

TeachingEnglish

ELT Research Papers

An investigation into English Medium Instruction in higher education in Thailand and Vietnam

Nicola Galloway and Kari Sahan

In collaboration with



University
of Glasgow



UNIVERSITY OF
OXFORD

ISBN 978-0-86355-998-3

Published by the British Council

British Council
1 Redman Place
Stratford
London
E20 1JQ

2021

www.teachingenglish.org.uk/publications-research

Copyright remains with the authors.

TeachingEnglish

ELT Research Papers

An investigation into English Medium Instruction in higher education in Thailand and Vietnam

Nicola Galloway and Kari Sahan

About the authors

Nicola Galloway is Senior Lecturer in Education (TESOL) and Programme Director (MSc/MEd TESOL) at the University of Glasgow. Her research focuses on the pedagogical implications of the global spread of English and the global spread of English Medium Instruction (EMI) in higher education. She was awarded a previous British Council ELTRA grant to examine [EMI in East Asia](#) and has been involved in consultancy projects with the University of Tokyo to develop a series of Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) on [EMI](#) and [Global Englishes for EMI](#) for faculty development and will be returning in 2022 to further develop this programme as part of a JSPS (Japan Society for the Promotion of Science Fellowship). Nicola has published EMI research in journals such as Higher Education, the EAP Journal and the ELT Journal and is author of several books on the pedagogical implications of the globalisation of English. She is the editor of the British Council '[English in higher education](#)' paper, where she co-ordinated a team of literature review writers and conducted a feasibility study on the role of English in higher education. Nicola leads the online network [Teaching English and Teaching IN English in global contexts](#). (University of Glasgow: Nicola.galloway@glasgow.ac.uk)

Dr Kari Sahan holds a PhD in Applied Linguistics from the University of Oxford, Department of Education. Her research focuses on EMI, language education policy and classroom interaction. She is a researcher in the EMI Oxford Research Group and tutored on the MSc in Applied Linguistics for Language Teaching at the University of Oxford from 2017-2020. She co-authored the British Council [English in higher education](#) paper and is the assistant project lead for the online network [Teaching English and Teaching IN English in global contexts](#). Prior to starting her PhD studies, she worked at the Turkish Fulbright Commission in Ankara. (University of Oxford: kari.sahan@education@ox.ac.uk)

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to acknowledge contributions to this project by several people who helped create initial links with participating universities. We would like to thank our contacts and also our participants.

Thanks also go to Joanne DeWitt for transcribing and organising the data in a highly professional manner. We are also grateful for the assistance provided by the British Council in Vietnam and Thailand.

Abbreviations

EME	English Medium Education
EMI	English Medium Instruction
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
CLIL	Content and language integrated learning
CBI	Content-based instruction
CBLT	Content-based language teaching
ELT	English language teaching
MoI	Medium of instruction
L1	First language
AP	Advanced Programme (in Vietnam)
JP	Joint Programme (in Vietnam)
HQP	High Quality Programme (in Vietnam)
HEI	Higher education institution
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

Contents

1	<u>Summary</u>	9
	What is the study about?.....	9
	How was data for the report collected?.....	9
	What are the main findings?	9
	What are the main implications/recommendations of the study?	9
2	<u>Introduction</u>	11
	Definitions.....	11
	Driving forces and perceived benefits	12
	Challenges to EMI.....	12
	Approaches to EMI.....	13
3	<u>Rationale for the study</u>	13
4	<u>Literature review</u>	14
	Internationalisation of higher education in Southeast Asia.....	15
	EMI research in the Vietnamese and Thai contexts.....	17
5	<u>Research focus, data collection and analysis methods</u>	19
	Data collection.....	19
	Analysing the data	21
	Ethics and limitations.....	22
6	<u>Sample</u>	23
	Questionnaire.....	23
	Interviews	24
	Focus groups.....	25
7	<u>Findings</u>	26
	Questionnaire results	26
	Interview results	30
	Focus group results	36
8	<u>Summary of findings and discussion</u>	39
	How is EMI approached?.....	39
	How are English and other languages used in EMI programmes?.....	39
	What are the main driving forces behind EMI policy?	40
	What are staff and student attitudes towards EMI?	40
9	<u>Implications and recommendations</u>	41
	Entrance requirements.....	41
	Language support	41
	Teacher recruitment and training	42
	The EMI curriculum.....	42
	Language use	43
	EMI and educational access and equity.....	44
	Research-informed policy	44
	Establishment of a community of practice	44

Conclusion	45
References	46
Appendices	49
Appendix 1: Table of participants.....	49
Appendix 2: Students’ demographic information (questionnaire).....	50
Appendix 3: Teachers’ demographic information (questionnaire)	51
Appendix 4: Online network resources	52
Appendix 5: Online network research.....	53
Appendix 6: Online network Vietnam	54
Appendix 7: Online network Thailand.....	55
Appendix 8: Online network professional development.....	56

1

Summary

What is the study about?

With the rapid growth in English Medium Instruction (EMI) programmes on a global level, EMI has become a worldwide phenomenon and a growing field of research. Provision, however, is out-pacing empirical research. This study responds to the need for in-depth, context-specific research. Building on a previous British Council project (Galloway et al., 2017) which explored EMI in higher education in East Asia, this study forms part of a second ELTRA award granted to Nicola Galloway to continue this research in Vietnam and Thailand. The study provides preliminary insights into EMI policy in these contexts, the driving forces behind EMI, how it is implemented, and the attitudes of core stakeholders towards this growing trend.

How was data for the report collected?

This report draws on data from multiple sources. Questionnaire data was collected from students (n=1,377) and teachers (n=231) on EMI programmes throughout Southeast Asia, primarily in Vietnam and Thailand. Qualitative data was also collected through interviews and focus groups with students, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) teachers, content teachers, and programme administrators at 17 universities in Vietnam and Thailand.

What are the main findings?

This study found:

Approaches to EMI

- Universities varied with respect to language proficiency requirements, curriculum design, and language support offered to students on EMI programmes.
- Self-access study options were the most commonly reported form of English support offered to students, and in-house training was the most common form of support for teachers.
- Most universities offered language support to students in the first one to two years of study, but limited support was available to students in the final years of their programme.

Language use in EMI

- Students and teachers differed in their reported English use in lectures, course materials, classes and exams.
- Teachers and students reported that the students' first language (L1) was used in EMI classes for a variety of purposes, including support of content learning.
- Across data sources, a tension was found between teachers' and students' beliefs that an English immersion setting would support language learning and that L1 use would improve content comprehension. Students and teachers appeared to support limited use of the L1 in EMI classes.

Driving forces

- Students' top reasons for enrolling in EMI programmes were future job opportunities, English learning opportunities, and study abroad opportunities.
- Statistically significant differences were found between students' and teachers' beliefs about language learning as a motivation for enrolling in EMI programmes.
- Teachers and students reported national, institutional and personal motivations for the expansion of EMI programmes in Southeast Asia, including the role of English as a global language, the desire to attract international students and enhanced employability.

Attitudes

- Teachers and students held positive attitudes toward EMI because of its perceived language learning benefits.
- Nonetheless, teachers and students reported a variety of challenges in EMI programmes.
- In focus groups, teachers and students disagreed on how best to address challenges in EMI programmes.

What are the main implications/recommendations of the study?

This report makes recommendations for EMI implementation with respect to:

- entrance requirements
- language support
- teacher recruitment and training
- EMI curricula
- language use
- EMI and educational access and equity
- research-informed policy.

2

Introduction

The transition to teach through the medium of English in higher education has become a global phenomenon that has witnessed significant growth over the last two decades. Educational models combining content and language learning are certainly not new, but the exponential growth of English Medium Instruction (EMI), or English Medium Education (EME), in universities around the world is unprecedented. Referred to as an ‘unstoppable train’ (Macaro, 2015, p. 7), European universities have seen a ten-fold increase in EMI provision over a 13-year period starting in 2001 (Wächter & Maiworm, 2014) and significant growth is also evident in Asia (Fenton-Smith et al., 2017). EMI is also increasingly referred to in national education policies across the world.

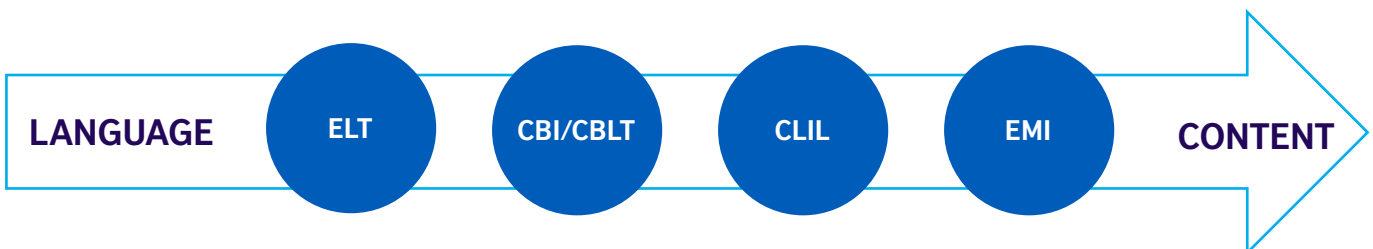
Definitions

Commonly defined as ‘the use of English language to teach academic subjects other than English itself in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English’ (Macaro, 2018: p. 19), EMI does not always explicitly state language learning goals. This distinguishes it, at the outset at least, from other approaches to teaching content through English such as content and language integrated learning (CLIL), content-based instruction (CBI) and content-based language teaching (CBLT). However, EMI policy is often closely

aligned with government goals to develop English language proficiency, particularly in emerging contexts such as Southeast Asia. The rapid expansion in EMI provision has also had a significant impact on the field of English language teaching (ELT) (see Galloway & Rose, 2021), with increased demand for EAP and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses.

EMI is a complex term, and policy is unfortunately often implemented in a top-down fashion with little consideration of the context, resources and stakeholders involved. Research suggests that different stakeholders conceptualise EMI in different ways along the content-language learning spectrum (Figure 1). Contexts vary, but EMI instructors have been found to rarely help students with their language-related challenges (Costa, 2012; Jiang, Zhang & May, 2016). They position themselves as instructors of content, not language, raising questions about the role of the EMI instructor and the focus of teacher training (Galloway & Rose, 2021). Students, however, have been found to view EMI as an opportunity to develop their English language skills, which many cite as their main reason for enrolling in EMI programmes (Bozdogan & Karlidag, 2013; Chapple, 2015; Galloway et al., 2017; 2020).

Figure 1: Continuum of EMI programmes (Galloway & Rose, 2021)



Driving forces and perceived benefits

Various driving forces exist, and these vary according to context. However, what is clear is that internationalisation is a major driver (see Curle et al, 2020 for an overview). English is often synonymous with internationalisation in higher education, and 'Englishing the curriculum can be a matter of policy interest, competitiveness, and even survival' at national, regional and institutional levels (Costa & Coleman, 2012, p. 3). In a drive to improve their international reputation and institutional rankings, many institutions put efforts into recruiting international students and staff and introducing or expanding EMI programmes. EMI has become an important indicator to rank universities in places such as China, where universities with at least ten per cent of their courses offered in EMI are rated as 'excellent' (Hu, Li & Lei, 2014).

Numerous perceived benefits of EMI have been identified at the national, institutional and individual levels. These include attracting revenue from international student fees, improving rankings, developing students' English skills and employability prospects, and providing access to specialised knowledge. As noted, EMI programmes do not always explicitly state language learning goals, yet EMI is often seen as providing a 'double benefit of subject knowledge and improved target language proficiency' (Coleman, 2006, pp. 4–5). It should be noted, however, that relatively few studies have empirically measured this supposed double benefit of language and content learning, and a growing number of studies cite the challenges that students face and call for support systems to be put in place (Briggs, Dearden & Macaro, 2018; Curle et al, 2020; Galloway et al., 2017; Galloway & Ruegg, 2020).

Challenges to EMI

A number of challenges have been identified in EMI programmes (see Curle et al, 2020 for an overview) and EMI growth has been noted to have produced 'more challenges than opportunities' (Williams, 2015, p. 1). In their examination of EMI policies in ten Asian countries, Hamid, Nguyen and Baldauf (2013, p. 11) concluded that EMI implementation is 'fraught with difficulties and challenges', highlighting a lack of suitable teaching staff, resources, support, and issues with language proficiency and methodology. Galloway et al. (2017, p. 24) group these challenges as:

- language-related challenges
- institutional/organisation challenges
- nationality/culture-related challenges
- materials-related challenges.

Among these four types of challenges, language-related challenges are commonly cited in EMI research. Debates over English language proficiency are controversial. Nevertheless, EMI lecturers' English proficiency is often the focus of heavy criticism, and there is a lack of consensus on the level of proficiency required to lecture in English (see Airey, 2011; O'Dowd, 2018). Students' language-related challenges include difficulty understanding their lecturers' English (Aizawa & Rose, 2019; Chang, Kim & Lee, 2017; Macaro et al., 2018) and issues with spontaneous speech production (Suzuki, Harada, Eguchi, Kudo & Moriya, 2017). Other issues include comprehending lengthy lectures, the volume of reading assigned (Taguchi & Naguma, 2006) and a lack of mastery of discipline-specific academic vocabulary (Evans & Morrison, 2011). Contexts vary, of course, and studies in more mature EMI contexts such as Northern Europe suggest that students can manage studying in English, although they sometimes need more time, are less communicative and often have comprehension difficulties (Airey, Lauridsen, Räsänen, Salö & Schwach, 2017).

Institutional challenges relate to hiring staff, language barriers for administrative staff, and a lack of pedagogical guidelines. Cultural challenges relate to concerns over the 'Englishisation' or 'westernisation' of higher education (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Curle et al., 2020; Doiz et al., 2013; Knight, 2008). Many university ranking systems certainly seem to favour those connected to 'native' English-speaking countries (Marginson & van der Wende, 2007) and, as noted, EMI is becoming an important indicator in university rankings.

Another challenge highlighted relates to resources. While EMI is claimed to provide access to specialised knowledge given that English occupies the lion's share of academic publications, this knowledge is not always accessible to students. In Vietnam, for example, Le (2012) and Vu and Burns (2014) highlight a lack of materials. Many EMI programmes are adopting foreign curricula, raising questions as to the relevance of foreign curricula for local contexts. Galloway et al. (2017) also discussed equity issues with EMI, raising concerns over an elite English-speaking class and preference in academic hiring practices for those who have obtained their doctorate abroad.

The different driving forces, the different ways in which EMI is conceptualised and the different challenges in each context have led to various policy implementations of EMI.

Approaches to EMI

EMI may be a global phenomenon, but it is being implemented in diverse ways. In some contexts, such as post-colonial contexts, English is often used as the medium of instruction (Mol) in primary and secondary schools. In other contexts, students may first encounter studying content through English at university, where there may be adjustment issues requiring more support. Lin and Morrison (2010), for example, found that students entering EMI university programmes in Hong Kong from L1 (Chinese) Mol secondary schools had lower levels of English vocabulary knowledge than those who studied through English at secondary school. Entrance requirements and the amount of language support offered to students also vary greatly (see Macaro, 2018 for models of EMI language support and also Curle et al, 2020 for an overview).

Moreover, the amount of English used in EMI programmes around the globe varies. While some universities enforce a strict English-only policy, others promote bi- or multilingual models (see Curle et al, 2020). Although a distinction is often made between full and partial EMI programmes (Pecorari & Malmström, 2018; Poon, 2013), definitions of 'partial' EMI vary according to context.

3

Rationale for the study

EMI in higher education is clearly a growing trend, but despite the many perceived benefits and increased provision, many challenges have been identified. At present, there remains a lack of empirical research to match the pace of policy implementation and provision. This is particularly true in Southeast Asia, where studies on EMI remain scarce. Our study follows up on Galloway's first ELTRA award (Galloway et al., 2017, 2020; Galloway & Ruegg, 2020), which focused on approaches to EMI implementation, the driving forces behind the expansion of EMI, stakeholders' attitudes and the role of English in EMI in East Asia. The study called for the establishment of a global online network for researchers, practitioners and policymakers to engage in research-informed discussions. An online community of practice has now been established (Teaching English and Teaching IN English in global contexts) to address many of the challenges identified in the study.

As Knagg (2013, p. 24) suggests, there is a 'monolithic fallacy' with EMI:

The first fallacy is that EMI is monolithic – there is just one type. This fallacy is generated by the (imagined) individual who sees, researches, understands one particular EMI context, and then transfers that context to other contexts inappropriately. It is difficult to adopt a generic policy approach to EMI without considering the specific situation.

Our overall aim with the current study was to address the need for empirical research on EMI in different contexts, particularly in Southeast Asia, where EMI policy is being promoted a great deal. As a response to the enactment of an Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) economic policy in 2015, English proficiency is seen as playing an important role in economic development and modernisation. As in Galloway et al. (2017), language proficiency is a core focus of EMI policy and it is an important feature of the internationalisation of higher education.

4

Literature review

Main findings

- EMI policy in Thailand and Vietnam is closely linked to goals to develop English proficiency. EMI policy in both contexts is criticised for being implemented in a top-down fashion.
- EMI research highlights a number of challenges, particularly language-related challenges and the relevance of foreign curricula and materials.
- Quality assurance is a core concern with growing EMI provision.
- EMI raises issues of equity and access to higher education.
- There is a call for more research with core stakeholders.

Internationalisation of higher education in Southeast Asia

Main driving forces behind the growth in EMI in Southeast Asia relate to the role of English, the ideology that EMI improves students' overall English proficiency and the internationalisation of higher education. As the de facto official working language of ASEAN, English plays a central role as a common lingua franca, furthered by moves to establish an ASEAN economic community (AEC). Economic growth has also been stimulated by the establishment of the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) and entry of several countries, including Vietnam, into the World Trade Organization (WTO). While growth in EMI is widespread across Southeast Asia, our study focuses on Thailand and Vietnam.

Thailand

A number of initiatives have impacted the growth of EMI in Thai higher education. Two 15-year plans (1990–2004; 2008–22) were proposed to internationalise higher education, improve the global competitiveness of Thai graduates, and contribute to the country's economic development. The first (1990–2004) led to the development of EMI, labelled as 'international programmes' in Thailand. The second plan (2008–22) responded to increased competitiveness in the ASEAN job market. In these initiatives, quality of education was associated with English, and EMI programmes were deemed essential to bring Thai higher education up to an international standard.

EMI, then, was popular by the 1990s, but provision has grown over the last three decades. In 1984, there were 14 programmes, rising to 520 in 2003 and to 981 in 2010 (Lavankura, 2013). Between 2004 and 2008, the number of programmes teaching in English at Thai universities almost doubled from 465 to 884 (Hengsadeeikul et al., 2010) and according to www.universityworldnews.com the number of officially registered joint degree programmes also more than doubled between 2012 and 2015. The number of universities offering such programmes also increased from 78 to around 100 in 2007 (Hengsadeeikul et al., 2014), and the Office of Higher Education Commission (2017, 2018) reports that there are 769 international programmes overall, which includes 20,497 international students. EMI growth is expected to continue and '[w]ith the importance of English as a world language, the Ministry of Education aims that all university classes in all subjects be conducted in English or adopt English-medium instruction' (Hengsadeeikul et al., 2010). While it mainly caters to a domestic cohort, Thailand is also a growing market in terms of international student enrolment, which places emphasis on EMI provision (see studyinthailand.org for a list of universities offering international programmes).

Various factors have influenced the growth of EMI in Thai higher education. Globalisation, the 1997 economic downturn and the role of the ASEAN community have enhanced the focus on developing English proficiency. After the 1997 economic crisis, Thai universities saw pressure to reform as more Thai students pursued international education at home, which was a much cheaper option. This created a local market for international education and, therefore, EMI. There was also an increased focus on English for employability, particularly as workforces became managed by foreign investors. EMI in Thailand, then, is clearly linked to the internationalisation agenda and overall goals to help students improve their English proficiency (Hengsadeekul et al., 2010; Lavankura, 2013). Students' motivation to enrol relates to pressures from the job market and the social status attached to such programmes (Hengsadeekul et al., 2010; Lavankura, 2013). The emphasis placed on English education has also increased as part of the agenda to develop the economy and to help integrate into the ASEAN community by 2015 (Office of the Higher Education Commission, 2010, p. 69, cited in Lavankura, 2013).

Vietnam

As in the Thai context, in an effort to enhance its human resources and economic development, a number of government initiatives in Vietnam have placed a significant emphasis on English. The 1986 economic reforms opened up Vietnam, and joining ASEAN in 1995 and the World Trade Organization in 2006 have also increased the demand for English in the country. English is seen as important both internally for the workforce and also in the region. Economic growth demands graduates with not only knowledge of their discipline, but also proficiency in English. International trade and foreign direct investment (FDI) enterprises have grown in the last three decades, and there is a growing demand for an English-speaking workforce. As in Thailand, EMI policy is also closely related to English proficiency goals (Le, 2012; Tran & Nguyen, 2018; Tri & Moskovsky, 2019). As Hamid et al. (2018) note:

Underlying the internationalisation agenda [in Vietnamese higher education] is the need to enhance the foreign language ability of the Vietnamese population, which is essential for pursuing the government's economic and

political ambitions.

The 'Englishisation of university programmes' (Tran & Nguyen, 2018, p. 98) started in the 1990s when the first EMI programmes were offered at the postgraduate level in collaboration with foreign institutions. Undergraduate programmes followed a decade later (Vietnam International Education Department, 2016). However, EMI provision has grown through recent policies to internationalise higher education as the Ministry of Education and Training has made efforts to improve students' English proficiency.

In 2005, the government initiated the Innovation in Vietnamese Higher Education (Decree number 14/2005/NQ-CP) project to upgrade higher education and develop the country. One of the proposals was to borrow materials and curricula from foreign countries to introduce Advanced Programmes (APs), which were seen as an important strategy to develop higher education between 2006 and 2020 (Nguyen & Tran, 2018). In 2008, the National Foreign Languages 2020 Project was introduced to improve English language education, and one of its five core objectives included the aim 'to develop and implement bilingual programmes' (Vu, 2017). The Strategy for Education Development for Vietnam 2011–2020 also highlights internationalisation as one of the eight initiatives to reform the nation's higher education system (Thủ Tướng Chính Phủ (Prime Minister), 2012, cited in Tran & Nguyen, 2018).

Such developments have led to the internationalisation of the curriculum via transnational curriculum partnerships and the establishment and expansion of EMI programmes at universities. As in Thailand, internationalisation and 'quality' of education appear to be synonymous with English, and EMI in Vietnam is often associated with imported foreign curricula.

There are three main types of EMI programmes in Vietnam:

1. APs, which import and adapt curricula from universities ranked in the top 200 and tend to attract higher ranked students
2. Joint Programmes (JPs), which relate to goals to develop transnational education programmes, providing a foreign-style programme domestically (Nguyen et al., 2017; Tran &

Nguyen, 2018)

3. domestic EMI programmes, known as High Quality Programmes (HQPs), which can only be offered by universities offering JPs and APs since they can use the curriculum, materials and assessment schemes of foreign partner higher education institutions (HEIs) as reference.

In 2018, there were 280 JPs, 33 APs and 55 HQPs (Tran & Nguyen, 2018). In 2016, 88 Vietnamese universities were in partnership with 255 overseas institutions from 33 countries (French- and 'native' English-speaking countries dominate), including 255 undergraduate and 255 postgraduate programmes, although only half of these are currently being run (Pham, 2016, cited in Nguyen & Tran, 2018).

EMI in the Vietnamese context is closely connected with goals to improve English proficiency and internationalise higher education. While provision is on the rise, 'Vietnam's EMI drive has been beset with issues at the macro- (governmental), meso- (institutional) and micro- (classroom) levels' (Nguyen et al., 2017, p. 37), and EMI policy has been criticised for being mandated and regulated in an ad hoc fashion (ibid.). APs are only available for high-achieving students, and concerns have been raised over the borrowing of foreign curricula that are not adapted for the local context, which Nguyen and Tran (2018, p. 28) note may lead 'to a huge waste of resources', calling for a more inward-looking approach to higher education reforms as well as the need for considerations over access and equity in HE.

EMI research in the Vietnamese and Thai contexts

National education policies in both Thailand and Vietnam are explicitly linked to EMI. However, these policy initiatives have resulted in a top-down implementation of EMI. While a lot of research elsewhere has found conflicting perspectives between policies and stakeholders' views towards EMI (Macaro et al., 2018), research investigating stakeholders' perceptions in Southeast Asia is rare. The lack of research in Thailand and Vietnam also suggests that EMI may not be implemented according to a detailed understanding of both the context and the complex process of introducing educational innovation. Scholars in both contexts have called for more research with core stakeholders to inform top-down macro-level policy implementation.

Our study aims to address this need for research and to enable programme developers and lecturers to make research-informed decisions in relation to EMI. First, we explore some of the few studies that have been conducted.

Vietnam

Vu and Burns's (2014) study with 16 Vietnamese university lecturers found that challenges implementing EMI related to the lecturers' English proficiency, which they felt may negatively affect the students' acquisition of both the English language and content. EMI policy was also criticised for being top-down. Le's (2012) review of relevant literature provides insights into EMI in Vietnamese higher education, concluding that the implementation of EMI is far from satisfactory. The Vietnamese education system is noted to be 'in the middle of a crisis' (p.118) and that while EMI is seen as a positive move by the MOET, 'this proposal is not likely to become reality in the current context of Vietnam' (ibid). 2020 was noted to be an ambitious goal and Le calls for more time for implementation and careful needs analysis and for the government, MOET and HEIs to 'sit together, thoughtfully discuss, and evaluate the potential difficulties that may be encountered in the implementation' given that '[a]n ambiguous plan without careful preparation is likely to result in failure' (p. 117), particularly due to 'the dearth of empirical research' (ibid). Specific calls are made for research exploring students' and teachers' perception of EMI in their program, potential difficulties encountered and measurements of language learning.

Tran and Nguyen's (2018) case study of an AP reports to draw on interviews with 12 executives, 26 academics and 17 student focus groups involving 66 Vietnamese students. Although the paper does not report on an empirical study, we highlight some of the main issues raised in the case study. Challenges related to staff and student English proficiency. Students appreciated the use of Vietnamese, but it made them question programme goals. Students enrolled to improve their English, although they did not see an improvement upon graduation and any improvement was not attributed to the EMI programme. English proficiency levels stated in policy were not adhered to and English language entry requirements were lowered to enable more enrolment. Students were also dissatisfied with the courses. The authors propose Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) level C1 for students on entry and C2 for staff, and call for the re-labelling

of the three types of programmes (AP, JP and HQP).

Nguyen, Walkinshaw and Pham (2017) also draw on data from a qualitative case study. Interviews with students, academics and executive-level managers highlighted challenges related to students' English upon entry, imported curricula, the 'poor' English proficiency of students and staff, and some teachers' unfamiliarity with EMI-focused pedagogy. Lecturers experienced challenges relating to their English proficiency when presenting new content and were unable to explain concepts in English. General English support courses were not helpful. Some EMI lecturers 'struggled' with their 'mandate' to teach English and content, and they called for TESOL training. The authors call for a detailed roadmap and timeline to implement EMI programmes which should be devised in consultation with relevant stakeholders.

Hamid et al.'s (2013) study explored MoI policy and practice in ten polities in Asia, one of which included Vietnam (see also Nguyen et al, 2016). This also reports on a case study using interviews, classroom observation, artefacts and document analysis. The study revealed concerns about quality assurance, which resonates with Phuong Pham (2012), who noted that self-governed HEIs often offer new programmes, such as HQPs for student fee generation, but that this is beyond the government's oversight capacity of HEIs' operation as well as quality of education. Issues were raised with lecturers' English proficiency, materials and teacher training. Quality was compromised due to the low English proficiency requirements set to recruit students, and the programmes also created a division between those teaching in English and those teaching in Vietnamese. Issues of educational access and inequality were also raised. The study concluded that '[w]hile the government is seeking reform, it should not force/allow institutions to change without adequate and timely structural support' (p. 681, Nguyen et al, 2016).

Hamid, Nguyen, Vannguyen and Huyen's (2018) study explores agency exercised by English language and content area teachers, drawing on three doctoral studies conducted in three universities in Vietnam. One of the policies examined to improve English was EMI policy, which was noted to have the dual goals of enhancing students' content knowledge and English proficiency, and affected the roles of the lecturers in the transition to deliver content through English. Lecturers implemented EMI in different ways, based on their language ability and understanding of the

policy. The second language-in-education policy examined was the adoption of the CEFR to set up minimal language proficiency standards for learners and teachers. While the policy states that university graduates will reach a specific CEFR level on graduation and university teachers should have C1, the authors note that 'these assumptions were poorly substantiated by evidence, leaving a policy contested space where the presence or lack of teacher agency is crucial for the policy enactment' (p. 107).

Tri and Moskovsky (2019) conducted a critical review of EMI-related policies in Vietnam, which provides an understanding of how Vietnamese policymakers have conceptualised EMI and how it should be implemented. The authors highlight that 'EMI specifically and internationalisation of the curriculum generally are seen as a remedy for the perceived crisis of quality in Vietnamese HE' (p. 1,320). Some of the findings highlight that EMI content lecturers are required to have C1 level on CEFR or an equivalent, but those graduating from overseas English-speaking universities are exempted. Students require B2 level on entry and those who cannot meet the requirements must take intensive English courses before they can be admitted. English also serves as a learning outcome requirement for graduates, who are expected to achieve a minimum of B2, IELTS 6.0 or TOEFL Paper-based 550 scores (p. 1,323). They highlight ambitious targets for attracting international students and that government guidelines sent to institutions interested in delivering EMI are criticised for being too general. These policies are also reported to stipulate that EMI courses should be conducted in English, with minimum Vietnamese, and they note that policy documents 'make it unequivocally clear that the use of the mother tongue should be avoided at all cost'. The authors also note the lack of mention of a possible collaboration between content lecturers and language instructors. The review concludes:

The nature of both EMI planning and implementation has been essentially top-down, from the macro level (the Ministries), with little or no proper consultation with agents/actors representing the meso and micro levels. p. 1,331

Thailand

Although not an empirical study, Lavankura (2013) provides an overview of the internationalisation of Thai higher education and illuminates the motivations of the government and of Thai universities in moving

towards internationalisation goals. International programmes are reportedly implemented to generate fee income and the growth in programmes only serves particular demographic groups.

Baker & Hüttner (2019) explored the beliefs about and practices in EMI in Austrian, English and Thai multilingual EMI universities. Using interviews and questionnaires with students and lecturers, their results with regards to the Thai setting revealed that lecturers focused on intelligibility rather than 'standard' English when communicating with their students, and while English was mainly used, Thai was often necessary to promote students' understanding.

Hengsadeekul, Koul and Kaewkuekool's (2014) quantitative study using a questionnaire explored the relationship between English language learning motivation and students' preference for EMI graduate programmes in nine different academic areas. The study revealed that students were instrumentally motivated, yet integrative goals were also positive. This led the authors to conclude that higher education policies regarding EMI should consider the values and beliefs of students as potential adopters of EMI and that learning environments which strongly support integrative and mastery goals and minimise conditions that create language anxiety would encourage the desire to study in EMI.

It is clear then that despite the growth in EMI and the various government initiatives related to EMI in national education policy, little empirical research has been conducted. Only a handful of studies report on empirical data and all call for more research with core stakeholders. This study responds to that call.

5

Research focus, data collection and analysis methods

Main methods

- This study investigated approaches to, language use in, driving forces behind and attitudes toward EMI in Southeast Asia.
- Data was collected from universities in Vietnam and Thailand using questionnaires, interviews and focus groups.

Data collection

The aims of the study

This study examined EMI in Southeast Asia. The aims of the study were to investigate:

- approaches to EMI implementation at HEIs
- driving forces behind EMI policy at HEIs and individual motivation for selecting EMI programmes
- stakeholders' attitudes toward EMI and its expansion in HE
- the role of English in EMI, including its use as an academic lingua franca
- gaps between theory and practice.

Although research on EMI is growing worldwide, Southeast Asia remains an under-researched context. By comparing EMI contexts and incorporating multiple perspectives, this study aims to contribute to EMI curriculum development and inform ELT/TESOL teacher training programmes.

The setting

Data for this study was collected from universities in Southeast Asia, with a focus on Vietnam and Thailand, using multiple data collection tools. Two questionnaires ([available to download on this webpage](#)) were distributed to students and teachers in EMI programmes, and interviews and focus groups were conducted with staff and students at 17 universities in Vietnam and Thailand. The universities have been anonymised and are referred to in this report by letter (University A–Q). Figure 2 shows the map of participating universities where qualitative data was collected.

Figure 2: Map of participating universities



While the questionnaire paints a broad picture of EMI expansion, the interviews and focus groups provide an in-depth analysis of how universities in Vietnam and Thailand have approached the EMI phenomenon. The qualitative data allows for a close look at staff and student perspectives on EMI programmes. Due to scheduling reasons, focus groups were only conducted in Vietnam.

Research design

This study was designed as a replication study of previous research on EMI in the East Asian context (Galloway et al., 2017). The research design was guided by the following research questions.

1. How is EMI approached?
2. How are English and other languages used in EMI programmes?
3. What are the main driving forces behind EMI policy?
4. What are staff and student attitudes towards EMI?

The second research question was added to reflect the findings of previous research on bilingual practices in EMI contexts (Rose & Galloway, 2019). To address these research questions, three main data

collection instruments were used in this study. A **questionnaire** ([available to download on this webpage](#)) was adapted based on previous research investigating students' and teachers' views on EMI (Galloway et al., 2017). Two items from the original questionnaires (Q12 and Q14) were changed to match the findings from Galloway et al.'s (2017) study, and two items (Q12-2 and Q21-2) concerning support for staff were added to the teacher questionnaire. The questionnaires were administered online using SurveyMonkey.com, and data was collected from 1,377 students and 231 teachers (Table 1, Appendix 1). Responses were anonymous, and participation was voluntary. Participants were informed of the research aims before completing the questionnaire.

Additionally, **97 interviews** and **14 focus groups** were conducted for this study. Interviews were conducted with 35 students, 31 EAP/ESP teachers, 28 content teachers and three administrative staff members from 15 universities. Six focus groups were conducted with students and eight focus groups were conducted with staff members (four focus groups with EAP teachers, two focus groups with content teachers and two focus groups with both EAP and content teachers) at eight universities in Vietnam. The focus groups ranged in size from three to seven participants.

Table 1: Research design summary

Data source	n
Questionnaires	1,608
Students	1,377
Teachers	231
Interviews	97
EAP teachers	31
Content teachers	28
Students	35
Programme administrators	3
Focus groups	14
EAP teachers	4
Content teachers	2
EAP and content teachers	2
Students	6

The instruments were piloted by the main researcher, who also collected data in person. The interviews were semi-structured in format, conducted by the main researcher alone in English, recorded and transcribed for analysis. The interview guides ([available to download on this webpage](#)) followed a set of common questions while allowing space for the researcher to ask follow-up questions to elicit more detailed responses. Similarly, focus groups were moderated by the main researcher, followed a semi-structured set of questions ([available to download on this webpage](#)), and were recorded and transcribed for analysis. All instruments were designed to elicit responses on approaches to EMI implementation, experiences with EMI programmes, attitudes toward the driving forces behind EMI policy, and student motivation for enrolling on EMI programmes. The instruments also investigated language use on EMI programmes, support options available to students and teachers, and participants' attitudes toward EMI.

Analysing the data

Quantitative analysis

Quantitative data collected from questionnaires was analysed using SPSS. Descriptive statistics were

used to summarise the data, and Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted to compare students' and teachers' beliefs. To determine the reliability of the questionnaire, Cronbach's alpha was calculated. High levels of internal consistency were found for the student ($\alpha = 0.90$) and teacher questionnaires ($\alpha = 0.84$).

Qualitative analysis

Qualitative data for this study was collected from open-ended responses to questionnaires, interviews and focus groups with students and teaching staff. Each dataset was analysed separately in NVivo.

Open-ended questionnaire data and interview data were analysed using thematic analysis. Thematic analysis consists of identifying recurring themes in the data and categorising segments of data accordingly (Kuckartz, 2014). For this study, themes were generated both deductively and inductively: first, deductive themes were created based on the research questions (e.g. approaches to EMI, driving forces behind EMI, attitudes toward EMI). Next, sub-themes were generated from the data. Following this method, thematic frameworks were created to analyse responses from staff and students for each data source.

The analysis of focus group data also involved thematic analysis, although the main focus was on social interaction between group members (Halkier, 2010). Focus groups allow researchers to capture multiple voices at once and to examine the dynamics of group interaction (Galloway, 2018). In other words, the analysis of focus group data focused on what was said and how the group interacted.

Ethics and limitations

Consent forms were used, and participants were given the opportunity to withdraw at any stage. Participants were offered a copy of the results, and anonymity has been protected with the use of pseudonyms. Limitations relate to the poor response rate in Southeast Asia outside of Vietnam and Thailand. It was also not feasible to hire an external moderator and, therefore, all interviews were conducted in English. However, participants were made to feel comfortable, and it is hoped that the discussions are a true account of their experiences and attitudes.

6

Sample

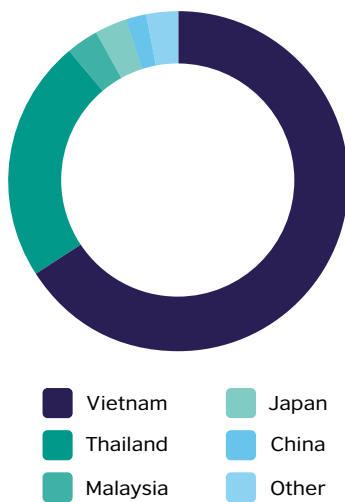
Questionnaire

Students

A total of 1,377 students responded to the questionnaire (Appendix 2).

- Students from **27 different countries** responded to the survey (Figure 3). The majority of students were from **Vietnam** (66 per cent, n=907), and 23 per cent of students were from **Thailand** (n=323).

Figure 3: Student responses by country nationality



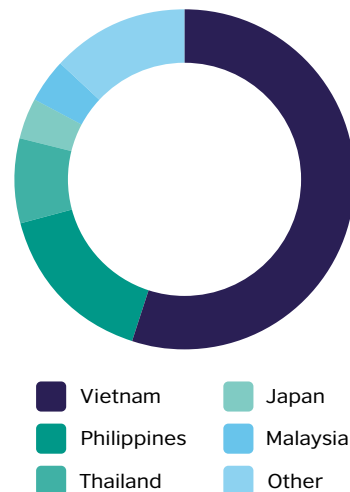
- The students were primarily undergraduates (94 per cent) studying in Vietnam (64 per cent) and Thailand (24 per cent).
- 54 per cent of students were female, and 46 per cent were male.
- 36 per cent of students were 18–19 years old, 62 per cent were 20–29 years old, and two per cent were 30 years old or older.
- The students were studying a variety of subjects, the most common of which were English-related majors (30 per cent), engineering (28 per cent), and computer science and technology (12 per cent).

Staff

The questionnaire was completed by 231 teaching staff members from universities throughout Southeast Asia (Appendix 3).

- Teachers from **20 different countries** responded to the survey (Figure 4). About half of the teachers were from Vietnam (55 per cent), and eight per cent were from Thailand.

Figure 4: Staff responses by nationality



- The teachers were working in **ten different countries**, with 55 per cent working in Vietnam and 13 per cent in Thailand.
- 65 per cent of the teachers were female; 35 per cent were male.
- The staff members were primarily teaching undergraduates, with 38 per cent of respondents involved in ELT, three per cent working on applied linguistics or ELT programmes, and the remaining 59 per cent teaching non-language-related content, including business and finance (13 per cent), engineering (12 per cent), and computer and science technology (six per cent).
- About half of the teachers had completed a PhD (49 per cent); the other 51 per cent had not completed a doctoral degree.

Interviews

Interviews were conducted with 31 EAP teachers, 28 content teachers, 35 students and three programme administrators (Table 2).

Table 2: Demographic information for interview participants

		Administrators	Content teachers	EAP teachers	Students
Country	Vietnam	1	22	22	18
	Thailand	2	6	9	17
Gender	Female	1	11	20	14
	Male	2	17	11	21
Experience abroad	No	0	7	15	31
	Yes	3	21	16	4
Nationality	Vietnam	1	21	23	18
	Thailand	1	6	1	16
	Other	1	1	7	2
EMI teaching experience	1–4 years	–	8	5	–
	5–9 years	–	10	7	–
	10+ years	–	6	15	–
Overall teaching experience	1–4 years	–	1	4	–
	5–9 years	–	9	4	–
	10+ years	–	14	19	–

- Eleven international staff and students from China, France, the Philippines, South Korea, Taiwan and the US were interviewed. The rest of the participants were working or studying in their home country.
- The 31 EAP teachers taught a variety of English language courses, including general English, EAP and ESP.
- Twelve content teachers taught engineering; four taught computer science and technology; and the others taught accounting and finance (n=2), applied linguistics (n=2), architecture (n=1), business and marketing (n=2), chemistry (n=1), economics (n=1), energy and environment (n=1), law (n=1), and physics (n=1).
- Six students were studying in ‘English-major’ programmes in Vietnam; ten students were studying engineering; five were studying computer science; and the others were studying architecture (n=1), business (n=3), dentistry (n=1), food science and technology (n=2), international studies (n=3), communication (n=3), religious studies (n=1), and tourism management (n=1).
- The administrators were deans of internationalisation or international affairs at their HEIs.

Focus groups

Seventy-five teachers and students participated in 14 focus groups (Table 3). Most teachers and students were Vietnamese (n=71). One focus group consisted of three international students from Laos (University D), and the focus group with teachers at University D included one teacher from India.

Table 3: Summary of focus groups

#	Participants	n	University	Subject(s)	Nationality	Gender
1	EAP teachers	5	F	EAP (n=5)	Vietnam (n=5)	Male (n=4) Female (n=2)
2	EAP teachers	5	K	EAP (n=5)	Vietnam (n=5)	Male (n=3) Female (n=2)
3	EAP teachers	3	L	EAP (n=3)	Vietnam (n=3)	Male (n=2) Female (n=1)
4	EAP teachers	4	M	EAP (n=4)	Vietnam (n=4)	Female (n=4)
5	Content teachers	7	M	Engineering (n=5) Physics (n=1) Economics (n=1)	Vietnam (n=7)	Male (n=5) Female (n=2)
6	Content teachers	7	G	Engineering (n=3) Information Technology (n=2) Business Management (n=2)	Vietnam (n=7)	Male (n=7)
7	EAP and content teachers	7	D	American Studies (n=2) EAP (n=2) Computer Science (n=1) Tourism (n=2)	Vietnam (n=6) India (n=1)	Male (n=4) Female (n=3)
8	EAP and content teachers	6	B	English for Information Technology (n=1) Chemical Engineering (n=2) EAP (n=3)	Vietnam (n=6)	Male (n=1) Female (n=5)
9	Students	7	B	Information Technology (n=7)	Vietnam (n=7)	Male (n=7)
10	Students	6	B	Chemical Engineering (n=4) Brain Studies (n=1) English Linguistics (n=1)	Vietnam (n=6)	Male (n=3) Female (n=3)
11	Students	6	C	Engineering (n=6)	Vietnam (n=6)	Male (n=6)
12	Students	3	D	Business Administration (n=3)	Laos (n=3)	Male (n=2) Female (n=1)
13	Students	6	L	English for Business (n=6)	Vietnam (n=6)	Male (n=2) Female (n=4)
14	Students	3	M	Engineering (n=3)	Vietnam (n=3)	Male (n=3)

7

Findings

Questionnaire results

Main findings

- Universities varied with respect to language proficiency requirements and support.
- The most common form of English support reported by students was self-access study options, and in-house training was the most common form of language support for teachers.
- Differences were found between students' and teachers' reported use of English in lectures, course materials, classes and exams.
- Both teachers and students were optimistic about the language learning benefits of EMI.

Approaches to EMI

The results of the questionnaire found that HEIs differed in their English **language proficiency requirements**. The majority of students (55 per cent)

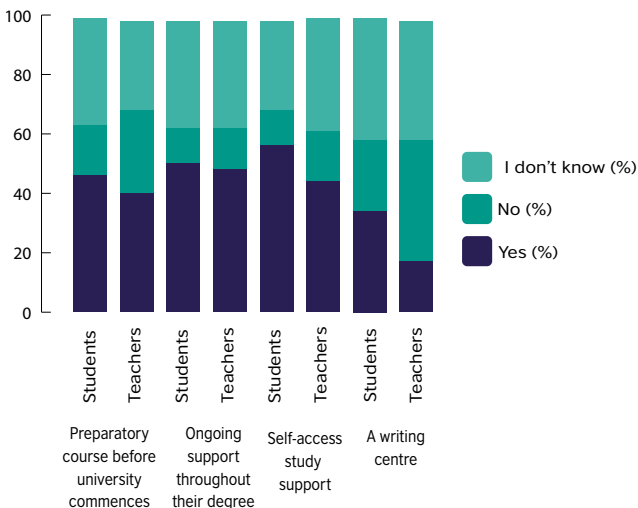
and staff (51 per cent) indicated that there was a proficiency requirement to enter their university programme, although criteria varied. About half of students reported that TOEIC (52 per cent) and/or IELTS (46 per cent) scores were accepted for their programme. TOEFL scores were less commonly required (11 per cent), and 23 per cent of students reported that other scores, such as in-house exams, were used for their programme.

Universities also varied with respect to language support for students (Figure 5). The most common forms of language support reported by students were:

- self-access study options (57 per cent)
- ongoing English language support classes (51 per cent)
- preparatory courses (46 per cent).

In open-ended responses, students and teachers stated that language support courses tended to be general English courses limited to one or two semesters (3–12 months) in the students' first year of study.

Figure 5: Language support available to EMI students



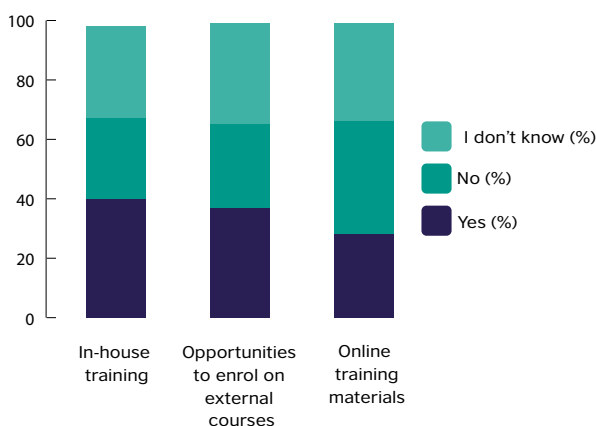
Compared to student support, fewer universities offered faculty training for teaching staff (Figure 6).

Staff support included:

- in-house training (41 per cent)
- opportunities to enrol on external courses (38 per cent)
- online training materials (28 per cent).

According to open-ended responses, training sessions tended to be short seminars or workshops focusing on teaching methodologies or the teachers' area of expertise. Most teachers (65.5 per cent) agreed that adequate support was provided by their universities for teachers on EMI courses.

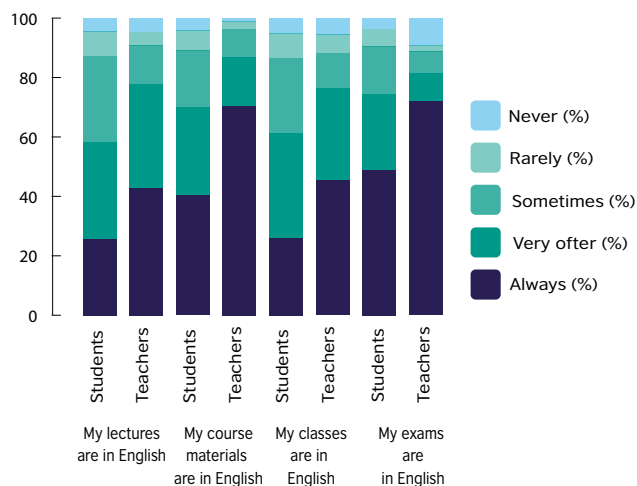
Figure 6: Support provided to teachers



Language use

With respect to language use, students and teachers reported that EMI lessons were delivered various ways (Figure 7). According to students, English was 'always' or 'very often' used for lectures (58 per cent), course materials (70.2 per cent), classes (61.3 per cent) and exams (74.2 per cent). Comparatively, teachers reported higher levels of English use for lectures (77.6 per cent), course materials (86.7 per cent), classes (76.5 per cent) and exams (81.6 per cent). Mann-Whitney U tests revealed significant differences between students' and teachers' reported use of English, with teachers reporting **more English** use in their **lectures** ($U = 60034.5, p = 0.000$), **course materials** ($U = 53703, p = 0.000$), **classes** ($U = 61307.5, p = 0.000$) and **exams** ($U = 63098, p = 0.000$).

Figure 7: Language use in EMI lessons



Although these results suggest that *languages other than English* were used in many EMI classes, the majority of students (72 per cent, $M = 2.84, SD = 0.75$) and teachers (67 per cent, $M = 2.82, SD = 0.80$) believed that **only English** should be permitted in their EMI classes. However, the majority of students and staff also supported **bilingual instruction**: about 80 per cent of students ($M = 2.88, SD = 0.67$) and teachers ($M = 2.91, SD = 0.69$) agreed that staff and students should be permitted to use both English and their mother tongue in EMI programmes. No significant differences were found between teachers' and students' attitudes toward English-only or bilingual EMI implementation.

In open-ended responses, students ($n=119$) who supported an English-only approach to EMI did so because they believed it would improve their English skills. This finding is in line with students' motivation for enrolling on EMI programmes to practise or learn English, discussed below. However, students ($n=138$) and teachers ($n=44$) in open-ended responses also supported L1 use when it was **necessary to explain difficult concepts**. Reconciling these ideas, one teacher stated: 'Although some Vietnamese might help in EMI classes, I still think English should be used as much as possible' (EAP Teacher, Vietnam, University E). Students similarly believed that teachers should not 'overdo it' (Chemistry Student, Vietnam, University B) with L1 use. As such, teachers and students supported limited L1 to help content learning.

Driving forces and motivation

To understand the driving forces behind EMI, students and teachers were asked why students enrolled in EMI programmes (Table 4). Students' top reasons were:

- future job opportunities
- opportunities to practise or learn English
- study abroad opportunities.

Students rated learning English more highly than interest in course content. Teachers also believed that students enrolled in EMI programmes to improve their future job opportunities and benefit from study abroad opportunities, although teachers did not rate English learning as highly as students did. Mann-Whitney U tests revealed that students believed more strongly than teachers that EMI students wanted to **practise or learn English** ($U = 71550$, $p = 0.022$).

Table 4: Perceptions of students' reasons for enrolling in EMI

Reason	Students		Teachers	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
To practise or learn English	3.08	0.86	2.94	0.86
To practise or learn the language spoken in the country I am studying in	2.78	0.84	2.61	0.86
Interest in the content	2.95	0.71	2.96	0.68
To experience EMI	2.83	0.73	2.74	0.75
Status of the university	2.84	0.74	2.91	0.80
Convenient price	2.68	0.77	2.65	0.76
Job opportunities	3.17	0.82	3.18	0.80
Study abroad opportunities	3.07	0.83	3.04	0.82
Convenient location	2.80	0.78	2.82	0.71

Attitudes towards EMI

Eighty-five per cent of students and teachers agreed or strongly agreed that EMI content teachers should help students **improve their English proficiency**. This finding is in line with students' motivation to learn English through EMI, and it suggests that both teachers and students in Southeast Asia might prefer a 'CLIL-ised' (Block & Moncada-Comas, 2019) model of EMI which incorporates English and content learning aims. Moreover, a Mann-Whitney U test revealed significant differences between teachers' (M = 3.08, SD = 0.66) and students' (M = 2.93, SD = 0.66) attitudes: teachers more strongly agreed that EMI content teachers should help students improve their English language proficiency (U = 56588.5, p = 0.014). In open-ended responses, few students (n=6) indicated that they wanted EMI content teachers to provide explicit language-related instruction. Instead, students (n=21) stated that EMI content teachers should provide explanations of **subject-specific vocabulary**.

Similarly, nearly 90 per cent of students and teachers, respectively, believed that EMI content classes should be supplemented with **support from English teachers**. A Mann-Whitney U test revealed that teachers (M = 3.14, SD = 0.59) more strongly agreed that English teachers should support EMI content teaching than students (M = 3.00, SD = 0.60; U = 56371.5, p = 0.009). These findings suggest that EMI teachers in Southeast Asia might support a model of EMI that includes co-teaching or collaboration between content and language specialists.

Students and teachers were asked to describe the characteristics of a successful EMI teacher (Table 5). Both students and teachers believed that **subject area knowledge** and the **ability to provide clear explanations** were the most important characteristics of a good EMI teacher, and they believed that a **'native-like' accent** and certification **in EMI skills** were the least important characteristics for an EMI teacher.

Table 5: Comparison of teachers' and students' beliefs about EMI teacher characteristics

Most important teacher characteristics		Least important teacher characteristics	
Students	Teachers	Students	Teachers
Knowledge of subject (M = 3.28, SD = 0.70)	Knowledge of subject (M = 3.52, SD = 0.64),	'Native-like' accent (M = 2.91, SD = 0.70)	'Native-like' accent (M = 2.57, SD = 0.64)
Provide clear explanations (M = 3.22, SD = 0.72)	Provide clear explanations (M = 3.51, SD = 0.64)	Certification in EMI skills (M = 2.95, SD = 0.65)	Certification in EMI skills (M = 2.69, SD = 0.74)
Explain subject-specific concepts (M = 3.21, SD = 0.70).	Sensitive to students' needs and problems (M = 3.42, SD = 0.61),	Experience abroad (M = 2.97, SD = 0.70).	Knowledge of students' language and culture (M = 3.20, SD = 0.64)

About 90 per cent of students and teachers believed that EMI programmes improved students' overall **English language proficiency** and **knowledge of the subject**. No significant differences were observed between teachers' and students' beliefs about language and content learning.

Overall, students (77 per cent) and teachers (64 per cent) believed that there were enough **qualified teaching staff** on their EMI programmes, and more than 80 per cent of students and teachers believed that there were **sufficient materials** for learning university subjects in English.

Interview results

Main findings

- EMI programmes differed in curriculum design and language support.
- The L1 was commonly used in EMI classes, although some students and teachers believed that an English-only approach would better support language learning.
- Teachers and students reported national, institutional and personal motivations behind EMI.
- Teachers and students reported a variety of challenges in EMI programmes.

Approaches to EMI

Regarding **approaches** to EMI, the interview data revealed that universities differed in the **types of EMI programmes** and **language support** offered to students. Table 6 summarises the types of EMI programmes reported in Vietnam and Thailand.

Table 6: Summary of EMI approaches found in Southeast Asia

	Advanced Programmes	High-Quality Programmes	'English for' major programmes	International Programmes	Bilingual programmes	Joint degree programmes
Country	Vietnam	Vietnam	Vietnam	Thailand	Vietnam and Thailand	Vietnam and Thailand
EMI provision	All English	English materials; L1 for lectures	Mostly English	All English	Both English and L1	All English
Language requirement	Exam score or prep course	Exam score or prep course	Exam score or prep course	Exam score or prep course	Exam score or prep course	Exam score
English support	ESP courses in first year	ESP courses in first year	2 years of general English; 2 years of ESP	3 EAP/ESP courses in first 2 years	EAP/ESP courses in first 1–2 years	General English and ESP courses in first 2 years
Co-operation with a university abroad?	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes
More expensive than L1 programme?	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Varies	Yes

The EMI programmes primarily differed in their **curriculum design** and **EMI provision**. **Advanced Programmes** in Vietnam were designed in collaboration with universities abroad, generally in the US or UK, from which the curricula and materials were imported. **High Quality Programmes** were also offered at Vietnamese universities and tended to incorporate more L1 into the curricula than Advanced Programmes. The **‘English for’ major programmes** offered in Vietnam were unique English courses that combined content and language learning. Students on these courses were English majors specialising in a content area, such as ‘English for science and technology’ or ‘English for business administration,’ and students studied both language and content related to their specialisation.

EMI programmes in Thailand were often called **‘International Programmes’**, even though they were not carried out in collaboration with a partner institution abroad. The curricula were delivered fully in English.

Bilingual programmes and **joint degree programmes** were found in both Vietnam and Thailand. Bilingual programmes varied in the amount of EMI provision, ranging from one EMI course to 50 per cent or more of the curriculum. Joint degree programmes were conducted in partnership with a university abroad, and students typically spent the final two years of their programme studying at the partner university.

Language exam scores did not appear to be a requirement for **admission** at most universities in Vietnam and Thailand. However, students had to fulfill a language requirement before taking EMI classes. Although **language entrance requirements** varied, most EMI programmes required an overall IELTS score of 5.5–6.5, or an equivalent score on another English proficiency test (typically corresponding to a B1/B2 level of English proficiency on the CEFR). Students who did not meet these entrance requirements enrolled in an **English preparatory programme** before starting their EMI courses.

Some universities required students to submit exit scores demonstrating English proficiency before graduating, with an overall IELTS score of 6.0–6.5 (B1/B2 on CEFR) typically required.

Although the amount and nature of **language support** varied, most universities only offered language support to students in the first **1–2 years of study**, rather than throughout four-year programmes. The English support courses were a mix of general English, ESP and EAP courses.

Staff and students in interviews identified other forms of language support for students, including:

- academic advisers
- english English centres or clubs on campus
- online resources and courses for self-study
- external resources, outside the university.

In terms of staff requirements, most universities did not require teaching staff who had received their **degrees from universities abroad** to submit language proficiency scores, although exam scores were typically required for teaching staff graduating from local universities.

Limited teacher training and language support options were available to academic staff working on EMI programmes. In line with the findings from questionnaires, both content and language instructors stated in interviews that teacher training opportunities tended to be short, ad hoc workshops. One teacher stated that training was offered ‘because of the connections between the university with that researcher or with those organisations rather than training just for us’ (Finance Teacher, Vietnam, University E). Teachers emphasised the need for specialised, EMI-related training opportunities. Language teachers (n=12) noted that subject-specific training would help them teach technical terminology, and some content teachers (n=9) stated that they were uncomfortable incorporating language instruction because they lacked pedagogical training.

For this reason, both teachers and students tended to believe that EMI content instructors were primarily responsible for **content teaching** – not language instruction. Twenty-one teachers stated that EMI classes should only include content instruction, compared to eight teachers who stated that language instruction should be integrated. One teacher summarised: ‘I just use English in the class. I don’t teach them English ... Because I’m [an] instructor in engineering’ (Engineering Teacher, Vietnam, University C). Moreover, **minimal collaboration** was found between language and content teachers, which might present a barrier to integrating language and content on EMI programmes.

Language use

In line with the quantitative findings, teachers reported that the L1 was commonly used in EMI classes (Table 7).

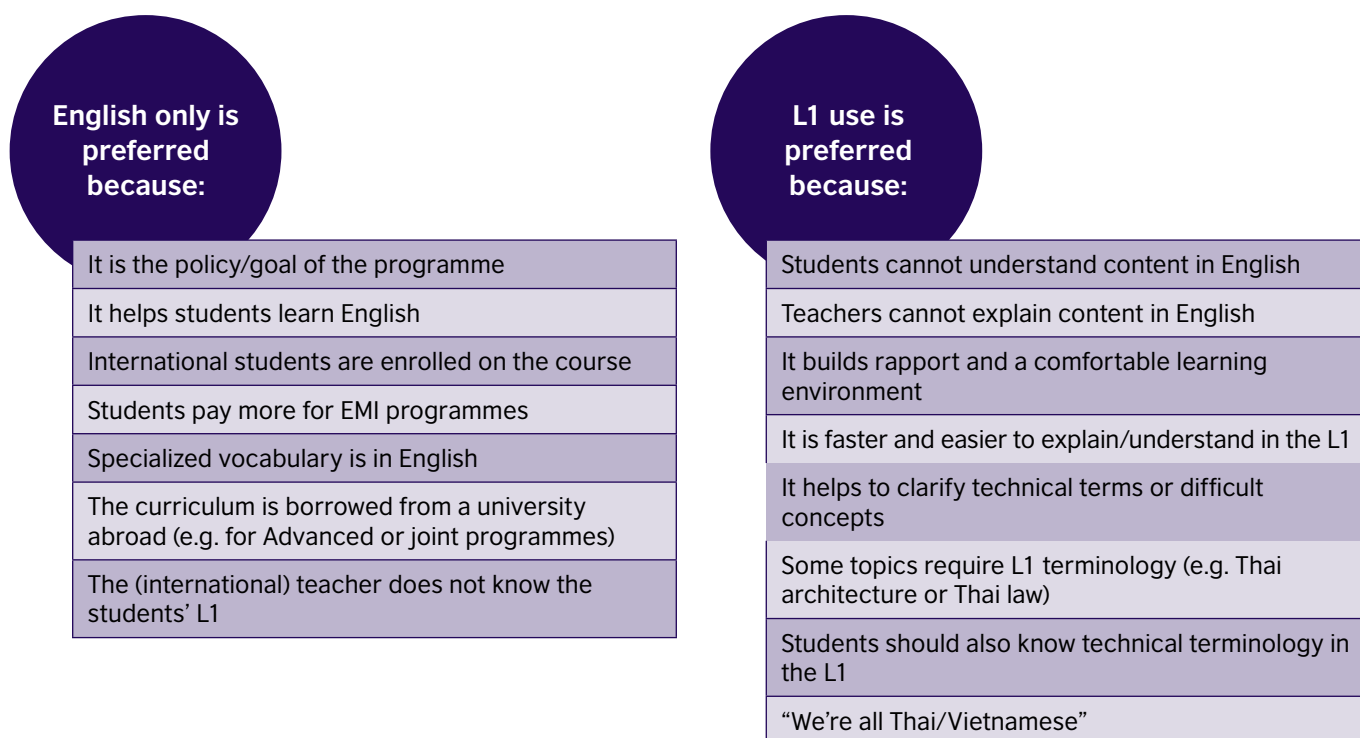
Table 7: Beliefs about language use in EMI classes

	EAP teachers (n=31)	Content (n=28)	Students (n=35)	Admin (n=3)	Total (n=97)
EMI classes should be conducted in English-only	10	16	12	2	40
L1 use supports content comprehension	18	16	22	1	57

The use of **codeswitching** reflected a tension in participants' beliefs about learning in EMI programmes. As noted earlier, the questionnaire revealed that language learning was a motivation for students on EMI programmes. Many teachers and students believed that an **English-only approach** to EMI would support language learning. However, teachers (n=35) and students (n=22) also believed that L1 use supported content comprehension. Some participants held both views simultaneously, creating a tension which one student summarised: 'I think [it]

is easy to understand [in Vietnamese] but it cannot improve our language skill' (English Major for Accounting Student, Vietnam, University A). Figure 8 summarises teachers and students' beliefs about language use in EMI classes.

Figure 8: Beliefs about language use in EMI programmes

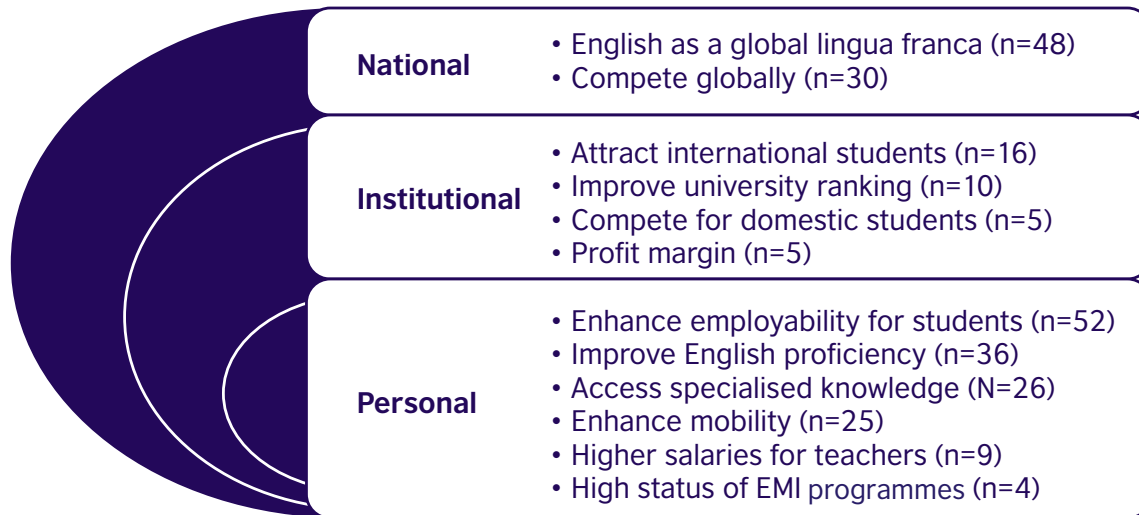


Driving forces

In interviews, teachers and students described national, institutional, and personal motivations for supporting EMI programmes (Figure 9). At each level,

the primary driving force behind the expansion of EMI was the **role of English as a global language** and the **increased need for English proficiency** (Galloway et al., 2017, 2020).

Figure 9: Driving forces behind the growth of EMI (n=97 participants)



With respect to the expansion of EMI programmes across Southeast Asia, participants highlighted the importance of English to **compete globally** in the world economy:

If we want to integrate with the people in this modern economy, so we have to modernise ourself. So that's why I think that we have to learn English, like, a main mean of communication.

EAP Teacher, Vietnam, University D

In both Thailand and Vietnam, the role of English as a **global lingua franca** was noted with respect to its role as the working language of the ASEAN community and government initiatives such as the Thailand 4.0 initiative and Vietnam's Project 2020.

In terms of institutional benefits, EMI was seen as a strategy to **attract international students, improve university rankings** and **compete for domestic students** by offering an 'international-at-home' experience to students who might otherwise study abroad. EMI programmes were usually more expensive than traditional programmes in Thailand and Vietnam, contributing to the university's **profit margin**. However, some students in Thailand were

concerned that the high cost of EMI programmes created socio-economic disparities in terms of access:

If the family don't have financial support then maybe it's difficult for them [to enroll in EMI programmes].

Food Sciences Student, Thailand, University Q

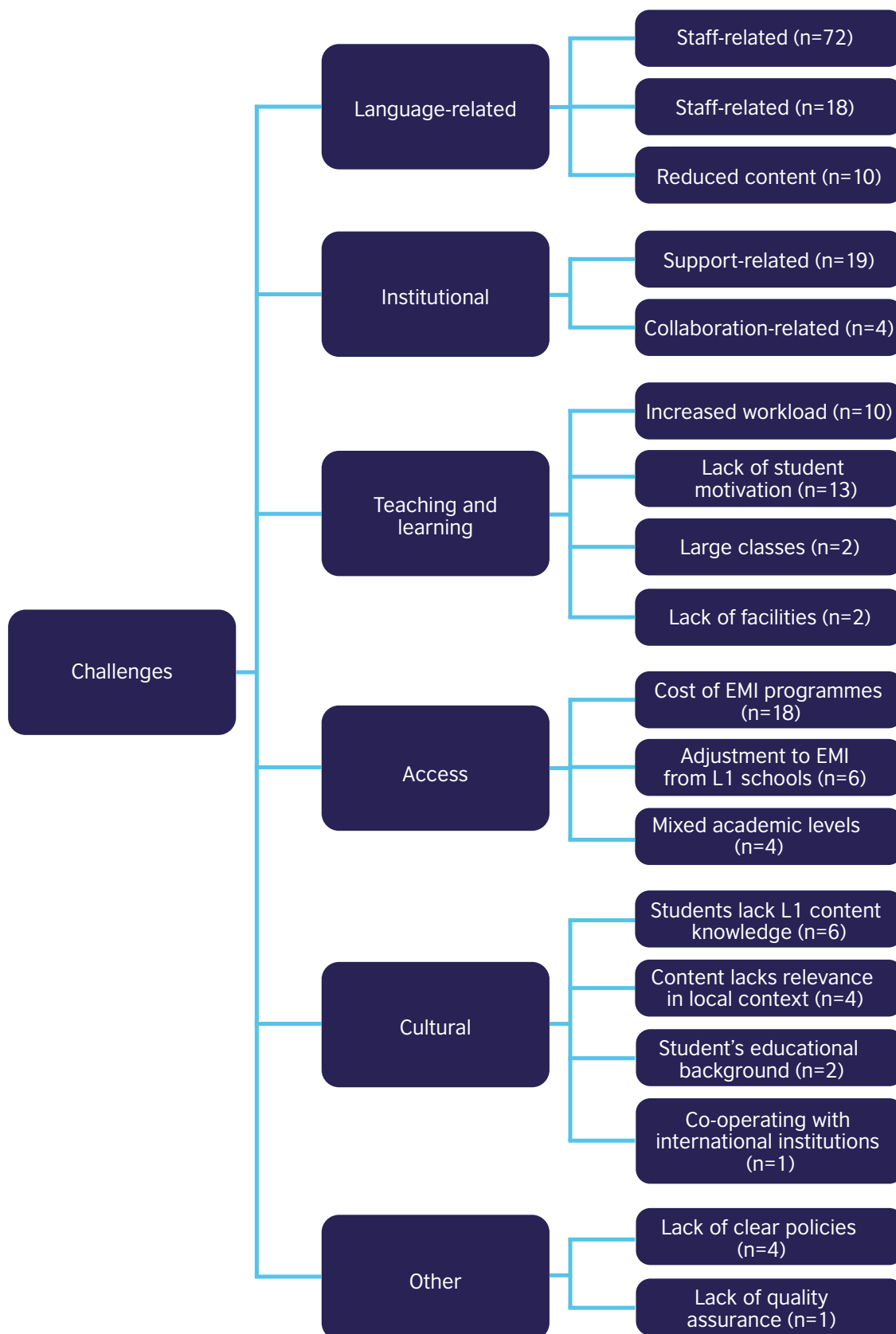
Teachers and students also described personal motivations for choosing EMI programmes. Teachers stated that they received **higher salaries** teaching EMI courses, and students wanted to **enhance employability** and **improve their English proficiency**. Teachers and students also stated that EMI allowed them to **access specialised knowledge** (Galloway et al., 2020) because more cutting-edge research (Galloway et al., 2017) was published in English and, in some disciplines, adequate terminology did not exist in the L1: 'Sometime you don't need to translate into Thai because it's harder to understand' (Computer Science Student, Thailand, University O). Students and teachers also described **high social status** and **mobility opportunities** as benefits of EMI programmes.

Attitudes

Although teachers and students were generally positive about the expansion of EMI – evident in the

personal benefits described above – they identified challenges to EMI implementation (Figure 10).

Figure 10: Challenges in EMI programmes



Language-related challenges

The majority of interviewees (teachers, n=50; students, n=22) stated that **low student English proficiency** hindered content comprehension. Language-related issues included:

- understanding vocabulary: ‘When they open [the] textbook, there are a lot of new words’ (EAP/English Major for Accounting and Finance, Vietnam, University A)
- understanding lectures: ‘Last semester I taught a class who couldn’t understand me when I speak English’ (ESP Teacher, Vietnam, University H)
- understanding exams: ‘They find it difficult in their exam, which is entirely in English. So they struggle with those’ (Marketing Teacher, Vietnam, University E).

Challenges were also identified with respect to writing, reading and communicating in English.

Institutional challenges

Issues of language proficiency were made worse by **language support challenges** at HEIs. One content teacher suggested that there was a mismatch between the English proficiency requirements – test scores from exams assessing general proficiency – and the subject-specific language skills that students needed in their EMI courses. Teachers (three EAP and one content) also stated that **collaboration-related challenges** resulted in a lack of EMI teaching staff with expertise in both content and language.

Teaching and learning challenges

Teachers (n=5) and students (n=5) stated that EMI courses resulted in an **increased workload** because EMI courses were more time consuming and required more preparation than classes taught in the local language. Although most students identified language learning as a motivation for enrolling in EMI programmes, both teachers (n=11) and students (n=2) stated that some students **lacked motivation** to study. Other teachers identified challenges related to **class size** and **facilities**, which were not conducive to EMI-appropriate pedagogies such as group work or discussions.

Access challenges

Teachers and students noted that the **high cost of EMI programmes** created issues of access for students from lower socio-economic backgrounds. In both Thailand and Vietnam, EMI programmes were often twice as expensive as programmes taught in the local language (Table 6). As previously noted, students in Thailand expressed concerns related to access. Two other issues of access to emerge in the Thai context were **adjusting to EMI** from Thai-language secondary schools and managing students with **mixed academic levels**.

Cultural challenges

Teachers and students identified **cultural challenges** in adapting EMI curricula to their local contexts. Some students noted that they could not discuss **content knowledge in the L1**, because they had not been taught technical terminology in the local language. Other teachers and students stated that EMI curricula were Western-centric and **did not apply to local contexts**. For example, one content teacher described challenges teaching the history of Thai architecture in English, because English terms did not exist to describe features of Thai architecture. Similarly, students in a Food Sciences Programme in Thailand worried that they lacked knowledge of local Thai food and ingredients because their curriculum was taught from English-language sources written for a Western audience:

We are study[ing] about the bakery and the bread and the yogurt. But it's not like the traditional food for Thai people... We don't know anything about our country.

Food Sciences Student, Thailand, University Q

Advanced Programmes offered in Vietnam imported curricula from partner institutions abroad, which one EAP teacher stated were not always appropriate for the local context:

We couldn't agree, because the formula of the programme in Vietnam and at this university is much different.

EAP Teacher, Vietnam, University M

Additionally, two EAP teachers felt that the students’ educational background clashed with the learning style required in EMI programmes; both teachers were international staff working in Thailand.

Focus group results

Main findings

- Focus groups revealed findings on approaches to EMI, language use in EMI and driving forces behind EMI.
- Teachers and students identified language learning benefits and challenges in EMI programmes.

Focus groups were conducted with teachers and students in Vietnam. The analysis focused on *what* was said as well as *how* participants agreed or disputed claims. The results revealed similar findings as other data sources with respect to:

- **approaches:** EMI programmes differed with respect to entrance requirements, language support and EMI provision (eight out of eight teacher focus groups and three out of six student focus groups)
- **language use:** both English and the L1 were used in EMI classes (six out of eight teacher focus groups and five out of six student focus groups)

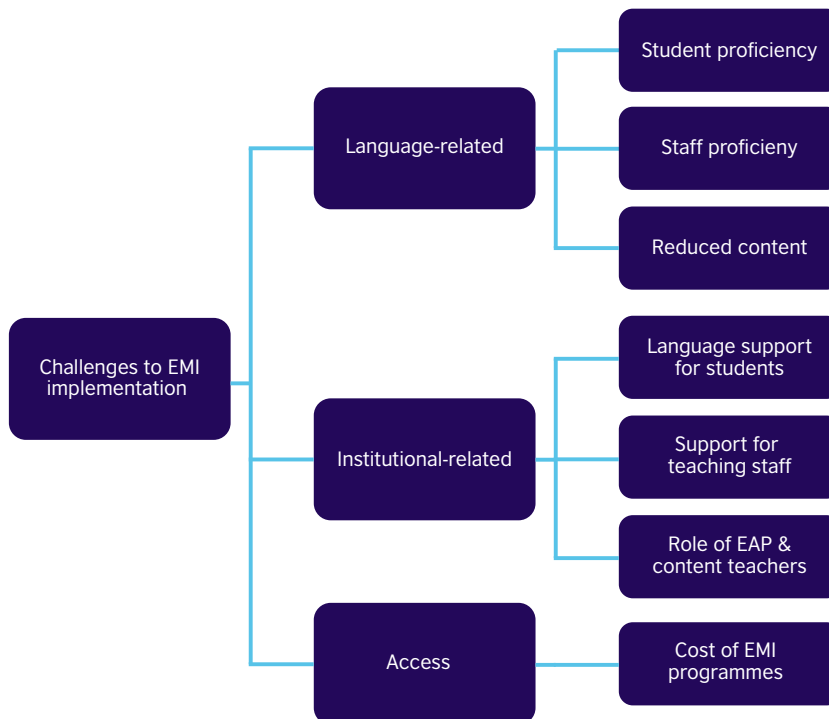
- **driving forces:** the need to **compete globally** (five out of eight teacher focus groups and two out of six student focus groups) and the belief that English led to **enhanced employability** (all focus groups) were identified as the primary motivations for EMI. In only one focus group did a student dispute the idea that EMI programmes lead to better job opportunities (English Major for Business Students, Vietnam, University L); the other students in the focus group rejected this idea.

Teachers and students held generally positive **attitudes** toward EMI because of its perceived language learning benefits but disagreed on how best to address challenges in EMI programmes.

Teacher focus groups

Although teachers in all eight focus groups were generally positive about the growth of EMI in Vietnam, they identified challenges related to language (n=7), institutional support (n=8), and access (n=1) (Figure 11).

Figure 11: Challenges to implementing EMI programmes, according to teacher focus groups



In terms of language-related challenges, teachers expressed concerns about **students' English proficiency**. Issues of **staff proficiency** were primarily discussed in the context of EMI teacher qualifications: in seven out of eight focus groups, teachers agreed that English proficiency was the most important consideration when hiring EMI content teachers. However, participants disagreed on whether language-related challenges led to **reduced content learning**, specifically whether:

- content was watered down because of students' limited English proficiency
- EMI curricula were less rigorous than traditional programmes
- too much attention was given to language learning in EMI programmes.

Institutional challenges were discussed with respect to **language support for students** and **teaching support for staff**. A major theme to emerge in the teacher focus groups was the **role of content and language teachers in EMI programmes**, which relates to collaboration-related challenges (Galloway et al., 2017; Galloway et al., 2020). Across focus groups (n=8), teachers disagreed over who should teach ESP courses and whether content teachers were responsible for teaching English in their EMI

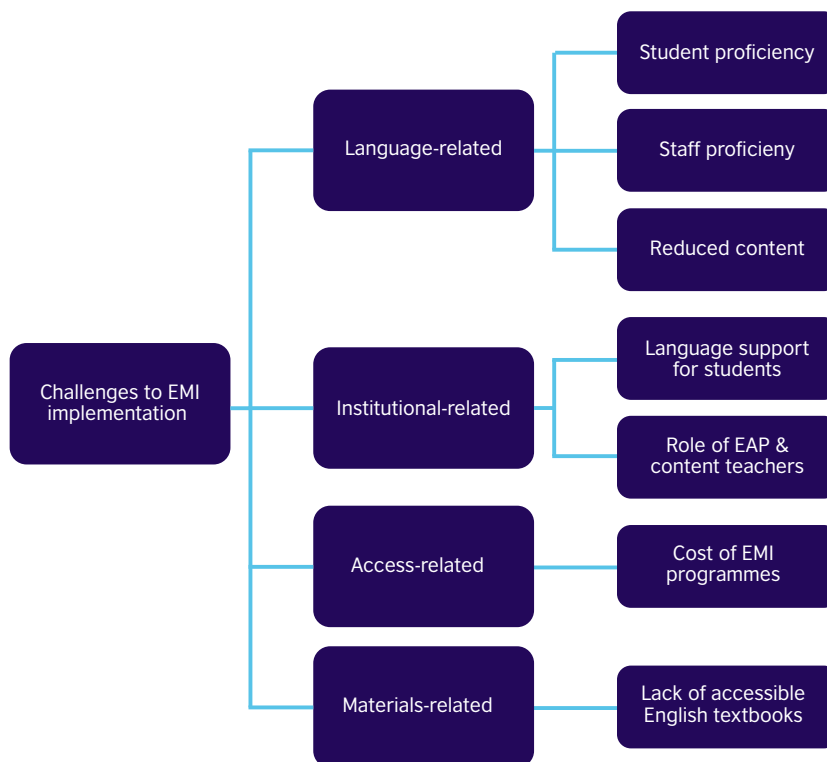
content classes. Both language and content teachers believed that language teachers needed more subject-specific training to deliver ESP courses. However, they disagreed on how easy it would be to equip language teachers with content knowledge.

In terms of **access-related challenges**, the EAP teachers at University L agreed that the high cost of EMI programmes was a barrier to access and resulted in lower academic entry requirements.

Student focus groups

Students in all six focus groups believed that studying on EMI programmes would **enhance employability** and **improve English proficiency** skills. Some students welcomed exit exam requirements on their EMI programmes because they could use the exam results as evidence of English proficiency when applying for jobs (Student Focus Group, Vietnam, University C). Although students were optimistic about the language learning benefits of EMI, they identified challenges related to language (six out of six focus groups), institutional support (five out of six focus groups), access (two out of six focus groups) and materials (two out of six focus groups) (Figure 12).

Figure 12: Challenges identified in student focus groups



In terms of **language-related challenges**, students in and across focus groups agreed that there was a need to improve both **teachers' and students' English proficiency**. However, they disagreed over whether EMI led to **reduced content learning**.

At many universities, students did not receive **language support** after the first year of their programme. Although students in five out of six focus groups agreed that more language support was needed on EMI programmes, they disagreed on the **type of language support** required to address students' needs. Students also disagreed on **the role of EAP and content teachers** in terms of providing language support: while some students wanted their content teachers to provide direct language support during lectures, others did not think content teachers were responsible for helping students improve their English.

In terms of **access-related challenges**, students in one focus group debated whether the **cost of EMI programmes** negatively affected the quality of instruction by creating a barrier to entry for some students. The concerns raised by students in this focus group highlight socio-economic issues related to access, particularly considering beliefs that EMI programmes lead to better job opportunities. Access issues were not discussed in the interviews conducted in Vietnam, but emerged in the focus groups, suggesting that this is an issue in both countries.

8

Summary of findings and discussion

This study investigated approaches to, language use in, driving forces behind and attitudes toward EMI. Because this study was a replication of Galloway's first ELTRA study (Galloway et al., 2017), the findings are discussed in relation to those of the first study.

How is EMI approached?

Data from questionnaires, interviews and focus groups indicated that HEIs differed in the **language proficiency requirements** and **language support** options for EMI programmes, as in the first study (Galloway et al., 2017; Galloway et al., 2020; Galloway & Ruegg, 2020).

Entrance requirements

Questionnaire results revealed that HEIs varied in the exam scores accepted for EMI programmes, supporting Hamid et al.'s (2018) finding that macro-level policies regarding CEFR levels are interpreted and implemented in different ways. Interviews suggested that many universities in Vietnam and Thailand require students to achieve a B1/B2 level of English proficiency on the CEFR, which is in line with Tri and Moskovsky's (2019) policy analysis in Vietnam, but different to Tran and Nguyen's (2018) recommended C1 for students entering EMI programmes. As in Galloway et al. (2017), language-related challenges emerged as a major challenge to EMI implementation, highlighting the need for more research on suitable entrance requirements for EMI programmes.

Student support

Self-access study options were the most commonly reported form of language support in the questionnaire. Further, language support was typically offered to students in the first 1–2 years of study, unlike in the East Asia study, where support ranged from 1–4 years (Galloway et al., 2017; Galloway & Ruegg, 2020). Both studies revealed that support classes focused on general English, with calls for more subject-specific support.

Staff support

The current study provided more insights into the availability of staff training than the East Asia study (Galloway et al., 2017). Short, in-house training sessions appeared to be the most common form of support. Further, as in studies in Fenton-Smith et al.'s (2017) volume on EMI in Asia, there was an absence of systematic support systems for teachers, both for content and language instructors.

Curricula

One of the main differences between the two studies was the use of foreign curricula. Another interesting finding was the availability of **'English for' major programmes** in Vietnam, which may indicate an impact of EMI growth on ELT (Galloway & Rose, 2021). Graduates from 'English for' majors may be well positioned to provide the kind of subject-specific language support called for by this and previous studies (Galloway et al., 2017; Galloway & Ruegg, 2020). It could be the case, for example, that with graduates specialising in both language and a specific subject, Vietnam could possibly have a ready-made workforce to teach on the much-needed ESP courses to support EMI programmes. However, further research is needed to investigate whether this is the case in practice and its potential for policy development.

How are English and other languages used in EMI programmes?

The findings of this study suggest that both **English and the local language** are commonly used in EMI programmes (Baker & Hüttner, 2019; Galloway et al., 2017; Tran & Nguyen, 2018; Vu & Burns, 2014), highlighting that the reality is different to expectations stipulated in EMI policy (Tri & Moskovsky, 2019). The questionnaire findings revealed significant differences between teachers and students in terms of the amount of English used in EMI courses, with teachers reporting more English use than students. Across data sources, both teachers and students supported an **English-only**

approach to EMI because it would help improve English learning and **L1 use** in EMI classes as it would help content understanding. Overall, EMI stakeholders appeared to support moderate use of the L1 to support instruction in English, such as L1 use to clarify subject-specific vocabulary (Baker & Hüttner, 2019; Tran & Nguyen, 2018; Vu & Burns, 2014). However, with different approaches to EMI, our findings support Le's (2012) observation that EMI in higher education is a vague concept and there is a need for more clarity on the purpose of the programme. This also resonates with Tri and Moskovsky's (2019) observation that government guidelines are too general in nature to implement EMI policy.

What are the main driving forces behind EMI policy?

Across data sources, this study found that **future job opportunities** and **enhanced employability** were driving forces behind EMI expansion (Galloway et al., 2017, 2020; Hengsadeekul et al., 2010; Lavankura, 2013). The questionnaire results revealed significant differences between students' and teachers' beliefs about language learning as a motivation for enrolling on EMI programmes, with students keener to **practise or learn English** than perceived by teachers. EMI students were also motivated to learn English in the first report (Galloway et al., 2017). Also similar to the first report, interviews and focus groups revealed that the role of **English as a global lingua franca** was a national-level driving force behind EMI programmes, and the desire to **attract international students** was a driving force at the institutional level (Galloway et al., 2017, Galloway et al., 2020).

Many of the driving forces documented in this study resonate with those in the East Asian study (Galloway et al., 2017), although new institutional benefits included the need to compete for domestic students, and new personal benefits included the high status of the EMI programmes and higher salaries for teachers teaching on them. Thus, for students in our study, motivation to enrol also relates to the social status attached to such programmes (Hengsadeekul et al., 2010; Lavankura, 2013; Tri & Moskovsky, 2019).

What are staff and student attitudes towards EMI?

Questionnaire data revealed that the majority of teachers and students believed:

- content teachers should help students improve their English proficiency
- content classes should be supplemented by support from English teachers
- EMI programmes helped to improve students' overall English proficiency and knowledge of the subject
- subject area knowledge and the ability to provide clear explanations were the most important characteristics of a good EMI teacher.

These generally **positive attitudes** toward EMI and the **language learning benefits** of EMI were also found in interviews and focus groups. However, compared to questionnaire responses, less support for language-related instruction in EMI classes and less evidence of collaboration between content and language teachers were found in interviews and focus groups, similar to the findings of the first report.

Despite their generally positive attitudes toward EMI, teachers and students identified **challenges** related to language, institutional support, teaching and learning, culture, and access. The majority of challenges related to staff and student English language proficiency (Vu & Burns, 2014; Hamid et al., 2018; Tran & Nguyen, 2018; Nguyen, Walkinshaw & Pham, 2017). Unlike the first study, materials were not reported to be a major issue, although some teachers and students reported issues related to imported curricula that did not reflect the local context. A new important finding in this study was discussion over equity and access to EMI (Hamid et al., 2013; Tran et al., 2014, cited in Nguyen & Tran, 2018; Tri & Moskovsky, 2019).

9

Implications and recommendations

Entrance requirements

As with the first study, we call for more research on appropriate entrance requirements to EMI programmes, which will be discipline-specific, and on how to support students. As one teacher in this study highlighted, there was a mismatch between the English proficiency requirements – which were test scores from exams assessing general proficiency – and the subject-specific language skills that students needed in their EMI courses. Such research needs to consider both the local context and the subject that students are studying, since students' academic language needs are likely to vary across disciplines.

Our study also reveals that some programmes have exit requirements for English level (Tri & Moskovsky, 2019), demonstrating that EMI is very closely linked with language learning goals. Exit scores suggest a 'CLIL-ised' version of EMI (Moncada-Comas & Block, 2019) through which students are expected to achieve certain language learning outcomes. However, the requirement of exit scores is concerning, given that the language learning was not found to be fully incorporated into EMI curricula and that language support was generally only available in the students' first two years of study. If improved English proficiency is a core goal of EMI programmes, students will need adequate support throughout their degree and the approach to EMI should be better communicated to those delivering the content, a point we discuss further with regards to staff training and recruitment.

Our study also reveals that programmes in both countries appear to primarily cater to domestic students (although universities hope to attract more international students from the region, which relate to government targets) (Tri & Moskovsky, 2019). This influences how EMI is implemented regarding L1 use and entrance requirements, although with government initiatives to increase the number of international students, this may have to be re-examined if the classroom is to become more diverse. An increase in the number of international students would also require more comprehensive

bilingual policies to support international students' participation in activities outside the classroom (Lau & Lin, 2017).

Language support

We also call for more consideration of the type of support students need, both on entrance and throughout the programme. Our findings provide further insights into the language-related challenges identified in the first report. While the first report identified low English proficiency as a challenge in EMI classes, this report has gone further in highlighting specific issues that students have understanding vocabulary, lectures and exams in English.

Some work has been done on the types of language challenges that students experience (e.g. Evans & Morrison, 2011; Hellekjær, 2010), but we call for more research in a range of disciplines to ensure that clear support structures are put in place when EMI programmes are introduced. In this study, support was mostly available in the students' first two years, yet we call for such support to be embedded into the programme or offered in tandem with content classes from the outset and to be informed by a detailed needs analysis at the institutional and departmental level.

If recruitment of international students is, indeed, a goal, then institutions should also bear in mind that the support needs of domestic and international students may differ (Galloway & Ruegg, 2020). Such investigations should be part of an overall look into the quality of provision to ensure that content learning is not sacrificed for the sake of teaching in English.

We also call for more investigation of the role of EMI in improving students' English proficiency, particularly since this seems to be both the goal of the programme (at least in cases where exit scores are required for graduation) and the students' main reason for enrolling.

Teacher recruitment and training

Our findings highlight the complexities surrounding the different roles content and language instructors have in EMI programmes. Our first study highlighted the need for increased collaboration between content and language instructors as well as a lack of teacher training. The current study revealed that support is typically offered in the form of short, in-house training sessions. However, interview data suggested that training sessions are rarely designed to meet the specific needs of teachers on EMI programmes. In particular, the findings of this study suggest that EAP/ESP teachers would benefit from discipline-specific training opportunities with a focus on content knowledge, and that content teachers would benefit from training designed to raise awareness of language-related issues in EMI.

The growth of EMI programmes raises numerous questions regarding the roles of university teachers. Both studies reveal a lack of clarity over teacher roles in EMI programmes and differences in how stakeholders conceptualise EMI. In this study, teachers believed that EMI content teachers should help improve students' English, which is in contrast to much of the literature (Airey, 2011; Moncada-Comas & Block, 2019), but also to the interview and focus group findings. This may suggest that in Vietnam and Thailand, teachers may be more open to a 'CLIL-ised' model of EMI (Moncada-Comas & Block, 2019) and, with proper pedagogical training, more willing to incorporate language-focused teaching practices compared to teachers in other contexts. However, unlike in the East Asia study, open-ended responses indicated that few students wanted EMI content teachers to provide language-related feedback or explicit instruction.

Clear structures need to be put in place to communicate instructor roles to both students and staff. If language learning is a main goal of the programme, then we suggest that either content instructors be provided with some form of language pedagogy training or the university consider implementing a team-teaching scheme and/or embed language support alongside content classes. Much of the EMI literature focuses on the need for teacher training for content instructors, often related to criticisms over their language proficiency, yet there has been little focus on the impact of EMI on TESOL practitioners (see Galloway & Rose, 2021 for an overview). Our study reveals that in Vietnam, many students who are choosing to enrol in 'English for' majors may be in a good position to deliver such ESP courses, although it is unclear to what extent this is happening in practice. We call for more research on the relationship between such programmes and growth in EMI provision.

Our study also reveals a problematic assumption regarding studying abroad and the ability to teach in English, through which study abroad seemingly qualified as English language proficiency for lecturers. The growth of EMI raises questions of native speakerism, yet in our study a native-like accent ranked low among characteristics of a good EMI teacher. However, some conflicting findings emerged in interviews and focus groups, in which this idea of 'nativeness' or studying abroad was equated with better teacher qualifications. As in many other contexts, in both Vietnam and Thailand, a degree from abroad was considered essential in EMI teacher requirement, and we urge programme leaders to critically explore their recruitment practices and go beyond the 'native' or 'near-native' benchmark.

There is a need for more research on what it means to be a successful teacher in an EMI context, which in our study related to subject expertise and the ability to deliver content in English. Faculty training is a growing area, with many universities and service providers offering training options. However, while some work has been done in this area, more initiatives are needed to support EMI teacher training, especially at the institutional level. There are several European projects that have developed guiding principles and materials to support those teaching in English (EQUIIP, 2019; IntlUni, 2015; TAEC, 2019) and some massive open online courses have been developed, but there is a need for more context-specific investigations at the local level on what type of training is required.

The EMI curriculum

Our findings revealed many concerns related to the use of foreign curricula. EMI curricula, including textbooks and materials used, should be considered in light of the needs of the local community as opposed to being borrowed from the US or UK context. Texts and content should reflect local needs, which, again, is something that may have to be taken into account if the universities in our study are successful in recruiting more international students. We call for more research on the impact of such curricula, on how they can be adapted, and on the effect they may have on L1-medium programmes.

As Tri and Moskovsky (2019) highlight, discriminatory attitudes towards L1-medium programmes exist in Vietnam, with the use of foreign curricula labelled as 'advanced' or 'high quality'. Our study highlighted concerns that students may not have the knowledge to work locally in their future, which brings into question whether EMI, or the way in which it is being implemented, may have more detrimental than positive impacts in Vietnam and Thailand.

Our study highlights the need for a more inward-looking approach to higher education reforms and for programmes to develop their own curricula that meet local needs and do not devalue L1-medium instruction.

Language use

As in the first study, our findings highlight that both English and the local language are used. Further, students and teachers report differences in the amount of English used. Both were in support of an **English-only approach** to EMI because it would help improve English learning, but also **L1 use** because it would help content understanding. We call for programme leaders to implement flexible language policies to acknowledge the L1 as a useful pedagogic resource and for policymakers to revisit policy statements that devalue the use of the students' L1. This relates to the need for clear programme goals and policy implementation guidelines.

EMI and educational access and equity

Our study reveals concerns that English, and the high fees associated with EMI programmes, are acting as gatekeepers to education, and students attached a high social status to EMI programmes. The very names of the programmes in Vietnam suggest that English is also acting as a gatekeeper to 'quality' education given that quality seems to be synonymous with the use of foreign curricula. We support Tran and Nguyen's (2018) call for the re-labelling of the three types of programmes (AP, JP and HQP) and Tri and Moskovsky's (2019) call for relevant policy documents to highlight the benefits of L1-medium programmes 'to minimize the stigmatisation of students enrolled in these programmes' (p. 1,331). The current labelling suggests that only those with access to an English education can achieve a 'quality' education.

We call for more research into educational access and equity and how EMI could be approached in a way that offers greater access to all members of a country's population, and we urge educational policymakers to consider the consequences of higher education policies in relation to EMI. At present, EMI in many contexts is available to privileged groups of society who can pay higher fees as well as for the cost of any English support classes that might be needed before and during EMI study. It also creates a division between proficient content teachers and those who are proficient in English.

Further, our study also reveals that faced with shortages of teachers who can teach in English, preference is given to those who have been able to obtain their doctorate outside of their home country and that EMI instructors are often given higher salaries. Not only does this create a division within the university itself, but given that only well-resourced universities can provide such incentives, it also widens the gap between various types of universities.

Research-informed policy

Overall, we call for more research not only on how EMI policy is being implemented but also on the needs of major stakeholders involved in this process. As with Hamid et al. (2013), we call also for more attention to quality assurance. EMI is a growing field and some work has been done on establishing quality assurance frameworks (see Curle et al., 2020 for an overview). We recognise that due to the status of English as the world's global language, EMI provision is forecast to grow. However, while governments are seeking to reform higher education, universities will require time and support to innovate, and this support needs to be informed with context-specific research with a range of relevant stakeholders. We join previous researchers in calling for EMI policy to be informed by empirical research with core stakeholders.

Establishment of a community of practice

The online network [Teaching English and Teaching IN English in global contexts](#) was established in direct response to the findings of the first study (Galloway et al., 2017). Working with crucial stakeholders, making EMI research accessible to practitioners and facilitating collaboration with content and language instructors were the main aims of the network. Our findings from the current study will further inform the development of various sections of the network. We outline four such implications below.

1. The Resources section of the network (Appendix 4) collects teaching materials and other resources for ESP and content teachers. In line with our call for more discipline-specific language support on EMI programmes, this section offers a platform for resource sharing to support ESP/EAP teachers who may lack resources or content knowledge specific to their students' discipline of study. Discipline-specific pages within the Resources section enable network users to upload materials for both content and EAP/ESP courses.
2. This study has demonstrated the benefits of replication research, as it has revealed similarities between the East Asian and Southeast Asian contexts (such as the need for greater collaboration between content and language instructors) as well as important differences (such as approaches to EMI curricula). The Research section of the network (Appendix 5) aims to showcase the growing body of work that is being conducted on EMI globally and facilitate further such research by featuring blog interviews with researchers, sharing research calls and allowing users to upload data collection instruments. This would enable replication studies that can provide insightful comparisons across contexts.
3. Two important findings of this study were the diversity with which EMI is approached and the lack of collaboration between content and language instructors. Regional sections of the network provide a platform to connect both EAP/ESP and content teachers working in the same region. Currently, the network has a Vietnam (Appendix 6) and a Thailand page (Appendix 7), where teachers in these countries can collaborate, share best practices and teaching materials, and discuss curriculum design unique to their local context.
4. As in the first study, this study found limited support systems for teachers working on EMI programmes. The Professional development section of the network (Appendix 8) can address this gap by providing support, resources and opportunities for EAP/ESP and content teachers.

Conclusion

Our study reveals many similarities to the implementation of EMI in our East Asian study. As in the first study, EMI is closely related to goals to improve English proficiency, yet little support is offered to students or staff. Entrance requirements also vary across universities, and guidelines with respect to proficiency are implemented in various ways. Given our findings with respect to differing approaches to EMI and language support, as well as the number of challenges identified, we agree with Le (2012) that the implementation of EMI in Vietnam, and Thailand for that matter, is 'far from satisfactory' and also that more research is needed on feasibility of EMI in both contexts.

A main finding was that internationalisation of higher education relates to importing foreign programmes. If universities continue to look to the West by adopting curricula and materials and fail to adequately support students, then EMI programmes may not have the desired outcomes. On the contrary, they may produce graduates who are neither proficient in English nor have subject knowledge, which will ultimately have a detrimental effect on the workforce and, therefore, overall national development. EMI is not an easy fix to improving English proficiency and integrating the country into the international community. English may be the world's lingua franca, but internationalisation in higher education does not need to be synonymous with Englishisation. We call for more research to explore more inward-looking approaches to internationalisation in the higher education context (Nguyen & Tran, 2018). A large sum of money has been invested in developing EMI programmes, and we now urge universities to use their resources to explore the quality of provision. As educational providers, we have a duty to ensure that all students have the opportunity to receive a quality education.

References

- Airey, J (2011) Talking about teaching in English: Swedish university lecturers' experiences of changing teaching language. *Iberica* 22: pp. 35–54.
- Airey, J, Lauridsen, KM, Räsänen, A, Salö, L & Schwach, V (2017) The expansion of English-medium instruction in the Nordic countries: Can top-down university language policies encourage bottom-up disciplinary literacy goals? *Higher Education*, 73/4: pp. 561–576.
- Aizawa, I & Rose, H (2019) An analysis of Japan's English as medium of instruction initiatives within higher education: the gap between meso-level policy and micro-level practice. *Higher Education* 77: pp. 1,125–1,142.
- Altbach, PG & Knight, J (2007) The internationalisation of higher education: Motivations and realities. *Journal of Studies in International Education* 11: pp. 290–305.
- Baker, W & Hüttner, J (2019) 'We are not the language police': comparing multilingual EMI programmes in Europe and Asia. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics* 29/1: pp. 78–94. DOI: 10.1111/ijal.12246
- Bozdogan, D & Karlidag, B (2013) A case of CLIL practice in the Turkish context: Lending an ear to students. *Asian EFL Journal* 15/4: pp. 89–110.
- Briggs, JG, Dearden, J & Macaro, E (2018) English medium instruction: Comparing teacher beliefs in secondary and tertiary education. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching* 8/3: pp. 673–696.
- Chang, J, Kim, W & Lee, H (2017) A language support program for English-medium instruction courses: Its development and evaluation in an EFL setting. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism* 20/5: pp. 510–528.
- Chapple, J (2015) Teaching in English is not necessarily the teaching of English. *International Education Studies* 8/3: pp. 1–13.
- Coleman, JA (2006) English-medium teaching in European higher education. *Language teaching* 39/1: pp. 1–14.
- Costa, F (2012) Focus on form in ICLHE lectures in Italy: Evidence from English-medium science lectures by native speakers of Italian. *AILA Review* 25/1: pp. 30–47.
- Costa, F & Coleman, JA (2012) A survey of English-medium instruction in Italian higher education. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism* 16/1: pp. 3–19.
- Curle, S, Jablonkai, R, Mittelmeier, J, Sahan, K, & Veitch, A (2020). English Medium Part 1: Literature review. In N. Galloway (Ed.) *English in higher education*. London, UK: British Council. Available online at: www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/english-higher-education-%E2%80%93-english-medium-part-1-literature-review
- Doiz, A, Lasagabaster, D & Sierra, J (2013) Globalisation, internationalisation, multilingualism and linguistic strains in higher education. *Studies in Higher Education* 38/9: pp. 1,407–1,421.
- Evans, S & Morrison, B (2011) Meeting the challenges of English-medium higher education: The first-year experience in Hong Kong. *English for Specific Purposes* 30/3: 198–208.
- Fenton-Smith, B, Humphreys, P & Walkinshaw, I (eds) (2017) *English Medium Instruction in Higher Education in Asia-Pacific*. Cham, Switzerland: Springer.
- Galloway, N. (2018). Focus Group research. In J. McKinley & H. Rose (Eds.), *Routledge Handbook of Research Methods in Applied Linguistics*. Routledge.
- Galloway, N & Rose, H (2021) English medium instruction and the English language practitioner. *ELT Journal* 75/1: pp. 33–41.
- Galloway, N & Ruegg, R (2020) The provision of student support on English Medium Instruction programmes in Japan and China. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* 45. DOI: 10.1016/j.jeap.2020.100846
- Galloway, N, Kriukow, J & Numajiri, T (2017) *Internationalisation, higher education and the growing demand for English: an investigation into the English medium of instruction (EMI) movement in China and Japan*. ELT Research papers 17.2 The British Council. Available online at: www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/internationalisation-higher-education-growing-demand-english-investigation-emi-movement

- Galloway, N, Numajiri, T & Rees, N (2020) The growing demand for English: the 'internationalisation', or 'Englishisation', of higher education in East Asia. *Higher Education*.
- Halkier, B (2010) Focus groups as social enactments: integrating interaction and content in the analysis of focus group data. *Qualitative Research* 10/1: 71–89.
- Hamid, MO, Nguyen, HTM & Baldauf Jr, R (2013) Medium of instruction in Asia: context, processes and outcomes. *Current Issues in Language Planning* 14/1: pp. 1–15.
- Hamid, MO, Nguyen, HT, Vannguyen, H & Phan, TT (2018) 'Agency and language in-education policy in Vietnamese higher education', in GP Glasgow & J Bouchard (eds.) *Researching agency in language policy and planning* (pp. 102–124). New York, NY, United States: Taylor and Francis.
- Hellekjær, GO (2010). Lecture comprehension in English-medium higher education. *HERMES-Journal of Language and Communication in Business*, (45), 11–34.
- Hengsadeekul, C, Hengsadeekul, T, Koul, R & Kaewkuekool, S (2010) 'English as a medium of instruction in Thai universities: A review of literature', in *Selected Topics in Education and Education Technology: Proceedings from the 9th WSEAS International Conference on Education and Educational Technology* (pp. 89–94).
- Hengsadeekul, C, Koul, R & Kaewkuekool, S (2014) Motivational orientation and preference for English-medium programs in Thailand. *International Journal of Educational Research* 66: pp. 35–44. doi.org/10.1016/j.ijer.2014.02.001
- Hu, G, Li, L & Lei, J (2014) English-medium instruction at a Chinese University: Rhetoric and reality. *Language Policy* 13/1: pp. 21–40.
- Jiang, L, Zhang, LJ & May, S (2016) Implementing English-medium instruction (EMI) in China: Teachers' practices and perceptions, and students' learning motivation and needs. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism* 0/0: pp. 1–13. doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2016.1231166
- Knagg, J (2013) 'EMI within a Global Context – Towards a British Council Perspective', in *Dialogue 2: The Role of English in Higher Education: Issues, Policy and Practice*. The British Council. Available online at: www.britishcouncil.org.br/sites/default/files/regionalpolicydialogue_emi.pdf
- Knight, J (2008) *Higher Education in Turmoil: The Changing World of Internationalisation*. Sense Publishers.
- Kuckartz, U (2014) Three basic methods of qualitative text analysis, in *Qualitative text analysis: A guide to methods, practice & using software* (pp. 65–120). SAGE.
- Lau, K & Lin, CY (2017) Internationalisation of higher education and language policy: The case of a bilingual university in Taiwan. *Higher Education* 74/3: pp. 437–454.
- Lavankura, P (2013) Internationalizing higher education in Thailand: Government and university responses. *Journal of Studies in International Education* 17/5: pp. 663–676.
- Le, DM (2012) English as a Medium of Instruction at Tertiary Education System in Vietnam. *The Journal of Asia TEFL* 9/2: pp. 97–122.
- Lin, LH & Morrison, B (2010) The impact of the medium of instruction in Hong Kong secondary schools on tertiary students' vocabulary. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* 9/4: pp. 255–266.
- Macaro, E (2015) English medium instruction: Time to start asking some difficult questions. *Modern English Teacher* 24/2: pp. 4–7.
- Macaro, E (2018) *English medium instruction: Content and language in policy and practice*. Oxford: Oxford UP.
- Macaro, E, Curle, S, Pun, J, An, J & Dearden, J (2018) A systematic review of English medium instruction in higher education. *Language Teaching* 51/1: pp. 36–76.
- Marginson, S & van der Wende, M, (2007) To Rank or To Be Ranked: The Impact of Global Rankings in Higher Education. *Journal of Studies in International Education* 11/3–4: pp. 306–329. doi.org/10.1177/1028315307303544
- Moncada-Comas, B & Block, D (2019). CLIL-ised EMI in practice: Issues arising. *The Language Learning Journal*, 1–13.

- Nguyen, HT, Hamid, OM & Moni, K (2016). English-medium instruction and self-governance in higher education: the journey of a Vietnamese university through the institutional autonomy regime. *Higher Education* (72), 669–683.
- Nguyen, HT, Walkinshaw, I & Pham, HH (2017) 'EMI Programs in a Vietnamese University: Language, Pedagogy and Policy issues', in B Fenton-Smith, P Humphreys & I Walkinshaw. *English Medium Instruction in Higher Education in Asia-Pacific. From Policy to Pedagogy* (pp. 37–52). Springer.
- Nguyen, N. & Tran, L. T. (2018). Looking inward or outward? Vietnam higher education at the superhighway of globalization: culture, values and changes. *Journal of Asian Public Policy*, 11(1), 28–45. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17516234.2017.13324>
- O'Dowd, R (2018) The training and accreditation of teachers for English medium instruction: an overview of practice in European universities. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism* 21/5: pp. 553–563.
- Office of Higher Education Commission. (2017). *Thai higher education at a glance 2017*. Retrieved from <http://www.inter.mua.go.th>
- Office of Higher Education Commission. (2018). *Higher education statistics: academic year 2015–2017*. Retrieved from http://www.mua.go.th/2018/?page_id=1694
- Pecorari, D & Malmström, H (2018) At the crossroads of TESOL and English medium instruction. *TESOL Quarterly* 52/3: pp. 497–515.
- Poon, AY (2013) Will the new fine-tuning medium-of-instruction policy alleviate the threats of dominance of English-medium instruction in Hong Kong? *Current Issues in Language Planning* 14/1: pp. 34–51.
- Suzuki, S, Harada, T, Eguchi, M, Kudo, S & Moriya, R (2017) Investigating the Relationship Between Students' Attitudes Toward English-Medium Instruction and L2 Speaking. *Essays on English Language and Literature* 46: pp. 25–41.
- Taguchi, N & Naguma, N (2006) Transition from learning English to learning in English: Students perceived adjustment difficulties in an English-medium university in Japan. *The Asian EFL Journal* 8/4: pp. 52–73.
- Tran, LT & Nguyen, HT (2018) 'Internationalisation of higher education in Vietnam through English Medium Instruction (EMI): practices, tensions and implications for local language policies', in I Liyanage (ed.) *Multilingual education yearbook 2018* (pp. 91–106). Springer, Cham, Switzerland. doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-77655-2_6
- Tri, HD & Moskovsky, C (2019) English-medium Instruction in Vietnamese Higher Education: a ROAD-MAPPING Perspective. *Issues in Educational Research* 29/4: pp. 1,330–1,347.
- Vu, TTN & Burns, A (2014) English as a Medium of Instruction: Challenged for Vietnamese Tertiary Lecturers. *The Journal of Asia TEFL* 11/3: pp. 1–31.
- Vu, TTN (2017) The Vietnamese agenda of adopting English as a medium of instruction. *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies*, 33(3): 53–65.
- Wächter, B & Maiworm, F (2014) *English-taught programmes in European higher education: The state of play in 2014*. Bonn: Lemmens.
- Williams, D (2015) A systematic review of EMI and implications for the South Korean HE context. *ELT World online*, Special Issue on CLIL: pp. 1–23.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Table of participants

University	Questionnaire		Interviews				Focus groups			
	Students	Teachers	EAP teachers	Content teachers	Students	Admin	EAP teachers	Content teachers	EAP and content teachers	Students
Vietnam										
University A	0	1	1		2					
University B	25	1							1	2
University C	444	21		5						1
University D	1	6	2	2					1	1
University E	64	6	5	4	5					
University F	0	2				1	1			
University G	6	19	2	3	3			1		
University H	143	31	5	5	6					
University I	0	8	1							
University J	8	2	1							
University K	164	4	1		2		1			
University L	34	14	3	1			1			1
University M	0	8	1	1			1	1		1
University N	0	0		1						
Other (Vietnam)	1	6								
Thailand										
University O	45	8	5	5	10	1				
University P	25	2	2							
University Q	0	3	2	1	7	1				
Other (Thailand)	258	17								
Other (other countries)	123	63								
Missing	36	9								
Total (17 HEIs)	1,377	231	31	28	35	3	5	3		6

Appendix 2: Students' demographic information (questionnaire)

Variable	Label	n	%
Nationality	Vietnam	906	65.8%
	Thailand	323	23.5%
	Other	148	10.7%
Country of study	Vietnam	884	64.2%
	Thailand	329	23.9%
	Other	164	11.9%
Gender	Female	743	54.0%
	Male	634	46.0%
Age	18–19 years old	495	35.9%
	20–29 years old	854	62.0%
	30+ years old	28	2.0%
Year of study	1st-year undergraduate	278	20.2%
	2nd-year undergraduate	348	25.3%
	3rd-year undergraduate	432	31.4%
	4th- or final-year undergraduate	230	16.7%
	Graduate (master's or PhD)	78	5.8%
	Unknown	9	0.7%
Field of study	English-related	411	29.9%
	Engineering	380	27.6%
	Computer and science technology	159	11.6%
	Education	75	5.4%
	Economics	62	4.5%
	Other	290	21.0%

Appendix 3: Teachers' demographic information (questionnaire)

Variable	Label	n	%
Nationality	Vietnam	128	55.4%
	Philippines	38	16.5%
	Thailand	19	8.2%
	Other	46	19.9%
Country of work	Vietnam	128	55.4%
	Philippines	36	15.6%
	Thailand	30	13.0%
	Other	37	16.0%
Gender	Female	147	63.6%
	Male	84	36.4%
Age	20–30 years old	21	9.1%
	31–40 years old	99	42.9%
	41–50 years old	80	34.6%
	51 years or older	31	13.5%
Level taught	1st-year undergraduate	127	55.0%
	2nd-year undergraduate	122	52.8%
	3rd-year undergraduate	130	56.3%
	4th- or final-year undergraduate	117	50.6%
	Master's	72	31.2%
	PhD	27	11.7%
Subject taught	English-related	87	37.7%
	Business and finance	31	13.4%
	Engineering	27	11.7%
	Computer and science technology	14	6.1%
	Other	72	31.2%
Teaching experience	Less than 1 year	20	8.7%
	1–4 years	52	22.5%
	5–9 years	56	24.2%
	10 years or more	103	44.6%
Experience abroad	Never been abroad	87	37.7%
	Less than 1 month	27	11.7%
	1 month–1 year	33	14.3%
	1–3 years	23	10.0%
	More than 3 years	61	26.4%

Appendix 4: Online network resources

[Home](#) » [Resources \(EMI\)](#)



We have collated a series of lesson plans, texts, and teaching resources for a variety of subject areas that content practitioners and EAP and ESP practitioners and students may find useful.

Featured post

An interview with an EMI content teacher

As part of the network activities, we have conducted an interview with an EMI content teacher from a Psychology department at a university in Japan.

[READ MORE](#)

Coordinators

Ikuya Aizawa EMI team : support coordinator
UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD

Ikuya Aizawa is a doctoral researcher in the EMI Oxford research group at the University of Oxford.

[PROFILE](#)



Appendix 5: Online network research

Home » Research (EMI)



Research (EMI)

Our EMI team explores the growth in the number of non-language subjects being taught in English around the world, the implementation of EMI and internationalisation policies, the perceived benefits of EMI at the national, institutional and individual level and the number of challenges associated with EMI.

We have collated a series of video abstracts to introduce key research in the field, research calls (funding calls, calls for papers) and in this part of our network, researchers (and students) can collaborate and post calls related to their research, including calls for participants.

Featured post

British Council in Vietnam: EME/EMI in Higher Education (Conversation Series Ep. 8)

THE CONVERSATIONS

[READ MORE](#)

Coordinators

Dr. Nurmala Indonesia EC Lead Coordinator | EMI
Elmin Simbolon Research Lead Coordinator
POLITEKNIK NEGERI PONTIANAK



Nurmala Elmin Simbolon is a lecturer and researcher at Politeknik Negeri Pontianak. She earned her Doctoral study at Curtin University, Australia. Her doctoral project focused on the implementation of English medium instruction (EMI) in Indonesian higher education.

[PROFILE](#)

Hind Mashrah EMI Professional Development
Coordinator & EMI Research Coordinator
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON



Hind Mashrah is from Saudi Arabia, and she is currently a PhD student at The University of Southampton. She obtained her BA in English Language from Taif University, Saudi Arabia and her MA in Applied Linguistics, speciality in TESL from Brock University, Ontario, Canada.

[PROFILE](#)

Nizamuddin Sadiq EMI Research Coordinator
UNIVERSITAS ISLAM INDONESIA



Nizamuddin Sadiq is a government employee teaching English at English Education Study Program, Universitas Islam Indonesia.

[PROFILE](#)

Appendix 6: Online network Vietnam

Home • Educational Contexts • Vietnam



English teaching in Vietnam

In this section, EMI higher education institutions and faculty working in EMI programmes (both those delivering content via English and those working on Academic/Linguistic Support programmes) in Vietnam are free to share their practice, teaching experience and research focus on this page. This page will also share selected readings and videos as well as some interestingly relevant comments shared by colleagues for academic use. If you wish to upload articles, pictures or videos, please contact one of our regional coordinators.

Education context coordinators for Vietnam

Le Nu Cam Le

Vietnam EC Lead

HANOI UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

coordinator: EMI

Le obtained her MA Degree in Applied Linguistics and TESOL from University of Newcastle upon Tyne, the United Kingdom and Master Degree of Applied Linguistics from La Trobe University, Australia.

PROFILE



Teaching English in Vietnam



Teaching IN English in Vietnam



Organisations



Appendix 7: Online network Thailand



English teaching in Thailand

Welcome to the Thailand site!

Napat Jitpaisarnwattana is the Thailand Coordinator

Here, we include information about teaching English and teaching IN English in the Thai context. The aim of these pages is to raise awareness of the role of English in Vietnam and approaches to teaching English and teaching IN English.

We post relevant information including publications, and events (talks, workshops, conferences, funding calls), research projects and research.

The aim is to engage with researchers and practitioners and facilitate access to the resources made available by the network members. It also aims to provide a platform for discussions, partnerships and good practice exchange.

The content of this webpage is periodically updated, so any new information regarding national and/or institutional policies, educational strategies, specific research is welcome. Please contact the regional coordinator at napat.jit@gmail.com

Teaching English in Thailand

English is a compulsory component in the Thai national curriculum. This means that English is taught in all Thai schools, mainly as a foreign language. Most Thai students start learning English in kindergarten schools (at the age of 3) for private schools and in primary schools (at the age of 6) for public schools. English is taught by both Thai and foreign teachers. Foreign teachers include native speakers (from UK, US, Australia, New Zealand and Canada) and non-native speakers (from the Philippines, South Africa, Nigeria and European countries).

Teaching IN English in Thailand

Teaching in English is gaining momentum in Thai education, particularly in private schools and universities. In addition to the numerous international schools, many private schools now offer English programmes or English immersion programmes, where students study core subjects like science and maths in English but take other subjects in Thai. English immersion programmes are usually taught by “native” English speakers. Some universities have also begun to offer degree courses taught entirely or partially in English; most courses taught in English are at the postgraduate level, but there is certainly a push to include more undergraduate courses as well. Degree courses taught in English are usually taught by Thai university lecturers.

Education context coordinators for Thailand

Napat
Jitpaisarnwattana
SILPAKORN UNIVERSITY

Thailand EC Lead
Coordinator



Napat Jitpaisarnwattana (www.digitaleit.org) is a PhD candidate in Applied Linguistics at KMUTT and a full-time lecturer of English at Silpakorn University in Thailand.

[PROFILE](#)

Dr. Wisrutta Atthakor Thailand EC Coordinator: ESP
Resources
SRINAKHARINWIROT
UNIVERSITY



Dr. Wisrutta Atthakor is a lecturer in biology at the Faculty of Science, Srinakharinwirot University in Bangkok, Thailand.

[PROFILE](#)

Dr. Banachakarn
Sameephet
KHON KAEN UNIVERSITY

Thailand EC Coordinator: EMI
Resources



Dr Banachakarn Sameephet, a Lecturer in Applied Linguistics at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Khon Kaen University, Thailand.

[PROFILE](#)

Dr. Denchai
Prabjandee
BURAPHA UNIVERSITY

Thailand EC Coordinator: GE
Resources



[PROFILE](#)

Dr. Yusop Boonsuk
PRINCE OF SONGKLA
UNIVERSITY

Thailand EC Coordinator: GE
Team



Dr. Yusop Boonsuk is an English lecturer at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Prince of Songkla University, Thailand.

[PROFILE](#)

Appendix 8: Online network professional development

[Home](#) » [Professional Development \(EMI\)](#)



Professional Development (EMI)

Effective faculty development and teacher training programs are seen as being very important if EMI is to be implemented successfully (Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Wilkinson, 2013). There are institutions which are providing training for staff to improve how they use language in the classroom, yet there remain very few EMI teacher training materials generally available. Hence, it is difficult to identify particular pedagogical guidelines for best practice in EMI classrooms (Dearden, 2014).

This section provides information and resources for academics and teachers who may wish to explore EMI practices in various teaching contexts and seek additional support. There are:

- **Conference Calls** – Conferences and events where you can engage with your research community
- **Teacher Training Resource** – Various resources to assist your teaching and understanding of EMI practices
- **Reading Lists** – Recommendations for independent learning on EMI practice and training
- **EMI Teacher Training Programmes** – Either face-to-face or online EMI training programmes for academics and teachers around the world

This page will be updated regularly. Please register and join the network to receive news and updates.

We also welcome your contribution to this section. If you'd like to share your conference information or other resources please contact us via [Get In Touch](#).

Featured post

English Medium: During and post-Covid-19

[READ MORE](#)

Coordinators

Jaime Kim EMI Faculty Development Coordinator

UNIVERSITY OF BATH

Jaime is a research assistant in the Department of Education at the University of Bath. She has been involved in English language teaching since 2008 and obtained her PhD degree in Education from the University of Bath in 2019.

[PROFILE](#)



Soe Marlar Lwin EMI, Faculty Development Coordinator

SINGAPORE UNIVERSITY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

Soe Marlar Lwin currently oversees the Graduate Diploma and Master of Arts in Applied Linguistics (TESOL) programmes at the Singapore University of Social Sciences. Her research and teaching interests primarily lie in text and discourse analysis, study of narratives, language in education.

[PROFILE](#)





ISBN 978-0-86355-998-3

2021

The British Council is the United Kingdom's international organisation for cultural relations and educational opportunities.