school classrooms in Vietnam and cases were English primary classrooms in three provinces in which English language teachers implemented EMI. Wells (2017) concedes that disparate facets of an issue are usually revealed on employment of the collective case study. Since there were teachers

in a province who implemented more or less EMI than those in another province(s), it was critical to discuss all of the varied cases, which was only possible using collective case study design.

My other form of case study, as noted, is an exploratory case study. According to Yin (2003) and Baxter and Jack (2008), this is used when the apparent variety of insights and results of the various phenomena need to be explored. In my study, the phenomenon under investigation was teachers' implementation of EMI in primary EFL school classrooms in Vietnam. How Vietnamese school teachers of English implemented EMI in Vietnam was a matter of concern and to date no definite result was or has been reported by the MOET (Persey 2015).

3.5. *Mixed methods research*

A mixed methods approach assists in deepening research understanding. It makes good use of both qualitative and quantitative approaches and is pragmatic in its intent (as discussed in section 3.3 of this chapter). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004, p. 17) define mixed methods research as 'the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study'. Mixed methods research, according to Johnson, Onwuegbuzie and Turner (2007), synthesises intellect and practice and it is the third methodological or research paradigm. As noted earlier, it is the combination of data forms that drew me to the mixed methods approach.

The mixed methods approach is supported by Swanborn (2010), Yin (2009) and Rossman and Wilson (1985). The use of mixed methods as a methodological practice helps address research problems more comprehensively (Feiler 2010; Johnson et al. 2007; Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009) and it creates a platform to validate the employment of multiple approaches in seeking answers to research questions posed (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie 2004). The combination of mixed methods in the one research study, such as this thesis, produces more beneficial data than projects in which only a single method is used (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson 2006; Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009; Rossman & Wilson 1985; Yin 2006). The triangulated data are through the corroboration or confirmation between the quantitative and qualitative data (Doyle, Brady & Byrne 2009; Johnson et al. 2007; Rossman & Wilson 1985) and provide more precise inferences (Bryman 2006; Creswell, Plano-Clark, Gutman & Hanson 2003). To exemplify this point, Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) note that the combination of surveys and interviews offers in-depth merits inherent in these two methods. Integration of surveys and interviews not only helps address research questions

posed but also offers a more detailed picture of the topic researched (Doyle et al. 2009; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie 2004). Arksey and Knight (1999) formerly supported that different datasets obtained from different research instruments limit the chance of errors in research.

Though supporting the employment of mixed methods research, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) caution that significant characteristics relevant to quantitative and qualitative research need to be considered for effective implementation. Quantitative research has the main focus on ‘deduction, confirmation, theory/hypothesis testing, explanation, prediction, standardised data collection and statistical analysis’ while qualitative research is centred on ‘induction, discovery, exploration, theory/hypothesis generation, the researcher as the primary instrument of data collection and qualitative analysis’ (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie 2004, p. 18). A mixture of quantitative and qualitative methods was executed in this collective and exploratory case study. In my study, I have combined data forms as quantitative surveys and qualitative semi-structured interviews to develop a verifiable statement of intent addressing EMI in three provinces in the South of Vietnam.

3.6. Data collection methods

Document review, online survey, face-to-face semi-structured interviews and classroom observations as data collection methods were employed in this study to gather triangulated data as well as to ensure the reliability and validity of the data collected (Swanborn 2010; Yin 2009).

3.6.1. Document review

Documents consist of sources in both printed and electronic materials which can be optimised for systematic evaluation (Bowen 2009). They are inclusive of official documents gained from multiple sources (Bryman 2004). Documents can be meeting minutes, research reports (published or unpublished), policies, regulations and so on.

Documents, as described by Bowen (2009), assist in undertaking studies for a variety of reasons. Firstly, they provide data, texts and even contexts for researchers to study. Such information provided can elicit conditions which exert influence on the phenomena being investigated. Secondly, information derived from documents can recommend several queries which are to be posed as well as to propose situations which are to be observed. Thirdly, documents function as a supplement, helping enrich research data. Fourthly, document reviews are opportunities for researchers to identify changes in reports so that they can keep track of the most updated ones and

plot their development. Lastly, the analysis of documents can operate as a means ‘to verify findings or corroborate evidence from other sources’ (Bowen 2009, p. 30).

As noted by Merriam (1998), multiple forms of documents (as data) are essential for research since they assist with meaning location, understanding augmentation as well as insight investigation which can address research questions. For this study, documents informed me in defining the research questions and directing the methodologies employed for data collection. The review of documents assisted myself into having a comprehensive picture of the policies enacted by Vietnam’s MOET and NFL2020 Project, teacher professional development training activities on ‘using English for Teaching (EfT)’, teachers’ perceptions of these activities and so forth, which acted as a basis for me to explore this study in detail. Research questions for the online survey and face-to-face semi-structured interviews were initiated via the findings collected from the review of documents.

Yin (1994) comments that researchers need to select appropriate documents for review. This means that documents selected for review must be specifically related to the topic being investigated, to the research questions and to be up to date (Do 2013). All documents under review in this study were obtained from the following sources:

- Official documents issued by the Government of the Socialist Republic of Vietnam, the MOET, the NFL2020 Project and provincial Departments of Education and Training (DOETs);
- Unpublished reports from the MOET, NFL2020 Project and provincial DOETs;
- Documents issued by Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organisation Regional Training Centre (SEAMEO RETRAC); and
- Unpublished reports from SEAMEO RETRAC.

All these documents relating unambiguously to English language teacher training, especially on using EfT were analysed to orientate research questions posed in the online survey and interviews.

3.6.2. Online survey

Online surveys, as indicated by Evans and Mathur (2005), have specific merits. Firstly, online surveys are convenient for research participants (Evans & Mathur 2005) to readily access. More importantly, online surveys can reach many participants from different areas at a time (Selm &

Jankowski 2006). Participants taking part in this study were English language primary school teachers in three different provinces in the South of Vietnam, and these research sites are not adjacent to one another.

Additionally, the majority of primary schools in Vietnam have a minimal number of English language teachers. Many schools have only one English language teacher. Therefore, it would take time and money to survey these teachers via written surveys. In this study, the engagement of the online survey to reach these English language primary school teachers across three geographically dispersed provinces was an appropriate and less costly choice. Secondly, participants taking part in online surveys were requested to respond to questions in order which have been purposely and sequentially designed. This design feature also prevented participants from looking at later questions if a previous question had been left unanswered (Evans & Mathur 2005). According to Selm and Jankowski (2006), the use of online surveys 'skips' a phase for data entry because close-ended questions are automatically coded while open-ended ones are left for manual coding later on. Thirdly, online surveys 'facilitate recruitment of respondents with deviant or covert behaviours' (Selm & Jankowski 2006, p. 437).

Apart from their merits, online surveys also have certain limitations. One of their common limitations is that their rate of return is relatively low (Crawford, Couper & Lamias 2001; Schaefer & Dillman 1998). However, Selm and Jankowski (2006) advocate that online surveys may result in higher response rates if participants are young. Different from the population from other surveys, English language teachers in primary schools in Vietnam and those participating in this study were mostly young, leading to the expectation of anticipated response rates when the online survey was conducted.

The online survey (Appendix 4) comprised five sections. It was designed using a standard template accessible from Google forms. The online survey header was the logo from Victoria University. The content detailed my intent and purpose in conducting this survey. Clear instructions together with anticipated duration to complete were stated. The first section gathered research participants' demographic and general information, including their gender, age, highest qualification earned and their current English level based on 'English Language Proficiency Framework for Vietnam'. The years of English teaching experience in general and in primary schools, provincial school site, the average number of students in the classroom, ideal class size number and frequency of attendance

in general teacher training programs were addressed. The matter as to whether training programs completed catered to their demands was addressed. The survey considered who had initiated such training, and more importantly, if the respondent had attended the training specific to the field of EFT.

The second section of the survey sought the respondents' perceptions of EMI in general whereas the third and fourth sections investigated general classroom situations in which they implemented EMI and considered how their students responded in English. The final section of the survey explored the implications of EMI implementation in primary school EFL classrooms in Vietnam.

Multiple-choice, Likert-type and open-ended questions were utilised in this online survey. The employment of this mixture purported to explore participants' views about the implementation of EMI (whether they agreed or disagreed with given statements on presented issues on the topic under investigation). Multiple-choice questions which are a type of close-ended questions were employed with possible options given for participants to select (Glasow 2005). They were used in the first section of the online survey with the belief that the concentration on demographic and general information would act as a motivator to encourage participants to complete the subsequent main sections of the survey (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2000). The first section of the online survey also had several partial close-ended questions in the form of multiple-choice in which participants were requested to select one given answer presented or to write their answer.

The second section comprised of Likert-type response scale questions ranging from (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neutral, (4) agree, to (5) strongly agree with the purpose of measuring English language primary school teachers' perceptions of EMI. A neutral point was also provided for participants who did not have any opinion about EMI. Likert-type questions supported by Clason and Dormody (1994) have value to characterise participants' perceptions.

The third and fourth sections consisted of close-ended questions to explore situations in which teachers implemented EMI and students responded in English. In these two sections, participants were requested to select all possible options they saw fit in their situations instead of one. Open-ended questions, according to Glasow (2005), allow participants to use their wording to express ideas about the topic or a matter of concern under research. Salant and Dillman (1994) comment that open-ended questions require in-depth thoughtfulness on the part of participants, as well as give them time to reflect on their response and to qualify why and what they are thinking.

Open-ended questions are employed when a wide range of views are sought and additional insights can be gleaned from participants because the specific response options which they provide in the form of multiple-choice questions are at times arbitrary and may be insufficient (Glasow 2005). However, since open-ended questions take more time than multiple-choice questions, I only used one open-ended question in the final section of the survey, and this question was optional. I decided to pose only one open-ended and optional question to make sure participants would not leave the survey unfinished, which chiefly led to an increase in the response rate. With the employment of the mixture of multiple-choice, Likert-type and open-ended questions, the survey was designed whereby it proceeded to explore information based on the degree from simplicity to complexity, which helped participants feel at ease to complete the survey and led to a high response rate as anticipated.

3.6.3. Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews, as affirmed by Barriball and While (1994) and Teijlingen (2014) acknowledge that semi-structured interviews are employed for data collection in triangulated research. Such interviews probe perceptions, beliefs and attitudes of the research participants to address complex issues and explore information under investigation in depth. Semi-structured interviews are also beneficial in clarifying responses to sensitive issues (Barriball & While 1994; Teijlingen 2014). Do (2013) and Chu (2014) advocate that these interviews provide contexts and lead to an enriched source of data. Their employment of this method ascertains that each interviewee verbally answers the questions posed (Teijlingen 2014).

In this study, semi-structured interviews were employed to compensate for constraints which may have existed with the first two methods of data collection (document review and online survey). As such, they create an overall comprehensive picture of issues inherent in the implementation of EMI in primary EFL school classrooms in Vietnam, and simultaneously examine thoughts of the interviewees about them under the varied lenses of three groups of research participants (SEAMEO RETRAC trainers, provincial English language specialists and English language teachers).

Semi-structured interviews differ from the online survey, which offers limited opportunities for research participants (English language teachers). The use of semi-structured interviews is by definition a lengthier process, enabling respondents to interact with me within the agreed schedule directly, to discuss, clarify and elaborate details relevant to their perceptions of the implementation

of EMI. Moreover, the questions in semi-structured interviews, presented by Teijlingen (2014), are pre-determined, but their order can be changed based mainly on the perceptions of the interviewer. The wording of questions in semi-structured interviews can be modified and explained; questions deemed inappropriate for a specific interviewee can be excluded and additional questions can be added if appropriate. With the employment of semi-structured interviews in this study, concentration on interviewees' specific interests meant that guided questions were adjusted in response to the interaction between researcher and participant with the purpose of identifying issues under investigation in more detail. Bak (2011) highlights that qualitative data collected from semi-structured interviews help interpret data previously gained from document review and survey. This is indeed a rationalisation of the use of mixed methods as noted above.

3.6.4. Classroom observations

Classroom observation, according to O'Leary (2014, p. 3), has a well-established role in initial teacher training and continuing professional development, frequently employed as 'an important tool for nurturing key pedagogic skills and teacher learning'. In addition, classroom observation collects evidence about what is taking place in the classroom (Grimm, Kaufman & Doty 2014) and whether teachers are implementing what they have learnt in training (O'Leary 2014).

Classroom observation helps to enrich and validate data collected by other methods and offers researchers more realistic data (Chu 2014; Patton 2002). For example, classroom observation verifies data collected from surveys and interviews (Chu 2014). Furthermore, Kane, Sandretto and Heath (2002) previously contend that investigating teachers' perceptions without observing what they are teaching fails to reflect the whole story. In other words, classroom observation here explores consistencies and inconsistencies evident in teachers' perceptions and beliefs. Data collected from these four instruments (document review, online survey, semi-structured interview and classroom observation) had a reciprocal relationship in investigating the implementation of EMI in primary school classrooms in Vietnam.

3.7. *Selecting research sites for the study*

There are sixty-three provinces and cities in Vietnam. I targeted three provinces accessible to myself. These provinces are in the South of Vietnam. The southernmost province (Province A) is in the southwestern part of the country. Province B is the province adjacent to the biggest city in

the South of Vietnam. Central delta province (Province C) is the largest city in the Mekong Delta. The map in Figure 3.3 illustrates the distribution of these provinces.



Figure 3.3: Map of provinces in the Mekong Delta in Vietnam

3.7.1. Province A

Province A is a trade gateway between provinces in the Mekong Delta and ASEAN neighbouring countries, situated between the Tien and Hau Rivers. This province is a centre of economics and trade with three big cities, namely Ho Chi Minh, Can Tho and Phnom Penh. Province A is one of the most densely-populated areas in the Mekong Delta. As compared to Provinces B and C, Province A has the highest ethnic minority. The main income of these people comes from agriculture, farming and fishery. In regard to education, there are very few universities in Province A.

3.7.2. Province B

Province B is close to Ho Chi Minh City near the border of the Kingdom of Cambodia. This province is considered a vital economic development zone in the South. Its population is not so dense and this province produces the most agricultural products in the Mekong Delta. At present, Province B has two universities.

3.7.3. Province C

Province C is highly developed, situated at the heart of the Mekong Delta. At present, Province C is an urban area under federal authority, ranked as a significant economic development zone for Vietnam. Province C aspires to become a civilised, modern city, and a centre of industry and commerce delivering medical, educational and technological training.

3.7.4. Rationale for these settings

Provinces A, B and C were selected as sites for this study for three reasons. Firstly, they represent three different development areas in the Mekong Delta. Province C is the most developed and considered the heart of the Mekong Delta. Province C is now a city and an area where more universities are located. Province B is the second most developed province after Province C.

Secondly, many English language primary school teachers in these three provinces have been trained to use Eft in their classrooms by trainers from SEAMEO RETRAC under Vietnam's NFL2020 Project. The database for teachers taking part in training sessions has been stored with SEAMEO RETRAC, making it less challenging when accessing the sample population to engage in the online survey. In addition, leaders of DOETs in these three provinces have paid close attention to English teacher professional development, especially in the primary school context. More English teacher professional development training courses in these three provinces have been ordered and conducted by SEAMEO RETRAC. Also, as compared to other provinces in the Mekong Delta, these three provinces had the largest number of primary school English language teachers taking part in teacher training on Eft.

Thirdly, the return rate of the online survey in these three provinces was relatively high (more than 50%). As mentioned above, since SEAMEO RETRAC was assigned to facilitate training courses for English language teachers in the South of Vietnam, especially those in the Mekong Delta, purposeful sampling across these three provinces was conducted. Prior to and after each training

session, online surveys were conducted to elicit teachers' learning needs and feedback on programs respectively.

The implementation of EMI in three provinces reflected the cases in this study on three levels. The *site level* spanned three provinces; the *participant level* was the English language primary teachers in these provinces, and the *process level* was where observations were recorded and interviews conducted.

3.8. Data collection procedure

Documents relating to English language teachers' implementation of EMI in EFL school classrooms in Vietnam were collected and reviewed from April to July 2017. From the findings collated from document analysis, I formed research questions starting with Phases One and Two. Phase One included the large-scale conduct of an online survey to investigate English language primary school teachers' perceptions and implementation of EMI. Phase Two consisted of interviewing SEAMEO RETRAC teacher trainers, English specialists in three surveyed provinces and English language teachers. Teaching practice was then observed when EMI was implemented in their EFL classrooms.

3.8.1. Phase One

The online survey was designed by employing the Google forms. The original version of the online survey was in English, translated into Vietnamese and notarised by SEAMEO RETRAC Interpreting and Translating Services. The Vietnamese online survey was piloted before distribution to research participants. Ten English language teachers who were teaching Kiddy Programs at SEAMEO RETRAC were invited to take part in the survey trial because they had similar characteristics. They were Vietnamese teachers of English who were implementing EMI in classes at SEAMEO RETRAC as requested by the Centre's Division of Foreign Studies. For the survey trial, these teachers were sent a hyperlink to complete the survey. After they had completed the online survey, I met informally with them to collect their feedback. Based on this feedback, questions, as well as wording, were amended to make the survey more comprehensive.

When the online survey was amended, 600 English language primary school teachers (200 in each of three provinces) were identified and invited via email to take part in the online survey (see Appendix 1). They were then sent a hyperlink via email to complete the survey. These teachers took part in English teacher training programs tailor-made and facilitated by SEAMEO RETRAC

resource personnel. Since participants in this online survey were treated as anonymous, they felt at ease to express their own opinions about EMI and its implementation. Two more emails were sent in December 2017 to kindly remind participants who for a reason have not completed the survey. The online survey closed on 31st December 2017. Data collected from the survey were essential because together with findings from the review of documents, they framed queries posed in face-to-face semi-structured interviews in Phase Two.

3.8.2. Phase Two

In Phase Two of this study, I implemented two kinds of instruments: face-to-face semi-structured interviews and classroom observations. Three groups of participants: SEAMEO RETRAC trainers, provincial English language specialists and English language primary school teachers were interviewed. Participants and instruments for data collection in both phases, aligned to the research questions, are described in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Research questions, instruments and participants

Research questions	Instruments	Participants
1. What are the perceptions of English language primary school teachers towards the use of EMI in EFL classrooms in Vietnam?	Online survey	600 English language primary school teachers in three provinces (200 in each province)
	Interview	6 SEAMEO RETRAC trainers, three provincial English language specialists and 12 teachers (4 in each province)
2. How is EMI implemented in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam?		
Sub-questions:		
2.1. To what extent do English language primary school teachers implement EMI in their classrooms?	Online survey	600 teachers
	Interview	6 SEAMEO RETRAC trainers, three provincial English language specialists and 12 teachers
	Classroom observation	12 teachers (4 in each province)
2.2. To what extent do students respond in English?	Online survey	600 teachers
	Interview	6 SEAMEO RETRAC trainers, three provincial English language specialists and 12 teachers
	Classroom observation	12 teachers (4 in each province)
3. What are the implications for teachers using EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam?	Online survey	600 teachers
	Interview	6 SEAMEO RETRAC trainers, three provincial English language specialists and 12 teachers

Consent forms for classroom observation and three groups of participants in face-to-face semi-structured interviews were designed. The consent forms clearly described the purpose of this study, the rationale for inviting them to take part in the study and ensured they agreed to the conditions of participation. I indicated that their participation in this study was entirely voluntary. The interview sessions were recorded and transcripts were produced. The participants were able to stop the interview at any time if they did not feel at ease. When the transcripts were produced, they were sent to participants for them to amend. Any summary interview content and direct quotations were anonymous and care was taken to ensure that other information that could identify participants was not disclosed. Classroom observations were not video-taped so as not to influence students' and teachers' attention. Notes were taken.

Together with consent forms, questions posed for three groups of participants in the semi-structured interviews were designed and translated into Vietnamese. After that, research questions were piloted. I invited three colleagues who were also teacher trainers for Vietnam's NFL2020 Project to trial questions explicitly designed for SEAMEO RETRAC trainers and provincial English language specialists. When feedback was received, these questions were amended. The same process was trialled on five English language teachers in Kiddy programs in relation to questions designed for provincial English language primary school teachers.

Face-to-face semi-structured interviews were conducted on three groups of participants with the belief that data collected were more reliable, since the issues under investigation were better clarified via the varied ideas of three different groups. SEAMEO RETRAC trainers who directly facilitated the EfT module objectively witnessed English language primary school teachers' perceptions towards EMI implementation, and precisely evaluated its content and the extent to which teachers could execute EMI based on classroom observation. SEAMEO RETRAC trainers could clearly see teachers' perceptions towards EMI; how they discussed it with their colleagues and trainers, as well as how teachers implemented it during activities conducted in the training sessions. Qualitative data collected from provincial English language specialists when semi-structured interviews were conducted helped identify how EMI would be implemented. Provincial English language specialists had a broader view of teachers' implementation not only in one specific school but also in all schools under their umbrella. English language specialists could clearly utter directives and policies from MOET to their respective DOETs and Units of Education. They also shared what they thought of the implementation of EMI under the lenses of those in

charge of English language teaching in primary schools of the whole province. As the information in the interview was kept confidential, I believed that the information shared in the interview sessions was accurate, valid and reliable. Last but not least, interviewing English language teachers gained access to this cohort and more specifically explored their perceptions. All interview sessions were conducted in Vietnamese to ensure that participants could express their responses in their mother-tongue. After qualitative data were collected, observing teachers' practice reaffirmed the validity and reliability of data obtained from an online survey and semi-structured interviews. On the whole, information gained from each group of participants would be shown to support each other and triangulate the data collection.

3.8.2.1. Interviewing SEAMEO RETRAC trainers

Six SEAMEO RETRAC trainers were invited to participate by email. The consent form, as well as the list of framed interview questions, was attached to the email for their consideration, as follows:

- a. Can you tell me some information about yourself? How long have you been teaching English at SEAMEO RETRAC? How long have you been involved in Training-the-Trainers programs?
- b. What do you think of the Vietnam's NFL2020 Project?
- c. What do you think of using EMI to teach English in primary schools?
- d. Can you tell me your opinion about Vietnam's NFL2020 Project Managing Committee and Vietnam's MOET encouraging English language teachers to use EMI in their classrooms? Do you think that it is feasible or not?
- e. You are trainers of EfT module. How long did the training last? What components did the module include? Do you think that the training is enough for primary school teachers of English to implement EMI in their classrooms after the training?
- f. Do you have any strategies that encourage primary school teachers of English to use more EMI in classrooms? In what way do students respond more in English?
- g. Are there any factors that limit primary school teachers' implementation of EMI? If there are, what are they?
- h. Do you have any recommendations which help improve the implementation of EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam?

All SEAMEO RETRAC trainers emailed agreed to participate in this study and scheduled their time for the interview sessions. Even though they all agreed, before the interview sessions, they were requested to sign the consent form to officially declare they had volunteered to participate and understood the purpose of the research. The same modality was also applied to the other two groups. The interview sessions for SEAMEO RETRAC trainers were conducted from the last week of December 2017 to the end of January 2018, depending on their availability. The duration of each interview was 20 to more than 40 minutes.

3.8.2.2. *Case studies*

On 2nd January 2018, I contacted English language teachers in all three provinces via phone and email to invite them to participate in the interview sessions (see Appendix 2) as well as to inquire if their teaching practices could be observed (see Appendix 3). Simultaneously, SEAMEO RETRAC Director sent official documents to three DOETs to ask them for assistance in helping me collect the data for Phase Two. Even though the Lunar New Year was approaching at that time and all schools were busy with marking examination papers for students, English language specialists in Provinces A and C and several teachers in all three provinces agreed to take part in the study. Further, the Head of Primary Education in Province B, together with the other two English language specialists in Provinces A and C assisted in arranging interview sessions and classroom observation in schools in their networks. Although several teachers agreed to join this study, as aforementioned, they also needed to seek approval from their school principals. As stipulated, I was only allowed to enter the schools for interviews and classroom observation if introduced by the DOETs.

Following was the list of framed interview questions for English language specialists and English language primary school teachers respectively.

Framed interview questions for English language specialists

- a. Can you tell me some information about yourself? What is your role as an English specialist? How long have you been in this position? How many English language primary school teachers are you in charge of?
- b. What do you think of using EMI to teach English in primary schools?
- c. As an English specialist, what do you think of the Vietnam's NFL2020 Project?

- d. Can you tell me your opinion about Vietnam's NFL2020 Project Managing Committee and Vietnam's MOET encouraging English language teachers to use EMI in their classrooms? Do you think that it is feasible or not?
- e. How have you publicised this encouragement to your English language primary school teachers in your province?
- f. What do English language primary school teachers in your province think about this encouragement? Do they have any reaction to this encouragement?
- g. Up to now, to what extent have your English language primary school teachers used EMI in their classrooms?
- h. Do you think that their implementation of EMI is effective or not?
- i. When EMI is used, to what extent do students respond in English?
- j. How often does your DOET observe how English language primary school teachers use EMI in their classrooms?
- k. Are there any factors that limit English language primary school teachers' use of EMI? If there are, what are they?
- l. Can you help evaluate your teachers' using EMI in their classrooms?
- m. What are your DOET's plans to encourage English language primary school teachers to use EMI?
- n. Can you tell me some implications for teachers using EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in your province?

Framed interview questions for English language primary school teachers

- a. Can you tell me some information about yourself? How long have you been teaching English? How long have you been teaching English in primary schools? What level are you teaching? How many students do you teach?
- b. What do you think of teachers' implementing EMI to teach English in primary schools?
- c. As an English language primary school teacher, what do you think of the Vietnam's NFL2020 Project?
- d. Can you tell me your opinion about Vietnam's NFL2020 Project Managing Committee and Vietnam's MOET encouraging English language teachers to implement EMI in their classrooms? Do you think that it is feasible or not?
- e. What is your personal attitude about implementing EMI in your classrooms?

- f. Have you got any support from your DOET to implement EMI in your classrooms?
- g. So far, in what situations have you implemented EMI in your classrooms?
- h. Can you help evaluate your implementation of EMI? Do you think that it is effective or not?
- i. To what extent do your students respond in English?
- j. Do you have any strategies that encourage your students to implement more EMI in classrooms? In what way do students respond more in English?
- k. Are there any factors that limit your implementation of EMI? If there are, what are they?
- l. What are your recommendations to DOET which help you implement EMI more effectively?

a. *Case study 1*

Case study 1 took place in Province A with the participation of one English language specialist and four English language teachers in two primary schools. Besides the semi-structured interview sessions, I observed one fourth-grade class and three fifth-grade classes. All participants were comfortable about taking part in this study. The modality of signing the consent forms in Province A was similar to the the other provinces. Before each session, the participants were requested to sign the consent form (see Appendix 5 and 6) before the session was officially commenced.

b. *Case study 2*

Case study 2 took place in Province B with the participation of four English language teachers in three primary schools. Four face-to-face semi-structured interview sessions were conducted before I observed teaching practice. Three fourth-grade classes and one fifth-grade class were observed. The interview sessions were recorded. Notes were taken for classroom observation. Before each session, the participants were requested to sign the consent forms before the session officially commenced.

In Province B, the interview session for the English language specialist could not be conducted as formerly scheduled since this province did not have that position. The Head of Primary Education was in charge of all academic activities, including English language education, in primary schools for the whole province. As she did not have expertise in English language education, she refused to take part in the semi-structured interview. Nonetheless, thanks to her kind assistance, I collected

some data in terms of the number of English language teachers, training programs which teachers attended and so on, which helped with data analysis.

c. Case study 3

Case study 3 took place in Province C with the participation of one English language specialist and four English language teachers in one primary school. Besides the semi-structured interview sessions, I observed Grades 1, 3, 4 and 5. The modality of signing the consent form in Province C was the same as in Provinces A and B. Before each session, the participants were requested to sign the consent form before the session officially commenced.

The interview sessions were conducted; however, I observed teaching practice in four classrooms with the attendance of the English language specialist. She took this opportunity to observe in detail how teachers implemented EMI together with myself. Before the classrooms ended, she was really tactful in posing students' English questions related to the lessons to check students' comprehension and how they responded in English.

3.9. Data analysis

Analysis of quantitative and qualitative data was performed in alignment with three overarching research questions. In detail, the quantification and qualification of data were employed to explore English language primary school teachers' perceptions of EMI implementation (RQ1), to analyse the extent to which teachers implemented EMI and the extent to which primary school students responded in English (RQ2) and to investigate implications for teachers implementing EMI in their EFL classrooms in Vietnam (RQ3).

Google forms were utilised to collect data from the online questionnaire. Data were converted into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 22 for analysis. To help with thorough data preparation and analysis, I consulted with an SPSS expert at Victoria University together with bi-monthly meetings with my three supervisors. Thanks to the employment of Google forms in advance, no missing data were found when converted to SPSS. Analysis of the questionnaire data was descriptive, including statistics such as: frequency, per cent, valid per cent and cumulative per cent. Valid per cent shows the percentage of observations in the category out of the total number of non-missing responses. Cumulative per cent is the valid per cent cumulated. Valid and cumulative per cent are needed in the analysis because they help to easily compare figures in different provinces.

NVivo 12 was employed to analyse data collected from the only open-ended question from section 5 of the online questionnaire and from face-to-face semi-structured interviews. The qualitative data after translation were transcribed verbatim and coded based on themes. This process required back-and-forth reading of transcripts. Consequently, I coded all transcripts in accordance with specific themes aligned with research questions. The merging of data analyses was performed with the employment of three research questions as a guiding scheme.

Note-taking was employed in the light of RQ2 “How is EMI implemented in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam?” for which teachers’ implementation of EMI was observed. L2 commands and directions teachers employed in the classrooms were noted for analysis and overview to see if they were suitable for each classroom’s activity or not. Also, I took notes of all classroom situations in which English language teachers implemented EMI and situations in which primary school students responded in English.

3.10. Ethical issues

As participants taking part in this research were people, I considered plenty of issues when working with them. Numerous actions were taken to ensure that this study did not cause any potential harm or risk to them. Taking part in this study was completely voluntary hence participants had the right to continue to participate or withdraw at any time. Their agreement to join this study was shown via informed consent before interviews and classroom observations commenced. Further, their anonymity was maintained and the information they provided remained confidential. The following paragraphs will clarify ethical issues and describe how they were handled in detail.

This study comprised a number of ethical issues that emerged from the online survey, observations (Bryman 2008) and interviews (Kvale & Brinkmann 2009); therefore, multiple actions were taken. Firstly, I sought permission to carry out this study from the Human Research Ethics Committee at Victoria University, Melbourne, Australia. To avoid violating ethical issues, I took specific measures. The coversheet attached to the online survey clearly described the purpose of the study as well as detailed background information. I also sought informed consent from SEAMEO RETRAC trainers and English language specialists taking part in face-to-face semi-structured interviews and from English language primary school teachers participating in interviews and classroom observation. The consent forms and face-to-face semi-structured interviews were in Vietnamese. Participants could, of course, refuse to answer any questions if they wished. All

related data remained confidential, and only my three supervisors and I were able to access this material.

Additionally, I protected the anonymity of participants. Participants taking part in this study were de-identified after the data were analysed. The data were stored in my laptop with files protected by the required password. On completion of the study, the data were archived on CD and will be stored in a safe site at Victoria University for seven years.

3.11. Chapter summary

This chapter presented TPB as the theoretical framework for this study and discussed how to apply TPB to this study. My worldview of the research paradigm was documented and why case studies and mixed research methods were employed was explained. Data collection instruments, namely a review of documents, the online survey, face-to-face semi-structured interviews and classroom observation used to find the answers to research questions were outlined. In addition, this chapter discussed which three provinces in the Mekong Delta were selected as the research sites. The choice of SPSS version 22 and NViVo 12 for analysing quantitative and qualitative data collected from an online survey and face-to-face semi-structured interviews was discussed. Issues relating to validity, reliability and ethics were also taken into consideration.

In the following chapters (4, 5 and 6), quantitative and qualitative findings will be reported. These findings will then be discussed in more detail with recommendations in Chapter 7 before the final chapter concludes the thesis.

Chapter 4: FINDINGS FROM THE ONLINE SURVEY

This chapter sets out to illustrate the range of findings and tables will be presented to address the statistical data related to qualifications, proficiency and so forth. The findings chapter begins with an overview of contexts and demographics. Important matters such as class size and active teacher engagement with EMI are also noted in this chapter.

From the hyperlink sent to 600 English language primary school teachers to gather both quantitative and qualitative data (200 teachers in each province), 311 teachers responded, yielding a response rate of 51.83%, which is deemed sufficient for this analysis (Nulty 2008).

4.1. Demographics and general information

Table 4.1 illustrates that the number of English language primary school teachers taking part in the online survey was different across all three research sites; 114 out of 200 teachers in Province A responded, the highest cohort (36.7%) when compared to responses from Provinces B and C respectively. There were 108 out of 200 teachers (34.7%) in Province B who participated in the online survey whereas only 89 out of 200 teachers (28.6%) in Province C responded. The latter constituted the lowest response rate.

Table 4.1: Number of English language primary school teachers

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Province A	114	36.7	36.7	36.7
	Province B	108	34.7	34.7	71.4
	Province C	89	28.6	28.6	100.0
	Total	311	100.0	100.0	

With regard to gender of respondents for the online survey, Table 4.2 shows that the total number of male teachers in three provinces taking part in the online survey was 29.6% (n = 92) and the percentage of female teachers who participated was 70.4% (n = 219).

Table 4.2: Number of male and female teachers

			Province			Total
			A	B	C	
Gender	Male	Count	47	22	23	92
		% within Gender	51.1%	23.9%	25.0%	100.0%
		% within Province	41.2%	20.4%	25.8%	29.6%
	Female	Count	67	86	66	219
		% within Gender	30.6%	39.3%	30.1%	100.0%
		% within Province	58.8%	79.6%	74.2%	70.4%

Regarding the highest qualifications English language primary school teachers obtained, the majority of respondents (n = 233) had a Bachelor degree while 75 out of 311 had attained their College degree. In Vietnam, English-majored graduates from teacher training Colleges are only qualified to teach English in primary schools while their colleagues who obtain a Bachelor degree in English from Universities of Pedagogy can teach English from primary to high schools. A very small number had obtained a Master degree (n = 2) or other certificates (n = 1) (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.3: Highest qualifications teachers obtained

		Province			Total
		A	B	C	
Highest qualification earned	College degree	41	24	10	75
	Bachelor degree	72	83	78	233
	Master degree	1	0	1	2
	Other	0	1	0	1
Total		114	108	89	311

With regard to teachers' English level based on the English language proficiency framework for Vietnam (as discussed in Chapter 1), Province A cohort of respondents ranked second with 102 out of 114 teachers reaching Level 4. The highest number of teachers reaching this level was seen in Province B with 104 out of 108 teachers while only 76 out of 89 teachers reached this level in

Province C. Even though ranked first with the majority of teachers reaching Level 4 in the English language proficiency framework, Province B had the smallest number of teachers obtaining Level 5 ($n = 1$). Province A cohort had the most teachers reaching Level 5 ($n = 9$) whereas Province C ranked second with five teachers. According to the official dispatch 792/BGDĐT-NGCBQLGD (2014) issued by MOET (also discussed in Chapter 1), concerning the language requirements for teachers of English; primary and lower secondary school teachers are required to attain Level 4, and it is certain that Level 5 must be within reach of upper secondary school teachers. Level 4 is equivalent to B2 and Level 5 is similar to C1 in CEFR (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.4: Teacher levels based on English language proficiency framework for Vietnam

		Province			Total
		A	B	C	
CEFR	Level 2	2	0	2	4
	Level 3	1	3	6	10
	Level 4	102	104	76	282
	Level 5	9	1	5	15
Total		114	108	89	311

With regard to length of service in years, it is noted that English teaching experience varied. The highest number of teachers with experience over time in English language teaching was in Province A (101 out of 114) (Teachers who have 3 years of teaching are considered to be experienced) (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.5: English language teaching – years of experience

		Province			Total
		A	B	C	
English teaching experience	> 1 to < 3	13	9	16	38
	3 to < 6	43	41	24	108
	6 to 10	25	33	18	76
	> 10	33	25	31	89
Total		114	108	89	311

Table 4.6 illustrates that teachers were quite experienced in primary school English teaching. 207 out of 311 teachers had from 4 to more than 6 years of teaching English in primary schools, which accounted for 66.56% of the entire respondents. Province A had the most number of English language teachers with more than 6 years of experience in primary schools as compared to 36 in Province B and 35 in Province C.

Table 4.6: English language teaching experience in primary schools

		Province			Total
		A	B	C	
Primary English teaching experience	< 1	4	2	3	9
	1 to < 4	38	30	27	95
	4 to 6	32	40	24	96
	> 6	40	36	35	111
Total		114	108	89	311

With reference to class size in all three surveyed provinces, a minimal percentage (6.4) of teachers had the number of students per class under 30. It is noted that 72% of teachers' class size ranged from 30 to 40. Specifically, 41.5% and 30.5% of teachers taught in classes with 30 to 35 students

and 36 to 40 students respectively in their classrooms. The number of teachers whose class size was above 40 represented 21.5% as noted in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Class size of teachers in three provinces

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Class size	< 30	20	6.4	6.4	6.4
	30 to 35	129	41.5	41.5	47.9
	36 to 40	95	30.5	30.5	78.5
	> 40	67	21.5	21.5	100.0
Total		311	100.0	100.0	

In respect of class size per province, Province A had the highest number of teachers (9 out of 114) whose class size was below 30. Province B had 7 teachers with class size below 30 while the number for Province C was 4. With class size from 30 to 35, Province A had the smallest percentage of teachers (28.07%) as compared to 49.44% in Province C and 49.07% in Province B. Furthermore, Province A data identified the number of teachers with class size from 36 to over 40 with 73 out of 114 which represented 64.04%. Additionally, the majority of teachers with class size ranging from 36 to 40 students accounted for 48.25% (55 out of 114) whereas the percentage in Provinces B and C was 19.44 and 21.35 respectively (see Table 4.8).

Table 4.8: Class size of teachers per province

		Province			Total
		A	B	C	
Class size	< 30	9	7	4	20
	30 to 35	32	53	44	129
	36 to 40	55	21	19	95
	> 40	18	27	22	67
Total		114	108	89	311

In terms of ideal class size, a significant cumulative percentage of teachers (98.1%) in all three provinces indicated that the perfect number of students per class ranged from below 20 to 30 students. Of 311 teacher responses, 54.3% specified the ideal class size was 20 to 25, which occupied the highest percentage when compared to 22.5% from 26 to 30 students and 21.2% below 20. Only 5 out of 311 (1.6%) teachers designated that class size from 31 to 35 students was an ideal number (see Table 4.9).

Table 4.9: Ideal class size

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Ideal class size	< 20	66	21.2	21.2	21.2
	20 to 25	169	54.3	54.3	75.6
	26 to 30	70	22.5	22.5	98.1
	31 to 35	5	1.6	1.6	99.7
	> 35	1	.3	.3	100.0
Total		311	100.0	100.0	

In relation to frequency in attending in-service professional training programs, the majority of teachers in Province C (70.79%, n = 63) indicated they had participated in these programs on at least a monthly basis. The percentage of teachers in Provinces A and B participated at least once a month, and this accounted for only 4.39% (n = 5) and 1.85% (n = 2) respectively. A considerable percentage of teachers in Province A (77.19%, n = 88) and Province B (78.70%, n = 85) indicated their participation in professional training programs took place at least once a year. Eleven teachers in three provinces (3.54%) proposed that they did not have a specific time-frame to attend the training programs and this varied from year to year (see Table 4.10).

Table 4.10: Frequency of teacher professional development training programs

		Province			Total
		A	B	C	
Frequency of teacher training programs	monthly	5	2	63	70
	quarterly	5	4	6	15
	bi-annually	13	10	5	28
	annually	88	85	14	187
	other	3	7	1	11
Total		114	108	89	311

Regarding in-service teacher training programs catering for teachers' needs, the largest number of teachers (n = 167 or 53.70%) in all three surveyed provinces, responded that not all training met their requirements. Very few surveyed teachers (n = 9) asserted that teacher training programs failed to meet their needs with an equal number of 4 in Provinces A and B and only one teacher in Province C (see Table 4.11).

Table 4.11: Teachers' opinions about whether teacher professional development training programs conducted met their demands

		Province			Total
		A	B	C	
	Yes	17	10	20	47
	Not much	41	36	11	88
	No	4	4	1	9
	It depends on the training.	52	58	57	167
Total		114	108	89	311

Can Tho University, Ho Chi Minh City University of Pedagogy and SEAMEO RETRAC have been the education providers for in-service English teacher training programs in the South of Vietnam, assigned by Vietnam's MOET and NFL2020 Project Managing Committee. Schools, Units of Education and DOETs in this region contact these three education providers for conducting in-service English teacher professional development training programs if these programs are initiated and required by Vietnam's NFL2020 Project Managing Committee. Since resource personnel at these three institutions have already been intensively trained in programs, they are competent enough to re-train English language teachers in provinces.¹ Of all teachers surveyed, only 124 teachers out of 311 (39.95) responded that Vietnam's NFL2020 Project Managing Committee initiated their in-service teacher training programs whereas more than half of them indicated these trainings were initiated by Units of Education (66.9%), teachers (61.4%), DOETs (58.5%) and school principals (57.2%). Teachers' responses for each possible option were not substantially different in each province surveyed. In regard to the option "professional training programs were initiated by teachers", 65.8% in Province A, 60.7% in Province C and 57.4% of teachers in Province B selected this answer. Regarding the option "school principals started off the in-service English professional training programs", Province B had the highest percentage of teachers who agreed with this answer (63.0%) compared to 53.5% in Province A and 55.1% in Province C. Additionally, 73.3% in Province C indicated that the professional development training programs for teachers were initiated by Units of Education as compared to 68 (59.6%) in Province A and 73 (67.6%) in Province B. In relation to the option "DOETs were initiators of the professional training programs", 65.2% in Province C selected this option in comparison with 57.0% in Province A and 54.6% of teachers in Province B. With the final option, 42.6% in Province B agreed that Vietnam's NFL2020 Project initiated the professional training programs whereas 39.5% in Province A and 37.1% of teachers in Province C chose this answer (see Table 4.12).

¹ Future study might investigate city schools.

Table 4.12: Teachers' opinions about service providers of in-service teacher professional development training programs

Initiators of the training	Province						Total	
	A		B		C			
Teachers	75	65.8%	62	57.4%	54	60.7%	191	61.4%
School Principals	61	53.5%	68	63.0%	49	55.1%	178	57.2%
Specialists from Units of Education	68	59.6%	73	67.6%	67	73.3%	208	66.9%
Directors of DOETs	65	57.0%	59	54.6%	58	65.2%	182	58.5%
Committee of Vietnam’s NFL2020 Project	45	39.5%	46	42.6%	33	37.1%	124	39.9%

Regarding the question as to whether surveyed teachers had been offered the opportunities to engage in training sessions specifically addressing the implementation of EMI, 284 out of 311 responded they had attended such training. This very high percentage (91.3%) is opposed to 8.7% of the cohort who did not attend the EMI specific trainings. Table 4.13 shows that 98.1% of the surveyed teachers in Province B took part in the training while the percentage of teachers engaged in training in the other two provinces was quite similar (87.7% and 87.6% in Provinces A and C respectively).

Table 4.13: Number of teachers taking part in training in the English-for-Teaching module

			Province			Total
			A	B	C	
EfT	Yes	Count	100	106	78	284
		% attended EfT	35.2%	37.3%	27.5%	100.0%
		% of attendees for each Province	87.7%	98.1%	87.6%	91.3%
		% of Total	32.2%	34.1%	25.1%	91.3%
	No	Count	14	2	11	27
		% attended EfT	51.9%	7.4%	40.7%	100.0%
		% of attendees for each Province	12.3%	1.9%	12.4%	8.7%
		% of Total	4.5%	0.6%	3.5%	8.7%
Total		Count	114	108	89	311
		% attended EfT	36.7%	34.7%	28.6%	100.0%
		% of attendees for each Province	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	36.7%	34.7%	28.6%	100.0%

4.2. Teachers' perceptions of implementation of EMI in classrooms in Vietnam

Surveyed teachers' perceptions of the implementation of EMI in EFL classrooms in Vietnam were investigated based on their views of EMI's benefits via students and teachers, particularly how teachers perceived benefits of their implementation of EMI to their students as well as to themselves. The following sections (4.2.1 and 4.2.2) elucidate how 311 teachers in three surveyed provinces perceived EMI implementation.

4.2.1. Teachers' perceptions of benefits of implementation of EMI to students

Of 311 teachers' responses, more than 85% indicated the benefits which EMI brought to their EFL primary school students. Specifically, primary school teachers of English expressed two levels of

agreement (agreement or strong agreement) with the belief that the adoption of EMI helps primary school students. They stated the benefits as follows:

- (1) generally improve their English skills efficiently (95.5%);
- (2) enhance their English language proficiency (95.5%);
- (3) maximise their exposure to English (92.6%);
- (4) better their listening skills (88.5%);
- (5) better their speaking skills (96.5%);
- (6) generally become more confident (94.8%);
- (7) interact with their EFL teachers and peers in English (92.6%);
- (8) practise their thinking in English (93.9%);
- (9) memorise English words and lessons easily (92.0%);
- (10) improve their pronunciation (86.9%); and
- (11) become dynamic whilst still young English language learners (92.9%).

Most teachers (n = 241, 77.5%) indicated agreement and strong agreement with the belief that the implementation of EMI helps EFL primary school students to engage more in EFL activities in classrooms.

Specifically, with teachers' belief that implementation of EMI contributed to students' efficient improvement of their English skills, more than 90% of teachers in all three surveyed provinces expressed their agreement and strong agreement. Province C had the highest percentage of teachers agreeing and strongly agreeing (98.9%) when compared to 93% in Province A and 95.4% in Province B.

Similarly, 95.5% of teachers' responses indicated their agreement or strong agreement that implementation of EMI helps primary school students enhance their English language proficiency. Province C also ranked first with 98.9% whereas the percentage in Provinces A and B was similar with 93.9% and 94.4% respectively.

In relation to the implementation of EMI to maximise students' exposure to English, 92.6% of teachers expressed their agreement and strong agreement. Province C also had the highest

percentage (98.8%). The second and third highest percentages were Province A (91.2%) and Province B (88.9%) respectively (see Table 4.14a).

Table 4.14a: Benefits of teachers' implementation of EMI for EFL primary school students

Please mark (X) the appropriate response for each statement		Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
Using EMI helps EFL primary school students to						
generally improve their English skills efficiently.	Province A	2	3	3	44	62
		1.8%	2.6%	2.6%	38.6%	54.4%
	Province B	2	1	2	53	50
		1.9%	0.9%	1.9%	49.1%	46.3%
	Province C	1	0	0	30	58
		1.1%	0.0%	0.0%	33.7%	65.2%
	Total	5	4	5	127	170
		1.6%	1.3%	1.6%	40.8%	54.7%
enhance their English language proficiency.	Province A	2	1	4	48	59
		1.8%	0.9%	3.5%	42.1%	51.8%
	Province B	3	0	3	50	52
		2.8%	0.0%	2.8%	46.3%	48.1%
	Province C	1	0	0	26	62
		1.1%	0.0%	0.0%	29.2%	69.7%
	Total	6	1	7	124	173
		1.9%	0.3%	2.3%	39.9%	55.6%
maximise their exposure to English.	Province A	2	1	7	51	53
		1.8%	0.9%	6.1%	44.7%	46.5%
	Province B	2	0	10	41	55
		1.9%	0.0%	9.3%	38.0%	50.9%
	Province C	1	0	0	31	57
		1.1%	0.0%	0.0%	34.8%	64.0%
	Total	5	1	17	123	165
		1.6%	0.3%	5.5%	39.5%	53.1%

Although ranked first, in relation to the enhancement of their English proficiency and maximisation of their exposure to English, Province C had a lower percentage (84.3%) of teachers who were in agreement and strong agreement with the implementation of EMI to better students' listening skills when compared to Province A (90.4%) and Province B (89.8%). Of 311 teachers' responses, 8.0% (n = 25) possessed an ambivalent attitude towards the implementation of EMI to

ameliorate students' listening skills. A small number of teachers (3.5%) expressed their disagreement and strong disagreement.

Of 311 teachers' responses, 96.5% (n = 300) in the three surveyed provinces agreed and strongly agreed with the implementation of EMI to advance students' speaking skills. Province C had the largest percentage (98.9%) in this category. Provinces A and B also shared the same belief with 95.6% and 95.4% of teachers respectively.

Teachers in all three provinces showed their positive perceptions of EMI implementation. Thus 94.8% (n = 295) expressed their agreement and strong agreement that the implementation of EMI helps their primary school students become more confident. Province C ranked first with 98.8%. Province A as well as Province B was high and similar with 93.0% and 93.6% respectively (see Table 4.14b).

Table 4.14b: Benefits of teachers' implementation of EMI for EFL primary school students

Please mark (X) the appropriate response for each statement		Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
Using EMI helps EFL primary school students to						
better their listening skills.	Province A	2	3	6	63	40
		1.8%	2.6%	5.3%	55.3%	35.1%
	Province B	3	1	7	40	57
		2.8%	0.9%	6.5%	37.0%	52.8%
	Province C	1	1	12	30	45
		1.1%	1.1%	13.5%	33.7%	50.6%
	Total	6	5	25	133	142
		1.9%	1.6%	8.0%	42.8%	45.7%
better their speaking skills.	Province A	2	0	3	62	47
		1.8%	0.0%	2.6%	54.4%	41.2%
	Province B	3	1	1	43	60
		2.8%	0.9%	0.9%	39.8%	55.6%
	Province C	1	0	0	39	49
		1.1%	0.0%	0.0%	43.8%	55.1%
	Total	6	1	4	144	156
		1.9%	0.3%	1.3%	46.3%	50.2%
generally become more confident.	Province A	2	0	6	50	56
		1.8%	0.0%	5.3%	43.9%	49.1%
	Province B	3	1	3	45	56
		2.8%	0.9%	2.8%	41.7%	51.9%
	Province C	1	0	0	40	48
		1.1%	0.0%	0.0%	44.9%	53.9%
	Total	6	1	9	135	160
		1.9%	0.3%	2.9%	43.4%	51.4%

Regarding the benefits of implementation of EMI with students' interaction with EFL teachers and peers in English, 92.6% of teachers (n = 288) expressed their opinion as agreement and strong agreement. More teachers in Province C (97.7%) expressed their agreement and strong agreement than their colleagues in Province A (89.5%) and Province B (91.7%). Furthermore, a high percentage (93.9%) in three surveyed provinces indicated their agreement and strong agreement that EMI advances students' thinking in English. In this category, Province C still ranked first with 98.9% when compared to 89.4% in Province A and 94.5% in Province B.

Nonetheless, with respect to the benefits of implementation of EMI for students' increased engagement with in-class EFL activities, as shown in Table 4.14c, 55 out of 311 teachers (17.7%) had ambivalent attitudes. More than three quarters of teachers (77.5%) responded with agreement and strong agreement about EMI and its engagement in class activities. In this category, Provinces A, B and C shared a similar percentage with 78.1%, 78.7% and 75.3% respectively.

Table 4.14c: Benefits of teachers' implementation of EMI for EFL primary school students

Please mark (X) the appropriate response for each statement		Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
Using EMI helps EFL primary school students to						
interact with their EFL teachers and peers in English.	Province A	2	1	9	46	56
		1.8%	0.9%	7.9%	40.4%	49.1%
	Province B	2	1	6	49	50
		1.9%	0.9%	5.6%	45.4%	46.3%
	Province C	1	0	1	43	44
		1.1%	0.0%	1.1%	48.3%	49.4%
	Total	5	2	16	138	150
practise their thinking in English.	Province A	1	3	8	51	51
		0.9%	2.6%	7.0%	44.7%	44.7%
	Province B	1	2	3	41	61
		0.9%	1.9%	2.8%	38.0%	56.5%
	Province C	1	0	0	38	50
		1.1%	0.0%	0.0%	42.7%	56.2%
	Total	3	5	11	130	162
engage more in-class EFL activities.	Province A	1	5	19	48	41
		0.9%	4.4%	16.7%	42.1%	36.0%
	Province B	3	4	16	28	57
		2.8%	3.7%	14.8%	25.9%	52.8%
	Province C	1	1	20	25	42
		1.1%	1.1%	22.5%	28.1%	47.2%
	Total	5	10	55	101	140
		1.6%	3.2%	17.7%	32.5%	45.0%

Of 311 teachers' responses, 92% (n = 286) answered positively that implementation of EMI helps primary school students memorise English words and lessons easily. Province C led with 95.5% as compared to 91.3% in Province A and 89.8% in Province B. Regarding the benefits of EMI

implementation to students' improved pronunciation, 86.9% expressed their agreement and strong agreement. Province C ranked second with 87.7%; however, the percentage was not much different when compared to 88.9% in Province B and 84.2% in Province A.

In relation to the last category, 92.9% of teachers (n = 289) in all three surveyed provinces expressed their agreement and strong agreement that EMI implementation helps primary school students become more dynamic whilst still young English language learners. Province C had the biggest percentage (97.7%). Province A ranked second highest with 92.1% followed by Province B at 89.8%.

Table 4.14d: Benefits of teachers' implementation of EMI for EFL primary school students

Please mark (X) the appropriate response for each statement		Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
Using EMI helps EFL primary school students to						
memorise English words and lessons easily.	Province A	1	3	6	58	46
		0.9%	2.6%	5.3%	50.9%	40.4%
	Province B	1	3	7	42	55
		0.9%	2.8%	6.5%	38.9%	50.9%
	Province C	1	0	3	44	41
		1.1%	0.0%	3.4%	49.4%	46.1%
	Total	3	6	16	144	142
		1.0%	1.9%	5.1%	46.3%	45.7%
improve their pronunciation.	Province A	1	6	11	51	45
		0.9%	5.3%	9.6%	44.7%	39.5%
	Province B	2	1	9	39	57
		1.9%	0.9%	8.3%	36.1%	52.8%
	Province C	1	1	9	29	49
		1.1%	1.1%	10.1%	32.6%	55.1%
	Total	4	8	29	119	151
		1.3%	2.6%	9.3%	38.3%	48.6%
become more dynamic whilst still young English language learners.	Province A	2	1	6	47	58
		1.8%	0.9%	5.3%	41.2%	50.9%
	Province B	2	1	8	38	59
		1.9%	0.9%	7.4%	35.2%	54.6%
	Province C	1	0	1	31	56
		1.1%	0.0%	1.1%	34.8%	62.9%
	Total	5	2	15	116	173
		1.6%	0.6%	4.8%	37.3%	55.6%

Overall, data show that English language primary school teachers in surveyed provinces in the South of Vietnam possessed a positive perception of the benefits EMI implementation brought to their students. Teachers' responses in Province C indicate that their perception of the benefits of the adoption of EMI to their students was a bit more positive than responses from their colleagues in Provinces A and B.

4.2.2. Teachers' self-perceptions of the benefits of the implementation of EMI

Of 311 teachers' responses, more than 80% indicated they had positive perceptions of the benefits of EMI implementation for their teaching. They also expressed agreement and strong agreement in relation to these benefits. Specifically, the implementation of EMI:

- (1) made them more confident English language teachers in their classrooms (93.9%);
- (2) made them practise their English every day (96.7%);
- (3) was cost-effective for their learning (94.5%);
- (4) required they spend more time preparing their lessons (83.3%);
- (5) developed their own English language proficiency (95.8%); and
- (6) highly motivated them to improve their teaching skills (96.2%).

However, less than 60% (58.5%) expressed their agreement and strong agreement that EMI implementation helped create an authentic English environment as EFL teachers.

Referring to the first category in which the implementation of EMI helps create an authentic English environment, Province B stood out with 63% of teachers expressing agreement and strong agreement. Province C had a similar percentage of teachers to Province B with 62.9% compared to 50.9% in Province A. There were a considerable number of teachers in all three provinces who showed their ambivalent attitude towards the implementation of EMI to the creation of an authentic English environment. Thus, 45.6% of teachers ($n = 52$) in Province A expressed an ambivalent attitude whereas the percentage in Provinces C and B was 36.0% and 34.3% respectively. Even though the total number of teachers who had neutral attitudes was high ($n = 121$), those who expressed their disagreement and strong disagreement was minor with only 13 out of 311 teachers who took part in the online survey.

Concerning whether EMI makes teachers perform more confidently in EFL classrooms, a high percentage of teachers in Province C (95.5%), Province B (94.4%) and Province A (92.1%) expressed their agreement and strong agreement. The number of teachers with an ambivalent attitude or those who expressed disagreement and strong disagreement was minimal. Likewise, the figures for teachers in agreement and strong agreement that EMI made teachers practise their English every day were relatively high with 98.8% in Province C, 96.3% in Province B and 95.6% in Province A (see Table 4.15a).

Table 4.15a: Benefits for teachers' implementation of EMI

Please mark (X) the appropriate response for each statement		Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
Using EMI						
helps create an authentic English environment.	Province A	2	4	52	56	2
		1.8%	3.5%	45.6%	49.1%	1.8%
	Province B	2	3	37	66	2
		1.9%	2.8%	34.3%	61.1%	1.9%
	Province C	1	1	32	55	1
		1.1%	1.1%	36.0%	61.8%	1.1%
	Total	5	8	121	177	5
		1.6%	2.6%	38.9%	56.9%	1.6%
makes me a more confident English language teacher in my EFL classrooms.	Province A	2	2	5	39	66
		1.8%	1.8%	4.4%	34.2%	57.9%
	Province B	2	0	4	39	63
		1.9%	0.0%	3.7%	36.1%	58.3%
	Province C	1	0	3	26	59
		1.1%	0.0%	3.4%	29.2%	66.3%
	Total	5	2	12	104	188
		1.6%	0.6%	3.9%	33.4%	60.5%
makes me practise my English every day.	Province A	2	1	2	42	67
		1.8%	0.9%	1.8%	36.8%	58.8%
	Province B	2	0	2	35	69
		1.9%	0.0%	1.9%	32.4%	63.9%
	Province C	1	0	0	27	61
		1.1%	0.0%	0.0%	30.3%	68.5%
	Total	5	1	4	104	197
		1.6%	0.3%	1.3%	33.4%	63.3%

In regards to whether EMI implementation is cost-effective for teachers' learning, Province C stood out with 97.8% of teachers who expressed agreement and strong agreement; 95.4% in Province B were in agreement and strong agreement while the percentage for teachers in Province A was also high at 91.3%. Concerning the option in which the implementation of EMI requires teachers spend more time preparing lessons before their teaching performance, teachers in all three provinces had relatively similar opinions; more than 83% agreed and strongly agreed.

With respect to whether EMI helps develop teachers' English language proficiency, Province C ranked first with 97.8% compared to 95.6% in Province A and 94.4% in Province B. Province C also had the highest percentage of teachers (97.8%) who expressed agreement and strong agreement that EMI implementation highly motivated them to improve their teaching skills. Even though the number was not as significant as in Province C, the percentages in Provinces B and A were also considerably high at 96.3% and 94.7% respectively (see Table 4.15b).

Table 4.15b: Benefits for teachers' implementation of EMI

Please mark (X) the appropriate response for each statement		Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
Using EMI						
is cost-effective for my learning.	Province A	1	3	6	45	59
		0.9%	2.6%	5.3%	39.5%	51.8%
	Province B	1	2	2	45	58
		0.9%	1.9%	1.9%	41.7%	53.7%
	Province C	1	0	1	33	54
		1.1%	0.0%	1.1%	37.1%	60.7%
	Total	3	5	9	123	171
		1.0%	1.6%	2.9%	39.5%	55.0%
requires that I spend more time preparing lessons.	Province A	3	7	9	36	59
		2.6%	6.1%	7.9%	31.6%	51.8%
	Province B	4	9	5	28	62
		3.7%	8.3%	4.6%	25.9%	57.4%
	Province C	1	2	12	22	52
		1.1%	2.2%	13.5%	24.7%	58.4%
	Total	8	18	26	86	173
		2.6%	5.8%	8.4%	27.7%	55.6%
develops my own proficiency, so I can know what to say in my classrooms.	Province A	2	2	1	49	60
		1.8%	1.8%	0.9%	43.0%	52.6%
	Province B	2	0	4	35	67
		1.9%	0.0%	3.7%	32.4%	62.0%
	Province C	1	0	1	33	54
		1.1%	0.0%	1.1%	37.1%	60.7%
	Total	5	2	6	117	181
		1.6%	0.6%	1.9%	37.6%	58.2%
highly motivates me to improve my teaching skill.	Province A	2	1	3	38	70
		1.8%	0.9%	2.6%	33.3%	61.4%
	Province B	2	0	2	35	69
		1.9%	0.0%	1.9%	32.4%	63.9%
	Province C	1	0	1	24	63
		1.1%	0.0%	1.1%	27.0%	70.8%
	Total	5	1	6	97	202
		1.6%	0.3%	1.9%	31.2%	65.0%

In summary, the data demonstrate that the majority of English language primary school teachers in the three surveyed provinces in the South of Vietnam also possessed a positive perception of the benefits that EMI brought to them. They shared relatively similar opinions about the merits

when engaging with EMI and its implementation in their EFL classrooms. Perceptions of teachers in Province C were the most positive when compared to their colleagues in Provinces B and A.

4.3. The extent to which EFL primary school teachers implement EMI in their classrooms

Data show that all teachers (n = 311) in the three surveyed provinces responded they welcomed their students on arrival in their EFL classrooms in English. A significant number of teachers surveyed (93.9%) responded that EMI was under implementation when teachers had their students engage in listening activities and repeat new words. 88.4% (n = 275) answered that EMI was implemented when vocabulary was taught and explained to primary school students. Teachers' responses indicated that EMI was utilised to

- (1) ask students questions, 84.9% (n = 264);
- (2) check their attendance, 84.2% (n = 262); and
- (3) offer warm-up activities, 83.3% (n = 259).

In addition, 81.7% (n = 254) teachers employed EMI when reviewing previous lessons. More than three quarters of teachers' responses (77.8%, n = 242) indicated they implemented EMI to give their students instructions whereas the percentage for teachers using EMI to manage classroom behaviours was 75.6% (n = 235). The use of EMI to manage classroom behaviours is high and significant, as it indicated these teachers naturalised English to such a degree that they were using it in an organisational manner. Additionally, 74.6% (n = 232) and 74.3% (n = 231) responded that they used EMI (1) to assess their students and to give them feedback and (2) to interact with them respectively. Of the 311 teachers' responses, 222 (71.4%) mentioned that EMI was implemented to check their students' understanding of lesson aims, objectives and content. Furthermore, 64.3% (n = 200), 62.7% (n = 195), 62.1% (n = 193) and 60.5% (n = 188) responded that EMI was under implementation in their EFL classrooms to:

- (1) have students play games;
- (2) offer students drills for practice;
- (3) give students homework assignments; and
- (4) to communicate lesson content respectively.

Over half (51.1%, n = 159) indicated they implemented EMI to teach their students grammar and structure. The number of teacher responses to implement EMI for role-play and story-telling activities accounted for 38.6% (n = 120) and 28.3% (n = 88) respectively. Table 4.16 depicts classroom situations in which EFL primary school teachers in the three surveyed provinces implement EMI.

Table 4.16: Classroom situations in which EFL primary school teachers implement EMI

In their EFL primary school classrooms, English language teachers use English when they		Frequency	Valid percent
a	greet students.	311	100.0
b	check student attendance.	262	84.2
c	give students instructions.	242	77.8
d	review previous lessons.	254	81.7
e	offer warm-up activities.	259	83.3
f	ask students questions.	264	84.9
g	communicate lesson content.	188	60.5
h	teach students vocabulary.	275	88.4
i	have students listen and repeat new words.	292	93.9
j	check students' understanding of lessons.	222	71.4
k	teach them grammar and structure.	159	51.1
l	offer them drills for practice.	195	62.7
m	assess students and give them feedback.	232	74.6
n	tell stories.	88	28.3
o	use role-play.	120	38.6
p	have them play games.	200	64.3
q	give students homework assignments.	193	62.1
r	manage classroom behaviours.	235	75.6
s	interact with students.	231	74.3

The data illustrate that all teachers (100%, n = 311) in the three surveyed provinces implemented EMI to greet their students, as noted earlier, into their EFL classrooms. When considering teachers' implementation of EMI to check students' attendance, Province C ranked second with 84.3% responses in relation to using English to check attendance compared to Province B with 89.8% and Province A with 78.9%. As for teachers' implementation of EMI to give students instructions, Province C also ranked second with 82.0% when compared to 82.4% in Province B. Province A ranked third with 70.2% using EMI for student instruction. In terms of teachers' implementation of EMI to review previous lessons, Province C had the highest percentage of teachers' responses at 86.5%. Province B was a bit lower with 85.2% while Province A was 74.6%, which ranked third (see Table 4.16a). Tables 4.16a, 4.16b, 4.16c, 4.16d and 4.16e compare classroom situations in which EFL primary school teachers implement EMI.

Table 4.16a: Classroom situations in which EFL primary school teachers implement EMI

In their EFL primary school classrooms, English language teachers use English when they			Province			Total
			A	B	C	
a	greet students.	Count	114	108	89	311
		% within province	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
b	check student attendance.	Count	90	97	75	262
		% within province	78.9%	89.8%	84.3%	84.2%
c	give students instructions.	Count	80	89	73	242
		% within province	70.2%	82.4%	82.0%	77.8%
d	review previous lessons.	Count	85	92	77	254
		% within province	74.6%	85.2%	86.5%	81.7%

With regards to teachers' implementation of EMI in the engagement of "warm-up" activities, Province C had the largest percentage of responses at 96.6% as compared to 80.6% in Province B and 75.4% in Province A. Further, Province C also ranked first with the percentage of teachers' responses (96.6%) to implement EMI to pose students questions. In this category, Province B ranked second with 84.3% while Province A was 76.3%. Additionally, Province C was highest in the use of EMI for questions with 73.0% teachers' responses to implement EMI for the

communication of the lesson content compared to 60.2% and 50.9% in Provinces B and A respectively. Furthermore, Province C took the lead with 92.1% of teachers' responses to implement EMI to teach students vocabulary while the percentage in this category in Provinces B and A was 88.0% and 86.0% respectively (see Table 4.16b).

Table 4.16b: Classroom situations in which EFL primary school teachers implement EMI

In their EFL primary school classrooms, English language teachers use English when they			Province			Total
			A	B	C	
e	offer warm-up activities.	Count	86	87	86	259
		% within province	75.4%	80.6%	96.6%	83.3%
f	ask students questions.	Count	87	91	86	264
		% within province	76.3%	84.3%	96.6%	84.9%
g	communicate lesson content.	Count	58	65	65	188
		% within province	50.9%	60.2%	73.0%	60.5%
h	teach students vocabulary.	Count	98	95	82	275
		% within province	86.0%	88.0%	92.1%	88.4%

Regarding teachers' implementation of EMI to have students listen and repeat new words, Province C led at 97.8%. Province B ranked second at 95.4% and Province A at 89.5%. When considering teachers' implementation of EMI to check students' understanding of lessons, the data illustrate that Province C led with 83.1% when compared to 73.1% and 60.5% respectively in Provinces B and A. In addition, more than 60% in Province C (61.8%) indicated that teachers implemented EMI to teach their students grammar and structures whereas less than 50% of teachers in Provinces A and B did so. Specifically, 47.4% in Province A and 46.3% in Province B employed EMI to teach students grammar and structures in their EFL classrooms. It is noteworthy that Province C also ranked first with 78.7% of teachers implementing EMI to offer drills for students' practice while Provinces B and A were 63.0% and 50.0% respectively (see Table 4.16c).

Table 4.16c: Classroom situations in which EFL primary school teachers implement EMI

In their EFL primary school classrooms, English language teachers use English when they			Province			Total
			A	B	C	
i	have students listen and repeat new words.	Count	102	103	87	292
		% within province	89.5%	95.4%	97.8%	93.9%
j	check students' understanding of lessons.	Count	69	79	74	222
		% within province	60.5%	73.1%	83.1%	71.4%
k	teach grammar and structures.	Count	54	50	55	159
		% within province	47.4%	46.3%	61.8%	51.1%
l	offer drills for practice.	Count	57	68	70	195
		% within province	50.0%	63.0%	78.7%	62.7%

On considering implementation of EMI to assess students and give them feedback, Province C had the highest percentage of teachers' responding at 87.6%. In Province B, 76.9% responded and 62.3% responded in Province A. Implementation of EMI for story-telling and role-play activities was less than 50%. Province C led with 46.1% to implement EMI to tell stories in their EFL classrooms while the percentage for the other two provinces was significantly less, at 22.2% in Province B and 20.2% in Province A. Further, Province C had the most teachers' responses for implementing EMI for role-play activities (53.9%). In this category, the percentage in Provinces A and B was 32.5% and 32.4% respectively. As for teachers' implementation of EMI to have students play games, Province C had the highest percentage (78.7%) as compared to 65.7% in Province B and 51.8% in Province A (see Table 4.16d).

Table 4.16d: Classroom situations in which EFL primary school teachers implement EMI

In their EFL primary school classrooms, English language teachers use English when they			Province			Total
			A	B	C	
m	assess students and give feedback.	Count	71	83	78	232
		% within province	62.3%	76.9%	87.6%	74.6%
n	tell stories.	Count	23	24	41	88
		% within province	20.2%	22.2%	46.1%	28.3%
o	use role-play.	Count	37	35	48	120
		% within province	32.5%	32.4%	53.9%	38.6%
p	have them play games.	Count	59	71	70	200
		% within province	51.8%	65.7%	78.7%	64.3%

Data show that Province C ranked second with 60.7% of teachers' responses to implement EMI to give students direction for their homework assignments. Province B ranked first in this category with 66.7% while Province A ranked third with 58.8%. Regarding teachers' implementation of EMI to manage classroom behaviours, Province C was highest at 86.5% when compared to Province B with 77.8% and Province A with 64.9%. Province C still led with 85.4% of teachers' responses to implement EMI for student interaction. Provinces B and A were 74.1% and 65.8% respectively (see Table 4.16e).

Table 4.16e: Classroom situations in which EFL primary school teachers implement EMI

In their EFL primary school classrooms, English language teachers use English when they			Province			Total
			A	B	C	
q	give students homework assignments.	Count	67	72	54	193
		% within province	58.8%	66.7%	60.7%	62.1%
r	manage classroom behaviours.	Count	74	84	77	235
		% within province	64.9%	77.8%	86.5%	75.6%
s	interact with students.	Count	75	80	76	231
		% within province	65.8%	74.1%	85.4%	74.3%

In summary, the data show that EFL primary school teachers in the three surveyed provinces implemented EMI in almost all of their in-class activities. These activities are: greeting students (100%), having them listen and repeat new words (93.9%), teaching vocabulary (88.4%), posing questions (84.9%), checking attendance (84.2%), offering warm-up activities (83.3%) and reviewing previous lessons (81.7%) along with incidental English use within EMI classroom confines. Of the 311 teachers' responses, only 38.6% and 28.3% implemented EMI for role-play and story-telling activities respectively. The figures for teachers' responses were different in each province; nonetheless, Province C had the highest percentage of teachers who implemented EMI in the majority of classroom activities listed in the online survey. Province B ranked second as compared to Province A that ranked third.

4.4. The extent to which primary school students respond in English

According to the data collected, all teachers (n = 311) in the three surveyed provinces indicated that primary school students responded in English as they were greeted by teachers in the classroom. A significant number of teachers surveyed (87.5%, n = 272) noted that students responded in English when they read dialogues or conversed as requested by teachers. Moreover, 83.6% (n = 260) of students replied to their teachers in English when teachers checked their attendance. Students' responses with the employment of English which happened when students (1) practised drills in pairs or groups and (2) answered teachers' questions accounted for 78.1% (n = 243) and 77.5% (n = 241) respectively. In addition, less than three quarters of teachers (67.2%,

n = 209) indicated that students responded in English when requested to do their oral exercises. More than half of the teachers' responses (59.5%, n = 185 and 52.7%, n = 164) respectively illustrated that students replied in English when they (1) played games, and (2) interacted with their teachers and one another. Additionally, less than 50% of the teachers' responses showed that students utilised English when (1) discussing in pairs or groups (46.6%, n = 145), (2) role-playing (46.6%, n = 145), and (3) when asking teachers for assistance (45.7%, n = 142). A small number of teachers' responses were that students used English to tell stories (14.8%, n = 46) and to sum up the content of lessons or stories (10.9%, n = 34). Table 4.17 below denotes classroom situations in which primary school students respond in English according to teachers' responses via employment of the online survey.

Table 4.17: EFL classroom situations in which primary school students respond in English

In EFL primary school classrooms, students respond in English when		Frequency	Valid percent
a	teachers greet them.	311	100.0
b	teachers check their attendance.	260	83.6
c	students practise drills in pairs or groups.	243	78.1
d	students discuss in pairs or groups.	145	46.6
e	students role-play.	145	46.6
f	students play games.	185	59.5
g	students interact with teachers and others.	164	52.7
h	students ask teachers for assistance.	142	45.7
i	students answer teachers' questions.	241	77.5
j	students are asked to do their oral exercises.	209	67.2
k	students read dialogues or converse.	272	87.5
l	students tell stories.	46	14.8
m	students summarise the content of lessons or stories.	34	10.9

All of the teachers' responses (n = 311) showed that primary school students in the three surveyed provinces responded in English when they were greeted by their teachers in English. Concerning students' responses in English, when teachers checked their attendance, Province C ranked first with 96.6% (n = 86) as compared to Province B with 88.9% (n = 96) and Province A with 68.4% (n = 78). Regarding students' use of English to practise drills in pairs or groups, Province C was the highest with 91.0% (n = 81) uptake of the use of EMI in pairs or groups. Province B had the second largest percentage at 83.3% (n = 90) whereas Province A was only 63.2% (n = 72). In terms of students' use of English to discuss class content with their peers in pairs or groups, according to the responses from teachers, Province C led with 60.7% (n = 54) which almost doubled the percentage from Province A (33.3%, n = 38). In this category, Province B had the second highest percentage at 49.1% (n = 53) (see Table 4.17a). Table 4.17a depicts classroom situations in which primary school students respond in English according to teachers' responses via employment of the online survey.

Table 4.17a: EFL classroom situations in which primary school students respond in English

In EFL primary school classrooms, students respond in English when			Province			Total
			A	B	C	
a	teachers greet them.	Count	114	108	89	311
		% within province	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
b	teachers check their attendance.	Count	78	96	86	260
		% within province	68.4%	88.9%	96.6%	83.6%
c	students practise drills in pairs or groups.	Count	72	90	81	243
		% within province	63.2%	83.3%	91.0%	78.1%
d	students discuss in pairs or groups.	Count	38	53	54	145
		% within province	33.3%	49.1%	60.7%	46.6%

Data illustrate that Province C ranked first in terms of students' use of English for role-playing in class activities with 55.1% as compared to 36% (n = 41) in Province A whereas Province B ranked second with more than half of the percentage (50.9%, n = 55). Regarding students' use of English

while playing games, Province C led with 71.9% of teachers' selection (n = 64). Provinces B and A were 63.0% (n = 68) and 46.5% (n = 53) respectively. Furthermore, 64.0% of teachers in Province C agreed that students used English when interacting with their teachers and each other as compared to 54.6% (n = 59) in Province B and 42.1% (n = 48) in Province A. What's more, according to the teachers surveyed in Province C, 61.8% (n = 55) chose students who asked their teachers for assistance in English while only 43.5% (n = 47) in Province B and 35.1% (n = 40) in Province A selected this option (see Table 4.17b).

Table 4.17b: EFL classroom situations in which primary school students respond in English

In EFL primary school classrooms, students respond in English when			Province			Total
			A	B	C	
e	students role-play.	Count	41	55	49	145
		% within province	36%	50.9%	55.1%	46.6%
f	students play games.	Count	53	68	64	185
		% within province	46.5%	63.0%	71.9%	59.5%
g	students interact with teachers and others.	Count	48	59	57	164
		% within province	42.1%	54.6%	64.0%	52.7%
h	students ask teachers for assistance.	Count	40	47	55	142
		% within province	35.1%	43.5%	61.8%	45.7%

With reference to students' use of English to answer questions posed by teachers, Province C ranked second at 82.0% (n = 73) as compared to Province B at 82.4% (n = 89) and Province A at 69.3% (n = 79). In addition, on considering students' use of English when they were requested to perform speaking and listening exercises, Province C was 69.7% (n = 62) compared to Province B at 70.4% (n = 76). As for Province A, 62.3% indicated that students used English when they were asked to perform speaking and listening exercises. Additionally, more than 80% in the three surveyed provinces responded that students used English to read dialogues or conversations as requested. Specifically, Province C led with 96.6% (n = 86) compared to 87.0% (n = 94) in Province B and 80.7% (n = 92) in Province A. Further, few teachers identified that students used English for story-telling. 24.7% (n = 22) of teachers in Province C chose this option while

Provinces B and A were 14.8% (n = 16) and 7.0% (n = 8) respectively. Regarding students' use of English to sum up the content of lessons or stories, Province C led the way with 16.9% (n = 15) as compared to only 10.2% (n = 11) in Province B and 7.0% (n = 8) in Province A (see Table 4.17c).

Table 4.17c: EFL classroom situations in which primary school students respond in English

In EFL primary school classrooms, students respond in English when			Province			Total
			A	B	C	
i	students answer teachers' questions.	Count % within province	79 69.3%	89 82.4%	73 82.0%	241 77.5%
j	students are asked to do their oral exercises.	Count % within province	71 62.3%	76 70.4%	62 69.7%	209 67.2%
k	students read dialogues or conversations.	Count % within province	92 80.7%	94 87.0%	86 96.6%	272 87.5%
l	students tell stories.	Count % within province	8 7.0%	16 14.8%	22 24.7%	46 14.8%
m	students summarise the content of lessons or stories.	Count % within province	8 7.0%	11 10.2%	15 16.9%	34 10.9%

To summarise, although the percentage of students' use of English in class was not as high as teachers' implementation of EMI, data show that students themselves responded in English in certain classroom activities. Similar to the earlier data regarding teachers' implementation of EMI in EFL classrooms, Province C had the highest percentage of teachers' responding that in most of the in-class activities students used English. Province B ranked second as compared to Province A that ranked third.

4.5. Implications for teachers implementing EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam

There were two types of data (quantitative and qualitative) for this section collected via the employment of the online survey. Section 4.5.1 analyses reasons why English language primary school teachers implemented EMI in their classrooms. Section 4.5.2 discusses implications for teachers implementing EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam.

4.5.1. Reasons why English language teachers implemented EMI

Based on collection of the data from the online survey, English language primary school teachers in three surveyed provinces implemented EMI in their EFL classrooms for multiple reasons noted in this section. One reason noted by the majority of teachers (92.9%, n = 289) is that they selected because of their English language proficiency level. Another reason was their feeling of confidence with 88.4% of teachers (n = 274) noting they were confident in their use of English.

Furthermore, more than 60% of teachers indicated they implemented EMI in their EFL classrooms because

- (1) they were provided with sufficient professional development training on the use of EMI (69.5%, n = 216);
- (2) the implementation of EMI focused on listening and speaking skills (64.3%, n = 200);
- (3) the implementation of EMI inspired their students to learn (64.0%, n = 199); and
- (4) they received strong support from DOETs, schools and students' parents (63.0%, n = 196).

In addition, more than half of the teachers (55.0%, n = 171) commented they were financially supported to engage in teacher training programs which are a necessity for their teaching career and catered for what they called their 'professional demands'. Moreover, approximately one third of teachers' responses indicated (1) they were able to have access to their needed materials and resources (39.2%, n = 122), and (2) the school did not create any pressure with 37.0% teachers' choice (n = 115).

Of the 311 teachers taking part in the survey, 30.5% (n = 95) mentioned they implemented EMI because they could spend more time with their students. Other reasons selected were that

- (1) besides teaching, they were not required to do other extra-curricular school activities (19.9%, n = 62);
- (2) their classrooms were well-equipped with teaching aids that facilitated their teaching (19.6%, n = 61);
- (3) class size was smaller so they could better manage students' activities (18.0%, n = 56); and
- (4) their students were provided with online programs for additional practice at home (10.3%, n = 32) (see Table 4.18).

Table 4.18: Reasons why English language primary school teachers implemented EMI in their EFL classrooms

English language primary school teachers use EMI in their EFL classrooms because		Frequency	Valid percent
a	they feel confident.	274	88.4
b	their English language proficiency level is good enough.	289	92.9
c	they receive strong support from DOETs, schools and parents.	196	63.0
d	they are provided with sufficient professional development training on the use of EMI.	216	69.5
e	they are financially supported to engage in teacher training programs which are necessary for their teaching career and cater for real learning demands.	171	55.0
f	it inspires their students to learn.	199	64.0
g	the school's syllabus does not create pressure for them.	115	37.0
h	they are able to have access to needed materials and resources.	122	39.2
i	their classrooms are well-equipped with teaching aids that facilitate teaching.	61	19.6
j	it focuses more on listening and speaking skills.	200	64.3
k	their students are provided with online programs for additional practice at home.	32	10.3
l	class size is smaller so they can better manage students' activities.	56	18.0
m	besides teaching, they are not required to do other extra-curricular school activities.	62	19.9
n	they can spend more time with their students.	95	30.5

According to the data collected, 88.8% (n = 79) of teachers in Province C who undertook the online survey noted they implemented EMI in their classrooms because of their personal and profession

confidence (Item a in Table 4.18a). This criterion ranked second as compared to 89.5% (n = 102) in Province A. Province B was ranked third but not low at 86.1% (n = 93). With reference to teachers' implementation of EMI on account of their adequate English language proficiency, Province C led with 95.5% (n = 85). Province A had the second highest percentage with 93.9% (n = 107) when compared to 89.8% (n = 97) in Province B. In terms of teachers' implementation of EMI thanks to strong support they received from DOETs, schools and students' parents, Province C ranked first at 75.3% (n = 67) while Provinces B and A were 60.2% (n = 65) and 56.1% (n = 64) respectively. Further, regarding teachers' implementation of EMI thanks to sufficient professional development training on the use of EMI, Province C ranked first in professional development at 78.7% (n = 70). Province B was approximately 10% lower with 68.5% (n = 74) while 63.2% (n = 72) of teachers in Province A selected professional development. More than half of the teachers in the provinces indicated they implemented EMI because they were financially supported to engage in teacher training programs. The data show these training programs were necessary for their teaching career and simultaneously catered for their professional learning demands. In particular, Province C accounted for 58.4% (n = 52) whereas Provinces B and A were 55.6% (n = 60) and 51.8% (n = 59) respectively (see Table 4.18a) for engaging in professional development programs using EMI. Tables 4.18a, 4.18b and 4.18c detail why English language primary school teachers implemented EMI in their EFL classrooms according to their choice and selected while they took part in the online survey.

Table 4.18a: Reasons why English language primary school teachers implemented EMI in their EFL classrooms

English language primary school teachers use EMI in their EFL classrooms because			Province			Total
			A	B	C	
a	they feel confident.	Count % within province	102 89.5%	93 86.1%	79 88.8%	274 88.4%
b	their English language proficiency level is good enough.	Count % within province	107 93.9%	97 89.8%	85 95.5%	289 92.9%
c	they receive strong support from DOETs, schools and parents.	Count % within province	64 56.1%	65 60.2%	67 75.3%	196 63.0%
d	they are provided with sufficient professional development training on the use of EMI.	Count % within province	72 63.2%	74 68.5%	70 78.7%	216 69.5%
e	they are financially supported to engage in teacher training programs which are necessary for their teaching career and cater for real learning demands.	Count % within province	59 51.8%	60 55.6%	52 58.4%	171 55.0%

Data show that 83.1% (n = 74) of teachers in Province C undertook the online survey and used EMI in their classrooms because the implementation of EMI inspired their students to learn. This can be compared to 57.4% (n = 62) in Province B and 55.3% (n = 63) in Province A. Relating to teachers' implementation of EMI since the school's syllabus did not create pressure (such as additional preparation, marking, etc.) for them, Province C led with 53.9% (n = 48) of teachers responding that the syllabus did not create challenges. Province A ranked second with 32.5% (n = 37) and Province B third at 27.8% (n = 30). With reference to teachers' implementation of EMI

because of their ability to access their needed materials and resources, Province C had the highest percentage at 53.9% (n = 48) when compared to 36.1% (n = 39) in Province B and 30.7% (n = 35) in Province A. Less than 30% of teachers in the three provinces indicated they implemented EMI because their classrooms were well-equipped with equipment that facilitated their teaching. Specifically, the percentage in this category was 29.2% (n = 26) in Province C, 18.5% (n = 20) in Province B and 13.2% (n = 15) in Province A. In terms of teachers' implementation of EMI with the focus on listening and speaking skills, Province C had the largest percentage of teachers at 77.5% (n = 69). Provinces A and B shared similar percentages at 59.6% (n = 68) and 58.3% (n = 63) respectively (see Table 4.18b).

Table 4.18b: Reasons why English language primary school teachers implemented EMI in their EFL classrooms

English language primary school teachers use EMI in their EFL classrooms because			Province			Total
			A	B	C	
f	it inspires their students to learn.	Count % within province	63 55.3%	62 57.4%	74 83.1%	199 64.0%
g	the school's syllabus does not create pressure for them.	Count % within province	37 32.5%	30 27.8%	48 53.9%	115 37.0%
h	they are able to access needed materials and resources.	Count % within province	35 30.7%	39 36.1%	48 53.9%	122 39.2%
i	their classrooms are well-equipped with teaching aids that facilitate their teaching.	Count % within province	15 13.2%	20 18.5%	26 29.2%	61 19.6%
j	it focuses more on listening and speaking skills.	Count % within province	68 59.6%	63 58.3%	69 77.5%	200 64.3%

With reference to teachers' implementation of EMI because their students were provided with online programs for their additional practice at home, 23.6% (n = 21) in Province C selected this option, which was four times higher than in Province A (5.3%, n = 6). Province B ranked third with 4.6% (n = 5). Further, 27.0% (n = 24) of teachers in Province C indicated they implemented EMI in their classrooms because class size was smaller so they could better manage students' activities. Provinces B and A were 22.2% (n = 24) and 7.0% (n = 8) respectively. Relating to teachers' implementation of EMI because they were not required to do other extra-curricular school activities, Province C led with 29.2% (n = 26), which almost doubled the percentage in Province A (16.7%, n = 19) and in Province B (15.7%, n = 17). As for the option in which teachers implemented EMI since they could have more time with their students, Province C ranked first at 43.8% (n = 39) as compared to 27.8% (n = 30) in Province B and 22.8% (n = 26) in Province A (see Table 4.18c).

Table 4.18c: Reasons why English language primary school teachers implemented EMI in their EFL classrooms

English language primary school teachers use EMI in their EFL classrooms because			Province			Total
			A	B	C	
k	their students are provided with online programs for additional practice at home.	Count % within province	6 5.3%	5 4.6%	21 23.6%	32 10.3%
l	class size is smaller so they can better manage students' activities.	Count % within province	8 7.0%	24 22.2%	24 27.0%	56 18.0%
m	they are not required to do other extra-curricular school activities.	Count % within province	19 16.7%	17 15.7%	26 29.2%	62 19.9%
n	they can spend more time with their students.	Count % within province	26 22.8%	30 27.8%	39 43.8%	95 30.5%

To summarise, teachers in the three surveyed provinces implemented EMI in their EFL classrooms for various reasons. Data show that teachers in Province C led when compared to second and third rankings in Provinces B and A respectively.

4.5.2. Implications for teachers implementing EMI in EFL classrooms

The question relating to teachers' implementation of EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam was optional in the online survey because I did not expect participants to leave the survey unfinished. Research participants tend to prefer multiple-choice questions to open-ended questions because open-ended questions only apply to those who are familiar with the Internet (Reja, Manfreda, Hlebec & Vehovar 2003). There is a higher response rate for surveys that include multiple-choice questions (Reja et al 2003). In addition, as this question was about teachers' implementation of EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in the South of Vietnam, I did not compare data of respondents from surveyed provinces. The data were integrated for teachers' insights towards the implementation of EMI in Vietnam. This supported the quantitative data presented in Chapter 4 and was not a separate definitive analysis.

Of 311 participants in the online survey, only 53 teachers responded to this question, accounting for a 17.0% response rate. Below are teachers' insights of the implementation of EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in the South of Vietnam.

4.5.2.1. Enhancement of teacher professional development training on the use of EMI

Sixteen (30.2%) teachers expressed that teachers should be offered more opportunities to attend professional development training on the implementation of EMI. From the outset, teachers commented that implementation was crucial because it helped:

- (1) improve students' oral skills (n = 7);
- (2) create an English-speaking environment for students in the classrooms (n = 6);
- (3) ameliorate teachers' English (n = 5); and
- (4) build students' confidence in using English to communicate with their peers and teachers (n = 4).

Other teachers indicated that the implementation of EMI helped

- (1) enhance the quality of teaching and learning English;

(2) interact effectively between students and teachers as well as between students and their peers; and

(3) improve students' thinking in English.

These teachers also pointed out that their opportunities to engage in training on the use of EMI should be provided by their Units of Education, DOETs and MOET.

One teacher commented:

‘The implementation of EMI in classrooms is very important and necessary. The more EMI is implemented, the better students can benefit. Units of Education should offer teachers opportunities to attend training on this topic.’

Another teacher indicated:

‘Units of Education should offer teachers more opportunities to participate in teacher professional development training on the implementation of EMI. This will help teachers build their confidence when EMI is implemented in their classrooms.’

Another teacher wrote:

‘DOETs need to regularly conduct seminars which help teachers develop their profession, especially communication skill. Teachers and students should be offered more opportunities to interact with native teachers of English. Teachers need to practise their soft skills more, such as: singing, drawing, making teaching aids, role-playing, using ICT, etc.’

One teacher mentioned:

‘MOET leaders should conduct training workshops and seminars on the implementation of EMI in classrooms, especially for primary school teachers rather than book introduction sessions sponsored by foreign publishing houses.’

Another teacher recommended:

‘Implementing EMI in EFL classrooms is very important and necessary in English teaching periods. Teachers and students have an environment to practise and interact with one another in English. It helps teachers maintain a great passion for their teaching career and helps students feel excited about their learning. It is recommended that policy

planners and authorities should offer more opportunities for teachers to attend training on the implementation of EMI. For the sake of the future of our young generations, we are sure of our full participation.'

With regard to opportunities to engage in teacher professional development training, teachers also indicated specific training offered by DOETs and MOET across the three areas below.

a. Training on English teaching methodologies

Six out of 16 teachers mentioned the need for training on English teaching methodologies. They expressed their hope to gain more English teaching skills via training and to have opportunities to apply what they learnt in their EFL primary school classrooms.

One teacher recommended:

'Teachers should be offered ample opportunities to be trained on teaching methodology, to share and to practise what they are trained or to experience a genuine English-speaking environment.'

Another teacher suggested:

'The implementation of EMI is very important. Teachers should be offered more opportunities to attend training on this topic so that they can know more about the methods and gain skills to apply this method.'

Among six teachers' responses in relation to training on English teaching methodologies, half (n = 3) affirmed their need to attend training on innovative English teaching methodologies that were more applicable in their classrooms to stimulate students' interests in their studies rather than regular sessions that were heavily theory-based. The words 'new' and 'innovative' were emphasised by teachers.

Specifically, one teacher commented:

'Teachers should be offered opportunities to attend training on innovative teaching methodologies so that they are applicable to their teaching performance.'

Another teacher enlisted the caliber of investment of teaching facilities which aided his/her teaching and then concluded with the hope that 'MOET conducts more training on new teaching methodologies so that we can study more teaching skills.'

b. Skills training

Four out of 16 teachers highlighted training on skills when EMI was under implementation in their classrooms. They wanted to be able to practise specific skills offered in training.

One teacher remarked:

‘From my point of view, EMI should be implemented as much as possible and Vietnamese is used only in too challenging situations. At first, it might be a bit difficult, but the results will be big. I recommend that teachers should be offered more opportunities to attend face-to-face or online learning to practise skills, to build confidence and to familiarise themselves with the implementation of only EMI in classrooms.’

c. Sharing sessions on the implementation of EMI

Two out of 16 teachers suggested that sharing sessions on the implementation of EMI should be conducted regularly so they were able to learn from each other. They also wanted opportunities for teachers to share their experiences with colleagues as well as challenges encountered when EMI was under implementation in their classrooms.

One teacher stressed:

‘Inter-school sharing sessions on this topic should be conducted so that teachers can share their experience with each other. Furthermore, teachers need to attend more workshops on this topic so that they gain better teaching techniques and skills.’

Another teacher recommended:

‘... The implementation of EMI in classrooms is very important and necessary. The more EMI is implemented, the better students can benefit. Units of Education should offer teachers opportunities to attend training on this topic. Besides, sharing sessions on the implementation of EMI needs to be conducted so that teachers can learn from each other. I believe that teachers can only implement EMI in their classrooms. In all likelihood, students can find it challenging to understand, but if teachers are persistent, I think for sure it is feasible.’

4.5.2.2. Facility investment

More than a quarter of the teachers (n = 14, 26.4%) pointed out that facilities (LCD projectors, smart boards, computers, etc.) in schools and classrooms had to be upgraded so that teachers' implementation of EMI was possible. Teachers indicated that many schools in Vietnam, especially those in rural areas, did not have adequate facilities to function as rooms for English language teaching. They wrote that even if schools did have functional rooms, they were not designed specifically for English language teaching. Besides, software and teaching aids for English language teachers like pictures, flashcards, realia and so forth had to be invested in, as it helped boost students' English learning when EMI was under implementation.

One teacher showed their hope, stating 'Schools in rural areas are equipped with facilities and functional classrooms specifically used for English teaching only so that students can learn hard and make better progress.'

One teacher commented '...schools in provinces are well-equipped with teaching aids and software which teachers can use in classrooms.'

One teacher recommended:

'...we need to create a suitable English environment and classrooms well-equipped with facilities and teaching aids to support teachers as well as appropriate fringe benefits in order that teachers feel motivated to continue their effective teaching.'

Teachers also indicated that the investment of teaching aids helped lessen teachers' use of L1 in the classrooms.

One teacher suggested:

'The implementation of EMI is important and necessary. Schools need to be well-equipped with teaching aids like flash cards, realia, etc. which support teachers' performance. These teaching aids limit teachers' implementation of Vietnamese in classrooms. I believe that these visual aids if applied will make classrooms more exhilarating and they also help teachers implement more EMI.'

Furthermore, teachers mentioned that the investment in advancing facilities helped teachers improve their teaching performance and also helped students make their progress in the enhancement of their English proficiency.

One teacher wrote:

‘I hope that MOET cares about their conditions and offer them the best opportunities to learn English at young age by investing facility and equipment for schools in less advantaged areas of the province in order that both teachers and students can make use of those aids daily to support their teaching and learning performance. When students have leisure time, they can comfortably use equipment to enhance their English proficiency level.’

4.5.2.3. Smaller class size

Twelve teachers (22.6%) indicated that large class size was one of the problems which hindered EMI implementation in their classrooms. They pointed out the following challenges when EMI was implemented in large classes.

- (1) They found it hard to observe students and check students’ language practice.
- (2) The large class size lessened the quality of English language teaching and learning.
- (3) The large class size exhausted teachers as it took away their energy for teaching.

Specifically, one teacher commented:

‘There are so many students in one class that teachers find it hard to observe and check their language practice. I think if the class size is smaller, it will help enhance the quality of teaching and learning. Big class size makes teachers tired and short of energy in their implementation of EMI in classrooms all day long.’

One teacher recommended: ‘Large class size somehow impacts on the quality of teaching and learning as teachers cannot guide, check, follow, practise and evaluate all of students’ in-class activities in 35 minutes.’

Another teacher indicated:

‘I have explained to my students that they need to interact with English as much as possible and they have to familiarise them with English interaction, but the matters are the heavy curriculum as compared to the number of periods taught, large class size and plenty of low-performing students.’

Four out of twelve teachers expressed their disapproval when each classroom had around or more than forty students. As far as they were concerned, this number was too big for successful English language learning in general and for effective implementation of EMI in particular.

One teacher commented: ‘Class size must be smaller. At present, the student number per classroom is too big (40), which hinders teachers’ implementation of EMI.’

One teacher mentioned: ‘I meet with difficulties when implementing EMI because students do not learn vocabulary and sentence patterns by heart and the class size is rather large with around forty students.’

Another teacher expressed:

‘Teachers cannot perform well in the class with the student number over 40. The knowledge cannot be transmitted a lot at a time as Vietnamese students are learning English as a foreign language, not as a second language. Apart from 140 to 160 minutes per week in English classrooms, they do not have any environment to practise English (especially for students in less advantaged areas).’

Two out of 12 teachers gave out the ideal student number per class which they thought it was more suitable in EFL classrooms where EMI was implemented.

One teacher recommended: ‘It is hoped that the student number per class in the next years will range from 20 to 30 so that teachers will have more time to implement EMI in classrooms.’

Another teacher suggested: ‘The number of students per classroom had better not exceed 25.’

4.5.2.4. Fewer teaching periods

Six teachers (11.3%) indicated they were rostered to teach many periods per week, which influences their implementation of EMI and lesson planning. Three out of six teachers commented that teaching 23 periods per week was a lot for them. They recommended they teach 18 instead of 23 periods per week so they can have better lesson preparation before going to class.

4.5.2.5. Less heavy curriculum

Five teachers (9.4%) indicated that a top-heavy curriculum was one of the reasons which hindered their implementation of EMI in the classrooms. From their respective points of view, the current curriculum covered listening, speaking, writing and reading, which was necessary to develop students’ oral skills; however, the time-frame for the English language subject was relatively

limited compared to other subjects. With such limited duration, teachers found it hard to cover all the content required in one lesson. They also mentioned that primary school students should not be forced to grasp a great deal of knowledge because they were learning EFL. One teacher commented that when EMI was implemented in the classrooms, students felt curious. They had the feeling of excitement because of the novelty, but when the program was harder, they became fed up.

4.5.2.6. Use of simple English

A percentage of 9.4% (n = 5) suggested that teachers should use simple English in their classrooms as it shaped their effective implementation of EMI. Two teachers indicated that teachers employed simple and comprehensible phrases like greeting, instructing and evaluating. In their opinions, it was important that teachers familiarise students with simple commands as early as possible. They thought that the employment of these simple commands limited teachers' use of L1 in the classrooms and simultaneously helped students stay more focused on lessons. They also indicated the use of body language helped when EMI was implemented. Furthermore, one teacher mentioned that when implementation of EMI was underway in classrooms, teachers should consider students' age so language use must be appropriate, comprehensible and fun for students.

One teacher commented:

‘As a teacher of English, I completely encourage teachers’ implementation of EMI in classrooms. The more EMI is implemented, the better. At first, teachers can use simple commands and instructions. After a few periods, when such commands and instructions have been familiar to students, teachers can implement EMI to instruct students to play games or to ask questions in English. More importantly, teachers should limit their translation. They do not need to say one sentence and then that sentence is translated into Vietnamese. If they do so, they will not be able to develop students’ listening and comprehension skills. In addition, teachers should make use of gestures and body language to make what they say comprehensible to students. They have to be confident. When practising English regularly as a habit in classrooms, they will become models for students to follow. It is also a way to make students realise that only the interaction in English will create an understanding between students and teachers. Consequently, when

students want to express something, they will try to use English to communicate it to teachers.'

4.5.2.7. Other implications

Two teachers commented that students' parents requested them to use more L1 instead of EMI in classrooms. For them, their children's ability to make sentences and write words correctly was satisfying. In addition, taking over many other schools' tasks sometimes made teachers lose patience with EMI implementation.

One teacher suggested that there should be more English language teachers in primary schools. In fact, some schools in small towns had only one English language teacher, which made him/her have to teach students at different grades and undertake many more teaching periods per week. This created pressure. It was recommended that each primary school should have at least two teachers of English.

One teacher suggested that there should be one uniform curriculum used for the English language subject for the whole country. At present, multiple different textbooks were being used in Vietnam though endorsed by MOET; however, with the employment of the uniform curriculum, it would be easier to see how efficiently EMI was being implemented.

4.6. Chapter summary

The quantitative data collected from the online questionnaire show that most of the English language primary school teachers from all three surveyed provinces obtained a Bachelor degree. Their English language level was mostly qualified to teach in primary schools based on the English language proficiency framework for Vietnam (as discussed in Chapter 1). They had ample English language teaching experiences, not only in primary schools. More than half of them had large class sizes from 36 to over 40 students. There was a substantial gap in the majority of teachers' proposals for the ideal class size (ranging from 20 to 35). Most of them had annual instead of monthly, quarterly or bi-annual teacher professional development training; however, overall, 91.3% were provided with opportunities to engage in EfT training.

The quantitative data also demonstrate that teachers had a positive perception of the benefits that implementation brought to their students. In other words, they had very strong *behavioural beliefs* (Theory of Planned Behaviour) in EMI. From their strong behavioural beliefs in EMI, data elicit

that they had a *positive attitude towards* EMI. They tacitly affirmed that EMI was necessary and productive. Most teachers expressed their agreement and/or strong agreement with the implementation of EMI on the general enhancement of students' English skills, especially oral skills, improvement of students' English proficiency, maximisation of students' exposure to English, increase in students' confidence, fostering of in-class interactions, practice in students' thinking in English and improvement in their pronunciation. Among the responses from teachers in the three surveyed provinces, the perceptions from Province C about the adoption of EMI and its benefits to their students were most positive, as compared to those of their colleagues in Provinces A and B. It was fruitful because at their stage of belief formulation as mentioned in the theoretical framework, teachers in these three provinces would consider the merits and limitations of their capacity to implement EMI.

Teachers' positive perceptions of the merits of EMI implementation for their students matched their perceptions of professional benefits for teachers (more than 90% of teachers' responses ranged from agreement to strong agreement). Data demonstrate that the implementation of EMI increased their assuredness as English language teachers in the classrooms, helped them sharpen their English skills day after day, was productive for English language learning, ameliorated their English language proficiency and partly contributed to motivating them to engage in teacher skill training activities. This was in spite of the fact that EMI required them to spend more time on lesson planning. Thus teachers in Province C had a more positive perception than those in the other two provinces.

Thanks to their strong *behavioural beliefs* in EMI, they implemented EMI rather effectively in their classrooms. In terms of classroom situations in which teachers implemented EMI, data collection identifies that the adoption of EMI was mostly employed to welcome students, to have them listen and repeat new words, to check their attendance, to review previous lessons, to offer warm-up activities, to teach students new words and so on. Likewise, primary school students responded in English when greeted, and when requested to read dialogues or converse and answer teachers' questions in English or to practise in pairs or groups, also in English. As compared to classroom situations in which EMI was implemented by teachers, primary school students had fewer situations to react to the employment of English. However, in almost all situations posed in English by teachers, students responded in English instead of L1. It is noteworthy that teachers and students in Province C used more English in classrooms than those in Provinces A and B.

Data also show that English language primary school teachers implemented EMI in their classrooms because their English language levels were proficient to do so. In addition, they assured themselves of the value of the adoption of EMI in their classrooms. Other reasons indicated that the implementation of EMI in their classrooms was an opportunity to provide teachers with an occasion to engage in teacher professional development training activities as well as support from DOETs, schools and students' parents. As indicated in the findings, teachers' *normative and control beliefs* (TPB) were relatively strong as well because they were offered suitable training and thus gained support from multiple sides. It appears that they were motivated to implement EMI and they knew how to apply it via training provided by the Project, MOET and DOETs.

Qualitative data collected from the online survey show that teachers in the three surveyed provinces brought to light certain recommendations for better implementation of EMI in primary school classrooms in Vietnam in the future. The first recommendation was to focus on the enhancement of teacher professional development training on the use of EMI. Three specific foci indicated were: training on English teaching methodologies, on English skills and the conduct of sharing sessions on the implementation of EMI. Colleagues within one school or between schools under the 'umbrella' of one Unit of Education or DOET discussed and shared their own experiences when EMI was adopted in their classrooms.

The second recommendation was investment in quality of the facility. The investment did not only mean the building or upgrade of functional rooms which teachers in different subjects could share, but they also had to be specifically designed for English language teaching. Furthermore, more functional rooms of this kind should include sufficient teaching aids, software, realia, flashcards, and so forth which served the implementation of EMI whenever English language primary school teachers were in need.

The third recommendation was the reduced number of students per class so that teachers could afford to observe students' language practice within classrooms. Despite the fact that teachers did not have the occasion to state the ideal number of students, the majority of them commented that classrooms with approximately 40 or more students were challenging and, to some extent, these large class sizes impeded their implementation of EMI.

The fourth recommendation was developing the practice of fewer teaching periods per week. They requested 18 teaching periods instead of 23. If it was so, they would have more time to better

prepare their lessons, which in EMI is very time-consuming.

The fifth implication was a less 'heavy' curriculum. Heavy curriculum refers to a big volume of knowledge. With a heavy curriculum, teachers had to cover all the stipulated content within a limited time-frame, which meant they had no time to focus on the implementation of EMI.

The sixth implication was the employment of simple English instructional commands or behavioural objectives which were easy for students to comprehend and act accordingly. Teachers commented that the use of fun games suitable to student levels and ages created more interest in lessons. A significant recommendation was one uniform curriculum and the increase of English language teachers in one school.

Chapter 5: QUALITATIVE FINDINGS FROM FACE-TO-FACE SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS

Based on the data collected from the online survey, I then started to conduct face-to-face semi-structured interview sessions. Three groups of participants took part in the interview sessions. The first group was six Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organisation Regional Training Centre (SEAMEO RETRAC) trainers involved in facilitating the English for Teaching (EfT) module designed for teachers in the South of Vietnam. The second group was two English language specialists in charge of English language teaching in primary schools in case study provinces. I had planned to interview three English language specialists (one in each province); however, Province B did not have an English language specialist in charge of primary education and the Head of Department of primary education declined to take part in the interview session. Therefore, only two English specialists participated in the interview sessions. The last group was twelve English language primary school teachers (four from each province). Sections 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3 detail qualitative data analysis for each group of participants.

5.1. Qualitative data from SEAMEO RETRAC trainers

Six SEAMEO RETRAC trainers were experienced in English language teaching. All of them had more than ten years of English language teaching, not only in basic teaching but also in higher education as university lecturers. Five were full-time staff cum resource persons involved in all language training activities at SEAMEO RETRAC. One member of staff was an adjunct lecturer from the Department of Foreign Studies from Saigon University and in charge of training future English language teachers. Four obtained a Master in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) and the other two had a Doctoral degree in Education. All were involved in Training-the-Trainers (ToT) programs funded by Vietnam's National Foreign Languages 2020 (NFL2020) Project for more than five years (see Table 5.1).

Table 5.1: Information about SEAMEO RETRAC trainers

	Designation	Highest qualification	EMI engagement time at SEAMEO RETRAC
Trainer 1	Deputy Dean of Division of Foreign Studies (in charge of academic affairs) Adjunct Lecturer of Master program (offshore) in Applied Linguistics	PhD in Education	17 years
Trainer 2	Deputy Dean of Division of Foreign Studies (in charge of Kiddy programs)	MA in Applied Linguistics	12 years
Trainer 3	Senior Academic Advisor Former Deputy Director Former Dean of Division of Foreign Studies Adjunct Lecturer of Master program (offshore) in Applied Linguistics	PhD in Education	13 years
Trainer 4	Dean of Division of Foreign Studies	MA in Communication	17 years
Trainer 5	Academic Manager of Testing Unit of Division of Foreign Studies	MA in TESOL	9 years
Trainer 6	Lecturer	MA in TESOL	7 years

5.1.1. Trainers' perceptions of NFL2020 Project

All six SEAMEO RETRAC trainers found the NFL2020 Project beneficial for English language teachers across Vietnam – a nationwide project which created many opportunities for teachers to attend professional development training activities. They mentioned in detail the benefits that the NFL2020 helped English language teachers; however, they also uttered some drawbacks of the Project.

Trainer 1 indicated that NFL2020 was essentially a professional training project which helped English language teachers, especially those with basic education to enhance their English proficiency and professional development.

Trainer 2 challenged the unfounded news from the public and media that NFL2020 was a failure because the Project cost a considerable sum of money and the enhancement of English as a foreign language in basic education schools was not apparent. From Trainer 2's observations, teachers in provinces considerably improved their English language proficiency via frequent participation in conducted training programs. However, Trainer 2 also asserted that the objectives of NFL2020 were too ambitious. These objectives caused many teachers of English to feel stressed because they were required to reach certain levels of English language proficiency if they wished to continue their teaching. For Trainer 2, the benefits of the NFL2020 Project outweighed its drawbacks:

‘I can see huge changes in the teacher professional development. It helps change the awareness of not only teachers but also upper agencies. Specifically, provincial DOETs have invested more money in professional development for teachers of English. Some have offered chances for teachers to go to Singapore or Australia for even one month via their provincial funding. They are positive effects which the Project has created.’

Trainer 3 indicated that the NFL2020 Project had made Vietnamese citizens in general and teachers as well as students in particular cognisant of paying closer attention to English. The Project helped with the promotion of English learning communities within the nation. The awareness of learning demands of English was not only for students but also for parents and they had to motivate their children to participate in English programs. Trainer 3 mentioned that it was hard to evaluate the effectiveness of the NFL2020 Project for short- and long-term outcomes.

Trainer 4 asserted that the NFL2020 Project had funding to support teachers' update of their knowledge about English teaching. For Trainer 4, not all the teachers in provinces were provided with opportunities to take part in the training even though some of them might feel like attending training activities. Although the training was mostly funded by the government, many teachers were excluded due to the cost per head, limited resources, conflicting priorities and so on. Besides government funding, there was also some private funding. On the whole, this NFL2020 Project really helped teachers, especially those in provinces.

Trainer 5 indicated that the NFL2020 Project was aimed at enhancing the English proficiency level for not only teachers of English but also students in both basic and higher education. Therefore, the main goal was to conduct training activities which helped teachers of English improve their English proficiency levels.

Trainer 6 mentioned the disadvantages of the NFL2020 Project, stating that training activities were helpful but sometimes they took place when teachers were very busy with hectic workloads. This meant that teachers were not able to focus on their training. Trainer 6 also pointed out that many teachers were forced to attend the training. Since the training was not always voluntary, it affected how and what they learned. However, Trainer 6 affirmed that the NFL2020 Project helped teachers to access new information about teaching methodology and enabled them to refresh and consolidate their language knowledge.

5.1.2. Trainers' perceptions of teachers' implementation of EMI in their EFL classrooms

All of the trainers in theory supported English language primary school teachers' implementation of EMI in their EFL classrooms. Two of them indicated that implementation in primary EFL classrooms was a necessity, qualifying this belief, but stating that teachers who used EMI did not have to implement EMI in other non-English classroom settings.

Trainers 1, 5 and 6 indicated that the implementation of EMI advanced primary school students' English skills a great deal. Trainer 1 noted that students at this age had just started to learn English, and they responded to an English learning environment. In the immersive setting, they familiarised themselves with English better. Trainer 6 figured out that the implementation of EMI in classrooms was a very positive thing and thus positively affected students' language development. Trainer 6 also noted distinct differences between urban and rural areas and added:

‘When I facilitate training courses in the Mekong Delta, teachers of English in big towns of provinces have positive perceptions of creating an English-speaking environment in classrooms. Several of them share with me that they implement 80% to 90% of EMI in classrooms. For students in intensive English classes, they can implement 100% of EMI and they are very confident with their English and with the way they create an English-speaking environment. On the contrary, teachers of English in rural areas tell me frankly that they implement EMI at a very low rate such as: 30% and 50% with their great efforts. For them, they completely use Vietnamese in explaining difficult grammar structures or

new words that they find very abstract for students. That is what teachers have shared with me at the training courses.'

Trainer 2 commented:

'I personally think that using EMI in EFL classrooms, especially in primary schools is necessary since it is important to create an English-speaking environment, not completely but mostly so that students can get used to it. Furthermore, I can see that the content covered in curricula in primary schools is not too sophisticated. Students study via pictures and short dialogues which are pretty close to their lives. When teachers give instructions, they are able to use many different methods in which EMI is implemented. For example, they can use flashcards or give examples. They can also use realia, visual aids or body language and total physical response (TPR) activities to help students comprehend in English and it is not necessary to use Vietnamese. Vietnamese is their last resort if the above activities happen to be ineffective.'

Trainer 2 did not agree that teachers from less advantaged areas were not able to implement EMI as well as those from cities and big provinces. Trainer 2 commented: 'Teachers' perceptions and attitudes will decide their actual implementation of EMI, not the regions they come from.'

Trainer 3 affirmed that all English language primary school teachers had graduated in English from at least Colleges or Universities of Pedagogy. In regards to their English proficiency, they were proficient enough to converse with their students in English. Proficiency impacts on the quality of EMI.

Trainer 3 commented: 'What they [teachers] are required is their implementation of EMI because commands and instructions at this level are very simple. With their proficiency and qualifications, it is not a challenge for teachers.' However, Trainer 3 remarked that it was not necessary for teachers to implement EMI in all English classroom situations. L1 could be used. EMI was gradually implemented in replacement for L1 from elementary to advanced levels.

Trainer 4 pointed out that in reality, the majority of English language primary school teachers in the provinces implemented Vietnamese as an MOI. This trainer believed that EMI should be implemented to help students familiarise themselves with commands. When commands were regularly repeated, students would comprehend and memorise. Trainer 4 indicated that primary

school students could only use English to communicate with others providing their teachers were willing to implement English in the classrooms.

All six trainers at SEAMEO RETRAC supported the idea of implementing EMI in EFL classrooms initiated by Vietnam's NFL2020 Project Managing Committee. Trainer 4 repeatedly stated the benefits of the implementation of EMI for students while Trainer 6 admitted: 'Frankly speaking, this is what I expect and I also want teachers to maximise their implementation of EMI to create an English-speaking environment in classrooms.'

All six SEAMEO RETRAC trainers affirmed that the implementation of EMI in primary school classrooms in Vietnam was feasible. Each trainer explained its feasibility in a different way. For example, Trainer 1 agreed that when EMI was first implemented, English language primary school teachers would encounter a sea of challenges. Trainer 1 said that teachers were able to overcome such challenges via professional training conducted by Units of Education, DOETs or MOET on a regular basis. Trainer 2 pointed out that when the NFL2020 Project was mapped out, the Project Managing Committee overlooked regional factors. For Trainer 2, the implementation of EMI in big cities and provinces would be easier than in less advantaged areas. Implementation would take time and in the long run, it would be possible. Trainers generally preferred the city environment. Trainer 3 highlighted the importance of the continued support and encouragement from the government about the value and need for implementation. Trainer 3 also indicated many other factors that determined whether the implementation of EMI was attainable or not, such as: student number per classroom, teachers' workload and in-class time. Trainer 4 emphasised the necessity of teachers' persistence with the implementation of EMI. Trainer 4 believed that teachers' implementation of EMI needed to be observed. Trainer 4 was not sure if teachers in less advantaged areas could implement EMI effectively; however, Trainer 4 also thought it was 'do-able.' Trainer 5 indicated that teachers could implement EMI when they were requested. Trainer 6 commented that implementation was possible only when English language primary school teachers achieved good English language proficiency levels.

5.1.3. Trainers' perceptions of English-for-Teaching (EfT) module

The qualitative data were analysed based on four themes: (1) EfT module's content, (2) trainers' perceptions of the EfT module, (3) trainees' excitement about the module, and (4) the duration of

the module. The following sections (5.1.3.1, 5.1.3.2, 5.1.3.3 and 5.1.3.4) respectively analyse these themes.

5.1.3.1. EfT module's content

All six SEAMEO RETRAC trainers indicated that EfT was a blended program created by Cengage Learning with a combination of both face-to-face and online learning. When the program was carried out in provinces, SEAMEO RETRAC modified the program with four full-day face-to-face training sessions. After face-to-face sessions, teachers joined online sessions to practise as well as complete assignments. Depending on the contracts which provincial DOETs signed with SEAMEO RETRAC as a training provider, online sessions could last from 40 to 60 hours which took from two to four weeks. The EfT module consisted of components such as: managing classrooms; using English to give commands and directions to students; helping students understand lesson content; communicating lesson content; providing feedback; evaluating students' assignments and so forth. When the course came to an end, teachers sat for an examination which was held by the English Testing Service. From 2017, Cengage Learning organised this examination and granted certificates of achievement to English language teachers.

5.1.3.2. Trainers' perceptions of EfT module

All the trainers interviewed found the content covered in the EfT module simple, realistic and interesting. Trainers indicated that since the content was simple, it was suitable and applicable to primary school teachers of English to employ in their classrooms. Trainer 3 commented that the content covered in the EfT module was enough. However, Trainer 3 doubted that it was impossible to know if or how teachers would implement EMI when they returned to their schools after the training. Furthermore, Trainer 3 also confirmed the value of DOET ideally providing opportunities for all English language primary school teachers in their provinces to take part in the training. Trainer 4 indicated that for each training component (e.g. appraising students), many sentences and commands were provided to teachers. Therefore, they only selected one or two that were appropriate for their students' English proficiency levels and easy for teachers to memorise. Trainer 6 indicated that content was plentiful, but whether teachers would implement it in their classrooms depended on them. Trainer 6 commented:

‘Several teachers tell me at the training that they have a habit of using Vietnamese in their classrooms, and they find it hard to get rid of. They have gotten used to teaching in

Vietnamese, and that has become their habits. If it is changed, it might take energy, time and even investment and they have many other things to do in life. Therefore, they are offered opportunities to attend the training, but it does not guarantee they can grasp all the knowledge they have learned and then implement it in their classrooms. This is the most difficult issue in Vietnam.'

5.1.3.3. Trainees' excitement about EfT module

Based on trainers' perceptions, trainees, especially English language primary school teachers, were excited about the EfT module. Trainer 1 commented that this module excited English language primary school teachers because the commands and instructions catered for teachers' real demands when EMI was implemented. Nevertheless, Trainer 1 mentioned that English language secondary school teachers found this module rather easy. Trainer 2 indicated that online learning included plenty of activities and games of interest to teachers since they were driven by repeated practice. Trainer 3 mentioned that teachers were excited because commands were easily employed and not as hard as the knowledge they had studied to pass English proficiency tests.

Trainer 4 commented: 'Previously, it was difficult for them [teachers] to find commands and instructions to express. The interesting thing is that teachers of this year use such commands and instructions and next year when students move to another class, their teachers also use the same commands and instructions.'

Trainer 4 also added that primary school teachers of English were active because they were young and usually had in-class activities such as: singing, dancing and so on. They loved more fun activities and were eager to learn new things.

Trainer 5 indicated trainees' excitement about this module thanks to positive feedback SEAMEO RETRAC received after the training. Trainer 5 commented: 'After all the training, I surveyed their ideas about the program. Most of them highly evaluated the program and thought it is necessary to apply what they learned in schools.' Like other trainers, Trainer 5 agreed that this module was suitable as it infused English language primary school teachers with fundamental commands and instructions so that teachers could communicate with students whose English proficiency level was low.

Trainer 6 remarked that the proof of teachers' excitement about the EfT module was via training activities they participated in. Trainer 6 commented that when teachers were required to

demonstrate one or two small class activities, they actively participated, which showed they enthusiastically employed language input.

5.1.3.4. Duration of training for EfT module

In regards to the duration of the training, Trainers 1, 2, 3 and 4 said that it was sufficient for teachers. Trainer 2 indicated that some of the teachers complained about the short training duration, but they also thought that the duration and content were appropriate. Clearly, all teachers did not have the same language proficiency; this is sometimes evident in the degree to which code-mixing was employed.

Trainer 2 commented:

‘Since the content is not too sophisticated, 40 hours of face-to-face sessions is sufficient for them to grasp main knowledge as well as core content of the course. After that, when heading home, they themselves can study self-reliantly at their own pace in their leisure time to review. While implementing, if they feel uncertain, they can consolidate. For example, they can review to correct their pronunciation. Frankly speaking, I would say the time is suitable.’

In spite of agreeing with the duration for training, Trainer 3 added that more follow-up workshops on EMI implementation were needed to ascertain whether teachers were able to apply what was required in the classroom. In contrast, Trainers 5 and 6 disagreed. Trainer 5 commented:

‘I mean that the time for face-to-face session is not much. In addition, though it is also combined with online learning, face-to-face sessions only focused on the main content. After face-to-face sessions, teachers will practise drills in software. This module helps teachers use the language to communicate with students effectively, simply and comprehensibly. Usually, communicating in English is not a big challenge for them. However, the matter concerned is that their communication of lesson content must be comprehensible to students at different levels of English language proficiency.’

Trainer 5 also indicated that teachers needed more time to digest the amount of knowledge delivered. Trainer 6 expressed that due to budget constraints, the duration for training was shortened from forty to thirty hours of face-to-face sessions.

Trainer 6 commented: ‘I think if the duration for the training were lengthier, it would be great because teachers have more time to practise it with their colleagues before actually applying it in their classrooms.’

5.1.4. Classroom situations in which English language teachers implement EMI

Trainers 1, 2 and 5 responded that English language primary school teachers could implement EMI when they greeted students, communicated lesson content, appraised students, provided feedback, requested students to do exercises, managed classrooms and controlled in-class activities. They placed emphasis on teachers’ employment of commands in the classroom and implementation of code-mixing when EMI was adopted.

Trainer 1 commented:

‘When teachers explain lessons, I do not think that they can utilise only EMI, but they can make good use of commands for instruction. In the future, they will use more commands; nevertheless, at present, simple commands which instruct students to do their assignments and provide feedback such as good job, well-done, etc. can be optimised.’

Trainer 1’s opinion reinforced that of Trainer 5’s. According to Trainer 5, when communicating lesson content, EMI needed to be implemented. Trainer 2 expressed that EMI could only be employed daily with repeated commands in situations where teachers entered the classroom, greeted students or reminded students in English. Trainer 2 also mentioned that EMI could be implemented when teachers moved from one part of the lesson to another, or when lessons ended. L1 was the last resort when all explanations in L2 were unsuccessful.

Trainers 3 and 4 expressed that EMI could be implemented in all stages of the lesson because primary school students’ English proficiency levels were low. Therefore, teachers could use commands for instruction without any difficulties. Trainer 6 was somewhat in agreement with Trainers 3 and 4; however, Trainer 6 thought EMI could not be implemented in all classes:

‘In intensive classrooms where there are many good students, EMI can be implemented in all stages from greeting students and starting warm-up activities to presenting, practising, producing or even wrapping up and consolidating. For regular classrooms, English proficiency levels of students are not the same. Some students are very good and fast learners whereas some are really slow. Thus, teachers usually implement 50% of

EMI. For example, in the presentation stage, besides using pictures, slides or flashcards, whenever there is anything they feel abstract, they automatically implement L1 as a Medium of Instruction with their belief that it is the fastest way. L1 is frequently used when they teach grammar.'

Trainers 2 and 6 indicated that teachers could implement EMI when teaching grammar. Trainer 2 responded that grammar could be taught inductively:

'Teachers can create activities like modelling. For example, when they pretend to frown and want to drink something, students can understand the meaning of "Are you thirsty?" Then, teachers will let students find out the structure by themselves. It means that teachers do not teach students explicitly like adults. Students are taught implicitly; therefore, it is not necessary to use Vietnamese in teaching grammar structure.'

Similarly to Trainer 2, Trainer 6 indicated that grammar could be taught in various contexts to create child-friendly contexts for students to remember and to stay focused.

5.1.5. Classroom situations in which primary school students respond in English

All six trainers interviewed responded that primary school students were unable to respond in English in all classroom situations. For them, students could answer in simple situations. Trainer 1 indicated that students responded in English when they were greeted by their teachers. They could answer in English in the form of Yes/No questions. Trainer 2 said they could respond to easy questions in English. What was seen was that they followed commands as requested by their teachers in English though they might not respond verbally. Trainer 3 mentioned that students could respond in English when commands were fairly simple and repeated daily. Trainer 4 shared the same opinion as Trainer 1. Students could respond to Yes/No questions. For Wh-questions (Who, What, Where, Why, Which and How), Trainer 1 thought they were more challenging for students at primary school level.

Trainer 5 was more optimistic: 'Actually, I think primary school students are very active in class because they study English not only at schools but also in Centres for Foreign Studies; therefore, their communication in English, as well as an understanding of what teachers say is not a matter for them.'

Trainer 6 indicated that students could respond in English for familiar topics such as: food, drink, family and so on, in which they studied previously or had life experience.

5.1.6. Factors which limit English language primary school teachers' implementation of EMI

All six trainers pointed out factors which act as a hindrance to English language primary school teachers' implementation of EMI, as discussed in the following sections.

5.1.6.1. Teachers' limited English language proficiency

Trainers 1, 5 and 6 indicated that limitations in English language proficiency were the first hindrance, which meant teachers were unwilling to implement EMI. Trainer 1 said that teachers were afraid of wrong pronunciation in front of their students. According to Trainer 1, once teachers' pronunciation improved, they would feel confident enough to implement EMI in their classrooms. Trainer 6 affirmed that many English language primary school teachers were not fluent in English. Attempts to be fluent, according to Trainer 6, led to the implementation of code-mixing (both L1 and L2).

Trainer 5 commented:

'Teachers' limitations in English communication make them unwilling to implement EMI in classrooms. This is the matter that authorities need to pay attention to so that teachers can be offered opportunities to enhance their English proficiency levels. When they feel that their English proficiency level is good enough, they will feel confident to implement EMI. Their unwillingness to implement EMI will vanish and it is no more a barrier for them.'

5.1.6.2. Teachers' long-lasting habit

Trainers 2, 4 and 6 pointed out that teachers' frequent implementation of L1 in their EFL classrooms was habitual and hard to quit. According to Trainer 2, it was more time-saving when L1 was implemented as an MOI. It was the fastest way to communicate lesson content to students and this aided memory retention. Trainers 4 and 6 affirmed that the implementation of L1 was a bad habit which had existed for a long time.

Trainer 6 commented:

‘It is difficult to correct that bad habit [L1 implementation] because I think it takes time and energy and they also need to think of what they have to do. This may cause them headache. That is why they limit their implementation of EMI. That is what they think, so it is not easy to change their thoughts. At the training, I always try to persuade, encourage and show them the benefits of implementing EMI to create an environment, but to tell you the truth, it is not easy. I keep telling them that you should take on new ideas.’

5.1.6.3. Influence of related parties

Trainer 2 said that English language primary school teachers’ implementation of EMI was impacted by related parties. According to Trainer 2, English language specialists and head teachers of English played an important role in encouraging English language primary school teachers to implement EMI. They needed to provide teachers with constant support as well as continual encouragement. In other words, English language specialists and head teachers of English had to persevere in promoting the implementation of EMI and ensure that their policies were supported by school principals and vice-principals.

Trainer 2 commented:

‘English language specialists have a tremendous impact. If they think that teachers’ implementation of too much EMI leads to students’ misunderstanding, teachers have to change it. The change gradually forms a habit. In reality, I had a chance to observe demonstrations of two of my students as I teach English teaching methodology in a university in Ho Chi Minh City. Two of them graduated and started to work as teachers. When they were employed as teachers at SEAMEO RETRAC, I also observed their demonstrations and realised that they performed their teaching well and implemented only EMI in class. After one year, one only taught at SEAMEO RETRAC and the other taught in one more school. After a year, when observing their teaching, I could see some differences. The one teaching in a school used Vietnamese a lot and orchestrated mostly in the classroom. I questioned him what made him change his teaching and he told me that he did not know. In the post observatory session, he implicitly confirmed that the vice-principal of his school reminded him not to implement EMI much in his classrooms

because if he did so, his students would fail to understand the lessons. I personally think that it is the factor that has a big impact on teachers' implementation of EMI.'

5.1.6.4. Other factors

Other factors which limited English language primary school teachers' implementation of EMI were large class size, not enough teacher professional development and heavy English curriculum. Trainer 3 said that large class size was the biggest hindrance. According to Trainer 3, Vietnamese students learned English well, so teachers' implementation of EMI was not hard for students to understand. Trainer 3 also stated that a significant number of English language primary school teachers did not know how to implement EMI and what to say in their classrooms.

Trainer 3 commented: 'They [teachers] are only afraid that they are going to run out of time, so they cover all the content in a hurry. Besides, primary school students do not have many English periods. They only have a few per week. They do not have much time in one period.'

Trainer 4, similar to Trainer 3, responded that 'in one period, teachers have to cover several required parts of the materials; therefore, they are afraid that they do not have enough time. It explains why they are not willing to implement EMI.'

5.1.7. Recommendations to improve the implementation of EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam

Six trainers made the following recommendations which helped to improve the implementation of EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam.

The first recommendation was the promulgation of clear-cut policies of the implementation of EMI in EFL primary school classrooms from MOET and DOETs. This enabled teachers to translate policies into workable actions. Trainer 1 commented:

'Authorities and leaders must take actions rather than just encourage teachers to implement EMI. Teachers can have sharing sessions with colleagues within their provinces. It is not necessary to have those kinds of sessions outside their provinces. Once experience is shared, they will learn more from one another.'

The second recommendation was to change the teachers' awareness. Trainers 2, 4 and 6 indicated that teachers needed to change their regular habit of implementing L1. For them, the implementation of L1 in EFL classrooms was a bad habit which had to be addressed.

The third recommendation was to conduct regular teacher professional development training on the implementation of EMI. This recommendation was made by Trainers 3, 4, 5 and 6.

Trainer 3 indicated that English language primary school teachers after training courses were requested to translate knowledge obtained into their classrooms. For example, a group of teachers needed to work on lesson plans together, instruct each other to record or to film their teaching practice and attend observation sessions to share their experiences so they were better able to implement EMI. Trainer 4 highlighted that learning was an ongoing process. Therefore, DOETs could not expect teachers to implement EMI in one course. As suggested by Trainer 4, DOETs needed to observe teaching practice and supervise teachers' implementation of EMI. It was ideal if DOETs required all the English language primary school teachers to implement EMI as a must-do action in EFL classrooms. Trainer 4 added:

‘.... At SEAMEO RETRAC, we also request our teaching faculty not to speak Vietnamese quite often in class. If they speak more Vietnamese in class and I know, I will keep them informed of the Centre's regulations when I observe their teaching practice. Besides, teachers should be provided with self-study opportunities so that they can work in groups. For instance, in primary schools, teachers in English unit can have activities together, speak English regularly to one another, join an English-speaking club, etc.’

Trainer 5 recommended that professional training be conducted annually to help teachers update their knowledge about teaching methodologies. As suggested by Trainer 5, besides organising such annual short-term training courses, teachers could create a community of English users at schools. For instance, they learnt from one another via sharing sessions conducted by them or by their schools.

Trainer 6 mentioned that DOETs should regulate the number of hours or training teachers were required to attend annually and provide opportunities to meet the regulations. Otherwise, the stipulations were meaningless. In addition, Trainer 6 also paid attention to the time when training should be conducted to attract teachers' attendance and suggested:

‘... the training can take place in summer or break time between two semesters. It is a must to have short-term training and these training courses should focus on innovations in English language teaching and methodology. If possible, teachers should have

opportunities to attend short training courses or workshops that are organised in the region or in English-speaking countries. DOETs should offer typical teachers chances to be out of the country to communicate with teachers in the region. They share experience and they learn from those teachers, which widens their insight. It also helps them have an overview picture of English teaching in the world.'

The fourth recommendation was the upgrade of teaching facilities to help effectively implement EMI. Trainer 6 emphasised that English language teachers needed regular support not only from their schools but also from DOETs:

'Facility for teachers in big cities like Ho Chi Minh is not a big matter. It does not mean that all the schools in Ho Chi Minh City are well-equipped as I know some schools on the outskirts also meet with a lot of difficulties. The support also means helping teachers financially with visual aids that they need for teaching. Teachers also complain that the pay is low, but because of their commitment to teaching, they use their pocket money to prepare visual aids. This will not motivate them for long.'

Trainer 2 agreed that the seating arrangement at schools was not suitable. Many teachers in provinces were finding it challenging to organise group work activities for students due to improper seating arrangements.

The fifth recommendation was addressing the need for smaller class sizes. Trainers 1, 2 and 3 said that the ideal number in one EFL classroom could not exceed 20, but in reality, there were more than 36 students per class. When classes were bigger, it led to harder classroom management. Consequently, the implementation of EMI might drop as teachers had a tendency to revert to L1.

Trainer 1 mentioned that within this number range, teachers had to divide students into groups so implementation of EMI was possible.

Trainer 2 said that regardless of promulgating 35 to 36 students per classroom from MOET, the number of students was at least 40. This large class size partly emanated from the shortage of English language teachers. Therefore, several teachers were employed regardless of their language proficiency, which also led to the implementation of less EMI.

Trainer 2 stated: ‘In some districts, there is only one teacher of English for the whole primary school and the lesson plan is evaluated by the principal who does not know about English language teaching.’

Trainer 3 affirmed that large class size led to students’ misunderstanding of what was explained and communicated by teachers. They tended to become distracted easily because their teachers did not afford to care for each student’s learning. With large class sizes, students were incapable of performing teachers’ tasks properly.

The last recommendation was performance appraisal. Trainer 3 thought that teachers should be extrinsically and intrinsically motivated:

‘They [teachers] can be congratulated on their good teaching performance. They can be awarded a bonus or a present of recognition. Units of Education need to frequently check and observe teachers’ implementation of EMI.’

5.2. Qualitative data from two English specialists in charge of primary education

Specialist 1 (in Province A) and Specialist 2 (in Province C) were experienced in English language primary education. Specialist 2 had three more years of experience than Specialist 1 (four years). Their main roles as English specialists included the management of quality English teaching and learning performance in primary schools, the conduct of teacher professional development training programs for English language primary school teachers, in-class observation and pre- and post-observation and so forth. They also provided teachers with counselling if marginalised teachers needed professional help. Specialist 2 managed fewer English language teachers (around 300) than Specialist 1 who managed 549.

5.2.1. Specialists’ perceptions of NFL2020 Project

Two specialists agreed that Vietnam’s NFL2020 Project was realistic for the whole country, in general, and for provinces in the South of Vietnam, in particular, because it focused on English teacher training. They highlighted that the Project helped English language teachers not only in basic education but also in higher education to improve their English language proficiency skills to realise goals set for the Project.

Specialist 1 stated that the Project required primary school students to study four periods per week and English was considered to be as important as other subjects in primary schools. As Specialist

1 previously noted, English had been only an optional subject in primary schools. She also added that this Project placed emphasis on the importance of the English language subject.

Specialist 2 expressed that the NFL2020 Project aimed at effective English language teaching and communication. This Project was a revolution in English language teaching which improved ineffective teaching performance because grammar and reading had previously had more emphasis. According to Specialist 2, NFL2020 helped Vietnam with better global integration.

5.2.2. Specialists' perceptions of teachers' implementation of EMI in EFL classrooms

Two specialists supported English language primary school teachers' implementation of EMI. They agreed that teachers' implementation of EMI was feasible because students' English language proficiency levels in primary schools were basic. Commands which teachers employed in the classrooms were easy to comprehend. However, teachers needed to be persistent in the employment of English commands until students understood what teachers required them to do without interference from L1. Specialist 2 stated:

‘Like workers, if English commands are utilised regularly, students will be[come] accustomed to [them]. Their English skills will be frequently ameliorated, which helps their learning a lot when they move to higher grades.’

According to two specialists, the encouragement of teachers' implementation of EMI was widely publicised via media. When DOETs received this information from MOET, they kept teachers, parents and students in the loop via documents sent. Specialist 2 added that the information was also propagandised via teacher professional development training in term breaks or summer. On these occasions, Specialist 2 on behalf of DOET always encouraged teachers to implement more EMI in their classrooms. Such encouragement had two implications, according to Specialist 2. Firstly, teachers were encouraged to transfer from the implementation of L1 to the implementation of only EMI. Secondly, EMI implementation increased incrementally when students moved to higher grades and levels. Specialist 2 remarked:

‘... in Grade 1, teachers use Vietnamese to teach students, but the implementation of Vietnamese is gradually reduced until only EMI is implemented. Our teachers are working hard on this and we hope to achieve success.’

Two specialists said that it was impossible to make teachers implement EMI as a rule. From their viewpoint, if teachers did not feel like it, implementation would be minor, which did not help students' English learning.

5.2.3. Curriculum used in primary schools

Two specialists said that there were many materials currently used in their provinces. Besides English materials from MOET, they also used other English materials. In Province A, for example, Specialist 1 noted that MOET and Smart Start were utilised. According to Specialist 1, many schools in less advantaged areas in her province, where they did not have enough teachers and facilities to teach four periods per week as required, Let's Learn or Let's Go was used. Specialist 2 mentioned that Province C taught students English based on the curriculum stipulated by MOET. Therefore, Province C had plenty of English materials, providing these materials covered knowledge required by MOET. Specialist 2 mentioned that four different kinds of English materials (MOET, Smart Start, Let's Learn and Let's Go) were used in Province C.

5.2.4. Teachers' reactions to the implementation of EMI

Two specialists indicated that teachers did not show negative reactions to their required implementation of EMI. However, teachers were concerned that it was really time-consuming when they had lots of content which needed to be covered in four periods per week. Specialist 1 said this concern was understandable. Even though teachers did not react negatively to any regulations from MOET, DOETs and Units of Education, several did not want to implement EMI. According to Specialist 1, there were hidden reasons, which could be teachers' low English proficiency level and their lack of confidence to implement EMI in their classrooms. Specialist 2 stated:

‘... concerning their profession, teachers have to come to terms with their implementation of EMI because teaching is their career. However, in reality, many teachers have poor English language proficiency level. I have no idea of how they were trained in colleges or universities of teacher education. In all likelihood, due to the high demands, a big number of English language teachers were employed to teach in primary schools.’

5.2.5. Classroom situations in which teachers implement EMI

Two specialists agreed that at the primary school level, teachers implemented EMI in several basic situations and their implementation depended on each classroom. Specialist 1 noted:

‘... in Grade 3, when coming in the classrooms, teachers can employ fundamental commands and then ask students queries to warm them up, to appraise, to have them stand up, sit down, etc. In general, they are simple commands. During their teaching performance, teachers can have them work in groups or in pairs. Queries used depend on students provided they are comprehensible to them.’

Specialist 2 had a similar opinion. Commands teachers employed were basic like ‘stand up, sit down, etc.’ She also mentioned that some teachers failed to be aware of the importance of implementation of EMI in their classrooms. One of the reasons given was how much time it took to say one English command and then translate it. Specialist 2 highlighted that teachers were afraid that their English commands were incomprehensible to students, but in reality, students had no difficulty comprehending them.

Two specialists did not confirm that their teachers’ implementation of EMI was effective. Specialist 1, for example, was of the view that the extent to which teachers’ implementation of EMI depended on teachers. Some implemented effectively while others did not adapt EMI to real classroom situations. Some employed English commands that were not commonly used by most teachers, which potentially caused students’ misunderstanding.

From frequent classroom observations, Specialist 2 asserted confidently:

‘... teachers are able to implement EMI in all classroom situations. Of course, they do not master it, but they can do it. The issue is whether they would like to do it or not. The question as to how effectively teachers implement EMI needs more observation because I cannot answer this question based on only one or two observations.’

5.2.6. Classroom situations in which students respond in English

Two specialists agreed that at the primary school level, students could respond in English in situations relevant to their lessons. They used English to answer questions about themselves, their families, hobbies, studies and so on. They tended to answer Yes/No better than Wh-questions (Who, What, Where, Why, Which and How). Specialist 1 indicated:

‘... in situations deemed as a habit like saying hello and goodbye to their teachers, cheering their teachers, students are able to interact in English well because they repeat many times in the classrooms. Some of them can respond in English when teachers review previous lessons and ask them about information in the lessons. On the whole, students are unable to respond in English well if challenging questions are posed at primary school level though they might understand them.’

Specialist 2 said: ‘Students can respond in English well while they are playing games and practising sentence patterns. Teachers can employ drills to have students respond and have interaction in the classrooms.’

5.2.7. DOETs’ plans to encourage teachers’ implementation of EMI

Specialist 1 indicated that Province A expected English language teachers to reach proficiency levels as stipulated. It was believed that when the English language teachers’ proficiency level was certified, their confidence in the implementation of EMI would increase. In addition, Province A planned to conduct certain teacher professional development training courses and workshops on the implementation of EMI and teaching methodologies. English language primary school teachers would be offered opportunities to attend training. Furthermore, teachers could take part in seminars on English language teaching to help them learn from colleagues who have successfully implemented EMI.

Specialist 2 disclosed that besides frequent conduct of training workshops on the implementation of EMI, at monthly professional meetings, DOET always reminded teachers to implement as much EMI as they could in their classrooms. Moreover, teachers were also advised to regularly practise the EfT online module. This helped increase teachers’ confidence. According to Specialist 2, it was a gentle reminder for teachers from DOET. Additionally, similar to Specialist 1, sessions shared by teachers who successfully implemented EMI would be organised so that teachers could learn from their colleagues and one another.

5.2.8. Factors which limit teachers’ implementation of EMI

Specialist 1 indicated that the regions influenced teachers’ implementation of EMI. Urban areas were easier for EMI to be implemented as compared to rural and less advantaged areas. Specialist 1 remarked:

‘In urban areas, teachers’ implementation of EMI and the interaction between teachers and students in English is more effective. In rural and less advantaged areas where many ethnic groups of people are living, it is pretty challenging to implement EMI in classrooms.’

Specialist 1 added that teachers’ low English proficiency was only one reason. In many regions in her province, not all students and teachers were fluent in Vietnamese. Therefore, the learning of a foreign language was a further challenge for them.

Specialist 2 supposed that poor English language proficiency was one of the barriers. Next was teachers’ low awareness of the implementation of EMI. According to Specialist 2, teachers wanted to finish the lessons within the time allotted. They did not want to implement EMI. Besides, the large class size was also affected. Specialist 2 said:

‘... in my opinion, the ideal student number is 30. With the class around 50 or even 60 students, their attention and noise impact teachers’ lesson plans. At the moment, in my province, each class has more or less 40 students. In the city, there are around 40 per class. In rural towns, the class size is smaller, ranging from 25 to 30 per class.’

Two specialists agreed that seating arrangements influenced the implementation of EMI. It was difficult to improve this situation due to lack of finance. Some schools used their functional rooms for English teaching only. In most schools, students had to study English in rooms designed for all subjects, which made group work more difficult.

5.3. Qualitative data from English language primary school teachers in three provinces

Twelve English language primary school teachers took part in face-to-face semi-structured interviews (four in each province). All teachers were experienced in English language teaching (with from 5 to 23 years’ experience). Although Teachers 5, 6 and 11 only started teaching English in primary schools (for a period of a few months to three years), they were not new to the field. They had transferred from secondary schools to teach English because of the shortage of English language teachers in primary schools. Teachers taking part in the interviews were mostly assigned Grades 3 to 5. The average student number across three provinces was different. Provinces A and C had more students per class than Province B. Table 5.2 indicates teaching experience in primary schools, grades assigned and average class size.

Table 5.2: Provincial English teaching experience, grades assigned and average class size

Province	Teacher	English teaching experience	English teaching experience in primary schools	Grades assigned	Average class size
A	Teacher 1	17 years	17 years	Grades 3, 4, 5	34 to 40
	Teacher 2	17 years	17 years	Grades 3, 4, 5	36 to 37
	Teacher 3	17 years	4 years	Grades 4 and 5	30 to 40
	Teacher 4	23 years	23 years	Grades 3, 4, 5	About 50
B	Teacher 5	16 years	A few months	Grades 3 and 4	30 to 33
	Teacher 6	16 years	3 years	Grades 3 and 5	30 to 35
	Teacher 7	5 years	5 years	Grades 2 and 4	30 to 24
	Teacher 8	5 years	5 years	Grades 3, 4, 5	36
C	Teacher 9	12 years	12 years	Grades 1 and 2	35 to 42
	Teacher 10	18 years	18 years	Grade 4	About 40
	Teacher 11	20 years	2 years	Grade 5	40 to 44
	Teacher 12	18 years	18 years	Grades 3, 4, 5	About 40

5.3.1. Teachers' perceptions of Vietnam's NFL2020 Project

The majority of teachers (9) had positive perceptions of Vietnam's NFL2020 Project whereas Teachers 1, 7 and 8 negatively perceived the Project.

Four teachers (2, 3, 4 and 5) affirmed that the Project aimed to develop students' English communicative competence. They agreed that the Project helped students build their confidence in communication in English, which served as a basis for future employment.

Teacher 4 commented: 'Those skills account for 50 to 60% in materials, which is a good thing and sets it apart from other previous Projects which only focused on grammar and writing. NFL2020 Project has more advantages thanks to the integration of students' four skills (listening, speaking, writing and reading). These skills are tested in examinations.'

Teachers 9, 10 and 11 perceived the positive aspects of the Project via teacher professional development training activities funded by the Project which they attended. They indicated that, different from other English language teachers, the Project did not put any pressure on them. Teacher 10 remarked:

‘Thanks to the Project, I myself was fortunate to be sent to Malaysia to study for three months. My course aimed at developing my English language proficiency. As for students, they have more opportunities to engage in clubs to develop their communicative competence.’

Teacher 12 felt that the Project helped her colleagues, students and students’ parents recognise her teaching capacity, stating:

‘Frankly speaking, I graduated from the university. When assigned to teach English in primary schools, I did not feel like it. Thanks to the NFL2020 Project, teachers like me sat for VSTEP exams and received good results (B2 or C1 in CEFR). I felt that my efforts were affirmed. Parents and colleagues looked at me and asserted that I have made great efforts and I am a qualified teacher. With the affirmation, I can devote more because no one is going to complain about my teaching performance.’

In contrast, three (Teachers 1, 7 and 8) out of 12 teachers indicated negative features about Vietnam’s NFL2020 Project.

Teacher 1 said that the 10-year plus Project was too long while Teacher 7 affirmed that many primary school teachers of English felt that pressure had been created by the Project. She mentioned that pressure was not due to teachers’ having to participate in the training. Pressure emanated from teachers’ anxiety as to whether their teaching performance met the standards or not. They were compelled to improve their teaching performance, which made them teach under pressure. Teacher 8 remarked that English language primary school teachers were overworked. She said that teachers of English were required to teach 23 periods per week, which was a lot. She agreed that training conducted by the Project and DOETs was good, but it usually clashed with her teaching. It was one of the reasons why teachers were unable to fully attend training. Even though they managed their time to attend, they were unable to remain focused.

It is noteworthy that only two interviewees (Teachers 3 and 5) were not sure of the Project's feasibility. Teacher 3 expressed that the Project's feasibility depended on many factors and she did not know whether NFL2020 could achieve its goals. Teacher 5 indicated that various areas in the region had a tremendous impact on the feasibility of the Project. According to Teacher 5, cities and big towns could achieve the goals of the Project, whereas it was a huge issue in small and less advantaged areas.

On the whole, data show that all of the teachers in Province C (n = 4) found the Project beneficial as compared to their colleagues from the other provinces. In Provinces A and B, for example, only 75% of teachers (n = 3 in each province) reported positive aspects of the Project.

5.3.2. Teachers' perceptions of the implementation of EMI

All teachers interviewed (n = 12) had positive perceptions about the implementation of EMI, such as: stimulating students to listen, helping them understand and communicate in English, building their confidence and so on. They indicated that if students became accustomed to English communication at a young age, it would help them a great deal in the future. All of them supported the idea of MOET's encouraging English language primary school teachers to implement EMI in their EFL classrooms.

Teacher 7 was optimistic when she observed that teachers in less advantaged areas could implement EMI providing their students were attentive, obedient and hardworking. According to Teacher 7, teachers' persistence in the frequent implementation of EMI facilitated Project goals. The achievability of goals depended more on teachers. Teacher 9 also agreed, commenting:

‘In less advantaged areas, teachers have to strenuously make the English learning environment better for students. Recently, I have been provided with a field trip to Lao Cai [a mountainous region in northern Vietnam]. I was surprised to figure out teachers and students there speak English quite well.’

Teacher 9 also agreed with the amount of EMI teachers should implement, depending on student levels. According to her, from Grades 3 to 5, teachers were required to implement as much EMI as possible (from 90% to 100%). For first and second graders, the implementation needed to range from 50% to 60%.

Three teachers (4, 5 and 8) were unsure of EMI applicability to their own EFL classrooms. Teacher 4 indicated professional development training was an important factor that influenced her successful implementation. In addition, she stated that if EMI policy was implemented nationwide, but no action was taken, it would be impossible for EMI to be implemented. Teachers 5 and 8 agreed that EMI was unable to be implemented in all classrooms and regions. They failed to envision EMI as a strategy that could be implemented in less advantaged areas.

In summary, the teachers interviewed in the three provinces had positive perceptions of EMI implementation. However, on considering such implementation nationwide, Teachers 5 and 8 both in Province B and Teacher 4 in Province A doubted its feasibility.

5.3.3. Support teachers receive from DOETs and Units of Education

All of the teachers interviewed (n = 12) agreed they received support from DOETs and Units of Education to engage in professional development training activities; however, the amount of support depended on funding. Only teachers from Province C (Teachers 9, 10, 11 and 12) stated they had a lot of support from DOETs and Units of Education.

It is interesting to note that not all teachers within one province had the same amount of support from DOETs and Units of Education. Whereas Teachers 1, 2 and 3 stated they had a great deal of support to attend training courses such as English teaching methodology and ICT uptake, Teacher 4 received little support and stated:

‘When there happens to be training, each school nominates only one teacher to attend, and they have had the training during the past year. The training usually takes place in summer with two sessions on implementing EMI in classrooms. I really want to attend, but if my colleague has already been chosen to take part in the training, I have to wait for the next chance. I really do not know when it will be my turn.’

It is clear that Teacher 4 would like to take part in training, but due to the limited number of seats, she could not, even though she wanted to. She expressed that the choice about who would attend training was made subjectively by the Principal, who did not have English language teaching expertise. Though she agreed that there were criteria regulated by DOETs about who was qualified to be nominated, the nomination was mostly favouritism since the process was not checked. According to Teacher 4, teachers did not dare to push the Principal to explain why they were not

chosen, because they were afraid their requests might affect collegial networks. Therefore, Teacher 4 expressed her hope to attend training like her colleague.

Teacher 2 remarked that besides training courses conducted by DOETs and Units of Education, she could attend sharing sessions organised monthly by her school. As Teacher 2 mentioned, the topic of the sessions varied, depending on the teachers' areas of interest.

Teachers 5, 6, 7 and 8 (in Province B) generally mentioned they were offered opportunities to attend training, but the frequency of their participation depended on each year. Teacher 5 stated he usually attended training once a year which normally took place in summer while Teachers 6, 7 and 8 mentioned they had more chances to partake in training (twice or three times per year).

Teachers 9, 10, 11 and 12 (in Province C) expressed their satisfaction with the frequency of training. Teacher 9 emphasised she attended many training courses conducted by DOETs every year and she found them worthwhile for her professional development. Teacher 10 also agreed with Teacher 9. Teacher 10 stated there were plenty of training workshops held for English language primary school teachers throughout the year. The content of the workshops was plentiful and catered for the real demands of teachers. Teacher 11 emphasised she was offered many chances to attend training with the support from Units of Education and DOET. She stated:

‘Units of Education and DOET helped me arrange my teaching schedule and time to fully engage in the training courses initiated and conducted by NFL2020 Project. On the whole, I think Units of Education, DOET and especially schools gave teachers enough time to implement training in the classrooms.’

While Teachers 9, 10 and 11 did not mention precise attendance times for teacher training in one semester or throughout the year, Teacher 12 was specific, remarking she attended training sessions at least three times per semester.

In summary, data show that all teachers ($n = 12$) in the three provinces received support from Units of Education and DOETs to attend professional development training. Via data collected from the interviews, in terms of teacher training, it illuminates that teachers from Province C had more support than their colleagues from Provinces A and B.

5.3.4. Classroom situations in which English language teachers implement EMI

All teachers interviewed (n = 12) agreed that they implemented EMI in familiar and repetitive topics with the employment of English commands which students were used to. According to Teacher 1, EMI could be implemented to explain vocabulary. She stated if students failed to understand, she would give students synonyms or employ pictures, gestures, facial expressions or put vocabulary into contexts. She mentioned she implemented EMI in simple situations comprehensible to students and suitable to their English language proficiency.

Different from Teachers 2 and 3, Teacher 4 indicated it was hard for her to explain lesson content with the implementation of EMI even though she used most English commands for class activities and limited implementation of L1 in her classroom. Nevertheless, according to Teacher 4, lesson content and explanation of grammar structures should be done in L1.

Two teachers (5 and 6) shared similar stories in employing basic English commands in classrooms. Teacher 5 indicated that although he used English commands repetitively, they did not work well with all students. Teacher 5 stated:

‘EMI is implemented in basic situations in classrooms. For example, for commands in English, I implement EMI very well in secondary schools. In primary school classrooms, when I say commands that are used frequently, some students forget because they are too young and when coming home, they do not review and study. Sometimes, when I say in English, they do not know what I have said. Of course, some can perform my commands well, whereas others cannot.’

Teacher 6 agreed with the employment of English commands in her classroom, but she failed to believe EMI implementation was needed to explain exercises which were too difficult. Teacher 6 commented that L1 or bilingualism had to be implemented in such challenging situations.

Teacher 7 stated she was not allowed to use L1 in her classrooms. As a teacher, she had to follow this rule, especially when her teaching performance was observed. However, she affirmed it was impossible for her to implement only EMI in the classroom.

Teacher 8 indicated that speaking was the most important skill which students needed to develop. That is the reason why she always implemented EMI to encourage students to engage in speaking activities as well as to interact with their peers in English.

Teacher 9, however, implemented EMI when giving students simple commands like “stand up, sit down, open your book, go to the board, be quiet, submit your assignments” and so forth. Teacher 10 stated she only used L1 in challenging situations. In common situations, she implemented EMI. Teachers 11 and 12 also had the same opinion as Teacher 10.

In summary, data show that teachers in three provinces implemented EMI quite similarly. They adopted EMI in most classroom situations other than those that were too challenging for students to comprehend. Some teachers agreed to implement L1 when explaining content covered in lessons or in tasks that were too difficult.

5.3.5. English language teachers’ self-evaluation of their implementation of EMI

Nine teachers interviewed indicated their implementation of EMI was effective. In contrast, only three teachers (4, 5 and 11) shared that the effectiveness of their implementation was not as expected.

Teachers 1, 2 and 3 said implementation was accomplished, and they expressed their persistence in continuing with EMI. Teacher 4, however, felt dissatisfied, despite detecting that if more EMI had been implemented, it would have been better. She remarked:

‘.... students’ English proficiency levels are not the same, and the program is heavy. If EMI is implemented to explain grammar structures, students will not be able to understand. As such, I will take time to explain them again in L1. Otherwise, only 50% of the students can understand.’

Teacher 5 affirmed that his implementation was ineffective. He indicated EMI was effectively implemented in schools in big cities or towns. He said the school where he was presently teaching was situated in the least advantaged area of the province, so he found it hard to regularly implement EMI. According to Teacher 5, EMI could be implemented, but its feasibility was relatively low.

Three teachers (6, 7 and 8) had more different self-evaluations of implementation of EMI than Teacher 5. These three teachers said they were quite satisfied. Teacher 6 indicated students’ positive collaboration and interaction influenced her successful adoption of EMI. Even though she was quite satisfied, Teacher 7 highlighted it was easier for her to implement EMI for first and second graders because students were obedient. According to Teacher 7, students in Grades 3, 4

and 5 were more neglected, which made implementation harder. Teacher 8 had the same opinion, stating:

‘The amount of EMI under implementation depends on the students. For the class where there are better students, I implement around 60% of EMI or even more. For other classes, approximately 50% of EMI is implemented.’

Teacher 9 had a different view from Teacher 7. For her, in lower grades, it was harder for EMI to be implemented. When students moved to higher grades, implementation became easier:

‘From my experience and observations, when EMI is implemented from Grades 1 to 2, my students have familiarised themselves with these commands, which helps them a lot. When they move to higher grades, they have no problem understanding their teachers’ commands. I figured out that when my students study in Grades 4 and 5, they are able to communicate in English.’

Teachers 10 and 12 contended that their implementation of EMI was effective. Students had no difficulty understanding what teachers meant. Teacher 12 pointed out that several of her students studied English at Centres for Foreign Studies on weekends with native teachers; therefore, comprehension in English was not problematic for them. While Teachers 9, 10 and 12 were confident in their implementation, Teacher 11 realised her implementation was mediocre.

In summary, data show that 75% of teachers were satisfied with the implementation of EMI. Each province offered one teacher for an interview, affirming that his or her implementation of EMI was not as effective as expected.

5.3.6. Classroom situations in which students respond in English

All of the teachers interviewed ($n = 12$) stated their students responded in English when teachers posed simple questions or had them perform tasks familiar to them. For unfamiliar tasks and difficult questions, students tended not to be able to respond, or if they responded, they might go astray from the questions or tasks posed.

Teacher 1 noted that students were capable of responding in English when practising drills, listening to teachers’ commands and answering questions familiar to them or questions related to the content of lessons. Teacher 2 shared the same opinion. According to Teacher 2, students were able to respond in English when teachers made familiar requests. Otherwise, their response in

English was less effective. Teachers 3 and 4 stated students were competent in responding in English if questions posed were relevant to their daily life.

Four teachers (5, 6, 7 and 8) highlighted if teachers wanted students to respond in English, they could pose simple questions. Teacher 5 shared questions relating to their study, family and free time activities could be responded to in English. According to Teacher 5, students could also answer questions which had been taught before. Teacher 6 stated:

‘They [students] respond in English when I interact and communicate with them. When I come into the classroom, we greet each other. When students do exercises and I have them answer the questions, they do a very good job.’

Teachers 7 and 8 indicated when students were asked in English, they would be able to respond in English. The precision in student responses was dependent on how simple and easy the questions were.

Four teachers (9, 10, 11 and 12) shared the same opinions. They specified topics which students could respond to in English like objects, colours, study, free time activities and so on. It was their viewpoint, that with “Who, Why, What, Where, Which and How” questions, students could also respond, provided those questions had already been studied and reviewed.

In summary, data show students could respond in English in a variety of classroom situations. All teachers agreed that students were able to answer in English especially when simple questions were posed such as Yes/No questions or questions relating to personal information, interests, study and so on. This was the same when questions relevant to the content of current or previous lessons were asked. For difficult questions or tasks, students might respond in English. The precision in responses was contingent on queries posed.

5.3.7. Strategies English language primary school teachers implement to encourage students’ employment of English in the classroom

Twelve teachers elected to comment on the strategies English language primary school teachers implemented to enhance and encourage students’ use of English in their classrooms. Two chose not to comment. The majority of teachers interviewed (n = 10) stated they employed games to encourage students’ use of English. Teacher 1 mentioned games were necessary for students at primary school level because teachers could not expect them to study as seriously as adults. Besides games, she encouraged her students to use English through performance appraisal

(motivation and praise for students when they performed their assigned tasks well). She believed students used English to answer and to interact with her and classmates with her frequent employment of performance appraisal. Teachers 2 and 4 indicated strategies were 'big words'. These two female teachers contended that teaching strategies were conceptually complex. According to them, what they did in the classrooms was to employ games to engage students in class activities as well as to stimulate their use of English. Teacher 2 stated:

'They [students] can play games, speak English and I encourage them to speak as much as possible. They can speak with ease and I do not need to correct their pronunciation or their errors promptly.'

Teacher 4 encouraged her students to join English speaking clubs at Centres for Foreign Studies in cities and big towns. She indicated schools were currently unable to create a playground for students to practise their English as much as Centres for Foreign Studies due to the shortage of English language teachers and resources. Additionally, schools could not afford to recruit native speaking teachers so that students could practise their English regularly.

Teacher 3 stated her students' use of English was encouraged via drills. For example, students could practise sentence structures in pairs until they learned them by heart. According to Teacher 3, students could answer difficult questions if sufficient clues were given. In all probability, students were unable to respond to questions promptly. Nevertheless, if teachers were more elaborate, they would ask students other enabling and less challenging questions as a basis for response before difficult questions were posed. Later on, when students successfully answered easy questions, teachers could pose difficult questions. In this sense, students were more likely to answer the questions, even challenging ones. As commented by Teacher 3, in this way, teachers did not have to use L1 to explain to students. This was also a strategy which teachers could employ to encourage students to adopt English in their responses and interactions.

Four teachers (5, 6, 7 and 8) said that strategies employed were games and interactive activities in classrooms. Teacher 5 indicated he reminded his students to use English when they engaged in activities as well as interacted with their classmates. Teacher 6 frequently made use of time for warm-up activities to pose English questions to students about their daily life. According to Teacher 6, she believed this was a useful time to familiarise her students with the regular employment of English in order to respond. Besides, she also used interviews in pairs or groups

as a strategy to encourage students to use more English in the classroom. Teacher 7 used games such as: lucky number, bingo, guessing and so forth to engage her students in the use of English and to participate more fully. As commented by Teacher 7, she gave her students small gifts or tokens if they ‘won’ games and this motivated students when engaging in games and activities. Teacher 7 stated:

‘These gifts are made by me and I do not have any finance for them. As you know, students are very young kids. They love gifts.’

Teacher 8 used English songs and chants to engage her students. According to Teacher 8, students at primary school level were young and they preferred fun activities that would help them engage.

Four teachers (9, 10, 11 and 12) had their own strategies to encourage students to use more English in classrooms. Teachers 9 and 10 indicated pairwork, teamwork and games as strategies employed to encourage their students to use more English. Teacher 10 stated:

‘In most of my teaching periods, I prepare gifts for my students like cakes, candies and also encourage them to take part in games in teams. Winning teams will be awarded a gift. I want them to engage in class activities as much as possible.’

Teacher 11’s students took turns to introduce themselves in English when entering the classroom. She also gave drills for students to practise with their classmates. Teacher 12 employed role-plays, games, songs and chants to engage students in activities using English.

In summary, the data show teachers interviewed in three provinces used a diverse range of strategies to encourage their students to use more English in classrooms. The majority used games, songs, chants and interactive activities to engage students. Some used gifts and tokens to reward and encourage students to participate in classroom activities.

5.3.8. Barriers which limit English language primary school teachers’ implementation of EMI

Qualitative data show there were many barriers hindering English language primary school teachers’ implementation of EMI. Firstly, 41.7% of teachers interviewed (n = 5) said students’ English language proficiency levels were not the same. According to Teacher 3, some students were born into well-off families. The socio-economic capacity of some families to engage in additional language education was significant. These families could afford to send their children

to English tutoring lessons with native teachers at Centres for Foreign Studies at a very young age. Therefore, their English proficiency levels were much better than their classmates who were illiterate in English vocabulary. Teacher 8 commented the majority of students from Province B came from farming families. Thus, rural students' participation in English courses at a young age at Centres for Foreign Studies was minimal though their parents realised the importance of English. Teacher 11 indicated it was not difficult for teachers to see if their students had already learnt English because they were quicker and more confident than their classmates. Teachers 5 and 6 stated students had mixed English proficiency levels, but they did not specify the reasons for this variation.

Secondly, 33.3% of teachers (n= 4) indicated large class size was an issue preventing the implementation of EMI. According to Teachers 3, 7 and 9, several classes had so many students that teachers found it hard to control their behaviour. These classes were usually noisy. Teacher 7 pointed out some students were too dynamic and some were always in motion in the classroom. As commented by Teacher 7, if teachers were not experienced in controlling classes, their implementation was much harder. Teacher 8 stated if student numbers per class in her school were around 20, as in Centres for Foreign Studies, she was confident in her full implementation of EMI because she believed in her English proficiency and teaching capacity.

Thirdly, 25% of teachers (n = 3) said that some students were not intrinsically and extrinsically motivated to learn English. According to Teachers 3, 10 and 12, many students did not feel like studying English. Teacher 10 stated: 'Students decide their achievement. If teachers try their best to teach, but students do not want to study, they will never make progress.'

Teacher 12 shared the same opinion that some students were not 'into' English. Once they did not find English learning fun, English lessons for them were a pressure. However, as shared by Teacher 12, the number of students who were not keen on learning English was not high as compared to those interested in studying it.

Fourthly, 25% of teachers (n = 3) said the curriculum was heavily structured with specific directions and mandated daily lesson plans according to the syllabus with verifiable deliverables. Teachers 2, 3 and 7 shared there were so many teacher directed requirements covered in the textbooks. In addition, teachers had to strictly adhere to the syllabus. That is the reason why they usually had to rush to finish the lesson within the given time-frame. Heavy curriculum

management and delivery as noted above made them hasten to complete the lesson; therefore, these three teachers could identify that the demanding syllabus impacted on their capacity and intention to implement EMI in their classrooms.

Lastly, other barriers indicated in the interviews were teachers' limited English proficiency level (Teacher 4), teachers' lack of persistence in EMI implementation (Teacher 7) and classroom seating arrangements (Teacher 8).

According to Teacher 4, some teachers were not confident enough regarding their English communicative skills. They were afraid that wrong pronunciation would make them lose face in front of their young students. Besides, some primary school students had the chance to study with native teachers and many possessed better pronunciation than their teachers.

As shared by Teacher 7, many teachers did not want to repeat their explanation in L1. Therefore, they limited their implementation of EMI. Furthermore, from their point of view, it was time-consuming when they had to say one thing in English many times while their students could comprehend if it was said in L1 only once.

According to Teacher 8, present seating arrangements in English classes were conventional (all students faced the board and the teacher). This reduced opportunities for student interaction with classmates if they worked in groups or teams. Additionally, students' mobility was an issue. Teacher 8 shared, students in traditional seating arrangement classes were unable to change their partners. They kept interacting with their same partners throughout the school year in pair-work activities. Teachers, therefore, had difficulties in thinking of interactive activities in such classes.

In summary, data collected from the interviews show there were many barriers which deterred English language primary school teachers in the three provinces to their implementation of EMI. The three biggest barriers were students' low English proficiency level, large class size and students' lack of motivation to study English.

5.3.9. English language primary school teachers' recommendations to Units of Education and DOETs about the implementation of EMI

Qualitative data show all teachers (n = 12) would like to attend more professional development training conducted by Units of Education and DOETs. Teachers 1 and 4 shared professional training workshops and courses helped them review as well as update their knowledge annually and simultaneously apply what they had learnt in classrooms. Teachers 2 and 11 said they would

like to participate in sessions shared by experienced colleagues and experts in the field of English language teaching. Teacher 11 highlighted she preferred sessions shared by English language primary school teachers in other regional countries about their implementation of EMI. Teachers 5, 7 and 10 indicated teacher training should take place in summer or term breaks so that teachers could arrange to attend. Additionally, they could benefit from such training because they did not have to worry about their school tasks. According to Teachers 5, 7 and 10, training topics should focus on innovative teaching methodologies. Teacher 5 stated:

‘DOET should conduct training courses in summer for teachers to participate and share experiences. I also have many things that need experience from other teachers. For example, I can discuss and share the lesson, the content of textbooks or something I find dissatisfying. There is a chance when teachers sit together, share experience and sharpen teaching skills.’

Teacher 7 stated:

‘To tell the truth, all topics for training I require have been conducted by DOET. At the moment, there is a course which helps improve English teaching methodologies for primary school teachers. I think this course should be conducted more regularly because there is new methodology each day. When teachers have initiatives and they are applied successfully, these should be reported and shared. The length of the training needs to be longer, giving teachers more time to demonstrate. Furthermore, when attending the trainings, teachers have to teach their class as well. They feel tired and pressed with lots of exercises given from facilitators, which explains why they do not apply more what they have been trained. I think the ideal time for training is summer holidays.’

Teacher 6 was optimistic when sharing that DOET cared a lot about English language primary school teachers. According to this teacher, DOET, schools and teachers worked in close collaboration. If DOET offered training for English language primary school teachers, she would actively participate.

Teacher 8 expressed her hope to attend the EfT module. She said this module was needed for her implementation of EMI, as required by DOET, while Teacher 12 would like to engage in training workshops on phonetics.

Teacher 9 shared training workshops and courses presently conducted were attended by English language teachers at primary, secondary and high school levels. She understood that due to limited funding, it was more economical to deliver training for teachers from all three levels; nonetheless, she preferred training for primary school teachers only. Teacher 9 remarked:

‘If there happens to be training, it should be specifically designed for primary school teachers. Usually, I have to attend the training with secondary and high school teachers. This training is good, but I prefer to attend the training at primary school level only. The knowledge can be shared with all my colleagues, but the activities should be shared among teachers who teach the same level.’

Apart from the frequent conduct of teacher training, Teacher 4 shared DOETs should upgrade teaching facilities with rooms specially designed for English language teaching purposes only. According to Teacher 4, when the facility had been improved, teachers did not have to teach large-size classrooms. Student numbers per class would be lower, leading to the fact that students’ English proficiency levels would be different because they might be grouped homogeneously. Teacher 4 also highlighted that a facility upgrade would result in better EMI implementation.

5.4. Chapter summary

Data collected from six SEAMEO RETRAC trainers show Vietnam’s NFL2020 Project was timely and productive and impacted on the creation of plenty of English language teacher training opportunities, not only in basic education but also in higher education. The NFL2020 Project emphasised the calibre of English language teachers’ implementation of EMI via the conduct of the EfT module provided by Cengage Learning. In theory, thanks to their positive perceptions of Vietnam’s NFL2020 Project, these six trainers supported English language primary school teachers’ implementation of EMI in their classrooms. According to SEAMEO RETRAC trainers, teachers in cities and big towns implemented EMI more readily and more easily engaged with EMI than their colleagues in less advantaged areas. Nevertheless, such implementation in less advantaged areas was not beyond teachers’ reach, providing they were motivated (both extrinsically and intrinsically) and persisted in their implementation of EMI. As shared by trainers, teachers might encounter certain difficulties on the first attempt, but these difficulties would vanish once their students were accustomed to EMI. When students realised their teachers would limit the use of L1 in the classrooms when explaining lessons, they would automatically respond to their

teachers with the implementation of L2. In all probability, their responses were not always perfect leading to their undeniable employment of L1 and L2.

As stated by the six SEAMEO RETRAC trainers, teachers were able to implement EMI in specific classroom situations such as: greeting students, providing warm-up activities and feedback, communicating lesson content, requesting students to do exercises and engage in activities, managing classrooms, controlling in-class activities and so on. Trainers shared that teachers employed English commands from the EfT module as well as the implementation of both L1 and L2 when EMI was used. According to the trainers, students were competent in responding to teachers in English in most classroom situations when posed in English. In the interviews, trainers also identified three main factors hindering teachers' implementation of EMI: (1) teachers' limited English proficiency level, (2) teachers' habit of employing L1 for explaining lessons and interacting with students and (3) influence from school leaders (principals and vice-principals) and parents.

As noted in interviews, six SEAMEO RETRAC trainers made recommendations to improve teachers' implementation of EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam. Noteworthy, it was recommended that clear-cut policies from high-ranking sectors like MOET were needed. Performance appraisal had to be adopted and implementation of EMI needed to be more than mere encouragement. In addition, teachers' awareness and mindsets had to be changed. It is certain that such recommendations were impossible if there were no regular professional development training on the implementation of EMI, no upgrade of facilities and the continued existence of large class sizes.

Data collected from interviewing two English language specialists in charge of primary education denote they had the same perceptions of Vietnam's NFL2020 Project as SEAMEO RETRAC trainers. They indicated this Project was realistic, helping both teachers and students enhance their communicative competence by 2020. According to them, teachers' implementation of EMI was viable because students' English at the primary school level was fundamental. Furthermore, though existing curricula were diverse, they focused on oral skills and were suitable for teachers' implementation of EMI. Under the lens of two specialists, teachers did not show any negative reactions when asked to implement EMI in their classrooms. As shared, provincial specialists said teachers implemented EMI in basic classroom situations like warm-ups, appraising, having

students stand up, sit down, having them work in groups or in pairs, etc. Students were able to respond in English in situations related to lessons or topics familiar to them such as families, hobbies, studies and so forth. As mentioned by provincial specialists, students were better at responding to Yes/No than Wh-queries (Who, What, Where, Why, Which and How). They indicated DOETs would continue to encourage teachers to implement EMI by their frequent conduct of professional development training workshops, courses, seminars and sharing sessions. In provincial specialists' opinions, regions (cities, towns and less advantaged areas), teachers' poor English proficiency, low awareness of EMI and large class size limited their implementation of EMI. EMI was less successful in rural and less advantaged areas because students in these places could not afford to join tutoring sessions at Centres for Foreign Studies, or similar. In addition, their parents mostly spent their time working on farms, so there was little time to care for their children's education as fully as those parents in the urban places.

Data collected from interviewing 12 teachers in the three provinces show teachers in Province C found Vietnam's NFL2020 Project more beneficial than their colleagues in Provinces A and B. However, all of them had positive perceptions of EMI implementation. Although in terms of the frequency of training per year, teachers in Province C had more training opportunities than their colleagues in Provinces A and B, they all received support to engage in professional development training from their DOETs. Similar to data from SEAMEO RETRAC trainers and provincial specialists, teachers adopted EMI in familiar and repetitive topics with the employment of English commands which their students became accustomed to. Only 25% of teachers ($n = 3$) showed their dissatisfaction with their implementation of EMI. Teachers stated students were able to answer in English whenever simple questions were posed or they were requested to perform familiar tasks. They did not deny their students' implementation of both L1 and L2 to respond once in a while in some queries posed. To help encourage students to use more English in the classroom, teachers mostly employed games, songs and chants together with interactive activities while some utilised gifts to engage students in activities. Data also denote students' low English proficiency levels, large class size and lack of motivation to study contributed substantially to teachers' limited implementation of EMI. Teachers recommended that professional development and innovative teaching methodologies be conducted frequently because they were always in need of such training. Besides, it was also suggested that teaching facilities be upgraded and class size be smaller so that they could better facilitate EMI implementation.

It appears that the majority of participants taking part in the interview sessions had their strong *behavioural beliefs* about the efficacy of EMI. From their beliefs, it is illustrated that they had their positive *attitude* towards EMI. Additionally, their *normative beliefs* were positive because they were motivated to implement EMI by MOET and the NFL2020 Project. They also had positive *control beliefs* towards EMI. Many teachers had sufficient training on their English language proficiency and the implementation of EMI. They were provided with needed resources which helped them implement EMI. The next chapter explores teachers' *perceived behavioural control* to investigate whether English language teachers perceived themselves to have control of skills and resources to implement EMI in their classrooms. If they have better control and possess a positive intention, they would be more likely to implement EMI successfully in their classrooms as specified in the theoretical framework.

Chapter 6: QUALITATIVE FINDINGS FROM CLASSROOM OBSERVATIONS

6.1. Qualitative findings from Province A

In Province A, I observed four teachers implement EMI (one teacher [Teacher 1] in Grade 3, one [Teacher 2] in Grade 4 and two [Teachers 3 and 4] in Grade 5). The following section includes reports on how teachers in Province A implemented EMI in their EFL classrooms and how students responded in English.

All four teachers **greeted** students in English when entering their classrooms. They all used visual aids with both pictures and words to review the vocabulary learned in previous lessons, but in different ways. I as a researcher noted:

Teacher 1 employed flashcards to review nouns such as: helicopter, plane, box, truck and radio. She divided the class into two groups and asked students in each group to compete with one another to spell out the words. Besides the review of words, she reminded the students of the question structure: “Where is the plane? Where is the car?” She explained the rules of the game with the employment of code-mixing. However, when a student in each group answered the questions posed by Teacher 1 in English, Teacher 1 limited her use of L1. She tended to ask the whole class “Is it correct, class?”

Teacher 2 also used flashcards to remind students of vocabulary associated with names of jobs which had been learned in the previous lesson. Like Teacher 1, she gave students a spelling drill to make them engage in the activity. However, she did not divide the class into groups. She wrote down the list of jobs on the board with some missing letters and then had students tell the whole class what letters were missing. She used only L1 to explain the rules of the game. Nevertheless, when students engaged in the game, she implemented only English commands to draw students’ attention, for example: “Look at the board, please”, “Listen and repeat after me, please”, “Class, who can read it again, please?” and “Is it correct, class?”.

Teacher 3 employed flashcards with collocations (brush your teeth, take a shower, drink cold water and so on). She checked students’ understanding by orally using “should” in such sentences as: “You should brush your teeth twice a day”, “You should take a shower every

day”, “You should not drink cold water” and so forth. After saying each sentence, with regards to the meaning she asked the class in English “Is it right or wrong, class?”

Teacher 4 also taught the same lesson as Teacher 3, but she did not employ flashcards. She reviewed the lesson by asking Yes/No questions like: “Should we brush our teeth twice a day?”, “Should we take a shower every day?”, “Should we drink cold water?” and so on. She mostly used L1 when reviewing the lesson.

Upon **explaining new vocabulary**, all four teachers made use of their flashcards to avoid their use of L1, I noted:

Flashcards of prepositions (in, on and under) were employed by Teacher 1. She helped students understand the meaning of prepositions by asking questions and answering them, for example, “Where is the plane? It is in the box.”, “Where is the robot? It is in the box.” She rarely used L1 to explain things. She let students find the meaning by showing flashcards and giving examples.

Teacher 2 used flashcards (a factory worker, a driver, a nurse, a student and so forth). However, for each flashcard, she asked her students what it meant in L1. She wanted her students to tell the meaning in L1 to ensure they knew the correct meaning of the vocabulary. When teaching students new vocabulary, she employed commonly used English commands, for example: “Look at the board, please”, “Listen and repeat after me, please”.

Teachers 3 and 4 employed flashcards plus other pictures (play with the knife, touch the stove, ride your bike too fast and so on). Unlike Teacher 2, even though Teachers 3 and 4 used pictures to illustrate the meaning of phrases, they did not ask their students what they meant. Both teachers told them the meanings in L1.

Upon **explaining grammar structures**, only two teachers (Teachers 1 and 2) implemented EMI while the other two (Teachers 3 and 4) taught bilingually. Nevertheless, when reminding students to stay focused, to work in pairs or in groups, they mostly adopted English commands. Teacher 1 wrote down one sample on the board as follows:

“Where is **the plane**?

It is in the box.

The plane is in the box.”

Teacher 1 highlighted words as above to help students know that “it” was replaced by “the plane”. Then, she used flashcards to ask the students “Where is the doll?”, “Where is the truck?” When the students answered, she let them listen to the tape to check their answers. Then, she had students listen and repeat after the tape. This exercise was completed with EMI implementation.

Teacher 2 explained the structure by clues and examples. She again made use of flashcards (a factory worker, a driver, a nurse, a student and so on) and demonstrated to the students as follows:

“Teacher: What does your father do?

Teacher: He is a factory worker.”

“Teacher: What does your mother do?

Teacher: She is a nurse.”

Teacher 2 kept asking and answering those questions until she realised her students understood the structure. Then she wrote down the structure on the board and highlighted words (your mother/ father/ he/ she) which students needed to change. After that, she asked students to work in pairs to practise the drill. Only EMI was implemented.

Teachers 3 and 4 wrote down the grammar structure, for example, “Don’t touch the stove! OK, I won’t.” While Teacher 3 explained the structure bilingually, Teacher 4 did it mostly in L1. However, when they requested their students to practise the drill, only EMI was implemented.

When students engaged in these activities, all four teachers implemented mostly EMI. Very minimal L1 was used except when students were distracted or did not understand what they had to do. In those cases, teachers implemented L1. It is interesting to note that whenever students were asked a question in English, they responded in English. Undoubtedly some of their responses were not fluent or accurate, but they attempted to answer except when they failed to comprehend what they were asked to do. Furthermore, when working with their peers in groups or in pairs, they tended to use more L1 when conversing about off-the-topic matters or when they thought their teachers were not observing them.

It is noted that all four teachers used only EMI when providing students with their performance appraisal. Positive performance appraisal included “Good job”, “Well-done”, “Excellent” and so on. When students answered questions incorrectly, teachers did not correct their mistakes. They read students’ answers and asked other students to find and correct their peers’ errors. Upon giving students homework and consolidating lessons, all four teachers used both EMI and L1. However, when ending the lesson, they all implemented EMI to say goodbye to their students before they left the class.

6.2. Qualitative findings from Province B

In Province B, I observed four teachers’ teaching practice with the implementation of EMI (three teachers [Teachers 5, 7 and 8] in Grade 4 and one [Teacher 6] in Grade 5). The following section includes reports on how and when these teachers in Province B implemented EMI in their EFL classrooms and how students responded in English.

All four teachers **greeted** the students in English when entering their classrooms. They employed different strategies to review the previous lessons.

Teacher 5 did not use flashcards to review words that his students had been taught in the previous lesson. He wrote down English collocations (get up, have breakfast, have dinner, go to school and go to bed) on the board and then asked the whole class “What does it mean?” When his students told him the meanings, he wrote down the Vietnamese meanings next to the English vocabulary. He tended to use more L1 directly in his classroom.

Unlike Teacher 5, Teacher 6 used flashcards to review the previous lesson. However, instead of giving students directions in English, she adopted L1 for every command. She modelled every question, for example: “What’s the matter with you?”, “What’s the matter with her?” and “What’s the matter with him?”, and she had a tendency to translate it into L1 before her students responded in English. Even when her students answered “I have a headache”, “I have a fever”, “I have a stomachache”, after giving her students pieces of advice such as “You should go to the doctor”, she translated this advice into L1.

In contra-distinction to Teachers 5 and 6, Teacher 7 implemented EMI only when reviewing the previous lesson. She employed questions to engage students and check whether they had reviewed their lesson at home. Her questions included “What lesson did we learn

yesterday?”, “Did we learn about the numbers?”, “Did we learn about drinks?” and “Did we learn about food?” After general questions, she utilised a series of more specific questions with her employment of flashcards to ask the whole class, for example: “What’s her favourite food?”, “What’s her favourite drink?” When she realised that one of her students had responded incorrectly, she repeated those questions. When her students answered, she asked the whole class “Is it correct, students?”

Teacher 8 reviewed the previous lesson with the employment of flashcards. She wrote down some cues (father/doctor, mother/teacher, uncle/nurse) on the board and then asked her students questions, for example: “What does your father do?”, “What does your mother do?”, “What does your uncle do?” However, after each answer, she translated them into L1, wrote down students’ responses on the board and then had her students listen and repeat.

Upon **explaining new vocabulary**, only Teachers 5 and 7 employed flashcards to avoid their use of L1 in the classrooms.

Teachers 5 and 7 wrote down new vocabulary on the board and then employed flashcards to ask their students what they meant in L1. When students told the meanings, Teacher 5 once again explained their meanings in L1, and had them listen and repeat. In contrast, Teacher 7 limited her use of L1. She only explained vocabulary in L1 until her students gave the correct meaning.

Teachers 6 and 8 did not employ flashcards to explain meanings of new vocabulary. They wrote down new vocabulary and collocations on the board (keep your nails healthy, take a shower regularly, hospital and nurse) and simultaneously gave them meanings in L1 for their students to copy in their notebooks. They explained new vocabulary in L1 by asking them to look at pictures in their textbooks. They restricted their use of English commands. To illustrate this, Teacher 8 explained new vocabulary in L1 ‘Nhân viên văn phòng làm việc ở đâu, các em? [Where do clerks work, class?]', ‘Bác sỹ làm việc ở đâu, các em? [Where do doctors work, class?]' Likewise, she asked her students such questions to teach them vocabulary like: field, factory, hospital, office and so on.

Upon **explaining grammar rules**, Teachers 5, 6 and 8 taught bilingually while Teacher 7 used L2 frequently.

Teacher 5 mostly employed L1 to explain the use of the simple present tense and its structure as well as how verbs were utilised with different subject pronouns (e.g. I/You/We/They/He/She/It). He only used L2 when giving examples for students to comprehend. Even when giving students drills to practise, he used L1 instead of L2 to explain.

Teacher 6 taught students grammar rules by employing a matching exercise. Her students were asked to combine the information in Column A with that in Column B to offer sound advice to stay healthy, for example: “Wash your hands before having meals”, “Do morning exercises regularly”, “Brush your teeth twice a day”, “Take a shower every day”, etc. However, after students had worked with their peers in pairs to do this activity, she explained the use of adverbs in L1 instead of L2.

Teacher 7 wrote down many examples of the simple present tense on the board and then asked her students to come up with sentence patterns. She rarely implemented L1 when explaining simple present tense. She let her students figure it out themselves. When interacting with the teacher and their peers, students mostly used L1, but Teacher 7 rarely answered the students in L1. She mostly implemented L2 to explain until she thought her students understood.

Like Teachers 5 and 6, Teacher 8 implemented L1 to explain question structure “Where does he/she work?” She also provided students with many examples, but she did not let them come up with the structure by themselves.

Upon **encouraging** students to engage in activities, all four teachers implemented EMI in their classrooms.

Teacher 5 asked her students to work in groups to interview their peers about frequent free-time activities. He enlisted some activities for his students to follow and provided them with guiding questions. Though they were encouraged not to use L1 to communicate with their peers when engaging in activities, many students tended to converse in L1.

Teacher 6 had her students offer advice to their peers by reading exercises aloud in the textbook in pairs to their peers, for example: “Quang has a bad cold. He should go to the doctor. He should not go out too much”. “Phong has a sore throat. He should go to the doctor.

He should not drink cold water.” Similar to students in Teacher 5’s classroom, Teacher 6’s students did the exercises together using L1. However, when she asked them questions in L2, they responded in L2.

Teacher 7 asked her students to work in pairs to practise question structure, for example: “What’s his/her favourite drink? What’s his/her favourite food?” Most of her students responded and conversed in L2.

Teacher 8 had her students play a game about employment. For example, one student said “She’s a doctor. Where does she work?” Another answered, “In a hospital”. Due to the small class size (only 20 students), she observed her students’ practice more easily. Therefore, students used L2 often or throughout the whole conversation.

It is noted that all four teachers exclusively used EMI **with their performance appraisal**. Performance appraisal included “Good job”, “Well-done”, “Good task” and other affirmations. When students answered questions incorrectly, Teachers 5, 6 and 8 tended to explain in L1. In contrast, Teacher 7 had a tendency to ask questions in L2, for example: “Are you sure? Is it correct, class?” She wanted to give her students a chance to self-correct their mistakes. Upon **giving students homework and consolidating the lessons**, only Teacher 7 implemented EMI while Teachers 5, 6 and 8 taught bilingually. Nonetheless, upon **ending the lesson**, they all implemented EMI to say goodbye to their students before leaving the classroom.

6.3. Qualitative findings from Province C

In Province C, I observed four teachers (one teacher [Teacher 9] in Grade 1, one [Teacher 10] in Grade 4, one [Teacher 11] in Grade 5 and one [Teacher 12] in Grade 3). The following section includes reports on how and when these teachers implemented EMI in their EFL classrooms and how students responded in English.

All four teachers **greeted** the students in English when entering their classrooms. Each teacher asked a monitor of his/her class to come to the board and welcomed me as a classroom observer in English. The monitor provided me with some information such as: class size, grade and student number. I then moved to a less obvious location and teachers **reviewed the previous lessons** for about 10 to 15 minutes by employing different strategies.

Teacher 9 had her students sing a song which they had learnt in the previous lesson to see if they had reviewed the lesson before coming to the class. After that, she used her fingers to have her students count from one to ten twice. She then employed flashcards with pictures of pencils, balls, apples and lemons and asked her students to say the number of objects in the flashcards. She implemented only EMI to engage her students in this activity. Like Teacher 9, Teacher 11 also had her students sing a song. Nonetheless, Teacher 11 asked her students to sing and gesture simultaneously. In addition to this, she modelled the gestures for students to follow. Subsequently, the flashcards were employed to help her students review verb collocations of leisure-time activities (play the guitar, go to school, kick the ball, catch the bus, cook, do gymnastics, go fishing and so on). After that, she wrote down one answer as a drill for students to answer: “In my free time, I read books, but sometimes, I go to shopping mall with my Mum.” She then asked several students in the class, “What do you do in your free time?”

Teacher 10 used her gestures and clues which helped students guess and spell out activities (play football, cook, listen to music, watch TV and so on) in English. For example, she provided students with clues by saying “When you do this action, you put on your headphones”. Sometimes, when realising the students found it hard to guess, she elaborated activities by repeating actions many times.

Teacher 12 reviewed the lesson by asking students in L2 to open the book and then read vocabulary (rainy, windy, hot, cold, snowy and sunny) out loud. After that, she had one student volunteer to read vocabulary. Subsequently, that student invited one of her classmates to read. Students in the class took turns to read. Hereafter, Teacher 12 had her students close the book. She then read and asked three students to write down those words on the board whereas other students wrote them down in their notebooks. All of her commands were in L2.

Upon **explaining new vocabulary**, they made use of visual aids to avoid using L1. Teachers 9 and 12 used flashcards to help students understand the meanings of new vocabulary while Teachers 10 and 11 employed pictures in textbooks. They did not use L1 when teaching students the meanings of new vocabulary. Nonetheless, Teachers 10 and 11 asked their students to tell them the meanings of vocabulary in L1 to make sure they comprehended them precisely.

Upon **explaining grammar structures**, Teachers 9 and 12 employed flashcards while Teachers 10 and 11 taught by writing many examples on the board.

Teacher 9 used flashcards which described animals like donkeys, birds, cats and ducks. She told the whole class in English “It’s a donkey. How many donkeys are there in this flashcard?” Students responded in English “Eight donkeys”; however, they failed to say the whole sentence, “There are eight donkeys”. Therefore, she wrote down the complete answer on the board and had students listen and repeat after her. She continued doing so until students themselves could answer complete sentences accurately. Likewise, Teacher 12 employed flashcards which had adjectives about the weather, for example: hot, cold, cool, warm, sunny and rainy. She wrote down the question on the board: “What is the weather like today?” Her students looked at the flashcards and answered in English; nevertheless, they did not answer the whole sentence: “It’s hot today”. Thus, she employed the same strategy as Teacher 9 by writing complete sentences on the board and having students listen and repeat until they could say the complete answers.

Teacher 10 taught students the simple past tense of regular verbs. She wrote two sentences on the board as follows:

“I listened to music yesterday.

I didn’t watch TV yesterday.”

She used pictures in the textbook, came up with sentences as above (one positive and the other negative), wrote them on the board and highlighted regular verbs in both positive and negative forms and “yesterday”. She kept employing pictures and writing sentences on the board. Then, she had her students listen and repeat after her. She then explained the structure in English. Next, she asked her students to practise this structure with their peers in pairs and write sentences with the use of simple past tense of regular verbs. Henceforth, she asked several students to go to the board to write down their sentences. Finally, she corrected the students’ sentences. This process was executed by implementing EMI.

Teacher 11 employed similar strategies to teach students the adverbs of frequency used in the simple present tense. She used pictures in textbooks and wrote examples on the board to help students memorise the position of adverbs of frequency in sentences. Then, she taught

students the question structure “How often” in L2. However, before having students practise this structure with their peers in pairs, she briefly explained the structure in L1. In all likelihood, she wanted to ensure students were able to comprehend this structure in L1 before they could practise with their classmates.

When **encouraging** students to engage in drills; all four teachers implemented EMI. For this activity, students were provided with clues from textbooks to practise with their peers. Teachers moved around the classroom to observe students’ practice and reminded those who were off-task in L2.

It is noteworthy here that all four teachers implemented EMI when offering students **feedback**. They all used positive feedback like “Excellent”, “Awesome”, “Good job”, “Well done” and so on. When students answered questions incorrectly, teachers did not use L1 to explain to their students. They tended to use EMI. Interestingly, they used the strategy of encouraging students to self-correct their mistakes, obviously in English. Upon **giving students homework, consolidating the lessons** and **ending the lesson**, L1 was not employed.

6.4. Chapter summary

Observations of teaching practice with EMI implementation from twelve teachers (four in each province) show they all greeted and said goodbye to their students in English upon entering and leaving classrooms. Teachers across the three provinces employed different strategies (e.g. visual aids and gestures) to review previous lessons. Eight teachers implemented EMI exclusively when reviewing lessons, whereas the other four teachers chose to review lessons in L1. Observations denote that teachers in Province C implemented EMI whereas 75% of their colleagues (n = 3) in Province B employed L1 to review lessons. Three teachers in Province A employed EMI when doing this activity.

Observations also show that teachers in Provinces A and B tended to employ L1 when explaining the rules of games because they wanted their students to comprehend what they were requested to do before engaging in the activity. All four teachers in Province B used L1 to explain the meaning of new vocabulary or phrases. Of these four teachers, only one employed L1 restrictively as compared to their three colleagues who mostly implemented L1 to give students definitions and examples of new vocabulary. Teachers in Provinces A and C employed visual aids to help students understand the meanings of new vocabulary without L1.

When teaching students grammar rules, five teachers (two in Province A and three in Province C) implemented EMI. Two teachers (one in Province B and one in Province C) used L1 restrictively upon performing this activity as compared to their three colleagues (in Province B) who employed both EMI and L1. Two teachers in Province A used L1 when carrying out this activity according to observations.

Observations demonstrate that all teachers in the three provinces provided students with feedback in English. They employed English commands taught in the EfT module. Upon giving students homework and consolidating lessons, all teachers in Province A used both EMI and L1 while their colleagues in Province C implemented EMI. Only one teacher in Province B implemented EMI when performing these activities as compared to their three colleagues who employed both EMI and L1.

In addition to the online survey and face-to-face interview sessions, classroom observations re-affirm that English language primary school teachers in the three provinces had strong *behavioural beliefs*, as central to the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB). This re-affirmation was not only proved via their utterances but also via their performances in the classrooms. In all likelihood, not all the twelve teachers implemented EMI in the entire stages of the lessons, but they expressed their efforts in implementing it in some stages, which deserved encouragement. Furthermore, the amount of EMI that teachers implemented in the classrooms also depended on how primary school students acquired the second language and the instruction in the classrooms. The acquisition of the second language is a subconscious process while learning is not (Krashen 1976, 1982 as cited in Gitsaki 1998). According to Natural Order Hypothesis indicated in the theoretical framework, whether students acquire the second language rules quickly or late did not necessarily depend on how simple the forms were. Krashen (1985, as cited in Gitsaki 1998) and Brown (2014) reported that classroom instruction could impact students' SLA. Spada and Lightbown (2002) mention that if students are exposed to comprehensible, meaningful and diverse linguistic input, their linguistic competence will develop, leading to their comprehension of the lessons. In this current study, the fact that students could react in L2 in certain situations means that they were able to comprehend the lessons which were delivered in L2 by their teachers.

As reported above, classroom observations show that English language teachers had better *control beliefs*, meaning they knew a variety of strategies to implement EMI effectively. Apart from their

better *control beliefs*, they had good *perceived behavioural control* which is proved through their efforts in implementing EMI in the classrooms. Furthermore, teachers' implementation of EMI in the three provinces demonstrate that they were assured of their own capacity to implement it. If they had not been confident enough, they would not have implemented it. As indicated in the theoretical framework, *perceived behavioural control* can be employed in substitution for measuring actual behavioural control providing that perceptions are precise. Ajzen (1991) mentions that if an individual's information or knowledge about the behaviour is limited, *perceived behaviour control* may be unrealistic. However, if an individual is provided with enough resources and opportunities, he/she is more likely to have his/her behavioural achievement (Dunn et al 2018). It is clear that teachers' *perceived behaviour control* was realistic and their perceptions of EMI were accurate. As a consequence, they were able to implement EMI in certain situations in the classrooms. Their confidence in their implementation of EMI shows that they did receive the training and had knowledge of EMI, which was provided through EfT training. Chapters 7 and 8 will discuss and give some recommendations to the implementation of EMI to teach English in primary school classrooms in Vietnam.

Chapter 7: DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1. Chapter overview

This chapter discusses the findings and contributes recommendations for the research based on data collected from multiple sources: the review of documents, online survey, face-to-face semi-structured interviews and classroom observations. The discussion in this chapter concentrates on five critical themes:

- Perceptions of Vietnam's National Foreign Languages 2020 Project (NFL2020);
- Benefits of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) primary school classrooms;
- Current policies about the implementation of EMI;
- Classroom situations in which EMI is under implementation; and
- The lens of Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) and Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

The first section discusses perceptions of Vietnam's NFL2020 Project of the Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organisation Regional Training Centre (SEAMEO RETRAC) trainers, English language specialists as well as English language primary school teachers in three surveyed provinces. Strengths and weaknesses of Vietnam's NFL2020 Project are discussed. Perceptions of teachers in each province are compared and analysed.

The second section discusses the benefits of the implementation of EMI in classrooms. This section also emphasises trainers and English language specialists' advocacy of EMI implementation. The English-for-Teaching (EfT) module and duration of training are discussed.

The third section examines current policies about EMI implementation through the lenses of trainers, English language specialists and English language primary school teachers.

The fourth section considers classroom situations in which EMI is under implementation. In this section, possible classroom situations are discussed.

The final section of the chapter discusses the aspects of findings from the lens of TPB and SLA. The findings are based on data collected from the above critical themes.

In summary, recommendations that sit well with normative aspects of TPB and SLA are suggested.

7.2. Perceptions of Vietnam's National Foreign Languages 2020 Project

The findings show that six SEAMEO RETRAC trainers, two English language specialists and 75% (n = 9) of English language primary school teachers taking part in face-to-face semi-structured interviews found Vietnam's NFL2020 Project conducive for English language teachers in Vietnam. The respondents identified Vietnam's NFL2020 Project created many professional development training opportunities which helped boost teachers' English language proficiency, skills and techniques. Even though professional development training had occurred regularly before NFL2020, topics for training at that time were neither uniform nor informed by any formal evaluation. From data collected, it is apparent that the respondents had positive perceptions of the Project.

7.2.1. Advantages and disadvantages of Vietnam's NFL2020 Project

Data indicate that the Project brought numerous benefits to English language teachers. One advantage identified was that it provided both a way for English language teachers in both basic and higher education to self-evaluate their English language proficiency and to ameliorate their teaching capacity (Dang et al. 2013; Le et al. 2017; Le & Pham 2019; Pham 2013). The Project contributed to the establishment of English learning communities across the nation, encouraging the use of English for communication in and outside classrooms. To achieve the ambitious goals of the Project, besides the students, English language teachers were also required to improve their own English language proficiency. It is clear that the Project put the stress on many beneficiaries, including policy makers, English language teachers, students, etc. because they did not know whether the goals could be achieved or not and whether they would meet the requirements of the Project. Many teachers in several regions were afraid of being dismissed if they failed to meet the requirements of the Project (Nguyen & Thanh 2015).

Other advantages were undeniable. In order to perform its goals, the Project Managing Committee demanded that English language teachers meet specific requirements. For example, English language teachers were expected to reach certain levels of English language proficiency (Le Nguyen & Burns 2017; Nguyen & Phung 2015) and to attend teacher professional development training and to implement EMI in their classrooms (Le 2012; Nguyen 2011). These requirements were conducive to teachers' development of their English proficiency levels. According to the interviews, many English language teachers who have attained English language proficiency pride

themselves on their accomplishments. They felt more confident when teaching in classrooms. Despite these advantages, the Project also created pressure for English language teachers as aforementioned. Observations show that not all teachers were willing to perform tasks requested and mandated by the Project Managing Committee.

The Project did not create equitable opportunities for all the English language teachers. Even though the Project emphasised teacher training (Dang et al. 2013; Le et al. 2017; Le & Pham 2019), due to the limited budget and conflicting priorities, not all English language teachers received the same professional development training opportunities (Vu & Pham 2014). Teachers who were fortunate to receive adequate professional development training lost face if they failed to reach the English proficiency level. On the other hand, their colleagues who had limited opportunities to attend professional development training felt pressured. These stressed teachers were frenetic with heavy teaching loads at schools. Due to the lack of professional development training opportunities, they had to self-learn, which created time constraints. Additionally, the fact that teachers were incompetent in achieving their English language proficiency level lessened their sense of satisfaction and indeed their dedication, which impacted their teaching performance and also their students' learning.

As shared by Nguyen (2013) and Nguyen and Phung (2015), the objectives of the Project were unrealistic and unreachable. Two teachers (from interviews) doubted the feasibility of the Project for the entire country, since less advantaged areas were less likely to achieve the objectives when compared to cities and big towns (Vu & Pham 2014). It is clear that students from urban areas were quicker when EMI was implemented since many of them had the chance to attend English tutoring sessions at Centres for Foreign Studies whereas their peers from less advantaged areas could not afford such opportunities. Although the timeline for attaining objectives has been extended to 2025, the Project has a core premise, that of fostering teachers' and students' efforts to better their English skills on a national scale.

According to Le and Nguyen (2017), the NFL2020 Project is a milestone in the history of English language teaching in Vietnam; however, they commented that the Project was designed in haste. At the National Assembly in 2016, The Minister of Education and Training of Vietnam affirmed that the Project failed to reach its set goals by 2020. Le and Nguyen (2017) gave reasons for falling short of achieving the Project's goals. Firstly, the Project was built on ambiguous beliefs

concerning how to develop English language teaching. Secondly, the basis on which the Project was implemented was arbitrary. Specifically, there was ineffective teacher professional development training. Additionally, the budget allocated, especially to the provinces in which this study took place, was insufficient. The findings from this study advance Le and Nguyen's 2017 research.

7.2.2. Matters to be considered

Findings from teacher interviews indicate that teachers in Province C had more positive perceptions of the NFL2020 Project than their colleagues from Province A and Province B. Research suggests that teachers in big provinces had more professional development training opportunities, with better facilities as well as conditions when compared to their colleagues in less advantaged provinces (Vu & Pham 2014). This study and other research indicate a lack of professional development training in many schools in Vietnam due to the shortage of funding allocated and human resources (Le & Do 2013; Mai 2014). At present, many primary schools located in less advantaged areas of Vietnam have only one English language teacher, according to data collected from interviews. Many of these single English language teacher schools rarely receive professional development training. If the teacher attends such training, no one will take on their teaching role when they are absent from the classrooms. In addition, since there is only one English language teacher, they feel isolated. They feel at a loss when there is no one around who they can share the difficulties they face in the classrooms. Their opportunities to learn from colleagues seem even more challenging. It appears that sharing as well as learning from colleagues is less demanding. Moreover, it is impossible to know if they really implement L2 in the classroom because no one is available to observe their teaching practice. Data from the interviews show that some school principals in less advantaged areas encouraged teachers to implement less L2 in the classrooms while the Project Committee motivated them to implement as much L2 as possible. If teachers in these less advantaged areas possess positive perceptions of L2 implementation and they are willing to implement it, it will be conducive to students' English learning. Therefore, the awareness of English language teachers, especially those from less advantaged areas is relatively influential.

7.3. Benefits of EMI in English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) primary school classrooms

Quantitative findings from the online survey that emerged in this study indicate that English language primary school teachers' implementation of EMI has helped improve their English skills; EMI has boosted teachers' English language proficiency levels and made them more assured of their English capability. These findings echoed studies by Doiz et al. (2012), Kabilan (2013) and Yeh (2012). Besides the benefits which implementation of EMI brought to teachers, the data indicate that this created more authenticity in engaging in English for students. To be more specific, implementation helped students advance their English skills (Belhiah & Elhami 2015; Corrales et al. 2016; Lasagabaster 2017) and create an English-speaking environment for students (Persey 2015; Wong 2010).

Evidence shows that English language primary school teachers' implementation of EMI was well supported by Vietnam's MOET, the NFL2020 Project Managing Committee, parents and communities. Therefore, MOET and NFL2020 Project Managing Committee encouraged English language teachers to implement EMI as much as they could in their classrooms. Reality reveals that MOET and the NFL2020 Project Committee affirmed the importance and necessity of teachers' implementation. They provided funding so that English language teachers across the country had the opportunity to participate in professional development training on the implementation of EMI via *English for Teaching* (EfT) designed and developed by Cengage Learning.

Qualitative findings from interviews in this study indicate that SEAMEO RETRAC trainers, English language specialists and English language primary school teachers all advocated the implementation of EMI. In all likelihood, from their viewpoint, all three cohorts saw the benefits of English language primary school teachers' implementation of EMI in their classrooms. For them, teachers were able to implement L2 in the classrooms. However, due to students' low English proficiency levels, teachers' implementation of L2 would become tougher if they did not have relevant teaching skills. Ineffective teaching skills might lead to students' misunderstandings even though teachers are good at English (they graduated in English at least from Colleges of Pedagogy). These teaching skills can be acquired from comprehensive ongoing professional development and reflective classroom experience. The precise implementation of L2 has to commence from appropriately planned professional development training courses which consist

of skills and language training (Truong 2010, 2015a). English language primary school teachers were motivated to implement EMI in their classrooms (EfT, skills and teaching methodology training).

EMI implementation assists in English language development of both teachers and students. However, there must be consistent and full implementation in lesson plans, teacher competency and teaching advocacy. For example, teachers' implementation of L2 may improve their own fluency but does not necessarily help improve their own pronunciation if they do not spend time practising the language regularly. Further, English language primary school teachers cannot advance their English language proficiency levels if they do not continue to engage with language learning. Teachers need to continue their education to bring academic benefits to their students (Dhaliwal 2015; Pilli et al. 2017).

7.4. Current policies about the implementation of EMI in EFL primary school classrooms

According to the data collected in two of the three provinces and from interviewing two provincial English language specialists², MOET encouraged English language teachers to implement EMI in their teaching, and all policy information was disseminated. It was not feasible to request teachers to implement EMI as a rule though they showed agreement in English language primary school teachers' implementation of EMI. Researchers also pointed out the development of communicative competence as one of the benefits of EMI implementation (Belhiah & Elhami 2015; Chang 2010; Corrales et al. 2016; Doiz et al. 2012; Kabilan 2013; Lasagabaster 2017; Persey 2015; Wong 2010; Yeh 2012). It is easy for MOET to formulate an EMI implementation policy from basic to higher education. Nevertheless, MOET finds it challenging to determine how English language teachers are implementing EMI. Teachers' effective implementation depends on multiple factors such as teachers' and students' English language proficiency (Corrales et al. 2016; Hahl et al. 2016; Vu & Burns 2014) and sufficient practical classroom training (Babinski et al. 2018; Ibrahim et al. 2017).

According to the data collected from the online survey and face-to-face semi-structured interviews, factors that facilitated teachers' implementation of EMI were new English textbooks with an emphasis on four language skill strands, teaching facilities, professional development training, support from MOET, the NFL2020 Project committee, DOETs, parents and so forth. On the

² DOET supplies one English language specialist for each province for primary education.

contrary, teachers' and students' limitations in English language proficiency levels, heterogeneous classrooms, big class size, heavy curriculum and so on, as analysed, were presented as factors hindering teachers' implementation of EMI. Teachers' belief in these factors was comprehended as *control belief* in TPB. The data denote that teachers gained more confidence after attending EfT sessions. This reveals that they perceived themselves to have better control of skills to implement EMI in their classrooms, which was understood as *perceived behavioural control*. Therefore, they were able to implement EMI in their EFL classrooms, according to teachers' affirmation in face-to-face semi-structured interviews and data collected from classroom observations in three provinces.

7.5. Classroom situations in which EMI is under implementation

Data collected from the online survey, interviews and classroom observations illustrate that EMI was implemented by English language primary school teachers in most of their in-class activities such as: greeting students, having them listen and repeat new words, teaching vocabulary, posing questions, checking attendance, reviewing previous lessons and so on. There were a few in-class activities in which teachers had a tendency to limit their implementation of L2 including teaching grammar and structure, offering drills for practice, story-telling and role-play.

Observations show that many students used code-mixing (the mixture of L1 and L2) when responding to queries posed by their teachers in L2. These cases were typical in all classrooms observed. From students' confusion, their use of both L1 and L2 brought home to me that teachers of these classes might implement L1 more when their teaching practice was not observed. However, if teachers are well trained in L2, and it is valued as a means of instruction, they will surely adopt a 'whole' English approach.

Findings from observations indicate that students from Province C used the mixture of L1 and L2 less than their peers from Provinces A and B. It can be explained that teachers in Provinces A and B implemented less L2 than their colleagues from Province C or students from Province C had more opportunities to attend English tutoring lessons at English language centres after school than those from Provinces A and B. Students from Province C had more time to study with native speakers of English. Hence, their English communicative competence was better than their peers from Provinces A and B. To help students minimise their use of both L1 and L2 when responding to teachers' questions, their English language proficiency must reach a certain level. Students' use

of both L1 and L2 proves their effort in not using L1 to respond to teachers' questions. It illuminates that students understand teachers' questions. They use both L1 and L2 because they do not have sufficient wording in L2 to respond. Students' use of both L1 and L2 is a good headstart to their implementation of L2 when they interact with teachers, peers and others.

To help English language teachers implement L2 effectively and comprehensibly in their EFL classrooms, they have to spend time preparing and practising it before coming to class based on data collected from the online survey. When they have prepared questions in advance at home, the questions posed in the classroom might be more intelligible to students than questions unprepared and automatically asked. Even though most questions teachers ask students are included in the EfT module, teachers should prepare well in advance at home to make them more understandable in the classroom.

7.6. The lens of Theory of Planned Behaviour and Second Language Acquisition

The quantitative and qualitative data demonstrate that not only English language teachers but also SEAMEO RETRAC trainers and provincial English language specialists had strong *behavioural beliefs* (Theory of Planned Behaviour) in EMI. From their strong *behavioural beliefs* in EMI, data elicit that they formulated their positive *attitude towards* EMI. The majority of teachers affirmed that EMI was necessary and beneficial through their expression of agreement with the benefits of the implementation of EMI.

It is evident that English language teachers received the influence from the society about EMI and in the current situation of the study, the society was understood as the influence from the MOET, DOETs and Units of Education. In this sense, with the encouragement from the Project Committee, English language primary school teachers were motivated to implement EMI to teach English. The Project Committee enacted the NFL2020 Project in 2008 (Dang et al. 2013; Le et al. 2017) and enumerated specific goals for the Project as specified in Decree 1400 in 2008 and then in Decree 2080 in 2017. The review of documents shows that there was strong encouragement from the government for English language teachers to implement as much EMI (or L2 as defined by the researcher) as possible in their classrooms. Even though I did not interview members of the Project Committee, I could surmise that these members also possessed strong *normative beliefs* in EMI, which is shown via their *subjective norm* (nation-wide training). There is no denying that the *normative beliefs* of the Project Committee somehow impacted *behavioural beliefs* of English

language teachers. If the Project Committee had not motivated teachers to implement EMI, they would have been less likely to manipulate it.

Although English language teachers in three provinces show that they considered the merits and limitations of their capacity to implement EMI, it is seen that more of them had positive *control beliefs* of the implementation of EMI. Simultaneously, though not all the teachers were provided with equal training opportunities and resources, it is also implied that members of the Project Committee also possessed positive *control beliefs* about the implementation of EMI. Evidence shows that many teachers had opportunities to attend skill training, methodology training as well as training on using English for Teaching (EfT).

In addition to the online survey and face-to-face interview sessions, classroom observations reaffirm that English language primary school teachers in the three provinces had strong *perceived behavioural beliefs*, as evident in the TPB. This fact is confirmed via multiple sources of data collection. Despite the fact that not all the teachers fully implemented EMI, they showed their efforts in implementing it in some stages of the lessons, meaning that EMI was not too hard for them. It leads to the fact that if they received sufficient training and follow-up workshops, their implementation of EMI might be more effective. Furthermore, it is inevitable that the amount of EMI that teachers implemented was also dependent on how primary school students acquired the second language and the instruction. Learning is not a subconscious process while the acquisition of the second language is (Krashen 1976, 1982 as cited in Gitsaki 1998). According to Natural Order Hypothesis specified in the theoretical framework, the quickness or lateness in students' acquisition of the second language rules was not necessarily based on the simplicity of the forms. Krashen (1985, as cited in Gitsaki 1998) and Brown (2014) indicated that students' second language acquisition (SLA) could be influenced by the classroom instruction. Spada and Lightbown (2002) and Brown (2014) report that students' exposure to comprehensible, meaningful and diverse linguistic input will result in the development of their linguistic competence and understanding of lessons. As such, according to SLA theories, though SLA is a subconscious process, teacher instruction can also have an impact on students' SLA (Krashen 1976, 1985, as cited in Gitsaki 1998). As such, the fact that students could react in L2 or code-mixing (the mixture of L1 and L2) in certain situations means that they were able to comprehend the lessons which were delivered in L2 by their teachers. Teachers could modify their teaching approaches in different contexts, depending on students' English proficiency levels. When interacting with their

L2 students, English language teachers could slow down their speech, provide comprehension checks, request clarification and paraphrase in English to make sure students were able to understand lessons (Brown 2014).

As reported above, classroom observations show that teachers' implementation of EMI demonstrate that they were confident in their own capacity to implement it. Evidence shows that they did somewhat implement EMI in the classrooms. As indicated in the theoretical framework, *perceived behavioural control* can be used in substitution for measuring *actual behavioural control* on the condition that perceptions are accurate. Ajzen (1991) reports that if an individual has the shortage of information or knowledge about the behaviour, *perceived behaviour control* may not be realistic. Nevertheless, if an individual is offered sufficient resources as well as opportunities, he/she is more likely to attain his/her behavioural achievement. Since teachers' *perceived behaviour control* was realistic and their perceptions of EMI were accurate, they could implement EMI in some specific situations in the classrooms. Their *intention* to implement EMI shows that they attended the training and possessed sufficient knowledge of EMI, which was provided through EFT training.

TPB and SLA theories showed mutual correlations. TPB helped teachers' perceptions of EMI, their *intention* to implement it as well as the impact from the society. TPB also assisted in formulating factors that might hinder or facilitate teachers' implementation of EMI and these factors could be handled through training and provision of enough resources together with facilities whereas SLA theories viewed primary school students' acquisition of L2 under the lens of educators and teachers so that teachers could modify their instruction to make the lessons more intelligible to students.

7.7. Recommendations

The above sections discuss the findings of the research. Based on the findings and discussion, I will now make certain recommendations to the NFL2020 Project Managing Committee in terms of regional factors impacting on feasibility and opportunities for professional development to raise teachers' awareness of the implementation of EMI, budget allocation and policies.

Recommendation 1: More comprehensive understanding of regional factors

From this study's findings, I recommend that the Project Managing Committee should have a clearer and more informed understanding of regional factors impacting implementation feasibility.

The fact that teachers are required to reach a given English proficiency level proves their ability to effectively perform their teaching as well as to implement EMI as encouraged by Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training (MOET). Such a requirement and encouragement are vital; however, MOET should provide the same professional development training opportunities for all English language teachers. English language teachers will thus feel included. Regional factors must be taken into consideration, and this matter is urgent. Teachers in less advantaged areas should receive more attention than their colleagues in cosmopolitan cities and big towns. When teachers attend training, it is essential that training should not clash with their teaching schedule so they can remain focused. Teachers can and ideally should be supported to take turns to attend training, but none should be left behind. To make the Project more realistic, MOET should formulate more explicit training policies which are transmitted to Departments of Education and Training (DOETs), Units of Education and schools. In turn, these institutions have to work in closer collaboration to simultaneously invite teachers and offer them appropriate conditions so that they can attend training. The invitation and choice must be based on explicit criteria, so teachers feel valued. If the nomination process is well executed so that all teachers know they will be offered an opportunity, English language teachers may be incentivised to study and achieve promising results that achieve set NFL2020 goals.

Recommendation 2: Fair and adequate budget distribution

In terms of budget allocation for training, there should be better-defined policies and resources. The budget distribution should be fairer, more transparent and adequate. Allocation at the provincial level should depend on the amount and quality of training as well as the number of teachers. DOETs and Units of Education must map out specific training plans which elaborate, in detail, how the allocated budget will be utilised. These plans must be better aligned with those from MOET and have deliverable goals. To ensure that budget allocation to provinces is used specifically for professional development training purposes, a board whose responsibility is to manage budget use should be established. An independent evaluator should audit the budget to ensure it is used for the specified purposes.

Recommendation 3: Provision of training opportunities (Truong 2010, 2015a)

Teachers' professional development training is necessary as it helps teachers update their knowledge, skills and teaching capacity as well as build their awareness of their teaching career to

become more effective teachers in the classrooms (Truong 2010, 2015a). In terms of training, I recommend three implications that I believe fruitful for English language teachers when L2 is implemented in English classrooms.

Provision of ongoing teacher professional development training (Truong 2010, 2015a)

Provincial education departments requested education providers to cut costs by reducing the duration of training due to their limited budget, leading to teachers' lack of sufficient knowledge and skills. Vietnam's NFL2020 Project engaged in collaborative design of the EfT module for English language teachers with Cengage Learning.³ Many teachers throughout Vietnam, although resistant (due to loss of face with regard to language levels, workloads and time constraints), were offered opportunities to attend training and took them up. I recommend that professional development training should continue. The duration of the training must be lengthy and adequate enough to cover varied pedagogical knowledge and skills needed for English language teachers. Although EfT is a blended module⁴ comprising face-to-face and online training, English language teachers as learners ought to obtain sufficient professional knowledge from EfT trainers before they are able to practise the module online by themselves. Furthermore, the training will be ineffective if teachers do not practise implementing EMI in their EFL classrooms. Therefore, teachers' implementation of EMI has to be customarily observed. DOETs, Units of Education and schools should have a performance appraisal mechanism and offer incentives, such as a salary rise, for those who successfully implement EMI in their classrooms based on results from routine classroom observation. It is taken for granted that teachers have bad days. Teachers' implementation of EMI cannot be judged only via one period of classroom observation (Truong 2010, 2015a), but appraisal should be ongoing. Further, those assigned to observe teaching practice must have professional knowledge of English teaching. They must be Vietnamese English language specialists, and qualified English language teachers who assure their judgements are objective based on explicit and transparent criteria agreed by MOET and DOETs. Classroom observation must be conducted in a mutually beneficial manner. Feedback offered to teachers in post observation sessions must be constructive, helping them become more confident English language primary school teachers who can directly assist the Project Managing Committee to

³ As discussed in Chapter 2.

⁴ As discussed in Chapter 2.

realise its ambitious goals. Additionally, English language primary school teachers should be able to request the training needed to address their skills gap. Teachers' requests should always be considered, prioritised and accommodated.

Regular feedback on teacher professional development training (Truong 2010, 2015a)

The NFL2020 Project Managing Committee should take notice of stakeholders, especially English language teachers and students who have engaged in EMI. Frequent surveys to measure what stakeholders are thinking about objectives should be distributed. Stakeholders will vary given changing circumstances. From data collected, the NFL2020 Project Managing Committee may modify the Project's objectives with the addition of activities executed according to the timeline. It is anticipated that stakeholders will perceive the benefits of NFL2020 as the Project has been designed for the advancement of English teaching skills. Furthermore, there should be an evaluation of each particular training event to demonstrate evidence of what was realised in training. Professional development training must be productive for all English language teachers who participate (Truong 2010, 2015a). The success of such training must be evaluated based on teachers' genuine implementation of program content or training, rather than the amount (or time involved) of training. After the training, there should be frequent classroom observations to make sure teachers apply what they have studied. Additionally, evaluation should not be undertaken by the Project Managing Committee. To ensure adequate, valid and reliable evidence, evaluation should be carried out by an independent evaluator to ensure objectivity as well as valid results. Last but not least, to help the Project achieve its goals by the newly proposed timeline, the Committee also needs to change its management mindset to become more outcome oriented. They should listen to English language experts in the field and work with them rather than build the Project in isolation.

Provision of ample opportunities for teachers to learn from each other and experts in the field (Truong 2010, 2015a)

I recommend that schools offer English language teachers the opportunity to observe their colleagues' teaching performance and learn from each other concerning their implementation of EMI. Though their training modality is the same, each classroom is a context, and thus EMI presents differently in each unique context. Moreover, collegiate sharing sessions within schools or a cluster of schools are encouraged. These sessions will continue to be invaluable for teachers

to listen to their colleagues, who might have dissimilar English learning environments from them. However, they all share the same intention to implement EMI effectively. After such sessions, English language teachers may pick up teaching experience from their colleagues and become more self-reflective. Importantly, these sessions may change their mindset about the implementation if their previous feeling about EMI is ambivalent. Thus, teachers share a genuine respect because collaboration is with their colleagues who understand them and will almost certainly have similar classroom situations.

Data identify that the majority of English language primary school teachers possessed positive perceptions of EMI. Teachers posited that their implementation of EMI was necessary and productive. At this stage of formulation, English language primary school teachers perceived benefits which EMI implementation brought to them and their students. Nonetheless, they realised they could not implement EMI effectively. Data show that their English language proficiency was inadequate and thus they were not confident in implementing EMI in their classrooms.

Even though the data show that primary school English language teachers' perceptions of implementation were positive, there is no certainty that this would result in persistent application and implementation in their classrooms. This is even though many researchers agree that EMI implementation helped improve students' English communicative competence (Belhiah & Elhami 2015; Corrales et al. 2016; Lasagabaster 2017). None of the teachers showed an adverse reaction to Vietnam's NFL2020 Project or EMI implementation; their positive perceptions, however, may be evident in specific activities, for example: their willingness to have their English language proficiency level tested; readiness to join teacher professional development training; and patience to implement L2 in their classrooms. Additionally, data describe how teachers' limitation in English proficiency levels, extra workload and shortage of teaching facilities prevented implementation of L2. To raise awareness, English language primary school teachers must be offered opportunities to attend seminars and conferences where English language experts in the field are able to share their expertise as well as experiences when L2 is implemented. At these meetings, the practising teachers will have a chance to access EMI innovative teaching methods, skills and techniques demonstrated by experts in the field of English language teaching. This will help teachers change their mindsets as well as feel the need to implement EMI when they return to their schools. As it is uncommon for teachers to change their mindsets after one meeting, these meetings should be conducted at regular intervals based on teachers' needs and budgets.

Recommendation 4: Promulgation of explicit EMI policy

MOET demands all English language teachers across Vietnam implement EMI when they reach required English language proficiency levels. This is contingent on sufficient professional development training and a better-defined EMI implementation policy. If the employment of EMI is not formulated as a policy, many teachers will not implement it, because they prefer using L1 as the MOI. In all probability, it is impossible to make English language primary school teachers implement EMI exclusively in their classrooms. There needs to be stipulation regarding the proportion of EMI applied at each year level and classroom situations in which teachers have to implement EMI. Such requirement helps English language specialists and English head-teachers more easily evaluate the effectiveness of English language teachers' implementation of EMI. Stipulation, by the way, helps English language teachers understand what is required of them. Teachers can avoid confusion and tension when their teaching performance is observed. Concomitantly, such stipulation may motivate teachers to make a more significant effort in implementing EMI. Otherwise, they may tend to apply EMI only when being observed. If teachers do not implement EMI frequently in the classrooms, their lack of confidence when observed is easily noticed. In the long run, EMI policy may be ineffective if teachers only pretend to implement it. As a matter of fact, it is a must that teachers apply EMI as the preferred mode. This becomes habitual over time with positive reinforcement and motivation.

In addition, when EMI policy is jointly promulgated by MOET, DOETs, Units of Education and schools, they need to work collaboratively to ensure that such policy is fulfilled as expected. There must be an aligned translation of MOET's EMI policy into workable actions by local Units of Education and schools. School principals, vice-principals and head teachers of English must be kept informed of EMI policy so they can request English language primary school teachers in their networks to implement it. English head teachers and English language teachers are supposed to inform school principals and vice-principals of EMI policy to ascertain that teachers' implementation of EMI is well supported.

If feasible, MOET should survey English language primary school teachers nationwide about their perceptions of EMI as well as what kind of support they expect from MOET, DOETs and Units of Education via quantifiable surveys as modelled in this current study. Should this be executed

thoroughly, EMI policy will cater to the needs of all teachers thanks to data collected and it will also facilitate teachers' implementation of EMI.

To help implement EMI effectively, I recommend the following implications which should be taken into account under Recommendation 4.

Establishment of the implementation of L2 as a norm for EMI

Students were greeted in English when teachers entered the classrooms based on data collected from online survey and interviews. This happened in all classes observed. Slattery and Willis (2001) acknowledge that to help students learn, teachers are advised to use English at the start of each English lesson. Greetings in L2 as comprehended by Slattery and Willis (2001) are considered mostly mandatory as they help 'warm up' the classroom and increase students' interest in lessons. The fact that teachers greet students in English stimulates students' English learning and creates an English learning environment in the classrooms. To enhance the creation of an English learning environment, I suggest that students and teachers greet each other in English whenever they meet, not only in the classrooms but also outside the class. If greetings in L2 take place everywhere in schools, they will inevitably facilitate teachers' implementation of L2 in the classrooms. Students themselves also take to teachers' adoption of L2. In return, students will be inclined to converse with their teachers and peers in L2 because it becomes habitual. When this habit has been formed, students might confidently use L2 to engage in conversations with others outside the school, which helps establish English learning communities beyond school.

Teachers should be directed to commence all lessons by reviewing prior learning (Rosenshine 2012). The purpose of the review is to remind students about vocabulary, collocations and structures which have been previously learned. The review process is a momentous step to identify how well students understand previous lessons and whether they are ready for the next one: 'It is important for a teacher to help students recall the concepts and vocabulary that will be relevant for the day's lesson because our working memory is limited' (Rosenshine 2012, p. 13). If a teacher skips this stage of the review and reflection on content, students might forget what has been learned, or they might find it difficult to recollect antecedent knowledge while accessing new knowledge, which hinders the novelty of learning. Productive classroom activities at this stage must also include having students pose questions about previous lessons. Teachers ought to know where students usually have misunderstandings. As such, "they can construct questions ahead of

time that reveals where students are confused” (William 2014, p. 19). It is crucial that students have the opportunity to revisit and review content and seek clarification using EMI. According to classroom observations, all teachers reviewed the lessons before they started new lessons. However, some teachers were prone to implement L1 at this stage. Actually, students could understand what they were requested to do when teachers reviewed the lessons. Consequently, teachers’ implementation of L1 to explain to students what they had to do was hardly needed. At the stage of lesson review, the findings illustrate that L2 is inconsistently implemented and this should be addressed.

Since primary school students’ concentration is limited, especially when the lesson is about to finish, seven out of twelve teachers implemented both L1 and L2 to give students homework and to consolidate lessons learned, according to data collected from classroom observations. Teachers’ implementation of both L1 and L2 at this stage was understandable because they wanted their students to know what they needed to do at home as well as what they had learnt. Students at this stage were inclined to become more fatigued and distracted. However, these seven teachers could make their implementation of L2 at this stage habitual. If their students failed to listen, they might ask their teachers again. Otherwise, they would not know what exercises they had to do at home. Reality shows that the other five teachers observed implemented L2 at this stage well. According to the data from classroom observations, these five teachers knew that their students got off track. They consolidated lessons and gave them homework in L2. However, they wrote down exercises which they asked their students to do on the board. This way helps off-track or off-task students know what they need to perform at home without teachers’ adoption of L1. In general, as noted throughout these recommendations, teachers’ implementation of L1 should be minimal, paving the way for L2 to be adopted in the classroom.

Data collected show that primary school students responded in L2 when asked questions in L2 by their teachers. L1 and L2 were often used by students when they did not know enough words to respond in L2. Observations also show that when teachers used English commands, most students understood as English commands were repeated, were easy and comprehensible. When students worked in pairs or groups to practise drills, if they were under the control of their teachers, they were prone to use L2 (or L2 in disguise) to engage in activities. L2 in disguise means that teachers only implemented L2 when observed. However, when they were aware that their teachers were busy with their peers or other pairs or groups, they were inclined to automatically converse with

their teammates in L1. Consequently, to encourage students to use L2 in the classroom, especially when they engage in classroom activities, I recommend that teachers move around the classroom regularly to observe students' practice. When L1 is used by a student, teachers immediately remind him/her to use L2. If this rule is implemented frequently, students will limit their implementation of L1 in the classroom.

Whether teachers' implementation of EMI is effective or not can be measured via students' learning performance and their English communication outside the classroom. Assessment of students' learning must be ongoing to monitor their progress daily. EMI implementation can also be measured via students' academic results and teachers' observations in classrooms. Therefore, I recommend that primary schools across Vietnam embed oral components in students' mini-tests, progress tests and examinations (Le 2011; Mai & Iwashita 2012). If all of these formal evaluation processes are executed on a whole-country scale, grammar-based examinations could be minimised, paving the way towards oral competency measures. As such, students' genuine English communicative competence will be more precisely measured.

Better employment of an inductive method and teaching aids

Data from the online questionnaire indicate that 51.1% of teachers implemented L2 to teach grammar and structure. According to two SEAMEO RETRAC trainers (2 and 6), it was plausible for teachers to use L2 to teach grammar and structure. They mentioned that grammar could be taught inductively, and by doing so, students would understand grammar structure more deeply. The idea of teaching grammar (or using L2 or inductive methods) echoed with findings from Larsen-Freeman (2015) and Benitez-Correa, Gonzalez-Torres, Ochoa-Cueva and Vargas-Saritama (2019). Observations in this study show that only five teachers implemented L2 to teach English grammar and structure, and it was inductively taught. I observed that students in these EMI-implemented classes were able to figure out English grammar and rules via examples illustrated by their teachers. Additionally, inductive teaching is suitable for classrooms where communicative activities are implemented as a part of grammar teaching (Benitez-Correa et al. 2019). As such, as compared to deductive teaching, inductive teaching helps strengthen students' learning autonomy, increase their activeness in the learning process and enhance their cognition (Widodo 2006, as cited in Hmedan & Nafi 2016). However, inductive teaching is more time-consuming and requires teachers to have prepared lessons in advance when they give students examples. If their examples

are vague or puzzling, students might have inappropriate concepts of structure. Even though inductive teaching has its advantages and disadvantages, it helps support the implementation of EMI (Benitez-Correa et al. 2019). Therefore, I recommend that English language primary school teachers use the inductive method to teach students grammar and structure in their classrooms. Teachers' adoption of this method might take more energy and preparation, but it fosters students' interaction and thinking in English, which is instrumental for cognitive development of language. When students detect the rules on their own, they will then practise them with their peers in pairs or groups under the supervision of their teachers. In this way, they will memorise grammar and structure.

Observations in this study illustrate that English language primary school teachers used visual aids to explain meanings and definitions of new vocabulary to students. According to Helda (2019), students in primary schools learn new things, mainly via visualisation. Teachers' use of visual aids to teach new vocabulary enables students to learn effectively and increase their volume of vocabulary (Helda 2019; Verti 2018). Teachers' frequent adoption of visual aids limits their implementation of L1 because visual aids describe what teachers will explain through pictures. To help teachers increase their frequency of use of L2 in the classroom, I recommend that visual aids be used regularly to explain vocabulary, collocations and sentence structure in lessons as well as to communicate lesson content. Reality shows that not all English textbooks for primary school students have visual aids available for teachers' in-class use. In this case, visual media can be another resource for English language primary school teachers. Apart from the use of visual or media aids to give definition and meaning of vocabulary, collocations and sentence structure, teachers are also able to adapt their gestures and actions to help students communicate lesson content such as: to explain sentence structure, grammar, lesson content and to engage students in dialogues or brief conversations. Teachers themselves can limit their implementation of L1 with the assistance of visual aids plus body and facial gestures and actions. Whilst it is likely students may habitually use L1 for communication, once L1 is used, teachers can recast and reply promptly in L2. They can model in L2 what students have said in L1. L1 is only used for support when there is a new activity that teachers can engage students in and only when none of the students comprehend.

To foster EMI implementation policies, three overarching factors (i.e. lack of instructional resources, inadequate teaching facilities and big class size) preventing the adoption of EMI should

be considered when policies are endorsed. To help remediate the implementation of EMI, I recommended the following implications.

Provision of sufficient instructional resources

The factor that impacts effective EMI implementation policy is the enrichment of instructional resources (better textbooks, reference books, etc.). Research shows that lack of resources considerably prevents teachers from implementing EMI (Dang et al. 2013; Ibrahim et al. 2017; Sah & Li 2018; Vu & Burns 2014). The findings of these key researchers suggest that teachers need to be supplied with sufficient resources to deliver lessons conducive to students' learning English. Although resources are necessary for English language learning, English language primary school teachers also need to attend professional development training to maximise their use of resources. It is not difficult to invest in support, but it is challenging and a waste of money and time if teachers do not know how to optimise resources invested.

Teaching facility and infrastructure upgrade

Another factor is the upgrading of teaching facilities and review of EMI classroom seating arrangements. In primary schools in Vietnam, there are hardly any classrooms specifically designed for English lessons. Students tend to learn English and other social science subjects in one classroom. The seating arrangement is not always suitable for working in pairs or groups, which is essential for English language learning. Students find it challenging to interact and communicate with their peers. Teachers themselves also have difficulties designing activities which foster students' engagement in these classrooms. In addition, teaching facilities are poor. Teachers lack visual and media aids to deliver effective lessons. Students themselves have to visualise and make use of their imagination. Students in classrooms with poor teaching facilities and limited imagination suffer. Therefore, the findings of this study suggest there be more functional rooms designed for English language learning in each school so that students have more space for language interaction, practice and reflection. Furthermore, schools should be well equipped with both technology and facilities such as: smart boards, LCD projectors, computers and so forth so that teachers' implementation of EMI is more accessible, engaging and efficient. It is unlikely that schools have all the technology and facilities aforementioned; nonetheless, each English classroom should at least have one computer and one LCD projector.

Class size reduction (Bahanshal 2013; Mukhtar 2019; Shah 2020; Shin 2012; Wang & Li 2019)

Another factor is the reduction in student numbers per classroom. Class size has a substantial effect on the quality of English teaching and learning (Bahanshal 2013; Le 2011; Shin 2012). Large class size also has a negative impact on students' academic achievements (Schanzenbach 2014). In a large class, teachers need to work harder to engage their students. According to Le (2011), an ideal EFL classroom should not exceed twenty students. Data collected from the online survey and interviews indicate there are more than thirty-six students in classes in Vietnam. Data in this study also showed that the ideal student number per classroom ranged from twenty to twenty-five. For English language primary school teachers, it is an ideal range. With this class size, they could better control students' activities as well as implement EMI effectively. When teachers were able to observe their students' practice, students' learning outcomes would improve. Consequently, I recommend that class size not exceed twenty-five students. Furthermore, to make it easier for teachers to implement EMI, students need to be placed in homogeneous classrooms based on the four strands of the English language curriculum and emphasising oral language. English language primary school students who have studied English are requested to sit a placement test to have their English language proficiency measured.

7.8. Chapter summary

In the preceding sections, four recommendations were given. At times, they were simple to consider and at other times complex; they were arbitrarily presented, and there remains a great deal of intersectionality.

Vietnam's NFL2020 Project was initiated in haste with ambitious goals. Although the Project was unable to reach its goals by the timeline, it has helped improve English language teaching and learning for the entire country. Project goals need to be modified to be reachable. The Project offered English language teachers numerous professional development training opportunities, but due to the limited budget and conflicting priorities, not all teachers had the same opportunities. Regional factors were not usually considered when the Project was executed. Though teachers' perceptions and implementation of EMI were positive (strong *behavioural belief*), there was no certainty that they actually implemented EMI in their EFL classrooms. To remediate these matters, the Project Managing Committee should formulate clearer policies in terms of budget allocation

for training, fair mechanisms to select teachers for training (based on their needs and capacity, not favouritism) and so on.

The implementation of EMI in EFL classrooms was advocated (strong *normative belief*). Nevertheless, to help teachers implement it effectively, they need both language and skill training. The training should be oriented towards outcome rather than the duration (the length of training). Teachers' implementation of EMI should be regularly observed to ensure they are implementing it in their own classrooms. Even though teachers' implementation of EMI is observed, DOETs, Units of Education and schools should avoid creating pressure for English language teachers. Feedback provided in post observation sessions needs to be constructive, which helps teachers better implement L2. Moreover, teachers' needs should be prioritised and accommodated.

Though it is challenging to enforce English language teachers to implement EMI as a rule, an EMI policy will have to be formulated in the long run. Teachers themselves have already been encouraged to form a habit of EMI implementation. Additionally, there needs to be a seamless translation of EMI policy from MOET to DOETs, Units of Education and schools so that schools are not led astray from implementation. More importantly, school leaders need to believe that EMI policy is valid, which helps them advise English language teachers in their networks.

For English language teachers to be able to implement EMI in all classroom situations they should make the implementation of L2 happen, not only when they enter the classroom, facilitate lessons and so on, but also outside the classroom when they greet students. L2 can also be adopted when teachers explain grammar rules, definitions and meanings of vocabulary and drills, give students homework, consolidate lessons and so forth. On the proviso that they have proper teaching skills, experience and sufficient teaching aids, their implementation of L2 will be more plausible. Further, when students respond in English in the classroom, code-mixing or only L1 may be adopted in some instances. It is the responsibility of teachers to control their use of L1 and code-mixing and make their implementation of L2 habitual. To do so, teachers must limit their implementation of L1 in the classroom even when asked in L1 by their students.

On the whole, English language teachers possess positive beliefs towards the implementation of EMI (*behavioural belief*) based on TPB. They, in fact, received strong support and encouragement from MOET, the Project Committee, DOETs and so forth (*normative belief*). They were provided with sufficient professional training, resources and better equipment (*control belief*). English

language primary school teachers who demonstrated a positive integration of these three beliefs (behavioural, normative and control beliefs), were likely to implement EMI. Also, English language teachers have to consider SLA theories to make their instruction more intelligible to their students. Findings show that teachers did implement EMI in all classrooms observed. Even though the rate of implementation varied, it was a productive start, paving the way for more successful implementation of EMI in Vietnam in the future.

This chapter has also gave four recommendations which sit well with the normative aspect of TPB, and these are relevant to the continuity of professional development training, mandated EMI policy, teaching methodology and so forth. In the final chapter, I will conclude with deliberations on the need for further research based on recommendations and insights generated from the thesis.

Chapter 8: CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Prior to the overview, the reason why this study was conducted in the specific context of three provinces in my home country of Vietnam is presented. This study sets out to accomplish three main objectives: to explore how English language primary school teachers perceive the implementation of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in their classrooms in Vietnam; to investigate the extent to which they employ EMI; and to identify the extent to which primary school students respond in English. The study, as evidenced in earlier chapters is at times complex whilst the question of the value of English is a given. The use of EMI is unreservedly endorsed as a core outcome of Vietnam's National Foreign Languages 2020 (NFL2020) Project, now realised as NFL2025.

From the three questions noted below and the answers documented throughout the preceding chapters, I will continue to report on and offer specific critical responses drawing from implications of the research. These insights will and should impact teachers using EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam. The value of these findings is in their implementation.

This study aimed to address three main research questions together with two sub-questions as follows:

Research question 1: What are the perceptions of English language primary school teachers towards the use of EMI in EFL classrooms in Vietnam?

Research question 2: How is EMI implemented in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam?

Sub-questions:

- a. To what extent do teachers implement EMI in their classrooms?
- b. To what extent do students respond in English?

Research question 3: What are the implications for teachers using EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam?

In this concluding chapter, I will revert to L1 (i.e. Vietnamese) and L2, (i.e. English).

8.1. Overview of the chapter

This chapter presents key findings integrated from multiple sources: review of documents, online survey, face-to-face semi-structured interviews and classroom observations based on the above research questions. After that, this chapter presents specific priorities with implications for teachers implementing EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam. Finally, suggestions for further research and concluding remarks are presented.

8.2. Summary of the findings

The NFL2020 Project was timely and aspired to be beneficial for the English language development of the whole nation. The Project contributed to advancing the learning of foreign languages in Vietnam by offering many specialised English language teachers professional development training opportunities across all levels of education; namely from basic education (primary) to higher education (university). Although professional development training had been administered previously, the NFL2020 Project, in fact, opened up and focused on the need for specialised English teacher training. The Project highlighted the importance of English language teachers' implementation of EMI through the use of the English-for-Teaching (EfT) module provided and designed by Cengage Learning, as noted in the earlier discussion.

The findings, more fully analysed in Chapter 7, identify that SEAMEO RETRAC trainers and provincial English language specialists together with English language primary school teachers showed an appreciation of the implementation of EMI in their classrooms. This uptake of EMI is echoed and stated in this thesis based on findings from face-to-face semi-structured interviews. For these teachers, it is noted that in cosmopolitan cities and larger towns in Vietnam, the implementation of EMI occurred more readily with more engagement. The uptake of EMI in less advantaged areas was more challenging. However, application in less advantaged areas was within teachers' reach, providing they were extrinsically and intrinsically motivated and persevered with EMI implementation within their own unique circumstances and contexts.

The data gathered and my experience – especially observations – indicate students' English proficiency levels were relatively basic when compared to those of teachers'. Nevertheless, there is no denying that teachers can cope with specific associated challenges which they have not previously been accustomed to when implementing L2. These challenges can and will be overcome once their students start to familiarise themselves with EMI. When teachers limited the

use of L1 in their classrooms for lesson explication, their students were automatically inclined to respond to their teachers by employing L2. Their responses were not always perfect. They might employ code-mixing or L1, but at least they attempted to use L2 in situations they were not familiar with. Their approximations in modelling English spoken by teachers were commendable.

English textbooks were re-designed to accommodate Project goals. Oral components were particularly embedded in current English textbooks in which four language modes were employed. In addition to engaging with audio-visual resources in schools, students were able to undertake speaking and listening at home to practise their comprehension skills as well as pronunciation. It is evident that new English textbooks which have embedded access to speaking and listening are appropriately aimed at the development of students' English communicative competence, paving a more efficient way for teachers' implementation of L2 in the classroom.

English language primary school teachers' perceptions of the benefits of EMI implementation were relatively positive. The majority of respondents agreed that implementation improved their students' English skills, particularly oral language skills. EMI enhances students' English proficiency, optimises students' exposure to English, raises students' assuredness while fostering students' and teachers' in-class interactions. Use of L2 impacts the delivery and enhancement of students' comprehension in English as well as improving their pronunciation. Likewise, teachers' positive perceptions of implementation and its benefits for their students were well aligned with the professional benefits of implementation for them. Findings in this study show that EMI implementation developed and enhanced teachers' confidence as their lesson facilitation expertise advanced. EMI in effect, honed the English skills of both teachers and students gradually and improved English language proficiency. EMI was more conducive to advancing students' English language learning and markedly contributed to encouraging them to join teacher skills training activities conducted by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET), Departments of Education and Training (DOETs), Units of Education and in schools. As compared to Province A and Province B, English language primary school teachers from Province C perceived the implementation of EMI the most positively.

It is evident that teachers' positive *behavioural beliefs* (TPB) towards EMI in connection with the Project Committee's positive *normative beliefs* as well as good *control beliefs* led to the fact that English language teachers formulated their *intention* to implement EMI by turning their *perceived behavioural control* into their *actual behavioural control*. When teachers had better control of their

skills as well as their actual behaviour, they will implement EMI. TPB was suitable to function as the theoretical framework of this study. However, in each stage of the belief, there should have been more preparation to make sure that teachers were able to implement EMI effectively in their classrooms. For the first stage of the belief which is '*behavioural beliefs*', there should have been classroom observations to see if English language teachers mainly used L1 or L2 as a medium of instruction. Even if L1 was the main medium of instruction, it does not mean that they took an exception to L2. They might have a tendency to use L1 because they believed that it was easier for them to deliver English lessons and for their students to understand. For the second stage, even though the Project Committee had positive *normative beliefs* towards EMI and they also formulated specific and attainable goals for the Project, they should have given teachers time to prepare themselves ready for the implementation of EMI. The duration for preparation might take a few years or even longer. In addition, I believe that the second and third stage had to go both together, meaning that while the Project Committee gave teachers time to prepare, they should have offered nation-wide training. They should have provided equal training opportunities for all the teachers to attend and follow-up training as well. Being offered such great training opportunities would have an exertion on helping teachers perceive EMI more positively. Skill training would help them provide better instruction in the classrooms as indicated in the SLA theories.

It is clear that each stage of belief development took time. Positive beliefs could not be formulated in haste. Therefore, even though teachers' perceptions of EMI were mostly positive and were explored via the employment of multiple sources of data collection, there was no certainty that teachers would continue implementing EMI to teach English in their classrooms if their teaching practice was not regularly observed. If the Project had not been constructed in haste and teachers had had more time to prepare, teachers' perceptions could have been more positive, meaning that they were more assured of implementing EMI in their classrooms without doing it reservedly.

The research findings in this study show that L2 implementation was mainly employed by teachers for greeting (to welcome students and to say goodbye) and for giving instructions (to have them listen to English dialogues and to repeat new vocabulary). They were the two main functions that English language teachers used in their classrooms. L2 was also used by teachers to check students' attendance, review previous lessons, offer warm-up activities, teach students vocabulary and provide feedback. Some teachers used EMI to communicate lesson content, request students to

engage in language exercises and to adapt L2 in activities as discussed in Chapter 7. In some instances, L2 was used to manage classroom activities and control in-class behaviours. Teachers employed code-mixing in some classroom situations besides their employment of English commands which they introduced via the EfT module. Similarly, primary school students responded in L2 when greeted; when requested to read dialogues or conversations; and to answer teachers' questions or practise in pairs or groups. On the whole, English language teachers implemented EMI to mainly give instructions and to command. They employed simple commands that students were familiar with.

Findings show that students were able to answer in L2 in specific situations related to lessons or topics familiar to them such as families, hobbies, studies and so on. Students were better at responding with Yes/No rather than Wh-queries (Who, What, Where, Why, Which and How). It was comprehensible as Yes/No queries were easier for students to answer. In addition, if they were able to employ L2 to answer Yes/No queries, it means that they could understand the questions. However, to make sure that students fully understood the questions, teachers could ask them one more query. When compared to classroom situations in which teachers implemented EMI, primary school students had fewer situations to react with the employment of L2. However, in almost all situations posed in L2 by teachers, students responded in L2 or sometimes employed code-mixing. It is noteworthy that teachers and students in Province C used more L2 in class than those in Provinces A and B. In all likelihood, this was due to the fact that teachers in Province C had the most positive perceptions of EMI implementation. Apart from that, Province C is situated in a big city in the Mekong Delta, so their students might be better at English than their peers from less advantaged areas though all the three Provinces received close attention from their DOETs.

Observations undertaken in this study show teachers across all three provinces did not employ the same strategies (visual aids, gestures and so on) to review previous lessons. It is especially of note that not all teachers implemented L2. Specifically, two thirds of teachers observed implemented only L2 for lesson review while the other four teachers employed L1 at this stage. Observations in Province C show teachers had only L2 implementation whereas 75% of their colleagues ($n = 3$) in Province B employed L1 upon reviewing lessons. Three teachers in Province A employed L2 while performing this activity.

Teachers in Provinces A and B were likely to employ L1 to explain rules of games in the hope that their students were competent in comprehending what they were being asked to perform before their engagement in the activity. On presenting vocabulary in lessons, all four teachers in Province B employed L1 to present the meaning of vocabulary or phrases. Of these, one teacher implemented L1 as a last measure when compared to their other three colleagues who mostly employed L1 to introduce student definitions together with examples of vocabulary. Teachers in Provinces A and C employed visual aids to help students understand the meaning of vocabulary without L1.

While introducing students' grammar rules, five teachers (two in Province A and three in Province C) employed L2. Two teachers (one in Province B and one in Province C) employed L1 restrictively when carrying out this activity compared to their colleagues (three teachers in Province B) who implemented both L1 and L2. Two teachers in Province A employed L1 while performing this activity according to observations.

Observations demonstrate that teachers in all three provinces offered students feedback in L2. They employed English commands thematically, introduced in the EfT module. Upon giving students homework and consolidating lessons, all teachers in Province A employed both L1 and L2 while their colleagues in Province C used L2. Only one teacher in Province B employed L2 when performing these activities compared to their three colleagues who implemented both L1 and L2.

To encourage students to employ more L2 in classrooms, the majority of teachers employed games, songs and chants together with interactive activities while some used incentives to engage students in activities. Incentives used by the majority of teachers were stickers or lollies.

Findings indicate certain recommendations for better implementation of EMI in primary school classrooms in Vietnam in the long run. The first recommendation was the formulation of clear-cut EMI policies from high-ranking sectors like MOET. Specifically, teachers who proved their capability to implement EMI would be awarded after their teaching practice was observed and evaluated effectively. For this implication, I recommend that for teachers who are unable to implement EMI well due to their limited English proficiency level and their lack of training, DOETs and Units of Education should work out feasible training plans for them. It is important to note that the ultimate goal of the implementation of EMI is to make English a competitive advantage

for all Vietnamese citizens. Therefore, it is ideal if high ranking authorities like MOET and DOETs should not put pressure on teachers who have not been able to implement it effectively. In addition, the regional factor needs to be taken into account to make sure that all English language teachers receive the same attention. Also, DOETs and Units of Education should be reported a list of teachers who have not been able to implement EMI effectively; however, this list cannot be revealed to their colleagues (other teachers) and the society. This list is kept to help education providers to offer further and follow-up training for teachers only.

The second recommendation was to focus on the enhancement of continued professional development training for teachers using L2. Three specific foci indicated included training on English teaching methodologies, on English skills and sharing sessions on the implementation of EMI. Colleagues within one school, a cluster of schools or between schools under the ‘umbrella’ of one Unit of Education or DOET discussed and shared their own experiences when L2 is adopted in their classrooms. For this implication, I recommend that if DOETs have enough funding, they can support some teachers to pursue short-term courses on the implementation of EMI and SLA overseas and to provide them opportunities to take part in or to present at International Conferences on English language teaching. They are good occasions for them to meet with language experts in the field to expand their knowledge as well as to broaden their horizon. Teachers themselves should study from each other. They should not limit themselves in their schools only. If this is performed regularly, teachers’ awareness and mindsets in terms of EMI implementation will be altered more positively.

The third recommendation was more investment in the quality of teaching facilities. This meant building or upgrading functional rooms, particularly designed for English language teaching. Functional rooms were to be well-equipped with sufficient teaching aids, media aids, software, realia and so on which met demands of EMI implementation whenever English language primary school teachers wanted to employ them in their teaching performance. From my observation, the most fundamental organisation in functional language learning rooms is the seating arrangement; it needs to be flexible so that students can interact more easily with their teachers and their peers as well as join teamwork and groupwork activities.

The fourth recommendation was the reduction in the number of students per classroom so that teachers were able to observe students’ language practice within classrooms. Even though teachers

did not suggest an ideal number of students, the majority commented that classrooms with approximately forty or more students were challenging. To some extent, these large classes deterred the frequency of EMI implementation under pressure of completing the syllabus. I believe that if this reduced class size is achievable, students' English proficiency levels should be homogeneously grouped. This way will reduce the tension for teachers. They do not have to frequently modify their teaching approaches for different students with mixed English levels.

The fifth recommendation was fewer teaching periods per week. Teachers were requested to have 18 teaching periods instead of 23. If their teaching hours were reduced, they would have more time to better prepare their lessons and anticipate student queries.

The sixth recommendation was the need for a less 'heavy' curriculum. Heavy curriculum refers to a significant volume of knowledge to be conveyed in each lesson. With a heavy curriculum, teachers had to cover all stipulated content within a limited timeframe, leading to the impossibility of implementing EMI as encouraged. The curriculum itself should focus more on communicative functions so that students can develop their communicative competence.

The seventh recommendation was the employment of simple English instructional commands or behavioural objectives easy for students to understand and act accordingly. Teachers commented that the use of fun games suitable at students' level and age engaged them in lessons. A significant recommendation was one uniform curriculum and the increase of English language teachers in one school.

8.3. Implications for further research

In Chapter 7, four recommendations were given for enhancing the employment of EMI. Each recommendation is valuable for its own purpose. That said, I prioritise research across seven highlighted implications.

One implication was continual professional development training for teachers on the implementation of EMI from basic to higher education. Further research can delve more closely into the quality of professional development training on this topic which is being conducted in the Northern and Central Vietnam. The EfT module currently used for teaching needs to be frequently updated. Teachers should not limit themselves to the EfT module only. In other words, more

resources on the implementation of EMI should be sought, researched and put in use so that teachers can better access.

Another implication arising from this study was the development of a more comprehensive understanding of regional factors. Data identify that the implementation of EMI took place more readily and was less challenging in big cities than in less advantaged areas. Further research could be undertaken to enhance EMI implementation in cities and to find appropriate measures to solve problems encountered by teachers and students in rural areas in EMI use. Further research could expand to larger population so that their results could be more reliable.

A significant implication related to policy, that is, the establishment of implementation of L2 classrooms as the norm. This is a vital recommendation and it is worth further investigation. This research could include primary school contexts similar to mine or different contexts such as: secondary, high school and university levels to discern whether or not EMI could be implemented effectively at disparate levels. The findings from such research could be expanded to a bigger population in other provinces or regions in Vietnam.

Another implication related to teaching methodology was to utilise an inductive method of teaching. In fact, there are many comparative studies that have been carried out concerning the employment of inductive and deductive methods in EFL classrooms. Nevertheless, a dearth of this research performed in Vietnam's EFL classroom contexts is not only basic but also in higher education. Further research could be conducted to investigate whether the employment of an inductive method could help boost EMI implementation in the context of Vietnam.

Another implication was the enrichment of instructional resources. Further research could be conducted to investigate the effectiveness of EMI instructional resources. This could be performed on a larger scale to warrant more representative findings.

The fact that oral English components can be embedded in students' examinations was recommended. Based on the findings, this is an ideal way to encourage teachers' EMI implementation in the classroom. Further research could be carried out to confirm the impact of students' examinations with the integration of four skill strands on the implementation of EMI.

Finally, another implication was the optimisation of visual, media aids, teachers' body language, gestures and actions to communicate lesson content. The employment of such teaching aids and

gestures helped lessen teachers' implementation of L1, paving the way for the implementation of L2 in their classrooms, according to observations. Further research could investigate how English language teachers can communicate lesson content which is more comprehensive to students with limited use of L1 and code-mixing – a use of both L1 and L2.

8.4. Concluding Remarks

This study has focused on English language primary school teachers' implementation of EMI in their classrooms in the South of Vietnam. EMI in my study did not follow the definition mostly agreed by researchers. The settings of EMI in my study were EFL classrooms. However, I was persistent and constant in employing this term. This was also one of the limitations of my study. With my efforts, I hope my study will provide a specific view of teaching and learning of English in primary schools with the implementation of EMI. Although EMI implementation to teach English language was not novel and L2 was implemented as a medium of instruction long ago in many Centres for Foreign Studies and private schools in Vietnam, it has been encouraged to be implemented in primary public schools for only a few years. I, myself, support the implementation of EMI to teach English language subject in primary schools and the data collected have partly affirmed my belief. However, in my point of view, Vietnam will need more time so that EMI is implemented properly in primary schools. My study, though small, wishes to provide insights about this topic. I also do hope to inspire other researchers to conduct more research about English language teaching in primary schools in Vietnam, especially on my topic in more detail.

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Appendices

	Page
Appendix 1: Information to participants involved in research (attached to the online survey)	273
Appendix 2: Information to participants involved in research (attached to face-to-face semi-structured interviews)	277
Appendix 3: Information to participants involved in research (attached to classroom observations)	286
Appendix 4: Online survey	292
Appendix 5: Interview consent form for participants involved in research	309
Appendix 6: Classroom observation consent form for participants involved in research	313

Appendix 1: Information to participants involved in research (attached to the online survey)

You are invited to participate

You are invited to participate in a research project entitled **English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) Primary Schools in Vietnam: Policies and Implementation**.

This project is being conducted by Duy Bao Truong as part of a PhD study at Victoria University under the supervision of Prof. Tarquam Mckenna, Assoc. Prof. Fiona Henderson and Dr. Oksana Razoumova from the College of Arts and Education.

Project explanation

The use of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) classrooms is vital to enhance students' English skills. The earlier that EMI is engaged in teaching, the better EFL students can improve their English skills. This research aims to explore the perceptions of English language primary school teachers towards the implementation of EMI in Vietnam and to analyse the use of EMI in EFL classrooms as well as the extent to which students respond in English. Developing an evidentiary basis for addressing the current understanding of the application of EMI in primary schools will assist in developing customised teacher training which will be beneficial to primary teachers of English. A mixture of qualitative and quantitative methods, including document reviews, online surveys, face-to-face semi-structured interviews and classroom observations in Vietnam, will be employed for data collection.

What will I be asked to do?

You are cordially invited to take part in an online survey which is conducted by Duy Bao Truong. It will take approximately from 10 to 15 minutes. Your participation is completely voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without penalty.

What will I gain from participating?

There is no payment or reimbursement to you.

How will the information I give be used?

The information which you give will be used to improve the implementation of EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam.

What are the potential risks of participating in this project?

There are few risks in this project. All the data are anonymous and will be treated confidentially. Only Duy Bao Truong and his three supervisors will be able to have access to the data. The data will be kept in his laptop with files protected by the required password. Upon the completion of the project, the data will be put in a CD and kept confidential in a safe place in Victoria University.

How will this project be conducted?

This project will undergo the following stages:

- Stage 1: Review documents;
- Stage 2: Conduct an online survey;
- Stage 3: Interviewing participants; and
- Stage 4: Conducting classroom observations.

Who is conducting the study?

The study is being conducted by:

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Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to the Chief Investigators listed above.

If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Ethics Secretary, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Office for Research, Victoria University, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001, email researchethics@vu.edu.au or phone +61 3 9919 4781 or 4461.

THÔNG TIN DÀNH CHO QUÝ THẦY/CÔ THAM GIA NGHIÊN CỨU (được đính kèm vào bảng khảo sát)

Quý Thầy/Cô được mời tham gia

Chúng tôi trân trọng kính mời quý Thầy/Cô tham gia đề tài **“Sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học tại Việt Nam: Chính sách và phương pháp thực hiện”**.

Đề tài này do Trương Bảo Duy, nghiên cứu sinh bậc Tiến sỹ tại trường Đại học Victoria thực hiện dưới sự hướng dẫn của GS.TS. Tarquam Mckenna, PGS.TS. Fiona Henderson và TS. Oksana Razoumova thuộc khoa Nghệ thuật và Giáo dục.

Trình bày về đề tài

Sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh đóng vai trò vô cùng quan trọng góp phần nâng cao kỹ năng ngoại ngữ cho học sinh. Giáo viên sử dụng càng nhiều tiếng Anh trong lớp thì học sinh phát triển kỹ năng tiếng Anh càng tốt hơn. Đề tài này nhằm tìm hiểu cảm nhận và suy nghĩ của giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học về việc sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy tại Việt Nam, phân tích việc giáo viên sử dụng phương pháp này cũng như xem xét những hoạt động trong lớp các em học sinh sử dụng tiếng Anh để trả lời. Nắm rõ được tình hình sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bậc tiểu học tại Việt Nam sẽ giúp cải thiện những khóa học phát triển chuyên môn giáo viên về chủ đề này mang lại nhiều lợi ích hơn cho giáo viên tiếng Anh. Phương pháp định tính và định lượng, bao gồm: việc nghiên cứu chính sách, khảo sát, phỏng vấn và dự giờ, sẽ được thực hiện trong quá trình thu thập số liệu.

Quý Thầy/Cô sẽ được yêu cầu làm gì?

Chúng tôi trân trọng kính mời quý Thầy/Cô tham gia trả lời bảng khảo sát trực tuyến do nghiên cứu sinh Trương Bảo Duy thực hiện. Việc tham gia trả lời mất khoảng 10 đến 15 phút. Việc tham gia hoàn toàn tự nguyện. Quý Thầy/Cô có thể từ chối tham gia bất cứ lúc nào mà hoàn toàn không gây ảnh hưởng gì.

Quý Thầy/Cô được gì khi tham gia đề tài?

Tham gia đề tài sẽ không được trả thù lao.

Thông tin quý Thầy/Cô cung cấp sẽ được sử dụng như thế nào?

Thông tin quý Thầy/Cô cung cấp sẽ được sử dụng cải thiện việc ứng dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học tại Việt Nam.

Những rủi ro quý Thầy/Cô đối mặt khi tham gia đề tài?

Hầu như không có rủi ro khi tham gia đề tài. Tất cả các thông tin đều không lộ rõ danh tánh người tham gia và đều được bảo mật. Chỉ nghiên cứu sinh Trương Bảo Duy và 3 Giáo sư hướng dẫn được quyền tiếp cận dữ liệu. Dữ liệu sẽ được giữ cẩn thận trong máy tính xách tay (có mật khẩu) của

nghiên cứu sinh. Khi hoàn thành đề tài, tất cả dữ liệu sẽ được chép vào CD và được bảo mật an toàn tại trường Đại học Victoria.

Dự án sẽ được tiến hành như thế nào?

Dự án sẽ trải qua 4 giai đoạn:

Giai đoạn (1): tham khảo tài liệu và các chủ trương, chính sách; (2) khảo sát trực tuyến; (3) phỏng vấn; (4) dự giờ giáo viên

Ai là người thực hiện dự án nghiên cứu?

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Quý Thầy/Cô có thể liên hệ với GS hướng dẫn đề tài nếu có thắc mắc về việc tham gia đề tài. Nếu có bất kỳ thắc mắc hay than phiền nào, quý Thầy/Cô có thể liên hệ Ban thư ký, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Văn phòng nghiên cứu, trường Đại học Victoria, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001, qua email Researchethics@vu.edu.au hay qua điện thoại +61 3 9919 4781 hay 4461.

Appendix 2: Information to participants involved in research (attached to face-to-face semi-structured interviews)

You are invited to participate

You are invited to participate in a research project entitled **English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) Primary Schools in Vietnam: Policies and Implementation**.

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What will I be asked to do?

You are cordially invited to take part in a face-to-face semi-structured interview which is conducted by Duy Bao Truong. The interview will take approximately from 20 to 30 minutes. The interview will be recorded. During the interview, you will have the opportunity to edit the tape and/or stop the interview at any time. Prior to beginning the interview, you will be asked to sign a consent form which indicates that you agree to take part in the interview. Your participation is completely voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without penalty. Besides, you are able to contact Prof. Tarquam Mckenna, a Registered Psychotherapist and an Honorary Life Member of ANZATA – the peak body in Australia for Registering of Arts Psychotherapists cum a Chief Investigator of this study for counselling via his email address: Tarquam@gmail.com.

Indicative questions may include, but are not limited to:

For SEAMEO RETRAC trainers:

- a. Can you tell me some information about yourself? How long have you been teaching English at SEAMEO RETRAC? How long have you been involved in Training-the-Trainers programs?
- b. What do you think of the Vietnam's National Foreign Languages 2020 (NFL2020) Project?

- c. What do you think of using English-as-a-Medium-of-Instruction (EMI) to teach English in primary schools?
- d. Can you tell me your opinion about Vietnam's NFL2020 Project Managing Committee and Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training encouraging English language teachers to use EMI in their classrooms? Do you think that it is feasible or not?
- e. You are trainers of English-for-Teaching module. How long did the training last? What components did the module include? Do you think that the training is enough for primary teachers of English to implement EMI in their classrooms after the training?
- f. Do you have any strategies that encourage primary teachers of English to use more EMI in classrooms? In what way do students respond more in English?
- g. Are there any factors that limit primary school teachers' implementation of EMI? If there are, what are they?
- h. Do you have any recommendations which help improve the implementation of EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam?

For English language specialists:

- a. Can you tell me some information about yourself? What is your role as an English specialist? How long have you been in this position? How many English language primary teachers are you in charge of?
- b. What do you think of using English-as-a-Medium-of-Instruction (EMI) to teach English in primary schools?
- c. As an English specialist, what do you think of Vietnam's National Foreign Languages 2020 (NFL2020) Project?
- d. Can you tell me your opinion about Vietnam's NFL2020 Project Managing Committee and Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training encouraging English language teachers to use EMI in their classrooms? Do you think that it is feasible or not?
- e. How have you publicised this encouragement to your English language primary school teachers in your province?
- f. What do English language primary school teachers in your province think about this encouragement? Do they have any reaction to this encouragement?
- g. Up to now, to what extent have your English language primary school teachers used EMI in their classrooms?
- h. Do you think that their implementation of EMI is effective or not?
- i. When EMI is used, to what extent do students respond in English?
- j. How often does your Department of Education and Training (DOET) observe how English language primary school teachers use EMI in their classrooms?
- k. Are there any factors that limit English language primary school teachers' use of EMI? If there are, what are they?
- l. Can you help evaluate your teachers' using EMI in their classrooms?
- m. What are your DOET's plans to encourage English language primary school teachers to use EMI?
- n. Can you tell me some implications for teachers using EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in your province?

For primary school teachers of English:

- a. Can you tell me some information about yourself? How long have you been teaching English? How long have you been teaching English in primary schools? What level are you teaching? How many students do you teach?
- b. What do you think of using English-as-a-Medium-of-Instruction (EMI) to teach English in primary schools?
- c. As an English language primary school teacher, what do you think of Vietnam's National Foreign Languages 2020 (NFL2020) Project?
- d. Can you tell me your opinion about Vietnam's NFL2020 Project Managing Committee and Vietnam's Ministry of Education and Training encouraging English language teachers to use EMI in their classrooms? Do you think that it is feasible or not?
- e. What is your personal attitude about using EMI in your classrooms?
- f. Have you got any support from your DOET to implement EMI in your classrooms?
- g. So far, in what situations have you used EMI in your classrooms?
- h. Can you help evaluate your implementation of EMI? Do you think that it is effective or not?
- i. To what extent do your students respond in English?
- j. Do you have any strategies that encourage your students to use more EMI in classrooms? In what way do students respond more in English?
- k. Are there any factors that limit your implementation of EMI? If there are, what are they?
- l. What are your recommendations to DOET which help you implement EMI more effectively?

What will I gain from participating?

There is no payment or reimbursement to participants.

How will the information I give be used?

The information collected from interview sessions will be used to improve the implementation of EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam.

What are the potential risks of participating in this project?

There are few risks in this project. All the data are anonymous and will be treated confidential. Only Duy Bao Truong and his three supervisors will be able to have access to the data. The data will be kept in his laptop with files protected by the required password. Upon the completion of the project, the data will be put in a CD and kept confidential in a safe place in Victoria University.

How will this project be conducted?

This project will undergo the following stages:

Stage 1: Review documents;

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Stage 3: Interviewing participants; and

Stage 4: Conducting classroom observations.

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The study is being conducted by:

PhD candidate: Mr. Duy Bao Truong

Telephone: +61 470 344 930 or +84 91 949 1183

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Chief Investigators:

1. Prof. Tarquam Mckenna
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2. Assoc. Prof. Fiona Henderson
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3. Dr. Oksana Razoumova
TESOL Lecturer
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THÔNG TIN DÀNH CHO QUÝ THẦY/CÔ THAM GIA NGHIÊN CỨU (được đính kèm vào câu hỏi phỏng vấn)

Quý Thầy/Cô được mời tham gia

Chúng tôi trân trọng kính mời quý Thầy/Cô tham gia đề tài **“Sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học tại Việt Nam: Chính sách và phương thức thực hiện”**.

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Trình bày về đề tài

Sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh đóng vai trò vô cùng quan trọng góp phần nâng cao kỹ năng ngoại ngữ cho học sinh. Giáo viên sử dụng càng nhiều tiếng Anh trong lớp thì học sinh phát triển kỹ năng tiếng Anh càng tốt hơn. Đề tài này nhằm tìm hiểu cảm nhận và suy nghĩ của giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học về việc sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy tại Việt Nam, phân tích việc giáo viên sử dụng phương pháp này cũng như xem xét những hoạt động trong lớp các em học sinh sử dụng tiếng Anh để trả lời. Nắm rõ được tình hình sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bậc tiểu học tại Việt Nam sẽ giúp cải thiện những khóa học phát triển chuyên môn giáo viên về chủ đề này mang lại nhiều lợi ích hơn cho giáo viên tiếng Anh. Phương pháp định tính và định lượng, bao gồm: việc nghiên cứu chính sách, khảo sát, phỏng vấn và dự giờ, sẽ được thực hiện trong quá trình thu thập số liệu.

Quý Thầy/Cô sẽ được yêu cầu làm gì?

Chúng tôi trân trọng kính mời quý Thầy/Cô tham gia phỏng vấn do nghiên cứu sinh Trương Bảo Duy thực hiện. Phỏng vấn sẽ kéo dài từ 20 đến 30 phút. Buổi phỏng vấn sẽ được ghi âm lại. Trong suốt quá trình phỏng vấn, quý Thầy/Cô được quyền thay đổi câu trả lời hoặc dừng buổi phỏng vấn bất cứ lúc nào. Trước lúc phỏng vấn, quý Thầy/Cô sẽ được yêu cầu ký tên vào phiếu cam kết nhằm đảm bảo quý Thầy/Cô đồng ý tham gia phỏng vấn. Việc tham gia phỏng vấn là hoàn toàn tự nguyện. Quý Thầy/Cô có thể từ chối tham gia phỏng vấn mà hoàn toàn không ảnh hưởng gì đến bản thân. Bên cạnh đó, quý Thầy/Cô có thể liên hệ GS.TS. Tarquam Mckenna xin tư vấn qua email: Tarquam@gmail.com. GS.TS. Tarquam Mckenna là chuyên gia điều trị bằng biện pháp tâm lý và Ông cũng là thành viên danh dự trọn đời của tổ chức ANZATA – tổ chức tối cao tại Úc phụ trách kết nạp các chuyên gia điều trị bằng biện pháp tâm lý cho lĩnh vực khoa học nghệ thuật kèm GS phụ trách đề tài.

Sau đây là một số câu hỏi phỏng vấn:

Câu hỏi dành cho ban giảng huấn Trung tâm SEAMEO RETRAC:

- a. Quý Thầy/Cô có thể giới thiệu về bản thân? Quý Thầy/Cô đã tham gia giảng dạy tiếng Anh tại Trung tâm SEAMEO RETRAC bao lâu rồi? Quý Thầy/Cô đã tham gia đào tạo giáo viên cốt cán bao lâu rồi?
- b. Quý Thầy/Cô cho biết những suy nghĩ của mình về đề án Ngoại ngữ quốc gia 2020?
- c. Quý Thầy/Cô có suy nghĩ gì về việc giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy trong lớp?
- d. Quý Thầy/Cô có suy nghĩ gì về việc Ban đề án Ngoại ngữ 2020 và Bộ Giáo dục và đào tạo khuyến khích giáo viên tiếng Anh tăng cường sử dụng tiếng Anh trong lớp? Quý Thầy/Cô nghĩ điều này có khả thi hay không?
- e. Được biết, quý Thầy/Cô có tham gia giảng dạy học phần EfT. Học phần này kéo dài bao nhiêu lâu? Học phần bao gồm những nội dung gì? Quý Thầy/Cô nghĩ là thời gian đào tạo có đủ để giáo viên tiếng Anh tăng cường sử dụng tiếng Anh trong giảng dạy hay không?
- f. Trong quá trình tham gia tập huấn, quý Thầy/Cô thấy giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học có hào hứng với học phần này hay không?
- g. Theo quý Thầy/Cô, giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học có thể sử dụng tiếng Anh trong lớp trong những trường hợp nào?
- h. Theo quý Thầy/Cô, học sinh bậc tiểu học có thể sử dụng tiếng Anh để trả lời trong lớp trong những trường hợp nào?
- i. Quý Thầy/Cô có suy nghĩ gì nếu giáo viên tiểu học chỉ sử dụng tiếng Anh trong lớp học?
- j. Quý Thầy/Cô có những chiến lược khuyến khích giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học tăng cường sử dụng tiếng Anh trong lớp không? Nếu có, quý Thầy/Cô có thể chia sẻ.
- k. Theo quý Thầy/Cô, đâu là những nhân tố giới hạn việc giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học sử dụng tiếng Anh để giảng dạy trong lớp?
- l. Quý Thầy/Cô có những gợi ý gì nhằm giúp giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học tại Việt Nam tăng cường sử dụng tiếng Anh trong lớp?

Câu hỏi dành cho chuyên viên tiếng Anh:

- a. Quý Thầy/Cô có thể tự giới thiệu về mình? Là chuyên viên tiếng Anh, quý Thầy/Cô có vai trò gì? Quý Thầy/Cô giữ chức vụ này bao lâu rồi? Quý Thầy/Cô phụ trách bao nhiêu giáo viên bậc tiểu học?
- b. Quý Thầy/Cô có suy nghĩ gì về việc giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học sử dụng tiếng Anh trong giảng dạy?
- c. Là chuyên viên tiếng Anh, quý Thầy/Cô có suy nghĩ gì về Đề án ngoại ngữ quốc gia 2020?
- d. Quý Thầy/Cô có suy nghĩ gì về việc Ban đề án Ngoại ngữ 2020 và Bộ Giáo dục và đào tạo khuyến khích giáo viên tiếng Anh tăng cường sử dụng tiếng Anh trong lớp? Quý Thầy/Cô nghĩ điều này có khả thi hay không?
- e. Quý Thầy/Cô phổ biến thông tin này đến giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học như thế nào?
- f. Giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học ở tỉnh mình có suy nghĩ gì về thông tin này? Họ có phản ứng ra sao?
- g. Cho đến thời điểm hiện tại, giáo viên tiếng Anh ở tỉnh mình đã sử dụng tiếng Anh để giảng dạy trong những hoạt động nào?
- h. Quý Thầy/Cô nghĩ giáo viên đã sử dụng tiếng Anh trong lớp hiệu quả chưa?

- i. Khi giáo viên sử dụng tiếng Anh trong lớp, học sinh có trả lời được bằng tiếng Anh không? Các em trả lời được bằng tiếng Anh trong những trường hợp nào?
- j. Sở Giáo dục và đào tạo có thường xuyên dự giờ và kiểm tra việc giáo viên tiếng Anh sử dụng tiếng Anh để giảng dạy không?
- k. Theo quý Thầy/Cô, đâu là những nhân tố giới hạn việc giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học sử dụng tiếng Anh để giảng dạy trong lớp?
- l. Quý Thầy/Cô đánh giá ra sao việc giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học sử dụng tiếng Anh để giảng dạy trong lớp?
- m. Sở Giáo dục và đào tạo có kế hoạch gì nhằm khuyến khích giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học tăng cường sử dụng tiếng Anh trong lớp?
- n. Quý Thầy/Cô có gợi ý gì nhằm khuyến khích giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học tại tỉnh mình tăng cường sử dụng tiếng Anh trong lớp?

Câu hỏi dành cho giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học:

- a. Quý Thầy/Cô có thể tự giới thiệu về mình? Quý Thầy/Cô đã dạy tiếng Anh bao lâu rồi? Quý Thầy/Cô đã dạy tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học bao lâu rồi? Quý Thầy/Cô dạy lớp mấy? Quý Thầy/Cô trung bình dạy bao nhiêu học sinh một lớp?
- b. Quý Thầy/Cô có suy nghĩ gì về việc giáo viên tiếng Anh tăng cường sử dụng tiếng Anh để giảng dạy trong lớp?
- c. Là giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học, quý Thầy/Cô có suy nghĩ gì về Đề án ngoại ngữ quốc gia 2020?
- d. Quý Thầy/Cô có suy nghĩ gì về việc Ban đề án Ngoại ngữ 2020 và Bộ Giáo dục và đào tạo khuyến khích giáo viên tiếng Anh tăng cường sử dụng tiếng Anh trong lớp? Quý Thầy/Cô nghĩ điều này có khả thi hay không?
- e. Quý Thầy/Cô cho biết quan điểm của mình về việc giáo viên tiếng Anh tăng cường sử dụng tiếng Anh trong lớp?
- f. Quý Thầy/Cô có nhận được hỗ trợ nào từ Sở Giáo dục và Phòng Giáo dục về việc sử dụng tiếng Anh trong giảng dạy hay không?
- g. Cho đến thời điểm hiện tại, quý Thầy/Cô thường sử dụng tiếng Anh nhiều trong những trường hợp nào trong lớp?
- h. Quý Thầy/Cô có thể tự đánh giá việc sử dụng tiếng Anh để giảng dạy trong lớp học của mình? Quý Thầy/Cô nghĩ nó có hiệu quả hay không?
- i. Các em học sinh trả lời bằng tiếng Anh trong những tình huống nào?
- j. Quý Thầy/Cô có những chiến lược khuyến khích các em học sinh tăng cường sử dụng tiếng Anh trong lớp không? Nếu có, quý Thầy/Cô có thể chia sẻ.
- k. Theo quý Thầy/Cô, đâu là những nhân tố giới hạn bản thân sử dụng tiếng Anh để giảng dạy trong lớp?
- l. Quý Thầy/Cô có gợi ý gì cho Sở Giáo dục và Đào tạo về vấn đề này?

Quý Thầy/Cô được gì khi tham gia đề tài?

Tham gia đề tài sẽ không được trả thù lao.

Thông tin quý Thầy/Cô cung cấp sẽ được sử dụng như thế nào?

Thông tin quý Thầy/Cô cung cấp trong buổi phỏng vấn sẽ được sử dụng cải thiện việc ứng dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học tại Việt Nam.

Những rủi ro quý Thầy/Cô đối mặt khi tham gia đề tài?

Hầu như không có rủi ro khi tham gia đề tài. Tất cả các thông tin đều không lộ rõ danh tánh người tham gia và đều được bảo mật. Chỉ nghiên cứu sinh Trương Bảo Duy và 3 Giáo sư hướng dẫn được quyền tiếp cận dữ liệu. Dữ liệu sẽ được giữ cẩn thận trong máy tính xách tay (có mật khẩu) của nghiên cứu sinh. Khi hoàn thành đề tài, tất cả dữ liệu sẽ được chép vào CD và được bảo mật an toàn tại trường Đại học Victoria.

Dự án sẽ được tiến hành như thế nào?

Dự án sẽ trải qua 4 giai đoạn:

Giai đoạn (1): tham khảo tài liệu và các chủ trương, chính sách; (2) khảo sát trực tuyến; (3) phỏng vấn; (4) dự giờ giáo viên

Ai là người thực hiện dự án nghiên cứu?

Dự án được thực hiện bởi:

Nghiên cứu sinh Trương Bảo Duy

Điện thoại: +61 470 344 930 hay +84 91 949 1183

Email: bao.truong6@live.vu.edu.au

GS hướng dẫn:

1. GS.TS. Tarquam Mckenna
Giám đốc nghiên cứu
Quản lý học thuật – phụ trách về quan hệ quốc tế và sinh viên
Khoa nghệ thuật và giáo dục
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2. PGS.TS. Fiona Henderson
Phụ trách chuyên môn, hỗ trợ sinh viên
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3. TS. Oksana Razoumova

Giảng viên tiếng Anh
Khoa nghệ thuật và giáo dục
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Email: oksana.razoumova@vu.edu.au

Quý Thầy/Cô có thể liên hệ với GS hướng dẫn đề tài nếu có thắc mắc về việc tham gia đề tài.

Nếu có bất kỳ thắc mắc hay than phiền nào, quý Thầy/Cô có thể liên hệ Ban thư ký, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Văn phòng nghiên cứu, trường Đại học Victoria, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001, qua email Researchethics@vu.edu.au hay qua điện thoại +61 3 9919 4781 hay 4461.

Appendix 3: Information to participants involved in research (attached to classroom observations)

You are invited to participate

You are invited to participate in a research project entitled **English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) Primary Schools in Vietnam: Policies and Implementation**.

This project is being conducted by Duy Bao Truong as part of a PhD study at Victoria University under the supervision of Prof. Tarquam Mckenna, Assoc. Prof. Fiona Henderson and Dr. Oksana Razoumova from the College of Arts and Education.

Project explanation

The use of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) classrooms is vital to enhance students' English skills. The earlier that EMI is engaged in teaching, the better EFL students can improve their English skills. This research aims to explore the perceptions of English language primary school teachers towards the implementation of EMI in Vietnam and to analyse the use of EMI in EFL classrooms as well as the extent to which students respond in English. Developing an evidentiary basis for addressing the current understanding of the application of EMI in primary schools will assist in developing customised teacher training which will be beneficial to primary teachers of English. A mixture of qualitative and quantitative methods, including document reviews, online surveys, face-to-face semi-structured interviews and classroom observations in Vietnam, will be employed for data collection.

What will I be asked to do?

I would like to observe one period of your teaching. The observation will take approximately 40 minutes. Notes will be taken during my observation. Prior to my observation, you will be asked to sign a consent form which indicates that you allow me to observe your teaching practice. Your agreement is completely voluntary. You may refuse to participate in this project or withdraw at any time without penalty. Besides, you are able to contact Prof. Tarquam Mckenna, a Registered Psychotherapist and an Honorary Life Member of ANZATA – the peak body in Australia for Registering of Arts Psychotherapists cum a Chief Investigator of this study for counselling via his email address: Tarquam@gmail.com.

What will I gain from participating?

There is no payment or reimbursement to participants.

How will the information I give be used?

The information collected from classroom observations will be used to improve the implementation of EMI in EFL primary school classrooms in Vietnam.

What are the potential risks of participating in this project?

There are no risks in this project. All the data is anonymous and will be treated confidential. Only Duy Bao Truong and his three supervisors will be able to have access to the data. The data will be kept in his laptop with files protected by the required password. Upon the completion of the project, the data will be put in a CD and kept confidential in a safe place in Victoria University.

How will this project be conducted?

This project will undergo the following stages:

- Stage 1: Review documents;
- Stage 2: Conduct an online survey;
- Stage 3: Interviewing participants; and,
- Stage 4: Conducting classroom observations.

Who is conducting the study?

The study is being conducted by:

PhD candidate: Mr. Duy Bao Truong
Telephone: +61 470 344 930 or +84 91 949 1183
Email: bao.truong6@live.vu.edu.au

Chief Investigators:

1. Prof. Tarquam Mckenna
Director of Research
Academic Manager – International Strategies, Partnerships and Students
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2. Assoc. Prof. Fiona Henderson
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3. Dr. Oksana Razoumova
TESOL Lecturer
College of Arts and Education
Victoria University
Email: oksana.razoumova@vu.edu.au

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to the Chief Investigator listed above.

If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Ethics Secretary, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Office for Research, Victoria University, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001, email researchethics@vu.edu.au or phone +61 3 9919 4781 or 4461.

THÔNG TIN DÀNH CHO QUÝ THẦY/CÔ THAM GIA NGHIÊN CỨU (được đính kèm vào bảng cam kết đồng ý cho thành viên nghiên cứu dự giờ)

Quý Thầy/Cô được mời tham gia

Chúng tôi trân trọng kính mời quý Thầy Cô tham gia đề tài **“Sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học tại Việt Nam: Chính sách và phương thức thực hiện”**.

Đề tài này do Trương Bảo Duy, nghiên cứu sinh bậc Tiến sỹ tại trường Đại học Victoria thực hiện dưới sự hướng dẫn của GS.TS. Tarquam Mckenna, PGS.TS. Fiona Henderson và TS. Oksana Razoumova thuộc khoa Nghệ thuật và Giáo dục.

Trình bày về đề tài

Sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh đóng vai trò vô cùng quan trọng góp phần nâng cao kỹ năng ngoại ngữ cho học sinh. Giáo viên sử dụng càng nhiều tiếng Anh trong lớp thì học sinh phát triển kỹ năng tiếng Anh càng tốt hơn. Đề tài này nhằm tìm hiểu cảm nhận và suy nghĩ của giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học về việc sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy tại Việt Nam, phân tích việc giáo viên sử dụng phương pháp này cũng như xem xét những hoạt động trong lớp các em học sinh sử dụng tiếng Anh để trả lời. Nắm rõ được tình hình sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bậc tiểu học tại Việt Nam sẽ giúp cải thiện những khóa học phát triển chuyên môn giáo viên về chủ đề này mang lại nhiều lợi ích hơn cho giáo viên tiếng Anh. Phương pháp định tính và định lượng, bao gồm: việc nghiên cứu chính sách, bảng hỏi, phỏng vấn và dự giờ, sẽ được thực hiện trong quá trình thu thập số liệu.

Quý Thầy/Cô sẽ được yêu cầu làm gì?

Chúng tôi muốn được dự giờ 1 tiết dạy của quý Thầy/Cô. Dự giờ sẽ kéo dài 40 phút. Chúng tôi sẽ ghi chép lại những hoạt động diễn ra trong lớp học khi dự giờ. Trước lúc dự giờ, quý Thầy/Cô sẽ được yêu cầu ký tên vào phiếu cam kết nhằm đảm bảo quý Thầy/Cô cho phép chúng tôi tham gia dự giờ. Việc đồng ý là hoàn toàn tự nguyện. Quý Thầy/Cô có thể từ chối cho chúng tôi dự giờ mà hoàn toàn không ảnh hưởng gì đến bản thân. Bên cạnh đó, quý Thầy/Cô có thể liên hệ GS.TS. Tarquam Mckenna xin tư vấn qua email: Tarquam@gmail.com. GS.TS. Tarquam Mckenna là chuyên gia điều trị bằng biện pháp tâm lý và Ông cũng là thành viên danh dự trọn đời của tổ chức ANZATA – tổ chức tối cao tại Úc phụ trách kết nạp các chuyên gia điều trị bằng biện pháp tâm lý cho lĩnh vực khoa học nghệ thuật kiêm GS phụ trách đề tài.

Quý Thầy/Cô được gì khi tham gia đề tài?

Tham gia đề tài sẽ không được trả thù lao.

Thông tin quý Thầy/Cô cung cấp sẽ được sử dụng như thế nào?

Thông tin ghi chép trong quá trình dự giờ sẽ được sử dụng cải thiện việc ứng dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học tại Việt Nam.

Những rủi ro quý Thầy/Cô đối mặt khi tham gia đề tài?

Hầu như không có rủi ro khi tham gia đề tài. Tất cả các thông tin đều không lộ rõ danh tánh người tham gia và đều được bảo mật. Chỉ nghiên cứu sinh Trương Bảo Duy và 3 Giáo sư hướng dẫn được quyền tiếp cận dữ liệu. Dữ liệu sẽ được giữ cẩn thận trong máy tính xách tay (có mật khẩu) của nghiên cứu sinh. Khi hoàn thành đề tài, tất cả dữ liệu sẽ được chép vào CD và được bảo mật an toàn tại trường Đại học Victoria.

Dự án sẽ được tiến hành như thế nào?

Dự án sẽ trải qua 4 giai đoạn:

Giai đoạn (1): tham khảo tài liệu và các chủ trương, chính sách; (2) khảo sát trực tuyến; (3) phỏng vấn; (4) dự giờ giáo viên

Ai là người thực hiện dự án nghiên cứu?

Dự án được thực hiện bởi:

Nghiên cứu sinh Trương Bảo Duy

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Quý Thầy/Cô có thể liên hệ với GS hướng dẫn đề tài nếu có thắc mắc về việc tham gia đề tài.

Nếu có bất kỳ thắc mắc hay than phiền nào, quý Thầy/Cô có thể liên hệ Ban thư ký, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Văn phòng nghiên cứu, trường Đại học Victoria, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001, qua email Researchethics@vu.edu.au hay qua điện thoại +61 3 9919 4781 hay 4461.

Appendix 4: Online survey



This online survey is intended to obtain information about your perceptions of the implementation of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in your English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) Primary School Classrooms in Vietnam. The purpose is to clarify your adoption of EMI and the extent to which your students respond in English. Please read the directions carefully and answer the questions in each section. There are five sections in this survey. It should take approximately 15 minutes to complete it.

Section 1

Demographics and General Information

Please place a mark (X) for the correct response for each item:

1. Your gender ☐ Male ☐ Female
2. Your age
☐ < 26 ☐ 31 to 35
☐ 26 to 30 ☐ > 35
3. Your highest qualification earned
☐ College degree ☐ Master
☐ Bachelor degree ☐ Other: please specify
4. Based on “English Language Proficiency Framework for Vietnam”, your current English level is
☐ Level 1 (equivalent to A1 in Common European Framework of Reference or “CEFR”)
☐ Level 2 (equivalent to A2 in CEFR)
☐ Level 3 (equivalent to B1 in CEFR)
☐ Level 4 (equivalent to B2 in CEFR)
☐ Level 5 (equivalent to C1 in CEFR)
☐ Unspecified

5. The number of years you have been teaching as a teacher of English is
- ☐ > 1 to < 3 ☐ 6 to 10
- ☐ 3 to < 6 ☐ > 10
6. The number of years you have been teaching in EFL primary school classrooms is
- ☐ < 1 ☐ 4 to 6
- ☐ 1 to < 4 ☐ > 6
7. You are currently a primary school teacher of English in
- ☐ Province A ☐ Province C
- ☐ Province B ☐ Other
8. On average, how many students are there in your EFL classrooms?
- ☐ < 30 ☐ 36 to 40
- ☐ 30 to 35 ☐ > 40
9. From my point of view, the ideal number of students in EFL primary school classrooms is
- ☐ < 20 ☐ 31 to 35
- ☐ 20 to 25 ☐ > 35
- ☐ 26 to 30 ☐ Other: please specify
10. How often do you attend general teacher training programs?
- ☐ Monthly ☐ Annually
- ☐ Quarterly ☐ Other: please specify
- ☐ Bi-annually
11. Have their general teacher training programs catered for your demands?
- ☐ Yes ☐ No
- ☐ Not much ☐ It depends on the training
12. Who initiates your teacher training programs? Please tick all that apply

- ☐ Teachers
- ☐ School principals
- ☐ Leaders from Units of Education and Training
- ☐ Leaders from Departments of Education and Training
- ☐ Leaders from Vietnam's National Foreign Languages 2020 Project
- ☐ Others (such as: private providers): please specify

13. Have you attended training sessions specifically addressing the use of English as a Medium of Instruction in EFL classrooms?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No

Section 2

EFL Primary School Teachers' Perceptions of the Implementation of EMI in Classrooms in Vietnam

On the 5-point Likert scale provided, please indicate the degree to which you agree with each statement. The number on the scale denotes the following beliefs: (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neutral, (4) agree, and (5) strongly agree.

Please mark (X) the appropriate response for each statement	Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Neutral (3)	Agree (4)	Strongly agree (5)
Using EMI helps EFL primary school students to					
generally improve their English skills efficiently.	1	2	3	4	5
enhance their English language proficiency.	1	2	3	4	5
maximise their exposure to English.	1	2	3	4	5
better their listening skills.	1	2	3	4	5
better their speaking skills.	1	2	3	4	5
generally become more confident.	1	2	3	4	5
interact with their EFL teachers and peers in English.	1	2	3	4	5
practise their thinking in English.	1	2	3	4	5
engage more in-class EFL activities.	1	2	3	4	5
memorise English words and lessons easily.	1	2	3	4	5
improve their pronunciation.	1	2	3	4	5
become dynamic whilst still young English language learners.	1	2	3	4	5
Using EMI					
helps create an authentic English environment.	1	2	3	4	5

makes me a more confident English language teacher in my EFL classrooms.	1	2	3	4	5
makes me practise my English everyday.	1	2	3	4	5
is cost-effective for my students' learning.	1	2	3	4	5
requires that I spend more time preparing lessons.	1	2	3	4	5
develops my own proficiency, so I can know what to say in my classrooms.	1	2	3	4	5
highly motivates me to improve my teaching skill.	1	2	3	4	5

Section 3

The Extent to Which EFL Primary School Teachers Use EMI in their Classrooms

Please mark (X) all that apply

In my EFL primary school classrooms, I use English when I

<input type="checkbox"/>	greet my students.
<input type="checkbox"/>	check my students' attendance.
<input type="checkbox"/>	give my students instructions.
<input type="checkbox"/>	review previous lessons.
<input type="checkbox"/>	offer warm-up activities.
<input type="checkbox"/>	ask my students questions.
<input type="checkbox"/>	communicate lesson content.
<input type="checkbox"/>	teach my students vocabulary.
<input type="checkbox"/>	have my students listen and repeat new words.
<input type="checkbox"/>	check my students' understanding of lessons.

<input type="checkbox"/>	teach them grammar and structures.
<input type="checkbox"/>	offer them drills for practice.
<input type="checkbox"/>	assess my students and give them feedback.
<input type="checkbox"/>	tell stories.
<input type="checkbox"/>	use role-play.
<input type="checkbox"/>	have them play games.
<input type="checkbox"/>	give my students homework assignments.
<input type="checkbox"/>	manage classroom behaviours.
<input type="checkbox"/>	interact with my students.
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other ideas: Please specify - - - - -

Section 4

The Extent to Which EFL Primary School Students Respond in English

Please mark (X) all that apply

In my EFL primary school classrooms, my students respond in English when

<input type="checkbox"/>	I greet them.
<input type="checkbox"/>	I check their attendance.
<input type="checkbox"/>	they practise drills in pairs or groups.
<input type="checkbox"/>	they discuss in pairs or groups.
<input type="checkbox"/>	they role-play.
<input type="checkbox"/>	they play games.
<input type="checkbox"/>	they interact with me and others.
<input type="checkbox"/>	they ask me for assistance.
<input type="checkbox"/>	they answer my questions.
<input type="checkbox"/>	they do their exercises.
<input type="checkbox"/>	they read dialogues or conversations.
<input type="checkbox"/>	they tell stories.
<input type="checkbox"/>	they summarise the content of lessons or stories.
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other ideas: Please specify - - - - -

Section 5

Implications for Teachers Using EMI in EFL Primary School Classrooms in Vietnam

1. I use EMI in my EFL primary school classrooms because (please mark all that apply)

<input type="checkbox"/>	I feel confident.
<input type="checkbox"/>	my English language proficiency level is good enough.
<input type="checkbox"/>	I receive strong support from DOETs, schools and parents.
<input type="checkbox"/>	I am provided with sufficient professional development training on the use of EMI.
<input type="checkbox"/>	I am financially supported to engage in teacher training programs which are necessary for my teaching career and cater for my real learning demands.
<input type="checkbox"/>	it inspires my students to learn.
<input type="checkbox"/>	the school's syllabus does not create pressure for me.
<input type="checkbox"/>	I am able to have access to needed materials and resources.
<input type="checkbox"/>	my classrooms are well-equipped with teaching aids that facilitate my teaching.
<input type="checkbox"/>	it focuses more on listening and speaking skills.
<input type="checkbox"/>	my students are provided with online programs for their additional practice at home.
<input type="checkbox"/>	class size is smaller so that I can better manage students' activities.
<input type="checkbox"/>	besides teaching, I am not required to do other extra-curricular school activities.
<input type="checkbox"/>	I can have more time with my students.
<input type="checkbox"/>	Other ideas: Please specify - - - -

2. Your thoughts on EMI in EFL classrooms are very important. What are your recommendations to improve the implementation of EMI in EFL primary school classrooms across Vietnam? Please offer any insights into EMI that have occurred to you.

-
-

-
-
-

Thank you very much for spending your time completing this survey. Your assistance is highly appreciated.

BẢNG KHẢO SÁT

Sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học tại Việt Nam: Chính sách và phương thức thực hiện

Bảng khảo sát trực tuyến này nhằm thu thập thông tin về cảm nhận của quý Thầy/Cô về việc sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học tại Việt Nam. Mục tiêu của đề tài là làm rõ việc sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy và tìm hiểu những tình huống trong lớp học sinh trả lời bằng tiếng Anh. Quý Thầy/Cô hãy đọc kỹ hướng dẫn và trả lời các câu hỏi theo hướng dẫn. Có tổng cộng 5 phần trong bảng khảo sát. Quý Thầy/Cô sẽ mất khoảng 15 phút hoàn thành bảng khảo sát này.

Phần 1

Thông tin chung

Hãy đánh dấu vào câu trả lời đúng của quý Thầy/Cô

1. Giới tính ☐ Nam ☐ Nữ
2. Độ tuổi ☐ < 26 ☐ từ 31 đến 35
☐ từ 26 đến 30 ☐ > 35
3. Bằng cấp cao nhất ☐ Cao đẳng ☐ Thạc sỹ
☐ Đại học ☐ Bằng cấp khác, hãy nêu rõ: ...
4. Dựa theo “Khung năng lực tiếng Anh dành cho Việt Nam”, trình độ tiếng Anh hiện tại của quý Thầy/Cô ở
☐ Cấp độ 1 (tương đương A1 theo khung tham chiếu của Châu Âu)
☐ Cấp độ 2 (tương đương A2 theo khung tham chiếu của Châu Âu)
☐ Cấp độ 3 (tương đương B1 theo khung tham chiếu của Châu Âu)
☐ Cấp độ 4 (tương đương B2 theo khung tham chiếu của Châu Âu)
☐ Cấp độ 5 (tương đương C1 theo khung tham chiếu của Châu Âu)
☐ Chưa xác định
5. Số năm kinh nghiệm quý Thầy/Cô dạy tiếng Anh là:
☐ > 1 năm đến < 3 năm ☐ từ 6 đến 10 năm
☐ 3 năm đến < 6 năm ☐ > 10 năm

6. Số năm kinh nghiệm quý Thầy/Cô dạy tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học là
☐ < 1 năm ☐ từ 4 đến 6 năm
☐ từ 1 đến < 4 năm ☐ > 6 năm
7. Hiện nay, quý Thầy/Cô là giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học tại
☐ Tỉnh A ☐ Tỉnh C
☐ Tỉnh B ☐ Tỉnh khác
8. Trung bình có khoảng bao nhiêu học sinh trong lớp tiếng Anh của quý Thầy/Cô?
☐ < 30 ☐ từ 36 đến 40
☐ từ 30 đến 35 ☐ > 40
9. Theo quan điểm của quý Thầy/Cô, số lượng học sinh lý tưởng trong lớp tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học là:
☐ < 20 ☐ từ 31 đến 35
☐ từ 20 đến 25 ☐ > 35
☐ từ 26 đến 30 ☐ Ý kiến khác, hãy nêu rõ: ...
10. Thường thì bao lâu quý Thầy/Cô mới tham gia những chương trình phát triển chuyên môn giáo viên?
☐ Hàng tháng ☐ Mỗi năm 1 lần
☐ 3 tháng 1 lần ☐ Ý kiến khác, hãy nêu rõ: ...
☐ 6 tháng 1 lần
11. Những chương trình phát triển chuyên môn giáo viên có đáp ứng nhu cầu của quý Thầy/Cô không?
☐ Có ☐ Không nhiều
☐ Không ☐ Tùy từng chương trình
12. Ai là người đề xuất ra những chương trình phát triển chuyên môn giáo viên? Hãy đánh dấu tất cả các đáp án phù hợp
☐ Quý Thầy/Cô
☐ Lãnh đạo trường
☐ Lãnh đạo phòng
☐ Lãnh đạo Sở
☐ Ban đề án ngoại ngữ quốc gia 2020

☐ Những cá nhân khác (Ví dụ như các đơn vị tư nhân), hãy nêu rõ:

13. Quý Thầy/Cô có từng tham dự tập huấn về việc ứng dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh chưa?

☐ Đã từng

☐ Chưa từng

Phần 2

Quan điểm của quý Thầy/Cô về việc tăng cường sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh

Quý Thầy/Cô hãy cho biết mức độ bản thân đồng ý với từng quan điểm. (1) hoàn toàn không đồng ý, (2) không đồng ý, (3) không chắc, (4) đồng ý, và (5) hoàn toàn đồng ý.

Hãy chọn quan điểm phù hợp	Hoàn toàn không đồng ý (1)	Không đồng ý (2)	Không chắc (3)	Đồng ý (4)	Hoàn toàn đồng ý (5)
Sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện truyền đạt giúp học sinh bậc tiểu học					
phát triển các kỹ năng tiếng Anh của các em học sinh một cách hiệu quả.	1	2	3	4	5
tăng cường năng lực tiếng Anh của các em.	1	2	3	4	5
tối ưu hóa những điều kiện các em tiếp xúc với tiếng Anh.	1	2	3	4	5
cải thiện kỹ năng nghe của các em.	1	2	3	4	5
cải thiện kỹ năng nói của các em.	1	2	3	4	5
trở nên tự tin hơn.	1	2	3	4	5
tương tác với giáo viên và bạn học bằng tiếng Anh.	1	2	3	4	5
thực tập thói quen phản xạ và suy nghĩ bằng tiếng Anh.	1	2	3	4	5
tham gia nhiều hoạt động trong lớp.	1	2	3	4	5

ghi nhớ từ vựng và bài học dễ dàng hơn.	1	2	3	4	5
cải thiện phát âm cho các em.	1	2	3	4	5
trở nên những người học tiếng Anh trẻ tuổi và năng động.	1	2	3	4	5
Sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện truyền đạt					
giúp tạo môi trường tiếng Anh đúng nghĩa.	1	2	3	4	5
giúp giáo viên trở nên tự tin hơn trong lớp học.	1	2	3	4	5
giúp giáo viên thực hành tiếng Anh mỗi ngày.	1	2	3	4	5
rất hiệu quả và cần thiết cho các em học sinh học tập.	1	2	3	4	5
đòi hỏi bản thân tôi là giáo viên phải mất nhiều thời gian soạn bài.	1	2	3	4	5
phát triển năng lực tiếng Anh của bản thân, do đó, tôi sẽ biết sử dụng tiếng Anh như thế nào để giảng dạy trong lớp.	1	2	3	4	5
khuyến khích tôi không ngừng cải thiện kỹ năng giảng dạy của mình.	1	2	3	4	5

Phần 3

Những hoạt động quý Thầy/Cô sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh trong lớp.

Quý Thầy/Cô hãy đánh dấu tất cả những hoạt động phù hợp

Trong lớp, tôi sử dụng tiếng Anh khi

<input type="checkbox"/>	bước vào lớp và chào các em học sinh.
<input type="checkbox"/>	điểm danh.
<input type="checkbox"/>	chỉ dẫn cho các em học sinh.
<input type="checkbox"/>	ôn bài cũ.
<input type="checkbox"/>	đưa ra những hoạt động khởi động “warm-up activities”.
<input type="checkbox"/>	đặt những câu hỏi cho các em học sinh trả lời.
<input type="checkbox"/>	giảng giải về nội dung bài học.
<input type="checkbox"/>	dạy từ vựng.
<input type="checkbox"/>	yêu cầu các em lắng nghe và lặp lại từ vựng.
<input type="checkbox"/>	kiểm tra xem các em học sinh có hiểu bài hay không.
<input type="checkbox"/>	dạy các em học sinh văn phạm và cấu trúc.
<input type="checkbox"/>	đưa cho các em học sinh những tình huống hoặc mẫu câu để thực hành.
<input type="checkbox"/>	nhận xét và đánh giá các em học sinh.
<input type="checkbox"/>	kể chuyện.
<input type="checkbox"/>	đóng vai.
<input type="checkbox"/>	cho các em học sinh chơi trò chơi.
<input type="checkbox"/>	giao cho các em bài tập về nhà.
<input type="checkbox"/>	điều hành lớp.
<input type="checkbox"/>	tương tác với các em học sinh.

<input type="checkbox"/>	Ý kiến khác, hãy nêu rõ: ...
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Phần 4

Những hoạt động mà học sinh bậc tiểu học sử dụng tiếng Anh để trả lời

Quý Thầy/Cô hãy đánh dấu tất cả những hoạt động phù hợp

Trong lớp, các em học sinh bậc tiểu học sử dụng tiếng Anh khi

<input type="checkbox"/>	giáo viên bước vào lớp và chào các em.
<input type="checkbox"/>	giáo viên điểm danh.
<input type="checkbox"/>	thực hành những tình huống và mẫu câu theo cặp hay nhóm.
<input type="checkbox"/>	thảo luận theo từng cặp hay nhóm.
<input type="checkbox"/>	đóng vai.
<input type="checkbox"/>	chơi trò chơi.
<input type="checkbox"/>	tương tác với giáo viên và những người khác.
<input type="checkbox"/>	không hiểu bài và nhờ giáo viên giải thích.
<input type="checkbox"/>	trả lời câu hỏi của giáo viên.
<input type="checkbox"/>	làm bài tập.
<input type="checkbox"/>	đọc các mẫu đối thoại.
<input type="checkbox"/>	kể chuyện.
<input type="checkbox"/>	tóm lược lại nội dung bài học.
<input type="checkbox"/>	Ý kiến khác, hãy nêu rõ: ...
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Phần 5

Các gợi ý giúp giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học tại Việt Nam sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy

1. Tôi sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh vì (quý Thầy/Cô hãy đánh dấu tất cả những dữ liệu phù hợp)

<input type="checkbox"/>	bản thân tôi cảm thấy tự tin.
<input type="checkbox"/>	trình độ tiếng Anh của tôi phù hợp.
<input type="checkbox"/>	tôi nhận được sự hỗ trợ rất lớn từ lãnh đạo Sở, lãnh đạo trường và quý phụ huynh.
<input type="checkbox"/>	tôi được tham gia tập huấn đầy đủ về việc sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh.
<input type="checkbox"/>	tôi được hỗ trợ đầy đủ tài chính để tham gia những khóa học phát triển chuyên môn giáo viên mà bản thân tôi nhận thấy rất cần thiết cho nghề nghiệp và đáp ứng nhu cầu thật sự của tôi.
<input type="checkbox"/>	nó truyền cảm hứng cho các em học sinh học tập.
<input type="checkbox"/>	chương trình giảng dạy của trường không tạo áp lực cho bản thân tôi.
<input type="checkbox"/>	tôi có thể tiếp cận những nguồn tài liệu mà bản thân tôi cảm thấy cần thiết.
<input type="checkbox"/>	lớp học của tôi tham gia giảng dạy được trang bị đầy đủ những huấn cụ cần thiết.
<input type="checkbox"/>	phương pháp này tập trung nhiều vào kỹ năng nghe và nói.
<input type="checkbox"/>	các em học sinh có thể tham gia những chương trình trực tuyến hỗ trợ các em thực hành thêm tại nhà.
<input type="checkbox"/>	sĩ số lớp học nhỏ, vì thế tôi có thể điều hành các hoạt động của các em học sinh trong lớp tốt hơn.
<input type="checkbox"/>	ngoài công tác giảng dạy, tôi không phải tham gia vào những hoạt động ngoại khóa.
<input type="checkbox"/>	tôi có nhiều thời gian hơn với các em học sinh của tôi.
<input type="checkbox"/>	Ý kiến khác, hãy nêu rõ: ... - - - -

2. Suy nghĩ của quý Thầy/Cô về việc sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh rất quan trọng. Quý Thầy/Cô có đề xuất gì nhằm cải thiện việc sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học hiện nay tại Việt Nam? Quý Thầy/Cô hãy chia sẻ những suy nghĩ của mình về việc sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy mà quý Thầy/Cô đã trải nghiệm thực tế.

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Chân thành cảm ơn quý Thầy/Cô đã hoàn thành bảng khảo sát này.

Appendix 5: Interview consent form for participants involved in research

INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS:

We would like to invite you to be a part of a PhD study project entitled “English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) Primary Schools in Vietnam: Policies and Implementation”. This project is being conducted by Duy Bao Truong as part of a PhD study at Victoria University under the supervision of Prof. Tarquam Mckenna, Assoc. Prof. Fiona Henderson and Dr. Oksana Razoumova from the College of Arts and Education.

This project aims to investigate the perceptions and attitudes of English language primary school teachers towards the adoption of EMI in Vietnam and to analyse the use of EMI in EFL classrooms as well as the extent to which students respond in English. Developing an evidentiary basis for understanding the current uptake of applying English for instruction in primary schools will help to develop customised teacher-training which is more beneficial to the primary teachers of English. This project will undergo 4 stages, namely (1) document reviews; (2) online surveys; (3) face-to-face semi-structured interviews; (4) classroom observations. At this stage, you are invited to take part in a face-to-face semi-structured interview which will take approximately 20 to 30 minutes. We do not see any risks associated with your participation.

This consent form helps us ensure that you understand the aims of this research project and your purpose of involvement as well as that you agree to the conditions of your participation. The interview will be recorded and the transcript will be produced. You have the opportunity to edit the tape and/or stop the interview at any time. You will be sent the transcript and offered the opportunity to amend it. Access to the interview transcript will be limited to Duy Bao Truong and his three supervisors. Any summary interview content and direct quotations from the interview will be anonymous so that you cannot be identified and care will be taken to ensure that other information in the interview that could identify yourself is not revealed.

CERTIFICATION BY PARTICIPANT

I, _____

working at _____

certify that I am at least 18 years old and that I am voluntarily giving my consent to participate in the study named “English as a Medium of Instruction in English-as-a-Foreign-Language Primary School Classrooms in Vietnam: Policies and Implementation” being conducted at Victoria University by Duy Bao Truong.

I certify that the objectives of the study, together with any risks and safeguards associated with the procedures listed hereunder to be carried out in the research, have been fully explained to me by Duy Bao Truong and that I freely consent to participation involving the below mentioned procedure:

- Face-to-face semi-structured interview

I certify that I have had the opportunity to have any questions answered and that I understand that I can withdraw from this study at any time and that this withdrawal will not jeopardise me in any way. Besides, I am able to contact Prof. Tarquam Mckenna, a Registered Psychotherapist and an Honorary Life Member of ANZATA – the peak body in Australia for Registering of Arts Psychotherapists cum a Chief Investigator of this study for counselling via his email address: Tarquam@gmail.com.

I have been informed that the information I provide will be kept confidential.

Signed:

Date:

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to the researcher, Mr. Duy Bao Truong via his email address: bao.truong6@live.vu.edu.au or phone: +61 470 344 930 or +84 91 949 1183.

Chief Investigators:

1. Prof. Tarquam Mckenna
Director of Research
Academic Manager – International Strategies, Partnerships and Students
College of Arts and Education
Victoria University
Email: tarquam.mckenna@vu.edu.au
2. Assoc. Prof. Fiona Henderson
Manager, Academic Support and Development Portfolio of Dean of Students
College of Arts and Education
Victoria University
Email: fiona.henderson@vu.edu.au
3. Dr. Oksana Razoumova
TESOL Lecturer
College of Arts and Education
Victoria University
Email: oksana.razoumova@vu.edu.au

If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Ethics Secretary, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Office for Research, Victoria University, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001, email Researchethics@vu.edu.au or phone +61 3 9919 4781 or 4461.

PHIẾU CAM KẾT DÀNH CHO QUÝ THẦY/CÔ THAM GIA ĐỀ TÀI

THÔNG TIN DÀNH CHO QUÝ THẦY/CÔ:

Chúng tôi trân trọng kính mời quý Thầy/Cô tham gia đề tài **“Sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học tại Việt Nam: Chính sách và phương thức thực hiện”**. Đề tài này do Trương Bảo Duy, nghiên cứu sinh bậc Tiến sỹ tại trường Đại học Victoria thực hiện dưới sự hướng dẫn của GS.TS. Tarquam Mckenna, PGS.TS. Fiona Henderson và TS. Oksana Razoumova thuộc khoa Nghệ thuật và Giáo dục.

Đề tài này nhằm tìm hiểu cảm nhận và suy nghĩ của giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học về việc sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy tại Việt Nam, phân tích việc giáo viên sử dụng phương pháp này cũng như xem xét những hoạt động trong lớp các em học sinh sử dụng tiếng Anh để trả lời. Nắm rõ được tình hình sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bậc tiểu học sẽ giúp cải thiện những khóa học phát triển chuyên môn giáo viên về chủ đề này mang lại nhiều lợi ích hơn cho giáo viên tiếng Anh. Đề tài sẽ trải qua 4 giai đoạn. Giai đoạn (1): tham khảo tài liệu và các chủ trương, chính sách; (2) khảo sát trực tuyến; (3) phỏng vấn; (4) dự giờ giáo viên. Ở giai đoạn này, quý Thầy/Cô được mời tham gia phỏng vấn. Quá trình phỏng vấn sẽ kéo dài từ 20 đến 30 phút. Tham gia phỏng vấn hoàn toàn không gây ra bất kỳ rủi ro nào cho quý Thầy/Cô.

Phiếu cam kết này giúp chúng tôi đảm bảo quý Thầy/Cô hiểu rõ mục tiêu nghiên cứu của đề tài, vai trò của quý Thầy/Cô khi tham gia đề tài cũng như chắc chắn rằng quý Thầy/Cô đồng ý các điều kiện tham gia. Buổi phỏng vấn sẽ được ghi âm. Quý Thầy/Cô được quyền chỉnh sửa phần trả lời của mình và/hay ngừng buổi phỏng vấn bất kỳ lúc nào. Quý Thầy/Cô sẽ được nhận phần trả lời của mình và có quyền chỉnh sửa nó. Ngoài quý Thầy/Cô, chỉ có nghiên cứu sinh Trương Bảo Duy và 3 Giáo sư hướng dẫn đề tài được quyền xem qua phần trả lời phỏng vấn. Tất cả những thông tin mà quý Thầy/Cô trả lời đều được bảo mật và nếu thông tin được sử dụng trong đề tài cũng sẽ không tiết lộ danh tánh của quý Thầy/Cô. Chúng tôi xin cam kết là không ai có thể biết được quý Thầy/Cô tham gia đề tài.

XÁC NHẬN CỦA QUÝ THẦY/CÔ:

Tôi tên là: _____

Hiện đang công tác tại _____

xác nhận tôi tối thiểu 18 tuổi và đồng ý tham gia đề tài “Sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học tại Việt Nam: Chính sách và phương thức thực hiện” do nghiên cứu sinh Trương Bảo Duy thực hiện tại trường Đại học Victoria.

Tôi xác nhận là bản thân đã hiểu rõ mục tiêu nghiên cứu của đề tài và đã được nghiên cứu sinh Trương Bảo Duy giải thích rõ những rủi ro cũng như quy trình bảo mật thông tin. Tôi đồng ý tham gia phỏng vấn.

Tôi xác nhận khi tham gia phỏng vấn, tôi sẽ có cơ hội trả lời những câu hỏi được nghiên cứu sinh hỏi. Tôi hiểu rằng tôi có thể rút lui không tham gia tiếp buổi phỏng vấn và việc rút lui của tôi không gây ảnh hưởng gì cho bản thân. Bên cạnh đó, tôi có thể liên hệ GS.TS. Tarquam Mckenna xin tư vấn qua email: Tarquam@gmail.com. GS.TS. Tarquam Mckenna là chuyên gia điều trị bằng biện

pháp tâm lý và Ông cũng là thành viên danh dự trọn đời của tổ chức ANZATA – tổ chức tối cao tại Úc phụ trách kết nạp các chuyên gia điều trị bằng biện pháp tâm lý cho lĩnh vực khoa học nghệ thuật kèm GS phụ trách đề tài.

Tôi đã được thông báo tất cả thông tin tôi cung cấp trong quá trình phỏng vấn đều được bảo mật.

Đã ký:

Ngày:

Nếu có bất kỳ thắc mắc nào về việc tham gia đề tài này, quý Thầy/Cô có thể liên hệ nghiên cứu sinh Trương Bảo Duy qua email: bao.truong6@live.vu.edu.au hoặc qua điện thoại: +61 470 344 930 và +84 91 949 1183.

GS hướng dẫn:

1. GS.TS. Tarquam Mckenna
Giám đốc nghiên cứu
Quản lý học thuật – phụ trách về quan hệ quốc tế và sinh viên
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Trường Đại học Victoria
Email: tarquam.mckenna@vu.edu.au
2. PGS.TS. Fiona Henderson
Phụ trách chuyên môn, hỗ trợ sinh viên
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Trường Đại học Victoria
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3. TS. Oksana Razoumova
Giảng viên tiếng Anh
Khoa nghệ thuật và giáo dục
Trường Đại học Victoria
Email: oksana.razoumova@vu.edu.au

Nếu có bất kỳ thắc mắc hay than phiền nào, quý Thầy/Cô có thể liên hệ Ban thư ký, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Văn phòng nghiên cứu, trường Đại học Victoria, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001, qua email Researchethics@vu.edu.au hay qua điện thoại +61 3 9919 4781 hay 4461.

Appendix 6: Classroom observation consent form for participants involved in research

INFORMATION TO PARTICIPANTS:

We would like to invite you to be a part of a PhD study project entitled “Using English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) Primary Schools in Vietnam: Policies and Implementation”. This project is being conducted by Duy Bao Truong as part of a PhD study at Victoria University under the supervision of Prof. Tarquam Mckenna, Assoc. Prof. Fiona Henderson and Dr. Oksana Razoumova from the College of Arts and Education.

This project aims to investigate the perceptions and attitudes of English language primary school teachers towards the adoption of EMI in Vietnam and to analyse the use of EMI in EFL classrooms as well as the extent to which students respond in English. Developing an evidentiary basis for understanding the current uptake of applying English for instruction in primary schools will help to develop customised teacher-training which is more beneficial to the primary teachers of English. This project will undergo 4 stages, namely (1) document reviews; (2) online surveys; (3) face-to-face semi-structured interviews; (4) classroom observations. At this stage, we would like to observe one period of your teaching which will take approximately 40 minutes. We do not see any risks associated with our observation.

This consent form helps us ensure that you understand the aims of the research project and your purpose of involvement as well as that you agree to the conditions of your participation. Notes will be taken and the report will be produced. Access to the notes will be limited to Duy Bao Truong and his three supervisors. Your name and your students will be de-identified in the report.

CERTIFICATION BY PARTICIPANT

I, _____

teaching at _____

certify that I am at least 18 years old and that I am voluntarily giving my consent to participate in the study named “English as a Medium of Instruction in English-as-a-Foreign-Language Primary School Classrooms in Vietnam: Policies and Implementation” being conducted at Victoria University by Duy Bao Truong.

I certify that the objectives of the study, together with any risks and safeguards associated with the procedures listed hereunder to be carried out in the research, have been fully explained to me by Duy Bao Truong and that I freely consent to participation involving the below mentioned procedure:

- Classroom observation

I certify that I understand I can withdraw from this study at any time and that this withdrawal will not jeopardise me in any way. Besides, I am able to contact Prof. Tarquam Mckenna, a Registered Psychotherapist and an Honorary Life Member of ANZATA – the peak body in Australia for

Registering of Arts Psychotherapists cum a Chief Investigator of this study for counselling via his email address: Tarquam@gmail.com.

I have been informed that the information I provide will be kept confidential.

Signed:

Date:

Any queries about your participation in this project may be directed to the researcher, Mr. Duy Bao Truong via his email address: bao.truong6@live.vu.edu.au or phone: +61 470 344 930 or +84 91 949 1183.

Chief Investigators:

1. Prof. Tarquam Mckenna
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Academic Manager – International Strategies, Partnerships and Students
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2. Assoc. Prof. Fiona Henderson
Manager, Academic Support and Development Portfolio of Dean of Students
College of Arts and Education
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3. Dr. Oksana Razoumova
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College of Arts and Education
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Email: oksana.razoumova@vu.edu.au

If you have any queries or complaints about the way you have been treated, you may contact the Ethics Secretary, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Office for Research, Victoria University, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001, email Researchethics@vu.edu.au or phone +61 3 9919 4781 or 4461.

PHIẾU ĐỒNG Ý CHO THAM GIA DỰ GIỜ

THÔNG TIN DÀNH CHO QUÝ THẦY/CÔ:

Chúng tôi trân trọng kính mời quý Thầy/Cô tham gia đề tài **“Sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học tại Việt Nam: Chính sách và phương thức thực hiện”**. Đề tài này do Trương Bảo Duy, nghiên cứu sinh bậc Tiến sỹ tại trường Đại học Victoria thực hiện dưới sự hướng dẫn của GS.TS. Tarquam Mckenna, PGS.TS. Fiona Henderson và TS. Oksana Razoumova thuộc khoa Nghệ thuật và Giáo dục.

Đề tài này nhằm tìm hiểu cảm nhận và suy nghĩ của giáo viên tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học về việc sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy tại Việt Nam, phân tích việc giáo viên sử dụng phương pháp này cũng như xem xét những hoạt động trong lớp các em học sinh sử dụng tiếng Anh để trả lời. Nắm rõ được tình hình sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bậc tiểu học sẽ giúp cải thiện những khóa học phát triển chuyên môn giáo viên về chủ đề này mang lại nhiều lợi ích hơn cho giáo viên tiếng Anh. Đề tài sẽ trải qua 4 giai đoạn. Giai đoạn (1): tham khảo tài liệu và các chủ trương, chính sách; (2) khảo sát trực tuyến; (3) phỏng vấn; (4) dự giờ giáo viên. Ở giai đoạn này, chúng tôi muốn dự giờ 1 tiết dạy khoảng 40 phút của quý Thầy/Cô. Việc dự giờ của chúng tôi sẽ không gây ra bất kỳ rủi ro nào cho quý Thầy/Cô.

Phiếu cam kết nào giúp chúng tôi đảm bảo rằng quý Thầy/Cô đã hiểu rõ mục tiêu nghiên cứu, lý do tham gia đề tài cũng như chắc chắn quý Thầy/Cô đã hiểu rõ về điều kiện tham gia đề tài. Chúng tôi sẽ ghi chép lại quá trình dự giờ và sẽ có 1 báo cáo. Chỉ có nghiên cứu sinh Trương Bảo Duy và 3 Giáo sư hướng dẫn đề tài được quyền xem qua nội dung ghi chép. Danh tánh của quý Thầy/Cô và học sinh quý Thầy/Cô đang dạy sẽ không được tiết lộ trong báo cáo.

XÁC NHẬN CỦA QUÝ THẦY/CÔ

Tôi tên là: _____

Hiện đang công tác tại _____

xác nhận tôi tối thiểu 18 tuổi và đồng ý tham gia đề tài “Sử dụng tiếng Anh là phương tiện giảng dạy bộ môn tiếng Anh bậc tiểu học tại Việt Nam: Chính sách và phương thức thực hiện” do nghiên cứu sinh Trương Bảo Duy thực hiện tại trường Đại học Victoria.

Tôi xác nhận là bản thân đã hiểu rõ mục tiêu nghiên cứu của đề tài và đã được nghiên cứu sinh Trương Bảo Duy giải thích rõ những rủi ro cũng như quy trình bảo mật thông tin. Tôi đồng ý cho dự giờ.

Tôi xác nhận tôi có thể từ chối không cho dự giờ và việc từ chối của tôi không gây ảnh hưởng gì cho bản thân. Bên cạnh đó, tôi có thể liên hệ GS.TS. Tarquam Mckenna xin tư vấn qua email: Tarquam@gmail.com. GS.TS. Tarquam Mckenna là chuyên gia điều trị bằng biện pháp tâm lý và Ông cũng là thành viên danh dự trọn đời của tổ chức ANZATA – tổ chức tối cao tại Úc phụ trách kết nạp các chuyên gia điều trị bằng biện pháp tâm lý cho lĩnh vực khoa học nghệ thuật kiêm GS phụ trách đề tài.

Tôi đã được thông báo tất cả thông tin trong quá trình dự giờ đều được bảo mật.

Đã ký:

Ngày:

Nếu có bất kỳ thắc mắc nào về việc tham gia đề tài này, quý Thầy/Cô có thể liên hệ nghiên cứu sinh Trương Bảo Duy qua email: bao.truong6@live.vu.edu.au hoặc qua điện thoại: +61 470 344 930 và +84 91 949 1183.

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Nếu có bất kỳ thắc mắc hay than phiền nào, quý Thầy/Cô có thể liên hệ Ban thư ký, Victoria University Human Research Ethics Committee, Văn phòng nghiên cứu, trường Đại học Victoria, PO Box 14428, Melbourne, VIC, 8001, qua email Researchethics@vu.edu.au hay qua điện thoại +61 3 9919 4781 hay 4461.