Chapter 7
Translanguaging Practices in EMI Settings from the Perspective of Student Agency: An Example from Vietnamese Higher Education

Phuong Le Hoang Ngo

Abstract This chapter aims to explore translanguaging practices in an EMI programme at a Vietnamese university. More specifically, the chapter focuses on how students enact their agency in using their linguistic repertoires during assessed oral presentations to make meaning and construct content knowledge with their lecturers and classmates, who all are Vietnamese. Data were collected within a semester from an ethnographically informed approach, with classroom observations, interviews, focus groups, and other supplemented sources of data. The findings highlight the fact that students' dynamic use of languages contributes to generating bottom-up policy at classroom level, which may or may not adhere to the top-down policy. Based on the findings and discussion, recommendations regarding EMI implementations and EMI pedagogical practices for lecturers are proposed.

1 Introduction

Our time of globalisation has led to the phenomenon of internationalisation of Higher Education (HE). Universities around the world have adopted a wide range of strategies to internationalise their institutions, one of which is the introduction of English-medium instruction (EMI) programmes. During the last few decades, there has been a striking increase in the number of EMI programmes worldwide (Dafouz & Smit, 2020; Doiz, Lasagasbater, & Sierra, 2013; Wachter & Maiworm, 2014).

As a large-scale language-in-education policy, the use of English as the medium of instruction (MoI) has been realised differently in various contexts, simply because HE is "not a monolithic and potentially homogeneous phenomenon" (Smit, 2018, p. 387). Instead, each institution is constructed by its own cultural, political, structural, and economic features; hence, it is problematic to simply define EMI as the delivery of

P. Le Hoang Ngo (✉)
Faculty of English, University of Foreign Languages, Hue University, Hue, Vietnam
e-mail: nlhphuong@hueuni.edu.vn

content subjects through English. Apparently, what may be considered as a typical EMI programme in one educational setting may not in another context. For example, EMI may be seen as "the use of English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English" (Dearden, 2014, p. 2). This definition is shared by EMI Oxford Research Group and many other researchers, but it only includes EMI in non-Anglophone settings. The problem, therefore, appears when it comes to the analysis of English use in increasingly international campuses in English-speaking countries like UK or Australia. In these settings, a considerable number of students are from different linguistic backgrounds studying the same course via English. Meanwhile, Murata and Iino (2018) conceptualise EMI contexts as settings where "English is used as a lingua franca for content learning/teaching among students and teachers from different linguacultural backgrounds" (p. 404). While this definition includes Anglophone settings, it fails to acknowledge the rising popularity of EMI programmes in which lecturers and students share the same mother tongue and culture.

The study presented in this chapter follows the conceptualisation of EMI proposed by Dafouz and Smit (2016), which introduces the label of English-Medium Education in Multilingual University Setting (EMEMUS). This term explicitly describes the sociolinguistic in question, recognising the particular role that English plays in an academic context, while at the same time, underlining the multilingual nature of HE no matter whether that multilingualism reflects a top-down or bottom-up practice (Dafouz & Smit, 2020). Accordingly, in this study, a programme is defined as EMI if English is [among] the language[s] of: (1) classroom interaction between lecturers and students, (2) teaching and learning materials, and (3) assessment. This way of conceptualising EMI reflects the current situation in many Vietnamese universities where EMI is introduced among domestic students and staff—with the occasional appearance of foreign students and staff. Linguistic homogeneity among these stakeholders, thus, affects how English and other languages—in this case mainly Vietnamese—are used in real classroom practices.

2   Literature Review

2.1   The Implementation of EMI Policy in Vietnamese Higher Education

Internationalisation has been considered as a strategic approach to supporting the development and reform of Vietnamese HE system (Tran & Nguyen, 2018). Among various strategies of internationalisation, the adoption and promotion of EMI is a key agenda, with the first programmes established in the country during the early 1990s (Nguyen, Walkinshaw, & Pham, 2017). Since then, the number of EMI programmes in Vietnamese universities has sharply increased. Several governmental policies and projects have effectively mandated EMI adoption in Higher Education Institutions

(HEIs). Among the most influential and large-scale initiatives is the Prime Ministerial Decision number 1400/QĐ-TTg (30 September 2008), which launched a national scheme on foreign language teaching and learning from 2008 to 2020 (Vietnamese Government, 2008). This is often known as the National Foreign Languages Project 2020 (NFLP2020) under the responsibility of the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training. The goal of using English as a MoI in Vietnamese education is stated, either explicitly or implicitly, under the term of "bilingual programmes" or "foreign language" as follows:

> … encourage education institutions to become more proactive in constructing and implementing bilingual programmes which aim to enhance their own training capacity (p.2)
>
> … construct and implement other teaching and learning programmes in English for Mathematics and other subjects that are suitable for high schools. (p.3)
>
> … construct and implement teaching programmes in foreign language for some subjects at basic and major levels within college and university systems; and also select some key factors at senior college level to apply teaching programmes in foreign language. (p.3)

While the NFLP2020 policy generally addresses the use of English in teaching content subjects at different education levels, another prominent governmental policy specifically directed at HEIs is the Higher Education Reform Agenda (HERA), issued in 2005 (Vietnamese Government, 2005). One of its aims is to construct a more capable educational system at tertiary level by highlighting the crucial role of English in the quality improvement of training programmes, the expansion of education networks, and the exchange of academic staffs and students.

Under that governmental support, Vietnamese HEIs have implemented two types of EMI programmes, namely foreign and domestic programmes (Nguyen et al., 2017). As their names imply, foreign programmes refer to those which have input from foreign partner universities regarding curriculum, materials, and assessment. Meanwhile, domestic programmes—with reference to correlative overseas programmes—are those completely developed, administered and delivered by Vietnamese universities (ibid.). It should be noted that a large number of these programmes are delivered among Vietnamese lecturers and students, hence creating a linguistic homogeneity in classroom contexts where all the participants share the same mother tongue. The use of Vietnamese, therefore, is expected in these EMI classes.

Regardless of its increasing popularity, EMI has not been extensively researched in Vietnamese context. Especially, the currently limited number of existing empirical studies have mainly focused on stakeholders' beliefs about EMI. A recurring theme has been revealed that lecturers face different challenges in EMI implementation, such as language use, language proficiency, teaching methodologies, or professional development activities (Nguyen et al., 2017; Tran & Nguyen, 2018; Vu & Burns, 2014). When it comes to students, their inadequate English language proficiency and their ability to follow EMI lessons have been found problematic in several studies (Nguyen, Hamid, & Moni, 2016; Le, 2012; Vu & Burns, 2014). However, what actually takes place inside an EMI classroom is under-researched, and therefore, similar to what happens in many other EMI contexts, classroom practices "are still

relatively unknown" (Cots, 2013, p. 110) in the context of Vietnamese HE. Especially, few studies to date have examined how students employ their language resources, including both Vietnamese and English, for meaning-making and knowledge co-construction in their class practices via naturally occurring data. This gap, therefore, is addressed in the current chapter.

2.2   The ROAD-MAPPING Framework and Student Agency

As stated earlier, there is a great diversity of current EMI practices, and the actual policies that shape local practice of EMI provision "ha[ve] been less consistently well-articulated" (Ryan, 2018, p. 17). The use of English in EMI policy is strongly linked to a nexus of patterns creating a specific HE entity, such as disciplinary areas, nature of programme, or student and staff availability. In capturing this multi-faceted nature of the implementation and practice of EMI, Dafouz and Smit (2016) have proposed a holistic and dynamic framework named ROAD-MAPPING. They suggest that when investigating an EMEMUS programme, it is necessary to take a look into six core areas of that entity, including: (1) The Roles of English in relation to other languages (RO), (2) Academic Disciplines (AD), (3) Agents (A), (4) Practices and Processes (PP) and (6) Internationalisation and Glocalisation (ING). The first dimension, Roles of English (RO) is derived from the ecological perspective that considers different functions of English in relation to other existing languages within a respective setting. The second dimension, Academic Disciplines, encompasses the characteristics of disciplinary practices. The dimension of (language) Management (M) addresses language policy statements, declarations, and documents that can "manipulate the language situation" (Spolsky, 2004, p. 8) and come in a myriad of shapes and sizes. Dimension four—Agents—is an umbrella term including all the social players involved in an EMI setting, ranging from an individual (teachers, students, administrators, etc.) to collective entities (faculty, student union, etc.). Fifthly, Practices and Processes refers to the actual teaching and learning activities that construct and are constructed by a specific EMI entity. Finally, the sixth dimension, INternationalisation and Glocalisation, encapsulates a variety of international, global, national and local forces and interests that HEIs need to address.

Clearly seen in Fig. 1, the six components of ROAD-MAPPING intersect with one another and interact dynamically. Entry point to a specific multilingual university can be granted through any of the six abovementioned dimensions via discourses—the central and methodological point of access. Various forms of discourses can be used to examine a specific EMI setting, including classroom discourses, interviews, discussions, policy documents, and notes, just to name a few.

As mentioned earlier, the aim of this current study is to investigate how students enact their agency in using their language resources in an EMI setting. Accordingly, the focused dimension of ROAD-MAPPING herein is Agents and its interrelation with the Roles of English and Practices and Processes. Students' agency in their
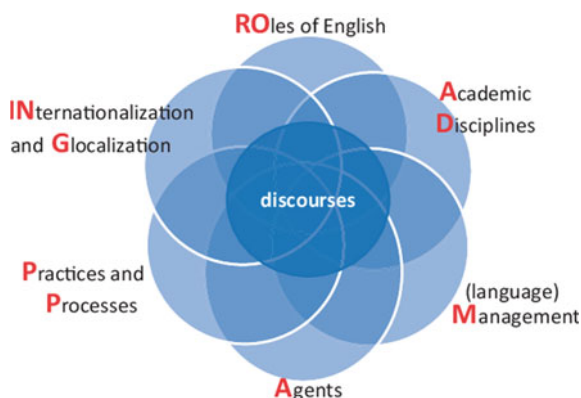
EMI engagement can be seen through the way they contribute to the interpretation and implementation of the EMI policy at a classroom level. They can also enact their agency via a number of learning strategies they adopt for their EMI programmes, including asking questions after the lecture, reading before class, or seeking peer support (Airey & Linder, 2006; Chang, 2010; Evans & Morrison, 2011). To improve their technical vocabulary bank, they can record new words or analyse affixes and roots through "a relentless diet of disciplinary reading and listening" (Evans & Morrison, 2011, p. 203). Especially, students can challenge the monolingual orientation which directs EMI as an English-only zone. Students can refer to reading materials in their mother tongue to make sense of their English lectures or textbooks, look up unknown English vocabulary before class, or translate content from English to L1 (Hu & Lei, 2014). Students can also employ their L1 in classroom interactions with their lecturers and classmates for meaning-making and constructing the knowledge (Kang & Park, 2005; Ljosland, 2011). Their effective use of L1, or their translanguaging practices, contribute to the construction of a bi/multilingual classroom and generating grassroots policy for class practices, which may or may not adhere to the top-down policy. They take care of their own learning by making use of their language repertoires, or by acts of "pupil-directed translanguaging" (Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012a). In other words, student agency in EMI settings can be seen through their dynamic translanguaging practices in classroom practices.

2.3 A Brief Overview of Translanguaging Practices in Bi/Multilingual Classrooms

The employment of a speaker's language resources for meaning-making and knowledge construction, either in a planned or spontaneous manner, significantly constructs teaching and learning activities in bi/multilingual settings, including EMI contexts.

This dynamic use of an individual's linguistic repertoire is referred in the literature as "translanguaging". Traditionally, bilingual education has "insisted on the separation of the two languages" to help learners acquire a new linguistic system more easily (Jacobson & Faltis, 1990, p. 4). In that meaning, the two languages are supposed to be kept strictly separate. Cummins (2005, p. 588) refers to this as "two solitudes", while a multilingual/bilingual student/teacher is compared as "two monolinguals in one body" (Gravelle, 1996, p. 11). Challenging these socially and politically defined boundaries of languages and their hierarchy, the newer field of translanguaging underlines "both the complex and fluid language practices of bilinguals, as well as the pedagogical approaches that leverage those practices" (García & Lin, 2016, p. 1). Since first coined by Welsh researchers in the 1980s, this term has been increasingly employed to capture the complexity of linguistic practices for a variety of purposes, especially in education (see reviews by Lewis, Jones, & Baker, 2012b; Otheguy, García, & Reid, 2015). The rising popularity of translanguaging in educational context can be seen as "emancipation from many negative ideas about bilinguals and bilingualism" (Lewis et al., 2012b). That is to say, the separation of languages in classrooms has gradually been replaced by the recognition of students' linguistic repertoires as valuable resources for learning, with a number of studies investigating the concept of translanguaging and its pedagogical values (Blackedge & Creese, 2010; García, 2009; García & Li, 2014; Lewis et al., 2012b). Generally defined, translanguaging is "the deployment of a speaker's full linguistic repertoire without regard for watchful adherence to the socially and politically defined boundaries of named (and usually national and state) languages" (Otheguy et al., 2015, p. 283). Multilingual/bilingual speakers can "shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system" (Canagarajah, 2011, p. 401). In other words, a translanguaging approach recognises the dynamics and functional integration of languages in the mental processes of understanding, speaking, literacy, and learning (Lewis et al., 2012b, p. 652).

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

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

Accordingly, instead of avoiding L1 use, teachers should be guided to involve the L1 as a rich resource for their teaching through translanguaging practices. García (2009) regards translanguaging as "a powerful mechanism to construct understandings, to include others, and to mediate understanding across language groups" (pp. 307–308). Therefore, she argues that teachers should be aware of its value instead of believing that only monolingual ways of speaking are good and valuable (ibid., p. 308). Baker (2011) similarly underscores educational advantages of translanguaging as a pedagogical practice, suggesting that in a bilingual classroom

the teacher can allow a student to use both languages, but in a planned, developmental and strategic manner, to maximize a student's linguistic and cognitive capability, and to reflect that language is sociocultural both in content and process (p.290).

García (2009) posits that "children translanguage constantly to co-construct leaning, to include others, and to mediate understandings" (p. 304). This statement refers specifically to children at kindergarten, yet its value is applicable to bilingual learners of different ages. García and Li (2014) dedicate one chapter in their book to discuss students' translanguaging to learn, with empirical evidence to support that students translanguage in writing, or in combination of reading and writing. Additionally, they report that students who are still in the beginning process of acquiring the additional language tend to use translanguaging to support and expand their existing knowledge, whereas more experienced students do it for their knowledge enhancement (p. 86). Lewis et al. (2012a) describes "pupil-directed translanguaging" as those translanguaging activities in which learners work independently with little support from teachers to complete the given tasks by using all languages available to them. For example, they can search for information in second language (L2), discuss the content in both L1 and L2, and complete the written work in their L1. Translanguaging, consequently, can empower students, and "move[s] the teacher and the learner toward a more "dynamic and participatory engagement" in knowledge construction" (García & Li, 2014, p. 112).

While existing empirical studies in EMI translanguaging have focused significantly on teachers' perceptions and practices (e.g. Cahyani, de Courcy, & Barnett, 2018; Lin & Wu, 2015; Lo, 2015; Pun & Macaro, 2019; Tavares, 2015), how students dynamically employ their linguistics repertoires remains under-researched. Accordingly, for this chapter, it is of interest to investigate these "pupil-directed translanguaging" activities in the context of EMI in Vietnamese HE. To be more specific, the chapter seeks to investigate translanguaging practices from the perspective of student agency. By observing and analysing students' assessed presentations in two EMI modules, the study aims to underline how students enact their agency in using their linguistic repertoires to make meaning and co-construct content knowledge with their Vietnamese lecturers and classmates.

3 Methodology

3.1 Research Context

The data to develop the argument of this chapter are obtained from a doctoral research project that aimed to investigate a specific EMI programme in International Studies of a regional university in central Vietnam. All the lecturers in the department are Vietnamese, and most of them have a degree abroad, at either an undergraduate or a postgraduate level. They all have a high proficiency in English and feel more comfortable to teach disciplinary modules in EMI. Similarly, all the students in the

department are Vietnamese, but they do not need to sit a screening language test before enrolling in the programme.

The programme includes a total of 138–140 credits, consisting of two main packages: general education (49 credits) and disciplinary education (89–91 credits). General education modules, such as "The history of Vietnamese Communist Party" or "Marxism theory", are delivered in Vietnamese and conform to the framework of the Ministry of Education and Training. Meanwhile, for EMI, students start to attend one to two courses of basic disciplinary knowledge in their first year, and the number of these modules increases as students progress in their programme. Additionally, during the first five semesters, students are required to attend the modules of General English skills from level 1 to level 5, including Writing, Speaking, Listening and Reading. Some courses of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), such as English for Economics, English for Politics, or English for Law, are also available as substitute modules if students do not take English level 5. The total number of credits students have to achieve within 4 years of study means that most of the semesters are fully packed with more than 10 modules per each. This tight schedule undeniably has a marked influence on students' learning strategies and their classroom practices to achieve the best results.

3.2   Data Collection

Data were collected within a semester from an ethnographically informed approach, with classroom observations, interviews, focus groups, and other supplemented sources of data. Four modules were observed for the whole semester, yet for the purpose of this chapter, only data collected in two modules where students had to deliver assessed oral presentations are discussed. A total of 12 recorded classes was acquired from these two modules with about 17 h of data. The first one, "The diplomatic relation between the USA and Vietnam", was for fourth-year students while "Introduction to global politics" was for second-year students. All student participants were from 19 to 22, and they had studied English for at least 8 years. As stated earlier, they did not take a screening test, and during my fieldwork, most of them revealed their lack of confidence in learning content subjects through English only. Meanwhile, both teachers were female and had their MA study abroad in Australia and New Zealand. They both preferred English as the MoI, as they were trained in EMI postgraduate programmes and their teaching materials were mainly in English. However, Teacher 1 (T1) allowed her fourth-year students to be flexible with their language use. Translanguaging practices, therefore, were strongly encouraged in students' group presentations. Meanwhile, Teacher 2 (T2) required her second-year students to use English only in their assessed individual presentation. The difference in the two guidelines above can be partially explained by two reasons. First, T1 was more experienced than T2, and hence could recognise the necessity of an ad hoc language policy in her class. By the time of the fieldwork, her fourth-year students had studied a few modules with her in the previous semesters. Therefore, she was

Table 1 The observed modules

No.	Lecturer	Years of teaching experience	Module	Level of students	Student number
1	T1	11	The diplomatic relation between the USA and Vietnam	Fourth-year students	41
2	T2	5	Introduction to global politics	Second-year students	36

aware of their language proficiency. Meanwhile, T2 just came back from her two-year study in New Zealand and that was the first semester she started teaching again. That may have had a considerable influence on her expectation of students' level (Table 1).

The two lecturers were interviewed and 14 students—numbered as S01 to S14—also participated in three focus groups. All of these were conducted in Vietnamese, although regularly the participants switched to English for terms like "assignments" or "presentation". Besides, other supplementary sources of information were also gathered. They included site documents (teaching and learning materials, syllabus, etc.) and research diary.

3.3 Data Analysis

Transcribed data of recorded classrooms were named as CR.T1 and CR.T2, interviews as IN.T1 and IN.T2, and focus groups with students as FG.01, FG.02, FG.03.

This study employed thematic analysis (TA) as the primary method of analysis. The interview, focus group and classroom observation data were analysed using the same procedure of six phases recommended by Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 87), including: (1) familiarising oneself with his/her data, (2) generating initial codes, (3) searching for themes, (4) reviewing themes, (5) defining themes, and (6) producing the report. Samples of transcriptions, translations, and coding were sent to an external researcher to ensure the dependability of this study.

4   Findings

4.1   Students' Translanguaging Practices During Group Presentations

In T1's class, students had to come up with a group project related to the topics covered in lectures and presented the idea in class. As mentioned earlier, students were explicitly allowed to independently select whatever language they felt comfortable and hence, they continuously switched between English and Vietnamese. Students could either choose to use L1 as the main presentation language, or switch to Vietnamese only when the content is too difficult for them to fully explain in English. However, it should be noted that there was no explicit guideline on how much English or Vietnamese students should use in their presentation. When talking about this policy, T1 explained:

Extract 1. IN.T1
There is no section for language in my assessment criteria, just not to make students stressed. I will encourage, encourage students to speak English, but I don't mark if the presentation is in English or in Vietnamese. […] Teaching in English is our wish, but this is a content area, and it has disciplinary knowledge. This is a laborious degree, very difficult.

Remarkably, if any students could manage to speak English, they would attempt to do it. They would select Vietnamese not because they were too lazy to think, but because they were aware that their English proficiency might influence the content they delivered, as a student revealed in the focus groups:

Extract 2. FG.02. Student S06
I want to explain more, but my English is limited. It's not enough. But when we can present in Vietnamese, if we see a blank expression in our friends' faces, we can make it easier for them to understand.

This point can be seen in Extract 3, where students, instead of struggling in English to express her ideas, decided to shuttle between L2 and L1 for the sake of meaning conveying. This is a typical episode when students translanguaged for learning. Here, in line 1 and 2, the student was lost for words in English although she had already prepared the content at home. The main part of her discourse in the first two lines was "ah", accompanied with a number of short pauses. In line 3, after a 2-second pause, she decided to switch to Vietnamese and her presentation became much smoother and more fluent. The slides were still in English (Fig. 2), and the student maintained a balanced cooperation between what she said and what was shown in the slide. Here, there was a shuttle of languages in speakers' and listeners' minds to analyse the information delivered in both audio and visual channels.

Fig. 2 An example of students' PowerPoint slides
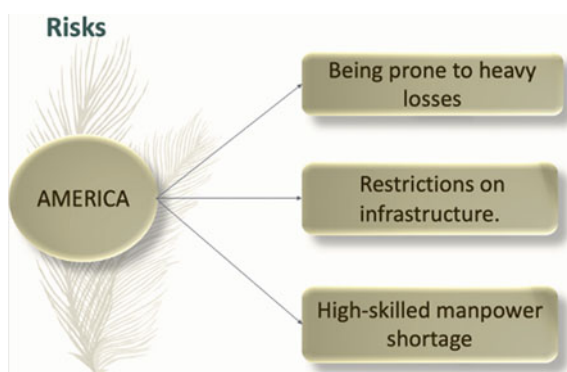
Extract 3. CR.T1.03

1 S1   and ah ah and ah ah (.) I will (.) ah present (.) ah the risks for ah (.) America and (.) ah ah Vietnam in

2   this project (.) this this (.) ah ah (.) the risk of America ah ah ah (2)

3   *đây đây là những cái rủi ro mà ah Mĩ có thể gặp phải khi đầu tư vào dự án (.)*
       {these these are the risks that ah the USA can face when investing into this project}

4   *Đó là ah ah cái vấn đề thu hồi vốn của Mĩ là sẽ khó khăn (.)*
       {it is ah ah its payback will be difficult}

5   *Thứ hai là cơ sở hạ tầng ở Việt Nam là vẫn còn yếu kém (.) nên là gây khó khăn ah cho Mĩ khi mà (.)*
       {secondly the infrastructure in Vietnam is still underdeveloped (.) so it is difficult for the USA when}

6   *Mĩ tiến hành dự án (.)*
       {the USA starts the project}

7   *Và thứ ba là (.) cái trình độ mà (.) cái trình độ lao động là còn thấp nên gây khó khăn cho Mĩ khi mà*
       {And thirdly (.) the level that (.) the work level is still low so it causes difficulties for the USA when}

8   *tiến hành ah cái (.) dự án này (.)*
       {conducting ah this (.) project}

In groups with various language proficiency, each individual member could also have their own language choice. It was common for a presentation to be delivered in English by one speaker, and then in Vietnamese by the next speaker. Similarly, each team selected the language for PowerPoint slides based on their own linguistic repertoire. Students expressed a positive attitude towards this translanguaging practice:

Extract 4. FG.01. Student S02

In classes like the one of T1, we are allowed to present the outline in English, the slides in English, but we should explain and present in Vietnamese so everyone can understand. If not, if we are asked to explain in English, no one will understand @ @

Fig. 3 Two PPT slides—CR.T1.04

An interesting example for students' language choice in T1's class is a project presentation about "dumping". Figure 3 represents the employment of both English and Vietnamese in students' slides. When introducing the background of dumping, student S1 had both the slides and her talk in L2. This part was quite theoretical and the English information presented could be found in journal articles or on the Internet. Furthermore, compared to her classmates, S1 was observed to prefer using English to Vietnamese. The next student, S2, switched to Vietnamese in her slide design and her talk without any advanced notice. After that introduction part, the group applied what they had learnt to proposing their project of "ProShrimp", an imaginative company founded and invested by a US corporation. The group had to ask for their classmates' participation in discussing the feasibility of this project by role playing a meeting between the company representative and local Vietnamese people. For this second part, the slides and talk were done in Vietnamese. In Extract 5, student S3 played the role of Proshrimp Company representative from the US and explained in English that she would use Vietnamese to communicate with her potential Vietnamese partners. After that, she switched to Vietnamese.

Extract 5. CR.T1.04

1	S3	hello everybody (.)
2		I'm Birdy (.) the representative of ah Proshrimp (.) Company (.)
3		well (.) I'm from the US but I want everyone to understand ah more clear about
4		our project (.) so I will present the project in Vietnamese (.) are you ok? (.)
5	Class	@@ ok
6	S3	đầu tiên thì (.) nhằm đáp ứng nhu cầu của ah người dân người dân nuôi tôm cả trong tỉnh
		{first (.) to meet the demand of people people who build shrimp farm in this province}
7		và ngoài tỉnh (.) tức là đáp ứng được nhu cầu và chất lượng của con tôm giống thì ah (.)
		{as other provinces (.) I mean to meet the demand and the quality of shrimp breeding ah}

It is apparent from the example above that S3 felt free to select what could maximise the quality of her presentation from her linguistic repertoires. S3 began her

presentation in English (lines 1–4), but then explained that she would use Vietnamese for the rest of her talk because she wanted everyone to understand her talk clearly. That is to say, S3 took into consideration the need to make her language choice fit well in that situation. At the end of S3's talk about ProShrimp, T1 questioned the use of Vietnamese by comparing the identity of Proshrimp and the use of language associated with that identity (Extract 6). T1's laughter (line 3) and comment on S3's Vietnamese proficiency (line 5) indicated her attention to the use of Vietnamese in this context. S3's response in line 6 functioned as a rebuttal against T1's statement "You speak Vietnamese fluently"—claiming that her choice of using Vietnamese in that setting was a deliberate and prepared act. It is interesting to see how the students empowered their L1 through this role play because normally in real life, that kind of meeting between an American company and local people would often take place in English with an English-Vietnamese translator.

Extract 6. CR.T1.04

1	T1	so Proshrimp is an American company (.) or a Vietnamese company?
2	S3	American
3	T1	[@@]
4	Class	[@@]
5	T1	you speak vietnamese fluently
6	S3	*không phải mô cô (.) do học Tiếng Việt cấp tốc* {no Mrs (.) I learnt Vietnamese intensively}

4.2 Students' Translanguaging Practices During Individual Presentations

While students presented in groups in the class of Teacher T1, individual presentation was assessed in the class of Teacher T2. However, delivering an individual presentation in English only was considerably hard for the second-year participants given their limited linguistic proficiency. Especially, when the module content was related to Politics, which means students often had to express their understandings in the form of essays or verbal presentations. Additionally, students were requested to prepare PowerPoint slides and handouts for their audience in English. At the end of their individual presentations, students were also expected to answer two to three questions from their classmates and Teacher T2, also in English. Teacher T2 explained the reason for her regulation as below:

Extract 7. IN.T2
I had a lot of expectations before teaching these classes. Yeah but there were many contradictions between expectations and realities, because in fact I thought my students would be similar to me. When I was a student here, I learnt these subjects in

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

As can be seen from Extract 7, Teacher T2 imposed the policy based on her own
experience as a previous student of the department, who studied these subjects in
English with much enthusiasm. She had assumed that, students would make their
effort at acquiring disciplinary knowledge no matter how challenging it was, and that
dictates her policy of English only in students' individual presentations. Yet even
when T2 recognised that delivering individual presentation in English was stressful
for students, it was too late for her to change that part of the policy because students
had already started presenting in week 3, and it would be inconsistent in assessment
if the language of delivery was not the same among students.

With such requirements, most students found it quite challenging to fully express
their understanding of the topic presented to their classmates. In most cases, the
PowerPoint slides turned out to be a reading script for presenters. Extract 8 and
Fig. 4 are typical illustrations for this. There was no difference between what the
student S4 verbally presented—as transcribed in the extract, and what was shown
in the slide—as screenshotted in Fig. 4. She literally read everything written on
her slide, without any clarification or elaboration. Moreover, it was puzzling for
the audience at the same time due to a number of pronunciation problems. For
example, S4 pronounced the word "range" (line 2) as /ren/, arrangements (line 3)
as /əˈrenrəmənt/, or measures (line 6) as /məˈʃʊə/. Her pauses at the middle of a
word also added more obstacles for comprehensibility, such as "broa(.)der" instead
of "broader" (line 2), or "in(.)terrogation" instead of "interrogation" (line 8).

Fig. 4 A PPT slide in S4's presentation on "Counter-Terrorism"—CR.T2.05

Extract 8. CR.T2.05

1	S4	firstly ah strengthening state security ah (2)
2		State should ah encourage much broa(.)der range of countries (.) to revise (.) and
3		strengthen (.) their arrangements for state security (.)
4		State security has been strength(.)ened by (.) extending the ah legal powers of government
5		(.)
6		State security ah measures have had an extra legal or at best ah quasi legal character (2)
7		Sometimes in(.)terrogation methods were used as forms of ah torture

S4 was just among many students in T2's class to deliver their presentations in this way. Consequently, the prohibition of translanguaging practices in this kind of English-only presentation appeared to make no contribution to the knowledge construction, because the majority of students did not seem to grasp the knowledge presented by their friends. Even the speakers read the content like a machine and were totally dependent on the slides or the prepared scripts, as revealed in focus groups:

Extract 9. FG.03. Student S11
I totally don't agree with this way of T2 because honestly we only focus on what we are gonna present, not our classmates. Once we finish ours, it's all done. We don't care anymore. We spend much time preparing for this, we read, we translate, we write, then we translate again, but in class we can only English and it's super hard for us. We just read aloud what we wrote at home. It's not the ideas that we can confidently present. And then, when someone presents, we audience don't understand anything. We sit there understanding nothing about our friends' presentations.

Nonetheless, students still managed to create a space for their translanguaging practices against that language policy of T2. During the focus groups, students uncovered that for the Q&A session at the end of each presentation, the presenters and their classmates would arrange beforehand a prepared set of questions to be asked (Extract 10). They would try to find the information in both Vietnamese and English first, and then in class would use English as required to answer the questions. On the one hand, this way of doing challenged the validity of an English-only zone during students' presentation and Q&A. On the other hand, it demonstrated how students acted on their agency towards the prohibition of translanguaging practices imposed by T2. This may be linked to the concepts of "front stage" and "back stage" behaviours in sociology proposed by Goffman (1959). In this case, the presentation in class was a "front stage" performance when presenters were aware of the norms, the expectations and the class setting, with T2 and their classmates watching them. They were expected to present in English in a comprehensible way, and the audience was supposed to follow the talk so as to come up with proper questions. In order to prepare for their "front stage" appearance, students secretly had their "back stage" interaction—when the presenters and the audience were more relaxed and revealed

their true selves. They admitted their fear for being reprimanded in class, employed their linguistic repertoires to complete the tasks given, and rehearsed their way of asking and answering questions naturally. The roles of the questioners and respondents in the class, therefore, were only a "front stage" performance of the roles of friends/classmates on the "back stage".

Extract 10. FG.03. Student S13
For that subject of global politics, we will arrange the questions before class in Vietnamese, sometimes if we are confident we'll do it in English as well. We will tell the presenters before class what we are going to ask them after their presentation, so they can get their answers ready. They can search for the information on the Internet, on the Vietnamese webpages.

It is apparent from the example above that students did not just passively follow what was imposed on them in terms of language use. Instead, they conduct their translanguaging practices, either explicitly or secretly, hence could make great use of their linguistic repertoires for the benefit of learning.

5   Discussion and Conclusion

The book chapter has analysed translanguaging practices from the perspective of student agency in two observed EMI modules, in which students had to deliver either individual or group presentations. This section will discuss its findings in comparison to existing literature based on the three components of the ROAD-MAPPING framework: Agents, Roles of English, and Practices and Processes. The Agents component in ROAD-MAPPING considers different individual social players in an EMI setting, including students (Dafouz & Smit, 2016). At a micro level, students' agency in EMI can be demonstrated via their way of negotiation and re-interpretation of the language policy imposed on their processes of knowledge co-construction and meaning making (Practices and Processes). Students' "complex and fluid language practices" (García & Lin, 2016, p. 1) underline the linguistic ecology of an EMI setting where English co-exists with other languages in harmony (the Roles of English). As the ROAD-MAPPING framework points out, "the functional breadth of English must be considered in relation to the complete linguistic repertoire of a specific higher education site" (Dafouz & Smit, 2016, p. 403).

In this study, there were different factors influencing teachers T1 and T2 in the way they imposed the language policy on their classes. Since those go beyond the scope of this current chapter, they were briefly touched in Extract 1 and Extract 7. However, the aforementioned examples from two modules of T1 and T2 clearly illustrate the roles of translanguaging practices from students' perspectives, no matter what the policy was. In the second module, T2's strict rule in which students had to use English only in their presentations, handouts, Q&A, and PowerPoint slides seriously limited students' learning space and impeded their meaning-making process. This monolingual orientation follows the ideological pressures that languages should be kept "pure

and separate" (Lemke, 2002, p. 85), hence moving between languages is "frowned upon" in educational settings (Creese & Blackedge, 2010, p. 105). Notwithstanding this, as Laupenmühlen (2012, cited in Tavares, 2015) argues, students are naturally inclined to activate their own existing resources in L1 when dealing with tasks and concepts in L2. T2's students still enacted their agency in resorting to Vietnamese as a "hidden" strategy from their teacher. This once again reconfirms that studying via L2 does not prevent students from relying on their mother tongue in processing information (Logan-Terry & Wright, 2010).

On the other hand, in the module of T1, students independently and naturally shuttled between Vietnamese and English when presenting their group ideas or when discussing with their classmates and T1 during their presentations. Students' use of translanguaging to co-construct content knowledge was accepted by their lecturer T1, who acknowledged the existence of two languages in the programme and jointly created the space for students' translanguaging practices. Students played along two languages in meaning-making process, creating a new reality in which both English and Vietnamese operated within the dynamism of classroom practices. How much each language was used varied among students depending on individual language strength, but more importantly, the two languages collaborated and empowered the students linguistically and academically. Particularly in student talk, their translanguaging serves three important discursive functions mentioned by García and Li (2014, p. 103), including "to participate", "to elaborate ideas", and "to raise questions".

The data presented in this study highlight the crucial importance of translanguaging pedagogy via student involvement for the benefit of both learning and teaching in bilingual/multilingual settings (e.g. Doiz et al., 2013; García & Li, 2014; Lewis et al., 2012a, 2012b; Probyn, 2006). Additionally, it can be inferred from this study that L1 use in EMI classrooms is not "a deficit practice" (Probyn, 2006, p. 220), or something to feel guilty about (Creese & Blackedge, 2010). Instead, students' active use of both Vietnamese and English in this current study underscores that EMI should be seen as providing settings for the nourishment of bilingualism/multilingualism. It should not definitely be oriented towards monolingual English ideologies and practices.

From students' translanguaging practices in the investigated EMI settings, the final point to discuss here is what lecturers can do to support their students' EMI learning. It is of great importance that lecturers can provide "bilingual supportive scaffolding practices" (Doiz et al., 2013, p. 218), in which Vietnamese or any other L1 can function as a bridge for students to access the content to be acquired in English and then produce new knowledge themselves. Especially, in situations where students' language proficiency is insufficient, the "linguistic purism" with English only (Lin, 2006) may cause the simplification of content knowledge or the risk of students' failure to absorb necessary disciplinary information. Consequently, it is highly recommended that students' translanguaging practices should not be considered as negatively impacting their academic development. More importantly, there

should be trainings or activities to raise lecturers' awareness of classroom translanguaging in EMI settings. This is necessary for both pre- and in-service teacher education and can be done by providing specific examples, probably from empirical studies in the area, in which lecturers' and students' linguistic repertoires are valued and employed in an appropriate way to enhance learning opportunities. A taxonomy of translanguaging strategies and functions may also be useful for teacher trainees to accept the usefulness of different languages in their classes, while feeling assured that bilingual/multilingual practices are common in EMI programmes. However, as Ferguson (2003) suggests, the general aim of these activities is not to impose prescriptive guidelines on EMI lecturers, but to enhance their understanding of translanguaging, based on which they can make their own decision.

To sum up, the study provides useful empirical data, analysed and discussed against the ROAD-MAPPING framework, to provide insights into EMI translanguaging practices as seen through the perspectives of student agency. It highlights students' role in re-interpreting and implementing the language-in-education policy at the classroom level. The differences in two modules observed and how students in each module perceived and employed English and Vietnamese in delivering their presentations reflect the significance of translanguaging activities in knowledge co-construction and meaning-making. The key contribution of this study, therefore, is the recommendation for EMI lecturers to value students' classroom language resources and take pedagogically language-related actions (Tavares, 2015). In so doing, students are given enough learning space to construct their disciplinary knowledge dynamically and functionally with their available linguistic repertoires. Future research could build on this study by exploring EMI students' perceptions and practices of translanguaging in preparing for their classes, reading at home, reviewing for exams, or interacting with their classmates and lecturers during group discussions. Also, as the current chapter's limitation lies in the lack of focus on teachers' perspective of translanguaging practices, it may be helpful for future studies to cross-reference data from teachers and students to provide a more comprehensive picture of translanguaging in EMI classes.

Transcription Conventions

(.)	short pause
(number)	longer pause in seconds
Italic text	utterances in Vietnamese
{ }	translation
@	laughter
?	rising intonation for question

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Phuong Le Hoang Ngo finished her Ph.D. study at the University of Southampton, UK in 2019 and is currently a lecturer at Faculty of English, University of Foreign Languages, Hue University, Vietnam. Her research interests include English Medium Instruction (EMI), English as a Lingua Franca, language-in-education planning and policy, and teacher education. Her latest publication is Truong, T. T. L, Ngo, L. H. P, and Nguyen, X. N. C. M (2020). Assessment practices in local and international EMI programmes: Perspectives of Vietnamese students. In Phan, L. H. & Doan, B. N. (eds). *Higher Education in Market-Oriented Socialist Vietnam: New Players, Discourses, and Practices.* Palgrave MacMillan.