English as an International Language (EIL) in Vietnam: A study of Vietnamese ELT teachers' reflections

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Contents

Abstract

The native speaker (NS) model has been used since the beginning of English language teaching (ELT) in Vietnam, just as it has been in a number of Expanding Circle countries. Achieving native-like competence is highly desirable and is considered a great success for Vietnamese learners of English. Having an official or special status in more than 80 countries worldwide, however, English has now become an international language used for intercultural communication by over two billion speakers (British Council, 2014). Among these speakers, there are presently more non-native speakers than NSs of English, a fact 'which has extraordinary implications for the ownership of English' (Galloway & Rose, 2015, p. 25). With the spread of English, English has changed extensively both structurally and pragmatically. The current complex roles and status of English require us to re-examine teaching models and methodologies in ELT, especially in countries employing traditional methods (Sharifian, 2009). Although scholars have undertaken theoretical examinations relating to this, and have discussed the resulting teaching implications, teachers' perspectives have not as yet been extensively studied. Therefore, teachers' voices are highly important in the discussions of the current status of English and its impacts on their teaching. This thesis addresses this gap in the extant literature by examining the opinions of Vietnamese teachers with two major goals in mind. The first is to discover teachers' perspectives on the possible implications of the contemporary status of English for their teaching practices in the context of Vietnam. The second is an investigation of whether presenting teachers with information about the recent changes within the English language would affect their prospective pedagogical choices. This study collects data from 52 participants in Vietnam, comprising six focus groups and 19 individual interviews. The collected data is first presented and then its implications for possible teaching models and the teaching of culture(s) as well as for teaching materials for ELT are comprehensively discussed. Participants' responses range from a preference for the NS model,

NS cultures and NS-based materials, on the one hand, to a desire for integrating other varieties of English as well as various cultures into classrooms, including a consideration of the point at which these should be introduced, on the other. The study then describes a number of challenges and constraints upon taking an EIL approach to pedagogy in Vietnamese ELT settings. These include the teachers' lack of understanding of the sociolinguistic complexity of the English language, students' limited levels of English which present challenges for integrating the diversity of English into classrooms, the attitudes of teaching facilities and various external factors that contribute to the struggles around the paradigm shift surrounding the relative importance of New Englishes in ELT. The research finally presents a number of pedagogical suggestions for ELT in Vietnam and countries in which the context of ELT is similar. It is important to increase EIL exposure in teacher education and to inspire a change in attitudes/mindsets of language educators to implement innovation in ELT that responds to the diverse status of English today.

Declaration

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma at any university or equivalent institution and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

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I own any mistakes in this thesis.

Abbreviations

ASEAN	Association of South East Asian Nations
EFL	English as a foreign language
EIL	English as an international language
ELF	English as a lingua franca
ELT	English language teaching
ENL	English as a native language
ESL	English as a second language
ESOL	English for speakers of other languages
MOET	Ministry of Education and Training
NNS	Non-native speaker
NS	Native speaker
NES	Native English speakers
RP	Received Pronunciation
SLA	Second language acquisition
TEFL	Teaching English as a foreign language
TEIL	Teaching English as an international language
TESOL	Teaching English to speakers of other languages
WE	World Englishes

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INTRODUCTION

1.0.   Introduction

This study is the first of its kind to contribute to the discipline of teaching English as an international language by exploring teachers' reflections on the recent changes within the English language for their teaching profession in Vietnam. Unlike previous work on the teaching implications of these changes from the points of view from scholars and researchers (Galloway & Rose, 2015; Kirkpatrick, 2012, 2014; McKay, 2002, 2003; Marlina & Giri, 2014; Matsuda, 2003a, 2006, 2012; Saraceni, 2015), this study employs a bottom-up approach that examines the opinions of Vietnamese teachers with two major goals in mind. The first is to discover ELT teachers' perspectives on the possible implications of the contemporary status of English for their teaching practices in the context of Vietnam. The second is an investigation of whether presenting teachers with information about the recent changes within the English language in its role as an international language would affect their attitudes towards teaching practices. This introductory chapter begins with providing preliminary background for contextualising this research, specifying its research aims and questions as well as its significance in the field of English language teaching (ELT), followed by a detailed outline of the thesis and a brief glossary of the terms used in this thesis.

1.1. Background

1.1.1. English in the world

Since English has become the common language for international communication in almost all fields, the world is experiencing a tremendous spread of the language around the globe (Graddol,

2006). As a result of the influence of the British colonial empire and its successor the Commonwealth of Nations, and in particular post WWII globalisation under American sway, English has gained a truly global or international status (Galloway & Rose, 2015). Its international status can be illustrated by the following facts and observations.

- *88 countries (60 sovereign and 28 non-sovereign states) give English an official status (British Council, 2014).*
- *More than 80 per cent of interactions in English take place between non-native speakers (Crystal, 1997).*
- *English is the language of international diplomacy and plays an official or working role in the proceedings of most major political gatherings, including the United Nations, the Association of South East Nations (ASEAN), and the European Union (EU).*
- *English is used as the working language in many international organisations. In Asia and the Pacific, about 90 per cent of international bodies carry out their proceedings entirely in English. "The overriding assumption is that, wherever in the world an organisation is based, English is the chief auxiliary language" (Crystal, 2003, p. 89).*
- *English radio programmes are received by 150 million people in over 120 countries, and 100 million receive programmes from the BBC World Service (Crystal, 2008, p. 99).*
- *Some 75 per cent of the world's mail and the world's electronically stored information is in English (McArthur, 2002, p. 3).*
- *English dominates popular culture and the entertainment industry, and in 2002, over 80 per cent of feature films released in cinemas were in English (Crystal, 2003, p. 99).*
- *English is the lingua franca of air traffic control, airports and civil aviation, and hotels and shipping lanes.*
- *English is more widely taught as a foreign language than any other and is the foremost language of international scholarship (Coulmas, 2005).*
- *English is involved in more language-contact situations than any other language.*
- *Seventy-four per cent of tourists travelling in non-English-speaking countries employ English for communication, a statistic which highlights the role of English as the most important language for the increasingly mobile international world (Graddol, 2006).*
- *With the development of social networking sites such as Facebook and YouTube, the internet now serves as another important medium for the dissemination of English, enabling language learners to interact in English with other speakers from all over the world. (adapted from Galloway & Rose, 2015, pp. 11-12)*

These statements show that English is used for a wide range of activities across a wide range of contexts "where people from diverse linguistic, cultural and national backgrounds interact and communicate with each other" (Matsuda, 2012, p. 2). As the spread of English progresses, the

English language has changed extensively both structurally and pragmatically. Widdowson (2003) observes that English does not travel around the world as a product but has an unstable nature that gets transformed during this journey. Indeed, non-native speakers (NNSs) not only alter the sounds of English through their particular accents, but also import elements of their native language and culture into their usage of English (Honna, 2008; Galloway & Rose, 2015). For instance, 'to shake legs' (from Malay idiom) means 'to be idle' in Singaporean English (Jenkins, 2003). This expression therefore has the opposite meaning of a similar sounding idiomatic expression of 'standard' English: 'to shake a leg', meaning 'to make a start' (Oxford dictionary, 2016). Apparently, Asians, Africans or Europeans speaking English with their own national and cultural features are contributing to the emergence of multiple varieties of English. For instance, a number of varieties of English take root in America, Australia, and Britain, for instance, its diversification is attributed to the existence of established varieties of English such as Indian English, Malaysian English, Singaporean English, and Philippine English. There are also more recently emerging varieties of English such as Chinese English, Japanese English, and Korean English. Indeed, the global spread of English is predicted to continue in the future, making the roles and grammatical and pragmatic rules of English much more complex. As Sharifian (2014, p. 37) contends,

> The development of these new varieties of English is not just based on the consideration of accent and few lexical borrowings, but on the use of English by communities of speakers to express their *cultural conceptualisations* (emphasis as in original).

The literature uses various terms to refer to these changes in English in the last twenty years: 'English as a global language' (Crystal, 1997), 'English as a lingua franca (ELF) versus English as a native language (ENL)' (Jenkins, 2000; Seidlhofer, 2001), 'English as a world language' (Nunan, 2003), 'World Englishes' (Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Jenkins, 2003; Kachru, 1982; Kachru & Nelson, 1996; Kirkpatrick, 2007), 'English as a multicultural language in Asian contexts'

(Honna, 2008) and 'Global Englishes' (Pennycook, 2007). The intention is not to discuss these terms in detail but to reflect upon the changing contemporary sociolinguistic reality of English in the world that yields a number of implications for the field of ELT.

1.1.2. Pedagogical implications for English language teaching and learning

One implication for the teaching of the English language is the question of what the major goal(s) of ELT should be and what teaching model(s) should be taught. For a long time, it has been strongly believed that achieving native-like competence is the utmost goal for English language learners, as this would enable them to communicate with native English speakers (NESs) effectively (McKay, 2002). Traditional ELT pedagogy has used American and British English as its major models. The adoption of this NS model is most beneficial to those who wish to learn English in order to interact with NESs (Kirkpatrick, 2006). It is worth noting, however, that the number of these learners is relatively small compared to those who are learning English to converse with NNSs of English (Kirkpatrick, 2006), which indicates that it is not necessary for learners to have native-like competence to use English effectively. Indeed, many academics have discussed the shortcomings of this NS teaching model of ELT, particularly in terms of the changing status of English as an international language (EIL) (Kirkpatrick, 2006; Matsuda, 2006, 2012; McKay, 2002, 2012; Marlina, 2014, Sharifian, 2009) (to be explained in depth in Chapter Two).

When American and British English are mainly taught in classrooms, students of English may end up believing that these two varieties are the only correct forms for them to learn (Matsuda, 2006). This may be misleading and result in the formation of negative attitudes towards other varieties of English (Chiba, Matusuura & Yamamoto, 1995; Smith, 1992, as cited in Matsuda, 2006). In Korea, for instance, although the concept of EIL was adopted in the 2008 Revised National Curriculum,

the NS model has been mainly used in ELT (Park & Kim, 2014). Teachers and students still hold negative attitudes towards other varieties of English. Consequently, the authors have called for a rise in the awareness of World Englishes and the application of a Korean model based on Korean learner-specific needs in learning EIL. As Saraceni (2015, p. 187) concludes,

> Learning English need not to be seen as a strenuous journey whose ultimate destination is the achievement of 'native-like' status or a linguistic 'visa' into a special 'inner circle'. Learning English means, above all, making it easier to take part, actively and critically, in the practices and discourses that (re-)present, (re-)construct and (re-)shape the global and local worlds we live in.

1.1.3. The paradigm of EIL

The paradigm of EIL has emerged as a response to the geographic, demographic and structural changes within the English language (Matsuda, 2012; McKay 2002, 2003; Sharifian, 2009; Smith, 1976, 1983; Strevens, 1980). It has been considered a paradigm shift in the field of English teaching and learning. It has also affected the applied linguistics of English, since it examines the complexities related to the recently global spread of English (Sharifian, 2009). It is necessary here to clarify exactly what is meant by the concept of EIL.

EIL has been extensively explored and defined by scholars worldwide. Smith (1976, p. vi) first defines EIL as 'functions of English, not to any given form of the language. It is the use of English by people of different nations and different cultures in order to communicate with one another. It is not a new form of BASIC English'. Similarly, Matsuda and Friedrich (2010, p. 20) use the term EIL to refer to 'a *function* that English performs in multilingual contexts' (italic as in original). On the other hand, Holliday (2009) considers EIL as a synonym for English for speakers of other languages (ESOL). According to Seidlhofer (2011), however, EIL comprises 'localised EIL, which includes World Englishes and nation-based varieties, and globalised EIL, involving international communication characterised by hybrid ways of speaking and de-territorialized speech events' (as

cited in Galloway & Rose, 2015, p. xii). For the scope of this thesis, EIL is conceptualised as 'a paradigm for thinking, research, and practice' (Sharifian, 2009, p. 2). It includes the recognition of the international functions of English language and its international use in a wide range of cultural and economic contexts by speakers of English coming from diverse cultural backgrounds (Marlina, 2014). As a paradigm, EIL calls for the need to:

• revisit and reconsider ways of conceptualising English by scholars, researchers, and educators

• re-assess their analytical tools and the approaches they adopt in the sociolinguistics of English and TESOL disciplines, and

• revise their pedagogical strategies for English language education in the light of the tremendous changes that English has undergone as a result of its global expansion in recent decades (Marlina, 2014, p. 4).

By acknowledging the diverse status of English, the paradigm of EIL also shares the ideologies of World Englishes, the discussion of this paradigm will be briefly presented in the literature review chapter.

1.1.4. EIL in the literature

As mentioned above, the emerging paradigm of EIL is engaged in a critical re-examination of the concepts, teaching models, teaching content, methodologies and curriculum development of English language teaching and learning. Many publications have responded to this call at both the theoretical and empirical levels. The demographic, geographic and structural changes of English raise the questions of the ownership of and attitudes towards English(es), intercultural communication, and the relationship of EIL to the curriculum. These topics have been explored

and studied comprehensively by Canagarajah, 2006; Crystal, 1997, 2003; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Graddol, 1997, 2006; Jenkins, 2007, 2009; Kachru, 1986, 1992; Kirkpatrick, 2006, 2009, 2010; Kubota, 2012; Matsuda, 2003b; Sharifian, 2009, 2014, and Widdowson, 1994. The topics in relation to EIL in the literature will be extensively addressed in Chapter Two. In terms of pedagogy, exploring EIL and its teaching implications for ELT has been the focus of a number of books, articles and journals (Alsagoff et al., 2012; Bruthiaux, 2010; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Holliday, 2005; Jenkins, 2006; Marlina & Giri, 2014; Matsuda, 2003, 2012; Matsuda & Friedrich, 2012; McKay, 2003, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2007, 2010, 2011, 2012; Kirkpatrick & Sussex, 2012; Saraceni, 2015; Strevens, 1980).

Based on the current status of English worldwide, one of the major goals of English teaching is to develop learners' linguistic and communicative skills as well as their intercultural communications skills so that they can communicate with speakers from various cultural backgrounds (Sharifian, 2014). In order to achieve this goal, various teaching models have been suggested in the context of English used as an international language. They include (1) an/the international variety of English (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2012) or the lingua franca model (Kirkpatrick, 2006); (2) the speakers' own variety of English (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2012) or the nativised model (Kirkpatrick, 2006); (3) the established variety of English (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2012); and (4) the multilingual model for intercultural communication (Kirkpatrick, 2013), a model that calls for the introduction of different varieties of English into ELT classrooms worldwide, including in the context of Vietnam.

1.1.5. ELT in Vietnam

Vietnam has responded positively to the global need for English. The demand for the use of this language in the country has been continually on the rise, and was especially noticeable during the English boom in December 1986 (Hoang, 2011). It is in this significant year when an overall economic reform, or "Doi Moi" (Renovation), aiming at opening the door of Vietnam to the whole world began (Hoang, 2011). In this context, English has become the most important foreign language taught in schools, universities and foreign language centres. Ninety per cent of foreign language learners in Vietnam study English and do so for a number of various purposes, such as job seeking, job promotion and overseas studies (Do, 2006). Based on the general curriculum, English is now compulsory at both lower and upper secondary school levels and, mainly in large cities, an optional subject in primary education from year three to year five.

The Vietnamese Ministry of Education has reinforced the high status of English in the country by approving a 10-year National Plan for 'Teaching and Learning Foreign Languages in the National Formal Educational System in the Period of 2008-2020' (Decision N˚1400, 2008). The new objectives of this program are to improve the existing status of ELT and to use English as a key tool for keeping pace with other countries. In recent years, the Vietnamese government has encouraged tertiary institutions to use English as the medium of instruction for several subjects, such as maths and chemistry, in order to promote ELT at tertiary level. This policy was first implemented at several pivotal universities before being applied to the whole tertiary educational system.

Despite these efforts towards improving the quality of ELT, globalisation and the diversity of English has significantly challenged the English teaching methodologies and the competence of

Vietnamese ELT teachers. In Vietnam, communicative language teaching (CLT) has been the method of choice since the 1990s (Nguyen, 2005; Pham, 2005a, 2005b). In the application of CLT in Vietnam, American or British English are posited as the only standard models for language learners who are expected to achieve native-speaker competence. It has been, however, observed that requiring Vietnamese students to acquire English native-speaker competence seems irrelevant, as indicated above (Alptekin, 2002; Matsuda, 2012).

According to Bui's (2006) study, most graduating students have difficulty with English communication. They tend to master grammar and linguistics elements such as syntax and phonetics, but fail to achieve intercultural communicative competence (Nguyen, 2007). This is a result of teachers of English not having sufficient training to teach English as an international language (Lam, 2011). The recent changes in English require an effort to reconsider the conventional practices in ELT in various parts of the world. It is, therefore, important for the Vietnamese educational system to focus on the changing status of English to prepare leaners for effective international communication.

Ton and Pham (2010) conducted a study documenting Vietnamese teachers' and students' perceptions of global English. The findings showed that British and American English were the preferred models. Although the teachers were aware of the importance of familiarizing students with other varieties of English, they continued to use the NS model due to time constraints, limited materials and the lack of non-native speaker-model-based tests. Duong (2012) studied the attitudes and beliefs of 86 educators, administrators and teachers in eight Asian countries, including Vietnam, about global English. The majority of them shared the belief that English now has a diversity of forms and functions. Even so, only a small proportion of the participants acknowledged a need to include a localized variety of English in the classroom, because they

believed this inclusion was ineffective within the wider contexts of international communication. According to the researcher, they still followed 'standard' English due to its perceived prestige value. There has been no further research into examining teachers' opinions on ELT in Vietnam since that study.

1.1.6. Gap in the field

Despite the comprehensive literature on EIL, most attention of which has been paid to perceptions and attitudes to Englishes or global English, exploration of ELT teachers' perspectives regarding the changing status of English and its impacts on their teaching remains unexplored, especially in the context of Vietnam. What has been widely established so far are theories and teaching implications examined and discussed for the most part by scholars and researchers. Realising this gap in the extant literature has motivated the present study. This study is designed to explore what English teachers think about the recent changes in the role of English with regard to the high demand for the teaching and learning of the English language in Vietnam and how their opinions are informing their teaching practices. This exploration forms the base line of this thesis, the aims of which are outlined in the next section.

1.2. Research aims

The study is an empirical investigation of the implications of the recent changes in English for the teaching profession in Vietnam from the perspectives of Vietnamese ELT teachers. Teachers are provided with an opportunity to reflect on the current status of English and to discuss the resulting pedagogical implications of the diversity of English for their teaching in terms of teaching models, the teaching of culture(s) as well as teaching materials. In addition, this thesis examines critically

whether or not presenting teachers with information about the changing status of English would lead to changes to their perceptions and attitudes towards English teaching practices.

1.3. Research questions

The main research question guiding this study is, *'What are Vietnamese ELT teachers' reflections on the implications of the changing status within the English language for their teaching profession?'* Related subsidiary questions are as follows:

1. What do the participants think are the implications for teaching models?
2. What do the participants think are the implications for teaching of culture(s)?
3. What do the participants think are the implications for teaching materials?
4. What constraints and challenges may prevent them from carrying out these implications in their teaching?
5. Would informing them about recent changes in English affect their perspectives/attitudes towards English pedagogy?

1.4. Synopsis of the research design, method and sources of data

Building upon the emerging paradigm of EIL used as the major theoretical framework, this dissertation employs qualitative modes of enquiry in order to carry out the research aims described in section 1.2. The research data is drawn from two main sources of data collection methods: focus groups and individual interviews. In-depth inductive analysis of the data is used to construct a thematic framework for data analysis. The data is transcribed and grouped into four major themes based on the research questions (also as main interview questions) focusing on the participants' reflections on the implications of the recent changes within English for: (1)

teaching models, (2) teaching of culture(s); (3) teaching materials; and (4) teaching constraints and challenges. The substantive reflections were further grouped into sub-categories as presented in each section in the Findings Chapters.

1.5. Significance of the study

The internationalisation of English has precipitated a need for a critical evaluation of ELT practice worldwide (Sharifian, 2009; Matsuda, 2012; Galloway & Rose, 2015). Nevertheless, this need is left implicit in many contexts, including EFL Vietnam. Exploring Vietnamese ELT teachers' reflections on the impact of the changing status of English on their teaching profession is of tremendous importance for the following reasons.

Firstly, the aims of this research respond to the call for the paradigm shift in ELT. Here the field of EIL has opened new directions for research that attempts to explore this area from various perspectives (Ketabi & Shomoossi, 2007). Indeed, although a large amount of literature has discussed the international manifestation of English (presented comprehensively in Chapter Two), discussions of the pedagogical implications of this diverse language remain at an abstract level (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011). Addressing this gap, this study focuses not only on theoretical but also empirical level with the goal of examining Vietnamese ELT teachers' points of view upon the pedagogical implications of the recent changes in English for the first time in ELT research in Vietnam. Combining both theoretical and empirical elements, the study provides a major contribution to the current body of research concerning the interplay between ELT and the current status of English, of a sort that is needed in the growing area of research on EIL.

Through its empirical research, the study offers new insights into understanding teachers' attitudes and mindset affecting their instructional choices for their teaching practices within discussions of

the pedagogical implications of the changing status of English. As described earlier, Vietnam is now relatively behind in terms of research implementation in the area of EIL. As a result, the findings of this study are expected to provide some pedagogical suggestions for classroom application in ELT in Vietnam. In particular, this study aims to play a key role in raising awareness about the diverse nature of English and its implications for ELT as well as opening up new directions for English teaching practices in terms of selecting relevant teaching models, cultures and materials in the classroom.

In addition, the insights of this study are expected to inform ELT scholars, materials developers, syllabus designers and administrative staff of a number of constraints and challenges that teachers face and how these challenges prevent them from carrying out EIL informed practices in their teaching. The revisiting of existing curricula as well as teacher and student training programmes is also encouraged in order to meet the needs of the English language teaching and learning in the context of globalisation. The resulting outcomes of the study, therefore, can significantly contribute to the effort to overcome these aforementioned challenges and provide teachers with assistance in teaching so as to foster the overall quality of the educational instruction, as emphasized by the Vietnamese Ministry of Education.

Apart from its vital roles in the academic context, English is imperative to the integration and development of Vietnamese international trade and employment of Vietnamese citizens overseas. For instance, Vietnam is a member of the ASEAN, the aims of which are accelerating economic growth, social progress, cultural development among its members, the protection of regional peace and stability, and to provide opportunities for member countries to discuss differences peacefully (Asean.org, 2016). In fact, ASEAN has had plans to move to a free regional labour market known as ASEAN Economic Community's (AEC) integration since early 2016. This certainly encourages

more people from ASEAN member nations to work abroad, compounding the need to use English(es) for communication. Vietnam has extensively focused on the growing regional and international demand for workers with English skills in this region. This study, therefore, deals with essential aspects of ELT, which will play a significant role in business, political relations, and cultural exchanges in Vietnam as a member of this association.

1.6. Overview of the thesis

This introductory chapter has

- introduced the background information about the spread of English and its diversity;

- presented the theoretical framework on which the study is based, establishing key terminology;

- outlined overall research aims as well as research questions;

- provided a synopsis of the research method;

- and explained the significance of the study.

The remaining chapters are organised as follows. Chapter Two contextualises the study in the relevant literature in relation to English changes in the field of EIL, previous studies regarding teachers and learners' attitudes towards and perspectives upon the current status of English as well as of ELT in the context of Vietnam. In Chapter Three, the methodology employed to conduct the study is described in detail and a description of the participants and locations, research instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis process is given. The results of focus group and individual interviews based on emerging themes developed from interview questions are extensively analysed from Chapter Four to Chapter Eight. Chapter Nine focuses on a summary discussion of the findings and proposes a number of pedagogical implications based on those

findings as well as outlines the limitations of the study and suggests several recommendations for future research. All the chapters are summarized in the following figure.

Figure 1.1 A summary of thesis structure
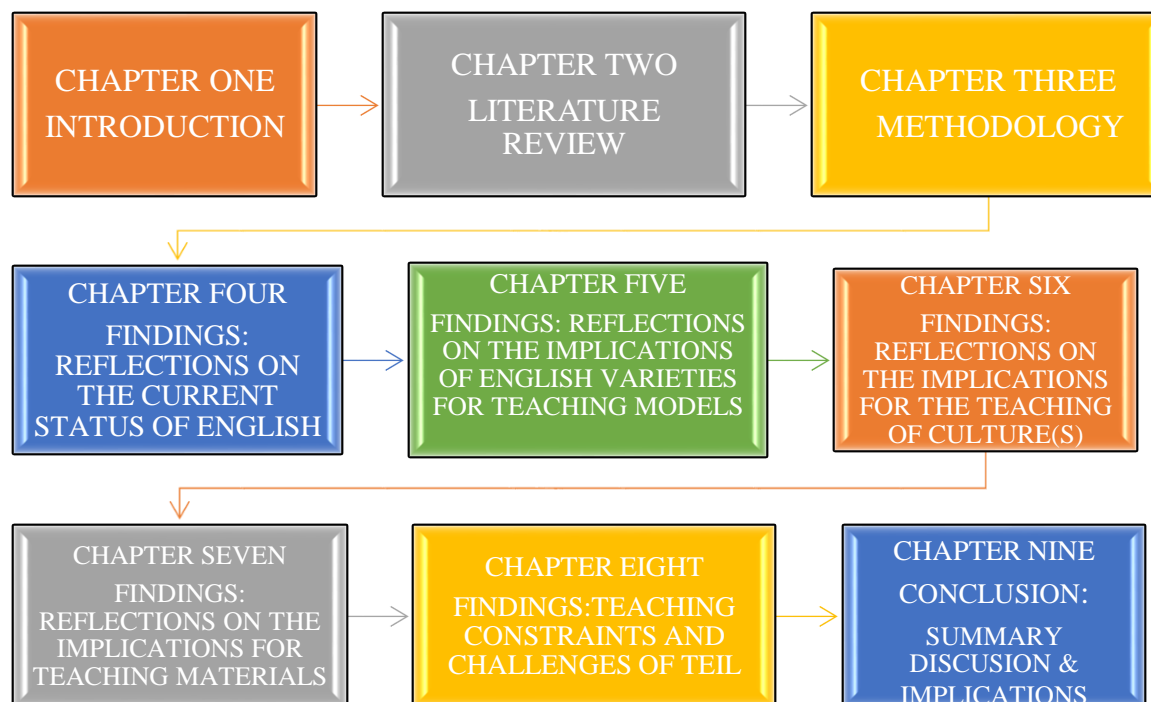
1.7. Glossary

Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN): a geo-political and economic organisation of ten countries in South East Asia which was established in 1967. The member states are Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Vietnam.

Attitudes (towards language): the way people think or feel about other languages and variation in linguistic features.

Communicative competence: Communicative competence, as defined by Hymes (1972), emphasizes the ability to use language appropriately in appropriate contexts in addition to knowledge of the language structure.

Doi Moi (renovation): the economic reform applied to the policy of economic renovation which has been operating in Vietnam since 1986 with remarkable impact on the economy.

English as a foreign language (EFL): the use of English in context where it has no official status and is not widely used in the local community, and thus is limited to special contexts like the classroom.

English as an international language (EIL): refers to 'functions of English, not to any given form of the language. It is the use of English by people of different nations and different cultures in order to communicate with one another. It is not a new form of BASIC English' by Smith (1976, p. vi).

English as a national language (ENL): the use of English in a context where it is the mother tongue of the majority of the population, and is used in an official capacity.

English as a second language (ESL): the use of English in a context where it is an official language spoken alongside other mother tongue languages.

Englishes: a term used to emphasise the plurality of English.

Expanding Circle countries: a term coined by Kachru (1985) referring to countries where English is widely studied but has no official role such as China, Japan and Vietnam.

Globalisation: the process in which the world has become increasingly interconnected as business and other organisations start operating on an international scale.

Inner Circle countries: a term coined by Kachru (1985) referring to countries which are English speaking such as Australia, Britain and the U.S.A.

Instructional models: (1) an approach to language teaching and (2) the selected variety to be used in the classroom.

Intercultural communication: communication between people with different cultural and linguistic backgrounds.

L1: First language or mother tongue

L2: second language

Language shift: the change from the dominant use of one language to another.

Lingua franca: a language widely used by speakers of different languages to communicate. It can be an international language like English or a shared national language.

Linguistic diversity: the multiplicity of living languages or dialects of languages that exist in a geographic region or social group.

Native speaker: a term used to describe a speaker's use of their first language.

Non-native speaker: a term used to describe a speaker for whom English is not the first language.

Outer Circle countries: a term coined by Kachru (1985) referring to countries where English has a long history and serves a number of functions in education, government, literature and popular culture such as India, the Philippines and Singapore.

Standard: norms that are thought to be consistent and widely accepted as 'correct'.

World Englishes: varieties of English spoken in Inner Circle countries, Outer Circle countries as well as Expanding Circle countries, where widespread use of English has led to the development of particular standards of use.

1.8. Chapter summary

Chapter One has presented the background of this research, addressing the current status of English in the world and its relevance in teaching the English language. The emerging paradigm of EIL has been briefly discussed with a focus on EIL in the literature and ELT in Vietnam, where the research was conducted. The next sections have discussed the research arms, research questions as well as the synopsis of the research design, method and sources of the data for this study. After stating the significance of the study and outlining an overview of the thesis, the chapter has concluded with a brief glossary of the terms employed in this thesis. In the next chapter, a more thorough review of the literature related to the recent changes in English, teaching EIL as well as ELT in Vietnamese EFL settings will be comprehensively presented and discussed.

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0. Introduction

> In today's world, non-native speakers use English quite frequently with other non-native speakers and they need specific training for that… native English speakers should study English as an international language if they plan to interact in English with non-native or with other native speakers who use a different national variety (Smith, 1983, p. v).

In recent decades, the world has witnessed the global spread of English, a language that is used by more NNSs to communicate than by L1 users today. Being the main language in almost all fields, from trade, tourism, regional development and cooperation, overseas studies and academic pursuits in general, more and more countries are using the English language as an international language or as their lingua franca to communicate with the rest of the world. Hence, "English is not one of our national languages, but it is our international language. And English as an international language is not the same as English as a second or foreign language" (Smith, 1983, p. 7).

As an international language, English has experienced changes at the demographic, geographic and structural levels, spreading a number of established varieties of English such as Singaporean English and Indian English as well as emerging varieties of English, namely Chinese English and Japanese English. In fact, there is already extensive literature documenting the syntactic, lexical, semantic, pragmatic, sociolinguistic, and phonological features of the new varieties of English such as African Englishes (Anchimbe, 2006; Bamiro, 1994; Bonaventure, 2006), Chinese English (Cui, 2006; Jiang, 2005, Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002; Xu, 2010), Hong Kong English (Bolton, 2000, 2002; Pang, 2003; Poon, 2006), Indian English (Sailaja, 2009), Korean English (Shim, 1999), Malaysian English (Hashim, 2002; Preshous, 2001), Pakistani English (Baumgardner, 1995), Persian English (Sharifian, 2010a) and so on.

To respond to those changes, the paradigm of EIL has emerged as a critical multilingual paradigm in the field of English language teaching and learning (Sharifian, 2009). This paradigm aims to promote a pluricentric view of English, advocating for the equal recognition of all varieties of English at national, regional, social, and idiolectal levels in all the three circles (to be mentioned in the next sub-section).

Overall, this literature review commences with a discussion of the current status of English, followed by an overview of the previous studies regarding the development of the paradigm of EIL/TEIL at theoretical and empirical levels. The chapter continues with a detailed presentation of the status of English language teaching and learning in Vietnam and finishes with a chapter summary.

2.1. The current status of English

This section describes the demographic, geographic and structural changes of current English, borrowing these concepts from Sharifian's (2013) lecture titled 'Paradigm of English as an International Language: State of the Art'.

2.1.1. Demographic changes of English

English is now widely acknowledged as the dominant international language, with official or special status in at least 80 countries around the world and it is used by over two billion speakers worldwide (British Council, 2014). About 400 million speak English as their first language, around 600 million as a second language, roughly 750 million as a foreign language and the remaining 250 million speakers speak English to some level of competence (Crystal, 1997; 2003; 2010). According to a more recent report from TESOL (2014), over 1.5 billion people are learning English

around the world, of whom about 750 million are traditionally defined as EFL speakers. This may lead to the decrease in the proportion of the world's population speaking English as a first language as Graddol (1999, p. 57) predicts,

> The international status of English is changing in profound ways: in future it will be a language used mainly in multilingual contexts as a second language and for communication between non-native speakers.

Indeed, there are now more NNSs than NNs since over 80 per cent of communication in English today is between NNSs of English (Crystal, 1997; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Seargeant, 2012; Smith, 1983). About 74 per cent of tourists travel internationally from non-English-speaking countries to non-English-speaking countries (Graddol, 2006), with a need to use an international language for communication (and mostly English fulfils that need). English is still the most used internet language and it is used by 565 million English users, or 27% of all internet users, attesting to the fact that English continues to spread (Worldstats, 2016). Moreover, thanks to the development of social networking sites such as Facebook and YouTube, the internet now serves as another important medium for the dissemination of English, enabling language learners to interact in English with various speakers in the world. These statistics are certain to keep increasing month by month, leading to more diversity in the world's English speaking population.

It is clear that the number of users alone does not provide a complete sense of how English has gained its international status (Matsuda, 2012). According to Crystal (2003, p. 3), a language achieves "a genuinely global status" when its special role is acknowledged not only in the countries where it is widely used as the first language but also in other countries where it functions as the second or foreign language. Noting the rapid spread of English in the world, Kachru (1985; 1992; 1996) proposes the Three Circle Model to show how English functions variously in different parts

of the world. In this model, countries are divided into three categories (circles) based on how English is spread, acquired and operated in each (refer to figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1: Kachru's Three Circle model of English (updated version using data reflecting estimated national population figures in 2014, as cited in Galloway & Rose, 2015, p. 19)

The "Expanding Circle"

China	1,363,840,000
Egypt	86,270,000
Indonesia	247,425,000
Israel	8,158,000
Japan	127,120,000
Korea	50,220,000
Nepal	26,495,000

The "Outer Circle"

Bangladesh	154,700,000
Ghana	25,200,000
India	1,242,000,000
Kenya	44,354,000
Malaysia	30,042,000
Nigeria	173,620,000
Pakistan	186,317,000
Philippines	99,403,000

The "Inner Circle"

USA	317,853,000
UK	63,705,000
Canada	35,345,000
Australia	23,453,000
New Zealand	4,525,000

The Inner Circle includes Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States, where English plays a dominant role as most people, born and educated in these countries, use English as their mother tongue. The Inner Circle is perceived as norm-providing varieties which "have traditionally been recognized as models since they are used by 'native speakers'" (Kachru, 1985, p. 5).

The second is the Outer Circle consisting of former colonies of the Inner Circle countries such as India, Nigeria, and Singapore. English gains an official status when having been acquired as an additional language in these countries and it is used alongside other languages that play important roles in society. According to Kachru (1992, p. 5), the Outer Circle consists of norm-developing varieties, in which "the localised norm has a well-established linguistic and cultural identity".

The Expanding Circle is the third category with Brazil, China, Japan, Indonesia, and Vietnam as members. In such countries, English is taught as the most popular foreign language or a lingua franca. This Circle is considered norm-dependent as a local form of English has not yet developed and there is dependence on Inner-Circle models such as American and British English.

Kachru's Three Circle Model has been the most influential one for the worldwide spread of English as it represents diversity through the logical, geographic and memorable "inner-outer-expanding sequence" (Saraceni, 2015, p. 51).

However, the Three Circle Model has been criticized for its simplicity. As English continues to spread across the world with concomitant changes in its users and uses, this representation of English may have outdated its usefulness as a descriptive since House (2009, p. 363) contends,

> Both in the case of nativised varieties and the global use of English as a lingua franca, we are of course not dealing with one monolithic, hegemonic English voice but with a great diversity of different voices. This means that the English language has largely outgrown

the norms of the Kachruvian inner circle (1992) and has become not only a useful default means of communication but is often also used as a tool for national, regional and local renaissance and resistance by its new expert non-native users.

This point is in line with Lowenberg's (2002) observation that more EFL learners from the Expanding Circle have been studying in the Outer Circle, enabling them to internalize some indigenized Outer Circle norms and to bring them back to their own countries. In the same vein, Clyne and Sharifian (2008) observe that the contemporary status of English cannot be fully captured by the circles that Kachru proposed (also see Jenkins (2009, p. 20) and Galloway & Rose (2015, pp. 19-23) for a list of critiques of this concentric model).

In the attempt to describe the complex phenomenon of English today, there have been two more recent models such as Schneider's (2007) Dynamic Model and Melchers and Shaw's (2011) classification. A brief summary of the two models is presented below.

Schneider's (2007) Dynamic Model is aimed at describing the evolution of postcolonial Englishes through five phases:

1. Foundation: The phase during which English speaking settlers arrive and English is first introduced to a new territory; at that time the settlers still consider themselves fully part of the original nation; the identities of the indigenous populations are unaffected by the arrival of the newcomers.

2. Exonormative stabilization: English becomes established in the new territory especially for some official and administrative purposes, and begins to borrow words from local languages to refer to items that do not exist in Britain; the settlers' identity begins to affect the identity of some members of the local inhabitants, especially those in positions of power who are in direct contact with the British rulers.

3. Nativization: The settlers, and their offspring, are now inhabitants of the new territories and the cultural link to Britain has substantially weakened; the identity of the indigenous population is more significantly influenced by the settlers' culture; English continues to borrow lexical items from local language but begins to undergo some alterations at other linguistic levels too, such as accent and to some extent, structure.

4. Endonormative stabilization: The two groups, settlers and indigenous population, see themselves as one nation, wholly separate from Britain; the features of the new variety that has emerged become stable and codified internally, without reference to the norms of British English.

5. Differentiation: This is the most advanced phase, during which cultural and regional diversification begins to develop among the younger members of the new nation; dialects, or sub-varieties, emerge as a consequence. (Schneider, 2007, as cited in Saraceni, 2015, p. 54).

This model has certain limitations since it is trying to combine many variables together within each phase of development (Saraceni, 2015). Hence, Melchers and Shaw (2011) present a system of classification in which each variable is treated as a separate unit with regard to varieties, texts, countries, speakers and contexts where all of these are used.

In spite of the differences of these three models, all of them share one thing in common: 'that the English language spread around the world with the expansion of the British Empire and subsequently went through a process of local adaptation out which different varieties of English emerged' (Saraceni, 2015, p. 56). Despite the criticisms it has faced, Kachru's model has been widely used in research on the global spread of English. Hence, the terms, Inner, Outer, and

Expanding circles will be mentioned throughout this thesis, but always with the caveat that there are many different contexts within each circle, and the circles themselves are changing every day.

Overall, English has gained a vital role in international contexts; - "contexts where people from diverse linguistic, cultural and national backgrounds interact and communicate with each other" (Matsuda, 2012, p. 2). Indeed, English is used as the main language in the majority of international business, conferences, academic publishing, international banking, international tourism, science, information technology and education (see Graddol (2006) for a more detailed list).

With the increasingly international status of English, language researchers have expressed different views on its global spread and on the proliferation of English users. The demographic changes seen among English speakers have resulted in a divide between native and non-native speakers of English and the implications for the ownership of English discussed in depth in the following sections.

2.2.1.1. Native and non-native dichotomy

Speakers of a language are usually categorised into the two groups of native speakers (NSs) and non-native speakers (NNSs) in the literature of ELT. Traditionally, the term native English speakers' refers to those who come from Inner Circle countries, while people from other Circles are labelled as non-native English speakers (Kachru, 1985, 1992). This socially-constructed classification/separation is based on their country of birth, accent and appearance (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 2001). This classification has been used in applied linguistics (Bonfiglio, 2010; Davies, 1991, 2003, 2013; Doerr, 2009) as well as in theoretical linguistics (Chomsky, 1965).

This separation between NSs and NNSs has been challenged due to the changing status of English as an international language worldwide. Indeed, Graddol (2006, p. 110) points out that the "global spread of English has led to a crisis of terminology. The distinctions between 'native speaker', 'second-language speaker' and 'foreign-language user' have become blurred". This is highlighted by the fact that the NNSs of Inner Circle English can be the NSs of their own varieties of English. Although several attempts have been made to minimize this dichotomy (Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 2001; Davies, 1991; Jenkins, 2003; Rampton, 1990), the notion of non-nativeness continues to be used to label this huge group of speakers of English (Graddol, 2006). Those terms remain widely used as conceptual tools and usually written with inverted commas such as 'native speakers' and 'non-native speakers' to display one's awareness of the complexity of these terms (Holliday, 2005). Thus, these terms will be used throughout this thesis, but not without question.

Despite "the social and psychological need to respect the norms of the largest group of users of English, i.e. non-natives" (Jenkins, 1998, p. 120), the dichotomy between native and non-native speakers of English has been debated in the literature. This terminology has led to discrimination in the ELT professions, especially in hiring practices in ELT institutions as most of these prefer NSs of English as teachers, especially in East and South East Asia (Ali, 2009; Holliday, 2009; Kirkpatrick, 2013; Liu, 1999; Galloway & Rose, 2015). With regard to English teaching, the native/non-native divide certainly has a negative impact on non-native teachers, as Canagarajah (1999a) states,

> Many Periphery professionals feel compelled to spend undue time repairing their pronunciation or performing other cosmetic changes to sound native. Their predominant concern is in effect 'How can I lose my accent?' rather than 'How can I be a successful teacher?' The anxiety and inhibitions about their pronunciation can make them lose their grip on the instructional process or lack rapport with their students. (as cited in McKay, 2002, p. 42).

Obviously, being labelled NNSs leads ELT professionals to feel insecure about their teaching capacity, which disadvantages them a great deal. Nevertheless, since the majority of today's English users are NNSs, it is important to recognize their strengths and gain a better interpretation of their roles in ELT. This, in turn, is related to the increasingly shifting ownership of English to these speakers.

2.2.1.2. Ownership of English

According to Widdowson (1994), the term *ownership* refers to how speakers appropriate the English language for their own use. While Widdowson (1994) posits ownership as an element of the indigenisation of English, the term is conceptualized as legitimacy by Norton (1997). He argues that the categorisation of NSs and NNSs leads to a dichotomy which hinders L2 learners from owning English or being its legitimate speakers. It is worth noting that "the concepts of legitimacy and ownership apply to all groups, whether in the Inner, Outer or Expanding circle" (Higgins, 2003, p. 621).

As English has spread extensively around the world, the question of whether English belongs to the NSs of English, to speakers of standard English, or to all of those who speak it, or any other group or combination of groups has been widely discussed in the field of ELT (Davies, 2013; Kachru, 1983, 1986; Matsuda, 2003, 2012; Prator, 1968; Quirk, 1988, 1990; Widdowson, 1994). Some argue for a position in which NSs can claim the ownership of English, and in which non-native Englishes are illegitimate varieties deviated from the native norms (Prator, 1968; Quirk, 1988, 1990). For instance, Kandiah (1987) considers the varieties of English emerging outside the mother country strange and improperly-formed. This point is in line with Prator's (1968) opinion that these varieties are perceived as illegitimate and deviant forms. A number of terms can be

found in literature for those varieties such as 'approximate systems', 'idiosyncratic dialects', 'interlanguage' (Chisanga, 1995; Ellis, 1985).

In response, it has been argued that English is the property of all who use the language, as natives or non-natives (Kachru, 1983, 1986; Matsuda, 2003, 2012; Smith & Sridhar, 1992, Widdowson, 1994). Widdowson (1994, p. 382) stresses that "Standard English is no longer the preserve of a group of people living in an offshore European island, or even of larger groups living in continents elsewhere. It is an international language". Apparently, when used as an effective means of communication in international business, English, in return, helps establish conventions of thought, procedures, customs and codes of practice for those international activities, creating their own cultures and standards. Widdowson further contends that NSs no longer play the only role in deciding which forms are grammatical, because norms and standards are not solely created by speakers in the Inner circle. Watanabe (1983) also concludes that English is not constrained by British and American linguistic norms. This is observed in scenarios such as one in which a Vietnamese person does not need to sound like an American to use English well when conversing with an Indonesian at an ASEAN meeting. It is obvious that there is no need for the user to conform to the norms of an English native speaker for that communicative purpose. Strevens (1982, pp. 427-8) contends that to ask,

> Whose language is it? is to suggest that the question itself embodies unreal values. It implies that some merit accrues to us because we possess in some unique sense, the English language. As we have seen this is not true. But it is undoubtedly true that we acquire great benefits from being as it were co-possessors, with seven hundred million others of the English language. Whose language is it? It is ours and everyone's: the English language is truly a world possession. This claim of the ownership of English has also been reinforced by Smith (1983) and Crystal (2003), who stress that the usage of English is no longer restricted or limited by countries: it belongs to those who use it.

Indeed, the ownership of English has shifted to NNSs of English as Graddol (1997, p. 5) concludes that "native speakers may feel the language 'belongs' to them, but it will be those who speak English as a second or foreign language who will determine its world future".

The current status of English is perceptible, not only demographic changes, but also geographic changes. The following section is aimed at discussing the issue of the spread of English and language shift/death.

2.1.2. Geographic changes: Global spread of English

The phrase *language spread* has been increasingly used to describe the development of English as the language of science, technology, finance and higher education (Crystal, 1997, 2003; Fishman, Cooper & Conrad, 1997; Graddol, 1997; 2006; Kachru, 1986, 1992; Phillipson, 1992; Tsui & Tollefson, 2007). Yet, there is quite an intense debate as to how English has spread. While Crystal (2003) proposes that English happened to be in the right place at the right time, others believe that globalisation has encouraged the spread of this language (Block & Cameron, 2002; Graddol, 1997; Jenkins, 2009; Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Some scholars have examined how the field of English language teaching relates to English spread (Canagarajah, 1999; Phillipson, 1992); still others, on the other hand, have accounted for the spread of English placed in terms of the role of voluntary language choice (Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Ferguson, 2006). Overall, the major reason for the spread of English today is that it can be effectively used for a significant number of specific purposes or advantages including international relations, business, communication, education and scientific advancement, political unity and society (Galloway & Rose, 2015).

However, the global spread of English has had certain negative impacts on the existing languages and cultural identity, according to Jenkins (2009), McKay (2003) and Swerdlow (1999). As Grenoble and Whaley (1998) put it,

> One of the greatest cultural tragedies ever to befall the human race is taking place before our eyes but no one is paying attention. There are members of the British intelligentsia who profess to be concerned about language and who agonise over utter trivialities such as the failure of the nation to use *hopefully* or to place *only* correctly. Here is what they should be worrying about: of the world's 6000 or so languages, as many as 3,000 are in the process of dying out, and another 2,400 are endangered. (as cited in Jenkins, 2009, p. 160).

In 1992, Krauss estimated that 90 per cent of the world's languages may become moribund by the end of this century. Over the next century, it is likely that two languages will become "extinct" each month (Jenkins, 2009). In Australia, Canada and the USA, for instance, over 75 per cent of the languages that were used in 1950 have already died (Lewis & Simons, 2013). In terms of cultures, the worldwide spread of English has brought the influence of Western culture via the social media as well as English language teaching. It is common to witness the celebration of Halloween in Vietnam and Valentine's Day in China nowadays. As Pennycook (1994, p. 21) observes,

> Access to prestigious but often inappropriate forms of knowledge is often only through English, and thus, given the status of English both within and between countries, there is often reciprocal reinforcement of the position of English and the position of imported forms of cultures and knowledge.

Although it is true that English is not replacing all the languages in the countries to which is has spread, there is evidence suggesting that English is competing with the mother tongue of several speech communities. For example, a language shift to English is seen in a number of households in Singapore, where English is the main language for communication at home (Gopinathan, 1998). "It has been argued that the primary reason for such a shift is the extensive promotion of English by English-speaking countries in the Inner Circle" (McKay, 2002, p. 21). A typical example of this view is presented by Phillipson (1992, p. 47), who uses the term 'linguistic imperialism' to

refer to the situation in which "the dominance of English is asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other languages". He further explains that his use of 'structural' here relates to material properties such as institutions and financial allocations while 'culture' refers to immaterial ones, namely attitudes and pedagogic principles. Those inequalities lead to the "continued allocation of more material resources to English than to other languages and benefit those who are proficient in English" (p. 47). Indeed, in countries that used to be colonised by the U.K, English is obviously the preferred even if it is not the most commonly used language. Non-English speakers may face social, political and educational disadvantages as English is a key to upward social mobility (Galloway & Rose, 2015). This is in line with Kachru's (1986, p. 1) assertion that "knowing English is like possessing the fabled Aladdin's lamp, which permits one to open, as it were, the linguistic gates to international business, technology, science and travel. In short, English provides linguistic power". As Nettle and Romaine (2000, pp. 30-1) put it,

> Those who control particular linguistic resources are in a position of power over others. Linguistic capital, like all other forms of capital, is unequally distributed in society. The higher the profit to be achieved through knowledge of a particular language, the more it will be viewed as worthy of acquisition. The language of the global village (or McWorld, as some have called it) is English: not to use it is to risk ostracization from the benefits of the global economy.

However, there are other views. Graddol (2006, p. 64) believes that "English is not the main reason for global language loss. The impact of English is mainly on the status of other national languages". He further argues that there will be a shift towards the emergence of richer and more diverse regional languages such as Arabic, Malay, and Mandarin. Yet he predicts that English is expected to continue to perform as a "global engine of change", fostering the shift "from linguistic monopoly to oligopoly" which leads to a rising number of "new hybrid language varieties, many arising from contact with English" (2000, p. 59). This view is, once again, supported in Galloway and Rose's

(2015, p. 245) prediction that "English will remain a global language" and that "the emergence of a standard global English was equally improbable as the fragmentation and stabilization of many Englishes".

2.1.3. Structural changes to the English language

Used as a native, a second language by over 700 million people and as a foreign language by more than one billion (Galloway & Rose, 2015), English has spread throughout the world, especially "not only the Global South (which has been gaining English speakers since the days of colonization) but also the Global North" (García, 2010, p. 411). Indeed, the English language has significantly spread across "cultures, and cultures and languages have spread across English, enabling people to appropriate it differently to express global and local messages" (García, 2010, p. 409). As a result, a variety of different forms of English have been created and are gaining a rising number of new speakers, leading to the recent emergence of more World Englishes.

Over the last 25 years, this term *World Englishes* (henceforth WE), proposed by Kachru, has been widely used to refer to such varieties. According to Kachru and Smith (1985, p. 210), the use of the plural "'Englishes' symbolizes the functional and formal variation in the language, and its international acculturation, for example, in West Africa, in Southern Africa, in East Africa, in South Asia, in Southeast Asia, in the West Indies, in the Philippines, and in the traditional English-using countries: the USA, the UK, Australia, Canada, and New Zealand". This notion, however, has been the object of debate as well. Some scholars criticize this paradigm for "its perceived 'blindness to global forces', its alleged adherence to a 'natural' model of change and its purported 'weak theorization of hybridity" (Pennycook, 2001, as cited in Bolton, 2005, p. 74). Pennycook (2003, pp. 519-20) also argues that WE has the tendency to display "the descriptive inadequacy of

the three circles which mainly focus on 'national' varieties of English". This point is reinforced in

Saraceni's (2009) criticism that the WE paradigm overlooks the diversity of English spoken within

a single nation, such as regional varieties of English, sociolects, and idiolects. Furthermore,

Canagarajah (1999, p. 180) believes that Kachruvian WEs tend to

> …ignore the ideological implications of the legitimating periphery Englishes. In his attempt to systematise the periphery variants, he has to standardise the language [which then valorises] the educated versions of local English and leaving out many eccentric, hybrid forms of local English as unsystematic.

On the other hand, others conceptualise WE as a paradigm that captures the dynamic nature of

English that has spread globally (Canagarajah, 2006), which calls for the equal recognition of all

varieties of English. It also argues for "the importance of inclusivity and pluricentricity in

approaches to the linguistics of English worldwide" (Bolton, 2006, p. 204). Furthermore, Kachru

(1997b, p. 237) argues,

> It is indeed vital to recognize that world Englishes represent certain linguistic, cultural and pragmatic realities and pluralism, and that pluralism is now an integral part of world Englishes and literature written in Englishes. The pluralism of English must be reflected in the approaches, both theoretical and applied, we adopt for understanding this unprecedented linguistic phenomenon.

Undoubtedly, in the contexts where English serves as an official language such as Singapore and

India, people speak English among themselves. When this happens, "a set of indigenous patterns

develops, a kind of patterns people find easier to handle" (Honna, 2000, p. 12). The more

frequently English is used in such ways, the more those patterns will naturally develop into distinct

Englishes. As a result, "these new Englishes have their own structural norms, their own

characteristic features and even their communicative styles" (Romaine, 1992, p. 254), a point

which is the core focus of the following section.

2.2.3.1. Linguistic features

At a linguistic level, the study of varieties of English typically involves a description of distinctive features in terms of phonology, vocabulary, grammar and cultural meanings. For the scope of the literature review, this section presents a brief overview of those features in Asian Englishes such as Singaporean English, Philippine English etc. (see Galloway & Rose, 2015, for more detailed examples).

2.2.3.1.1. Pronunciation features

These consist of "the lack of distinction between long and short vowels, the realisation of diphthongs as monophthongs, a reduction of vowel contrasts, consonant-cluster reduction and the use of syllable-timed intonation" (Schneider, 2007, as cited in Bolton, 2008, p. 9). For example, Chinese and Thai English lack ending sounds as well as the distinction between long and short vowels (so that "eat" is pronounced like "it"). In Singaporean English, a tendency towards syllable-timing is observed. Each syllable in a word may be given equal stress or a syllable that is unstressed in Received Pronunciation may be stressed instead, (e.g. Eu*rope*). In addition, these consonant sounds such as /tʃ/ and /dʒ/, /f/ and /v/ and /s/ and /z/ are not differentiated in Philippine and Singaporean English.

2.2.3.1.2. Vocabulary

At the level of lexis, borrowings from local languages are common and some first language words and phrases are transferred. Examples are shown in the utterances below:

"Hurry up, *lah*" (*lah* is to make it less formal in Singaporean English) (Rubdy, 2007)

"You must do your homework first *na*?" (using *na* as a question marker for Thai English).

"This is *makan* time" (*makan* means "eat" in Indonesian).

Furthermore, some cultural norms of Singapore and Vietnam have enriched English with novel expressions such as "shake legs" which means "relax" or "motortaxis" meaning "motorbikes used for taking people from one place to another like a taxi" while Japanese people use "nighter" to refer to a "night game" in English (Duong, 2012).

2.2.3.1.3. Grammar

Grammatical adaptations typically involve a lack of plural marking, omission of third-person singular -s, the use of invariant question tags (isn't it), the weakening of the count/mass distinction with nouns (as in equipments, furnitures….) and inverted word order in indirect questions. For instance, Indonesian speakers of English say:

If the class *finish* before eleven… (Kirkpatrick, 2007).

while Cambodian speakers of English say:

"You like English, *isn't it*?"

In terms of cultural meanings, there have been many publications analysing misunderstandings in communication due to the fact that L2 speakers use English with L1 elements. Some of these misunderstandings can be quite radical. The following conversation, taken from Sharifian (2009, p. 245) shows speaker A using a Chinese cultural meaning in English.

A: You stupid. (Chinese English)

B: Can I ask in what contexts you usually use this expression in your culture?

A: Hmm, we can use it as a term of endearment between husband and wife, like the wife saying this to husband to say, "You're not kind to yourself"

B: (Surprised and smile) Ah, right! So I should take it as a compliment.

It is expected with the global spread of English that more varieties of English with more complex patterns of linguistic, economic and cultural power will continue to develop in the future (Graddol, 1997; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Saraceni, 2015). Despite its weaknesses, the WE paradigm continues "to lie in its consistent pluralism and inclusivity" (Bolton, 2005, p. 78). With the view of English as a homogeneous entity that calls for a heterogeneous perspective, this paradigm has several important pedagogical implications (Kubota, 2012). One of the implications is the necessity for English language learners to raise their awareness of the existence of different varieties of English in the world, and accept that they should be considered legitimate modes of intercultural communication in addition to the two dominant American and British norms. This issue of attitudes towards English varieties has been addressed in the literature.

2.2.3.2. Attitudes towards varieties of English

Since the 1960s, attitudes towards varieties or speakers of English among other languages have been the focal point for sociolinguists and social psychologists (Lambert et al., 1968; Strongman & Woosley, 1967; Tucker & Lambert, 1969). At first, research mainly explored the attitudes held by NSs (Teufel, 1995; William et al., 1976). With the recent global spread of English, however, the focus has shifted to investigating the attitudes of English users in the Expanding Circle (Ahn, 2014; Carrie, 2016; Chiba et al., 1995; Fraser, 2006; McKenzie, 2008a, 2008b). Using both direct and indirect methods, these scholars have concentrated primarily on attitudes towards pronunciation as described below.

Teufel (1995) used a mixed methods approach to examine Anglo-Australian high-school students' attitudes towards German accented English. Exposed to speech samples, the participants were required to identify the speaker's cultural and linguistic background by answering open questions (e.g. What do you think the speaker's native language is?). Most of the informants failed to recognize the German background of the accented speakers, but nevertheless considered them non-standard speakers.

Attitudes towards native and non-native English were also investigated by Dalton-Puffer and Kaltenbock (1995), Sifakis and Sougari (2005) and Timmis (2002). Their studies show that learners preferred a native-speaker standard, and held a negative attitude towards their own non-native accent. These attitudes are also reflected in Jenkins's (2005b) study in which the participants perceived native accents as good, perfect, correct, proficient, competent, fluent, real and original English while a non-native accent is seen as the opposite.

The majority of research on attitudes towards varieties of English can be found in Japan. Chiba et al. (1995) conducted a study with Japanese EFL learners, finding that they preferred the American and British accents, and tended to reject other non-native accents (i.e. the accents of the speakers from Hong Kong, Malaysia, and Sri Lanka), including their own accent. In the same vein, Fraser (2006) employed an accent judgement task and a questionnaire with attitudinal statements in order to investigate how Japanese high school students perceived English from six different countries (England, Japan, Scotland, Taiwan, the United States and Zimbabwe). The results show that they highly valued the American accent and considered that their Japanese English was easy to understand. It is questionable whether they appreciated American English or they felt the need to achieve it as a learning goal.

Matsuda (2003) explored the perceptions of 33 third-year students at a private high school in Tokyo about the status of EIL and the ownership of English. The results showed that they desired to acquire American and British varieties more than other non-native varieties although they did not have negative attitudes towards them. A few years later, McKenzie (2008a, 2008b) found that Japanese university students had various attitudes towards varieties of English. While they considered both American and British speakers of English as intelligent, confident, fluent and clear; they perceived Japanese accented English positively in terms of social attractiveness (gentle, pleasant, funny and modest). Although McKenzie emphasized the need to opt for a wide range of pedagogical models for ELT, it is questionable if the results of these studies could be transferred to the classroom context.

Another study which searched for the answer to the question "What are the attitudes of Japanese, Korean and Malaysian learners towards the pronunciation of their English variants?" was conducted by Tokumoto and Shibata in 2011. Based on the replies to a questionnaire, it was found the Japanese and Korean groups negatively evaluated their L1-accented English while the Malaysian participants were confident about their own variety of English, or English reflecting their L1 phonological characteristics.

Other researchers investigated English language teachers' attitudes towards varieties of English as well (Ahn, 2014; Ali, 2015; Dewi, 2011; Doan, 2011; Lai, 2008; Young & Walsh, 2010). In the context of Asian countries such as Indonesia, Singapore, Taiwan, Thailand and Vietnam, the perceptions of English language teachers are somewhat similar to each other. Despite the fact that the informants were aware of the existence of other non-native varieties in the Outer and Expanding countries, they showed attachment to NS norms (Ahn, 2014). However, in Dewi's (2011) and Ali's (2015) studies, it was found the Indonesian and Malaysian participants positively

perceived their own varieties of English when they viewed them as a tool and asset for modernisation, even though they considered British and American English the most dominant varieties. This is also in line with Doan's (2011) findings that while some teachers, in the context of Asian countries such as Thailand and Vietnam, submitted themselves to the inner circle norms, others felt the need to address the multiplicity of norms held by different groups of speakers. However, being asked to share their beliefs about varieties of English by Young and Walsh (2010), most of the 26 teachers from Europe, Africa, and West, Southeast and East Asia, studying at a postgraduate level in the United Kingdom, they preferred 'standard' English as their major teaching model even though they were not sure which variety of English they were teaching. The findings also showed that none of them had an idea of what EIL/ELF or any other varieties meant. This shows such a big gap in the participants' perceptions of the current status of English worldwide.

As mentioned in Chapter One, there have been few studies documenting Vietnamese teachers' and students' perceptions of global English in the context of ELT Vietnam (Ton & Pham, 2010; Duong, 2012). Both studies found that even though the participants were aware of the diversity of English in the world, their preference for British and American English as standard teaching models was dominant in the findings. It is worth noting that one Vietnamese teacher accepted other varieties of English and called for the need to "change negative public perceptions towards localized English and make them see its value as it has its application in the local context", and followed up with the suggestion of "improving teaching English, especially changing curricula and teaching methods" to "standardize the teaching English system at school with local contents" (Duong, 2012, p. 123). To some extent, the teachers acknowledged the importance of familiarizing students with other

English varieties. Yet they still viewed 'standard' English as the prestige variety for communication, education and economic development.

It is evident from these studies that there is a theory and practice divide. There are few studies that examine the possible reasons for the participants' attitudes towards Englishes. Moreover, the results of these studies should not be used as the yardstick for the dominance of native English and the native English speaker (Galloway & Rose, 2015). Teachers and students should be provided with more choice, the choice that "needs to be made in full knowledge of the sociolinguistic facts and without pressure from the dominant NS community" (Jenkins, 2006, p. 155). In addition, the results of these studies show that the diversity of English is often accepted in the abstract by teachers but rejected in the classroom. Even when some teachers perceived the importance of introducing the diversity of English to students, they were relatively confused about how to apply that in the classroom. In other words, they needed instructional guidance about the implications in teaching English as an international language.

2.2. Teaching English as an international language (TEIL)

As mentioned above, the worldwide spread of English with its sociolinguistic complexities has challenged the native-speaker-centric view of this language, in a way which calls for a paradigm shift in English language teaching. There have been several proposed paradigms such as World Englishes, English as Lingua Franca (ELF) and Global Englishes in response to this call. For the research aim of this study, the emerging paradigm of EIL conceptualised as "a paradigm for thinking, research and practice" (Sharifian, 2009, p. 2) is employed as the major theoretical framework.

EIL has been extensively explored and defined in literature worldwide. As indicated in Chapter One, this literature review adopts the definition proposed by Sharifian (2009, p. 2) in which the discipline of EIL does not refer to a single variety of English but emphasizes that "English, with its many varieties, is a language of international, and therefore, intercultural communication". Recognizing all varieties of English as equally valid, EIL rejects the idea that there should be a single variety of English used as the medium for international communication (Sharifian, 2009).

As a paradigm, EIL recognizes WE, and emphasizes its relevance to teaching, learning and thinking about English today (Matsuda, 2002, 2009, 2012; Sharifian, 2009). As discussed above, the concept of WE has been interpreted differently. While Kachru (1980s) considers WE as a paradigm that captures the pluricentricity of English, Bolton (2004, 2005) posits WE as the new Englishes used in Outer Circle countries where English arrived as a colonial language and later became established as an additional language. Yet it is important to note that WE today has developed beyond the three circles and become remarkably diverse (Canagarajah, 2006) and that the focus of WE is on the identification and codification of national varieties of English, especially "in the areas of phonology, lexis, grammar, and pragmatics in the 'New' Englishes" (Galloway & Rose, 2015, p. xii). Despite their differences, the paradigms of EIL and WE have similarities in the ways that both:

- view English as a pluricentric notion;
- focus on the global ownership of English that is independent of native English norms;
- have implications for English language teaching and learning (Galloway & Rose, 2015; Marlina & Giri, 2014; Saraceni, 2015).

Therefore, WE are relevant to the paradigm of EIL which "does not only have implications for mapping the scope of the world Englishes paradigm but it also engages with it at the level of theory" (Sharifian, 2009, p. 4).

EIL as a paradigm is obviously seeking "a critical revisiting of the notions, analytical tools, approaches and methodologies within the established disciplines such as the sociolinguistics of English and TESOL, which explored various aspects of the English language" (Sharifian, 2009, p. 2). The next section of this chapter focuses on pedagogy, in particular, an exploration of the goal of TEIL and its implications in ELT.

2.2.1. Language teaching and competence

> …a child becomes able to accomplish a repertoire of speech acts, to take part in speech events, and to evaluate their accomplishments by other. This competence, moreover, is integral with attitudes, values and motivations concerning language, its features and uses, and integral with competence for, and attitude toward, the interrelation of language with the other code of communicative conduct. (Hymes, 1972, pp. 277-8)

Communicative competence, defined by Hymes (1972), emphasizes the ability to use language appropriately in appropriate contexts in addition to the knowledge of language structure. Being employed in English language teaching since the 1980s (Canale & Swain, 1990), communicative competence has been a major goal of language teaching, with the aim of helping L2 uses to reach the competence level of NSs of English, mainly American and British English (Aguilar, 2007).

With a wide range of linguistic forms, functions and varied profiles of English language users however, global communication has "become more intercultural and multicultural in nature" (Sharifian, 2013, p. 5), a situation which requires not only NNSs but also NSs to acquire intercultural communication skills. Consequently, more appropriate competencies have been proposed during the last two decades, such as 'intercultural communicative competence' (ICC)

(Byram, 1997), 'multidialectal competence' (Canagarajah, 2006), and 'metacultural competence' (Sharifian, 2013).

ICC values the importance of attitudes combined with knowledge, skills and critical awareness for success in intercultural communication, a combination which is extremely difficult to achieve in practice. Multidialectal competence focuses on the ability to "negotiate diverse varieties to facilitate communication and passive competence to understand new varieties of English" (Canarajah, 2006, as cited in Sharifian, 2013, p. 7). Nevertheless, as English is such a pluricentric language whose users around the world have adopted and adapted it to convey their communicative needs, it is important to aim for a level of competence that captures the fluidity of its cultural norms and enables learners to communicate with people from various cultural backgrounds. This is the point where metacultural competence becomes relevant. Sharifian (2013, p. 74) explains that "such a competence enables interlocutors participating in intercultural communication communicate through negotiating their ways through their differing cultural conceptualizations".

At the heart of this competence are cultural conceptualisations or conceptualisations that "refer to units of conceptual knowledge such as schemas, categories and conceptual metaphors" (Sharifian, 2011, p. 93). Among the three characteristics of cultural conceptions, conceptual metaphors appear to be the most interesting since metaphors are not only used in poetic and rhetorical dimensions (Khajeh, 2012) but are also employed in everyday language use. Metaphors play an important role in forming the cultural models shared within a community (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). Despite the universal use of metaphors, they differ from one culture to another culture, and should be used with care when communicating cross-culturally. Furthermore, variations in cultural conceptions are not necessarily considered "standard" or "non-standard", and emphasis upon them calls for

"more symmetrical understanding of the pluricentricity of English" (Clyne & Sharifian, 2008). Consequently, "conceptual variation awareness" plays a pivotal role in enabling learners to decide which strategies to be appropriately applied in real communication contexts. This is in line with the EIL paradigm for promoting "border-crossing communication to foster critical awareness of power and privilege attached to English and communicating across differences and skills to use communicative strategies in and beyond English" (Kubota, 2012, p. 56). Indeed, in order for international communication to take place successfully among diverse backgrounds of English users, learners are encouraged to develop "sensitivity to cross-cultural differences" (McKay, 2012, p. 40).

The main goal of EIL teaching is to enable learners to develop skills and competencies to communicate interculturally with speakers from various backgrounds (Sharifian, 2009, p. 4). As such, metacultural competence certainly has implications for English language teaching and learning. This needs to be reflected in teaching models, the teaching of culture(s) and teaching materials for ELT to be successful at preparing learners for future interactions. As Saraceni (2015, p. 187) concludes,

> Learning English need not to be seen as a strenuous journey whose ultimate destination is the achievement of 'native-like' status or a linguistic 'visa' into a special 'inner circle'. Learning English means, above all, making it easier to take part, actively and critically, in the practices and discourses that (re-)present, (re-)construct and (re-)shape the global and local worlds we live in.

Hence, TEIL aims at developing both learners' linguistic and communicative skills and intercultural communication skills so that they can communicate with speakers from various cultural backgrounds (Sharifian, 2014).

2.2.2. Teaching models in ELT

A key decision for an EIL-based teaching approach is choosing the variety of English that should be the primary model for teaching. In ELT pedagogy, the NS model has been widely used because of "…the latest ideas in English teaching. Where best, after all, to get the latest ideas in this than in the learning English-speaking countries?" (Quirk, 1990, as cited in Phillipson, 1992, p. 13). Hence, achieving native-like competence is often deemed to be the utmost goal for English language learners (McKay, 2002). For the purpose of this literature review, the NS model refers to the two most dominant English varieties - American and British English, both of which have been used as the teaching and learning target since the inception of ESL/EFL.

According to Kirkpatrick (2006), the adoption of the NS model benefits the most to learners who wish to learn English in order to interact with ENSs. However, there have been questions about the appropriateness of this teaching model and the relevance of culture for every teaching context since 1980s (Sampson, 1984; Miller & Emel, 1988). Indeed, shortcomings of this native-speaker teaching model of ELT have been discussed in the literature, particularly in relation to the changing status of EIL (McKay, 2012; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Matsuda, 2012, Sharifian, 2009).

The NS model has dominated simply because it has been taken for granted for such a long time that "its appropriateness for a particular course is rarely questioned" (Matsuda, 2006, p. 161). According to Canagarajah (1999a), however, the adoption of this model yields not only linguistic inaccuracy but is also politically damaging. It is well-known that languages in contact change with time and that the choice of varieties of a language for teaching is linguistically context-based (McKay, 2002). If an English language program has a particular goal such as preparing Vietnamese

students to do business with Malaysian people, for instance, Malaysian English (or even 'Vietnamese English') should be chosen over American or British English.

When American and British varieties are the main varieties introduced in the classrooms, students of English may end up believing that American and British English are the only 'correct' models (Matsuda, 2006). Indeed, the criticism has been made that the NS model indirectly forms "the cultural mentality of non-native speakers", and that produces "the negative effects of globalisation on language" (Phillipson & Skutnabbi-Kangas, 1999, as cited in Sifakis & Sougari, 2003, p. 64). Consequently, students may be misled, resulting in the formation of negative attitudes towards other varieties of English such as Singaporean English and Indian English etc. (Chiba, Matusuura & Yamamoto, 1995; Smith, 1992, as cited in Matsuda, 2006).

As a result, it is important to introduce learners to more varieties of English via textbooks, videos or tapes and if possible, to create opportunities for learners to interact with real users of several English varieties worldwide. They need to know that, with more NNSs of English than NSs of English, English no longer belongs solely to its NSs (Widdowson, 1994). Indeed, "the social and psychological need to respect the norms of the largest group of users of English, i.e. non-natives" (Jenkins, 1998, p. 120) must be respected. Learners need to understand that one of the major purposes of learning English is to communicate internationally with a variety of people, not only with NSs of English.

In addition, teachers of English, "… are being required to teach a model that they themselves do not control" (Kirkpatrick, 2006, p. 80). Feeling that their own variety is not as good as the 'superimposed' English varieties prevents them from developing self-confidence and self-respect.

Action needs to be taken to empower English teachers to feel confident in their own variety of English since local teachers play essential roles in teaching English, in the ways noted below:

a. Only non-native English speaking teachers (non-NESTs) can serve as imitable models of the successful learner of English…

b. Non-NESTs can teach learning strategies more effectively…

c. Non-NESTs can provide learners with more information about the English language.

d. Non-NESTs are more able to anticipate language difficulties….

e. Non-NESTs can be more empathetic to the needs and problems of their learners…

f. Only non-NESTs can benefit from sharing the learners' mother tongue...

(Medgyes 1992, pp. 346-47)

Furthermore, non-NESTs' understanding of the local culture plays an essential role in TEIL in which the goal is to enable learners to "communicate local culture knowledge to others" (McKay, 2002, p. 44). This point is reinforced by Seidlhofer (1999) who emphasizes that non-NESTs are 'double agents' that know their students' language and culture as well as the culture of the English language.

Due to the challenges of the NS model mentioned above, alternative teaching models in the context of EIL have been suggested. According to Kirkpatrick (2006), the lingua franca model seems most suitable to prepare learners for varied contexts in which they will interact with other NNSs. His proposal is also consistent with the international variety of English suggested by Matsuda (2012). The benefits of using such a variety as the language of instruction are to "mainstream the materials, simplify the assessment and allow teachers to overpass the recognition of the messy reality of

multiple Englishes found in the world" (Matsuda, 2012, p. 18). However, she acknowledges that this approach can be problematic. Employing an international variety of English fails to address the reality of international communication and how EIL is used. It is because of the different linguistic and cultural backgrounds of the language users that interactions in the target language are unpredictable. In order to succeed in communication, interlocutors need to use a variety of communicative strategies, which make exchanges in English even more various. Hence, the lingua franca model or international variety of English cannot be employed with success in international communication while teaching English remains context-dependent.

Another suggested model is using the speakers' own variety of English (Matsuda, 2012) or the nativised model (Kirkpatrick, 2006): Singaporeans would use Singaporean English, Indians would use Indian English, Japanese people would use a Japanese variety, and so forth. Such a model would help empower the role of local teachers and treats native-speaker norms as alternative, rather than standard, varieties (Kirkpatrick, 2006). Nonetheless, it is not easy to extend this approach in all Expanding Circle countries such as China, Thailand and Vietnam, since American or British English have long been preferred in those countries. Moreover, the local varieties of English such as Chinese English and Vietnamese English are still in the process of emerging, a point that may pose an obstacle for them competing with the established NS model.

The next possible model would use an established variety of English as the base model with the introduction of other varieties later in the curriculum (Matsuda, 2012). Established varieties here refer to codified English varieties "used for a wide variety of communicative functions and are relatively well accepted in different kinds of international contexts as well as different realms of use" (Matsuda, 2012, p. 22). In other words, those varieties could be American English, British English, Australian English or Indian English or other Outer Circle Englishes. It also includes the

possibility of including Expanding Circle varieties once they become established. By introducing other varieties to learners, this approach would help prepare them for the reality of international communication, raising their awareness of several varieties of the Englishes existing in the world, not just American or British English.

Due to the increasing number of multilingual speakers of English who use English as an additional language, Kirkpatrick, Patkin and Jingjing (2013) suggest a multilingual model for intercultural communication, especially in the context of Asia, where English functions as a lingua franca. He observes that multilingual speakers are in a more appropriate position to teach the pragmatic norms and values to language learners than so-called NSs of English. In other words, a teacher with knowledge of both the local and target cultures is highly desirable, and more likely to aid students in adapting to the contexts where English is used as a lingua franca or an international language. Indeed, "the adoption of a multilingual model has potentially significant implications for English language teaching as the study of regional varieties and regional cultures become important curriculum components" (Kirkpatrick et al., 2013, p. 263). It is important for teachers to be aware of this possibility and to train themselves to become multilingual and multicultural in their approach to teaching English so that they will be able to meet the need for successful intercultural communication in their region.

Certainly, selecting a suitable model to teach when teaching English should be based on the goal of instruction as well as the learning needs of learners. As the linguistic and cultural backgrounds of potential interlocutors with whom learners will interact are usually unknown and diverse, it is quite difficult to determine what kinds of English they will need to use in the future. For instance, if the goal is to prepare learners to study in Australia - an English speaking country, Australian English may be the most appropriate variety. With the vast number of people from many national

backgrounds living in Australia, however, learners may nevertheless find themselves communicating with more NNSs than native ones. Therefore, no decision on this front is easy but it is extremely important that the choice of an instructional variety should be carefully thought through and context-based.

McKay (2012, p. 37) emphasizes several important factors that teachers need to consider when making such pedagogical decisions:

1. What languages are used in the local linguistic landscape and how are they used?
2. What are the learners' attitudes towards these languages?
3. What standards are adhered to in the local linguistic landscape?
4. What are the major purposes the learners have for acquiring English?
5. What is the proficiency level and age of the learner?
6. What are the features of the local culture of learning?

It can be clearly seen from the above list that local culture plays an important part in determining the appropriate pedagogical approach. As a result, along with the fact that the NS model seems irrelevant in the context of EIL, another implication of the current status of English worldwide on ELT is the question of which culture should be introduced to learners of English in the classroom because language is closely linked to culture (Sharifian, 2011). The following section will begin with some definitions of culture, and investigate the current cultural content of ELT programmes, followed by some suggestions in the literature for the teaching of culture(s) in the context of global English.

2.2.3. Teaching of culture(s) in ELT

2.2.3.1. The definitions of culture

Culture is such a broad term that it is not easy to define. Cortazzi and Jin (1999, p. 197) characterise culture as "the framework of assumptions, ideas, and beliefs that are used to interpret other people's actions, words, and patterns of thinking". Liddicoat, Papademetre, Scarino and Kohler (2003, p. 45) describe culture as

> a complex system of concepts, attitudes, values, beliefs, conventions, behaviours, practices, rituals and lifestyles of the people who make up a cultural group, as well as the artefacts they produce and the institutions they create.

The notion of culture is, however, more complex than such definitions because, as has been extensively discussed by a number of scholars, culture has different levels and elements (Kramsch, 1993, 1995; Cortazzi & Jin, 1995; Stapeton, 2000). According to Cortazzi and Jin (1995), the cultural elements include manifest culture and hidden culture as shown in the following figure.

Figure 2.2 Manifest culture vs. Hidden culture (Cortazzi & Jin, 1995, p.208)
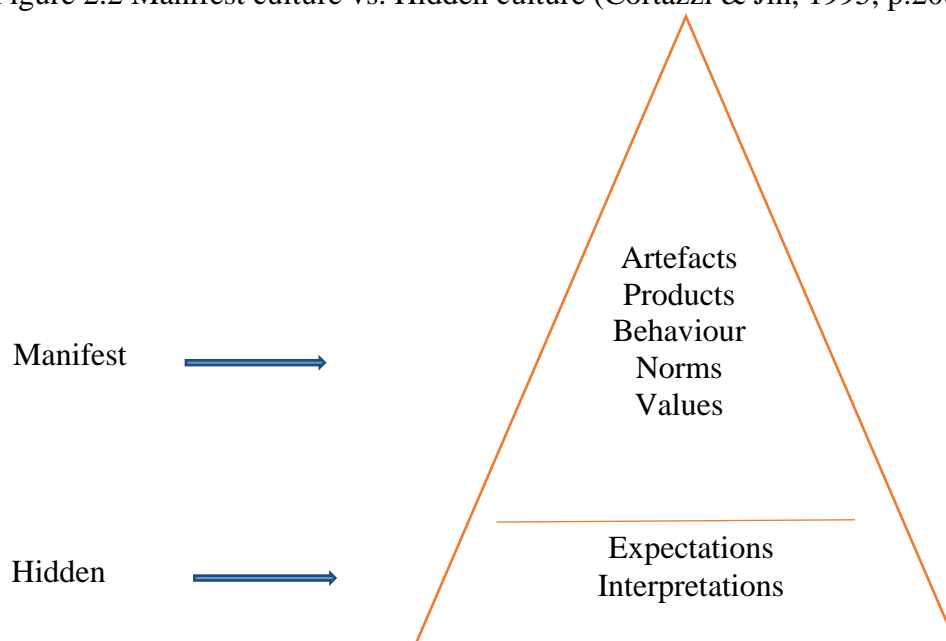
As the figure shows, these cultural elements are divided into two levels - the manifest level which refers to food, products and artefacts, and the hidden level which refers to norms, values and interpretations.

Some scholars divide culture into big 'C' and little 'c' culture (Battisa, 1984; Flewelling, 1993, 1994; Lee, 2009; Peterson, 2004; Stempleski, 2000). Art, music, philosophy, technology and the literature of a country or ethnic groups are examples of big 'C' whereas little 'c' refers to the everyday culture, including social customs, what is learned at school as well as what is eaten and so forth.

Eschewing such definitions of culture, Robinson (1988) contends that culture, which is made of meaning and experience, is a fluid concept. Indeed, culture "emerges from communities of practice and changes as speakers join and depart the community or as the community evolves" (Galloway & Rose, 2015, p. 206).

2.2.3.2. Culture, Language and ELT

It has been argued that language is closely connected to culture. As Kumaravadivelu (2008, p. 22) states,

> If the connection (between language and culture) were inextricable…then we would not be able to translate successfully from one language to another, now would we be able to engage in any fruitful cross-cultural communication? Moreover, the emergence of World Englishes, with their amazing functionality and spread along the rich body of creative literature in varieties such as Indian English and Nigerian English, proves, if any proof is needed, that culture and language are not irrevocably linked.

While Williams and Burden (1997) state that learning a language is similar to putting oneself into another's shoes, Alptekin (2002) observes that learning a foreign language includes the gradual acquisition of the characteristics and norms of a culture. As a result, "learners not only learn a

system of rules or a grammar, but also adopt new social and cultural behaviours" (Lai, 2014, p. 5). This implies that a target culture needs to be included in foreign language learning content. The target culture, in EFL settings, often refers to the culture of the NSs such as British or American culture and this cultural domination is reflected in the majority of teaching materials (Byram et al., 2002; Graddol, 2006; McKay, 2012b). Indeed, Latulippee (1999) claims that students need to 'behave' like NSs of English if they want to be successful language learners.

For a long time, the cultural focus in English language teaching has been Anglo-centric. Yet in the context of globalisation, 'English-speaking culture' is becoming far more diverse as more and more varieties of English develop. Indeed, Kachru (1992, p. 362) stresses that "English represents a repertoire of cultures, not a monolithic culture". As a result, Kramsch (2009, p. 190) contends,

> the goals of traditional language teaching have been found wanting in the new era of globalisation. Its main tenets (monolingual native speakers, homogeneous national cultures, pure standard national languages, instrumental goals of education, and functional criteria of success) have all become problematic in a world that is increasingly multilingual and multicultural.

The question of culture is even more problematic in ELT settings in which English is used as a lingua franca such as in the context of ASEAN. The multilingual and multicultural contexts require learners to develop a more comprehensive understanding of the varied cultural contexts of English use, leading to the broadening of the cultural content of English lessons. Indeed, the paradigm of EIL calls for a re-examination of the notion of target culture (McKay, 2003; Pennycook, 2008, Doan, 2014).

In relation to the English language, the two goals for the teaching and learning of culture(s) adapted from Kramsch (1993) would suffice:

1. Learning culture is not just the transfer of information between cultures. In other words, it is important for a learner to be able to reflect his or her own culture in relation to others.

2. Each culture consists of different national characteristics related to age, gender, regional origin, ethnic background and social value of which learners should develop an awareness of the complexity.

Such goals emphasise that students should learn not only about the culture of English-speaking countries but also about different cultures worldwide, in order to position themselves for success in cross-cultural communication and to gain a better understanding of their own culture. This emphasis is also in line with Byram's (2006) notion of intercultural communicative competence in which learners are encouraged to acquire the following capacities:

1. Attitudes/Affective capacities

    - Acknowledgement of the identities of others

    - Respect for otherness

    - Tolerance for ambiguity

    - Empathy

2. Behaviour

    - Flexibility

    - Communicative awareness

3. Cognitive capacities

    - Knowledge

    - Interpreting and relating

    - Critical cultural awareness (pp. 22-26).

Among these capacities, critical cultural awareness plays a particularly important role in intercultural communicative competence (ICC). ICC emphasises communication among speakers from various lingual-cultural backgrounds and, therefore, to be successful learners need to learn to be culturally sensitive as well as to respect other cultures. However, cultures according to the paradigm of cultural awareness are generally understood to mean national cultures. More recently, intercultural awareness (ICA) has been developed with the focus on the dynamic and flexible relationships between languages and cultures (Baker, 2012a). Analysing the role of ICA in language teaching and learning, Baker (2012a, p. 70) considers "an awareness of the multilingual and multicultural settings of English use" as "a key element of any attempt to teach communication". He also presents 12 key components of ICA as can be found in table 2.1 below:

Table 2.1 Twelve components of ICA (p. 66)

Level 1: basic cultural awareness

An awareness of:

(1) culture as a set of shared behaviours, beliefs, and values;

(2) the role culture and context play in any interpretation of meaning;

(3) our own culturally induced behaviour, values, and beliefs and the ability to articulate this;

(4) others' culturally induced behaviour, values, and beliefs and the ability to compare this with our own culturally induced behaviour, values and beliefs.

Level 2: advanced cultural awareness

An awareness of:

(5) the relative nature of cultural norms;

(6) cultural understanding as provisional and open to revision;

(7) the multiple voices or perspectives within any cultural grouping;

(8) how individuals may be members of many social groupings including cultural ones;

(9) the common ground between specific cultures as well as an awareness of possibilities for mismatch and miscommunication between specific cultures.

Level 3: intercultural awareness

(10) of culturally based frames of reference, forms, and communicative practices as being related both to specific cultures and also as emergent and hybrid in intercultural communication;

(11) the possibility that the initial interaction in intercultural communication could be based on cultural stereotypes or generalisations but that interlocutors can develop the ability to move beyond these through;

> (12) a capacity to negotiate and mediate between different emergent socio-culturally grounded communication modes and frames of reference based on the above understanding of culture in intercultural communication.

Baker (2012a, p. 62) argues that ICA can be employed as "an alternative 'non-essentialist' view of culture and language that better accounts for the fluid and dynamic relationship between them" and applied his understanding in the ELT classroom by means of six strands. They are: (1) exploring local cultures; (2) exploring language-learning materials; (3) exploring the traditional media and arts through English; (4) exploring IT/electronic media through English; (5) cultural informants, and (6) face-to-face intercultural communication (often with non-local English teachers) (see Baker, 2012a, for more details).

Raising learners' awareness of global cultures and issues is important, as the ultimate teaching goal is to prepare learners to communicate internationally (Matsuda, 2006; Nault, 2006). Learners should be exposed to a variety of topics such as world peace, the environment global education or the economy. In addition to that, learners are expected to familiarize themselves with the culture of their target interlocutors no matter where they are in the world. This can be implemented by allocating the cultures of several countries from each circle to provide learners with a diverse knowledge base because it would be impossible to introduce all cultures into any curriculum. It would be ideal if individual learners could choose the cultures they themselves preferred to study. For a class of Vietnamese businessmen who are to work in Thailand, for instance, Thai culture would be the most appropriate target culture. Additionally, Horibe (2008) calls for more attention to be paid to Asian Englishes and the cultures linked to them as Asian people have more chance to interact with each other in English than they do with American or British people. Finally, the

cultural content in language teaching can involve the culture of the learners so that they are able to express their own values, a point which is consistent with Kramsch's (1993) goals stated above.

In reality, nonetheless, some countries share a number of similar values. An example of this is that the institution of spirit money and the culture of giving and receiving gifts in Vietnam is similar to that in Hong Kong. This raises the question "What cultural content should be added for the local context?" When it is said students should develop the ability to tell others about their own culture in English (McKay, 2002), what is meant by "their own culture?" For instance, when asked about how Vietnamese people welcome the Lunar New Year, a Vietnamese person usually receives the comment "Oh, your culture is just like China's," which can be experienced as a challenge to one's national identity. Consequently, it is worth providing learners with information about not only the cultural variations relevant to WE but also the shared values of those varieties so that they can learn to decide quickly which cultural content could be appropriately shared or made explicit in real communication contexts. Such an approach would also help learners to respect their own culture as well as those of others.

It is important to consider the implications of the international status of English in terms of teaching about culture(s) to help learners to become successful intercultural individuals in both local and global communication, a point which is greatly dependent on the intercultural competence mentioned above. To realise that goal, teachers need to expose learners to a diverse range of Englishes and their attached cultures. Project learning, field trips and oversea study can be effective ways for students to experience different cultures and develop intercultural competence. These approaches are not always feasible, however, in countries such as Vietnam due to the cost involved. Therefore, teachers would need to largely rely on teaching materials to provide learners with input

in their classrooms. The important role played by teaching materials in ELT raises the question of what type of teaching materials are relevant to TEIL.

2.2.4. Teaching materials in ELT

According to Brown (1995, p. 139), teaching materials refer to "any systematic description of the techniques and exercises to be used in classroom teaching" and this description is "broad enough to encompass lesson plans and yet can accommodate books, packets of audio-visual aids, games, or any other myriad types of activities that go on in the language classroom". In this sense, teaching materials can take various forms from published textbooks, workbooks, reference materials, realia to audio-visuals.

Traditionally, teaching materials have predominately explored American and British contexts as the majority of the course is rested on the varieties and mainstream of these two countries (Matsuda, 2002, as cited in Matsuda, 2006). Indeed, Kirkpatrick and Sussex (2012b) observe that native speaker English dominates current teaching materials, especially textbooks. Teaching materials, therefore, "fail to acknowledge the increased use of English among non-native speakers of English" (Matsuda, 2012, p.171), possibly leading learners to bewilderment and resistance when they are exposed to the diversity of English as it is actually used. Consequently, there is a need for a broader presentation of languages and cultures in teaching materials, or the introduction of more examples of varieties of English to students in addition to the dominant instructional models. It may be impossible for teachers to travel around the world to collect suitable teaching materials, yet with the help of technology and the internet, teachers are positioned to select relevant teaching materials including textbooks, teaching resources, listening and reading tasks and so on from various sources to supplement a core textbook.

In recent years, a number of countries have been working to improve the teaching materials for ELT. They include in-country/domestic textbooks, regional textbooks and international textbooks (Dat, 2008); adapted imported materials, collaboratively co-written materials and locally written materials (Orton, 2009). Examples of such materials include:

- Englishes of the World (Yoneoka & Arimoto, 2000)

- English across cultures (Honna et al., 2001)

- World Englishes: An introduction (Melchers & Shaw, 2003)

- Identity (Shaules, Tsujioka & Iida, 2004)

- World Englishes: Implications for international communication and English language teaching (Kirkpatrick, 2007)

- World Englishes: A resource book for students (Jenkins, 2009)

- Principles and practices of teaching English as an international language (Matsuda, 2012; Alsagoff et al., 2012)

- The amazing world of World Englishes: A practical introduction (Siemund, Davydova & Maier, 2012)

- Global Englishes (Galloway & Rose, 2015).

However, this trend needs expansion since there is a scarcity of materials developed for teaching English when it is used for international communication (McKay, 2012; Galloway & Rose, 2015). Matsuda (2012, p. 170) stresses the importance of designing materials in a way that promotes "awareness of and sensitivity toward differences - in forms, uses and users - and learn to respect (or at least tolerate) those differences". She also suggested a number of criteria for teachers to apply when evaluating teaching materials, such as:

- Which variety of English is the material based on? Is it the variety my students should learn?

- Does it provide adequate exposure to other varieties of English and raise enough awareness about the linguistic diversity of English?

- Does it represent a variety of speakers?

- Whose cultures are represented?

- Is it appropriate for the local context? (pp. 172-77)

In a broader sense, it is of great importance to bring the complex nature and sociolinguistic reality of English into today's EIL curricula and classrooms at all levels of study. The six key principles for the teaching and learning EIL curricula can be summarized as follows:

1. EIL curricula should be relevant to the domain in which English is used in the specific learning contexts.

2. EIL professionals should strive to alter language policies that serve to promote English learning only among the elite of the country.

3. EIL curricula should include examples of the diversity of the English varieties used today.

4. EIL curricula need exemplify L2-L2 interactions.

5. Full recognition needs to be given to the other languages spoken by English speakers.

6. EIL should be taught in a way that respects the local culture in which the learning is taking place (McKay, 2008, pp. 195-97).

Based on those principles, EIL curricula should provide learners with ways to communicate their cultures to the world as well as foster the ability to cope with linguistic and cultural diversity, and the ability to discuss the complexity of the sociolinguistic reality of the English language as a

language for international/intercultural communication, and how it can in turn be adapted to express multiple systems of already existing or emerging norms. If these principles are implemented in the design of teaching materials for ELT, it is expected that learners will become competent and have the confidence to use English to communicate internationally (McKay, 2012).

2.3. English language teaching in Vietnam

Vietnam - one of the so-called Expanding Circle countries - feels the need to pay attention to the EIL paradigm since English is the preferred foreign language in language teaching and learning programmes. Setting the scene for the current study, this section presents an overview of the historical, cultural and sociolinguistic context of Vietnam, as well as the status of English and ELT issues in Vietnam.

2.3.1. The context of Vietnam

2.3.1.1. Historical and geographical aspects

The current official name of The Socialist Republic of Vietnam (Vietnam), adopted in 1945, was preceded by a number of official names such as Van Lang, Au Lac, Van Xuan, and so forth with a history going back over thousands of years (Vietnam National Administration of Tourism Website, 2016). Geographically, Vietnam - the national capital of which is Hanoi - is bordered by China to the north, Laos to the northwest, Cambodia to the southwest and the South Sea to the east. Vietnam, with over 94 million people, is the 14th most populous country in the world, and the 8th most populous Asian country (General statistics office of Vietnam, 2016). With a total length from north to south of around 1,650 km on the eastern part of the Indochinese peninsula, some parts of Vietnam have a tropical and others a temperature climate.

2.3.1.2. Cultural aspects

In terms of cultural characteristics, Vietnamese society manifests high collectivism and of high power distance, which is consistent with South East Asian societies overall (Hofstede, 1980, 1986, as cited in To, 2010). According to To (2010, p. 97), those cultural characteristics play an important role in shaping "Vietnamese students' typical attitude to knowledge and authority and their beliefs about teaching and learning styles". Vietnamese learners tend to have high respect for their teachers and to view teachers as people who not only transfer knowledge to them but also who should be models of morality and wisdom. Therefore, students are expected to strictly follow their teachers' examples and instruction and to work hard to achieve good results in the classroom (To, 2010).

Furthermore, as much of Vietnam is a tropical country which has faced frequent floods, storms and successive wars, Vietnamese culture highly values the ability to be adaptable and to endure difficulties and hardships, through perseverance and a considerable work ethic (Phan & Vu, 1996, as cited in To, 2010). In general, Vietnamese culture is influenced by Chinese ideologies and religious beliefs, namely Confucianism, Taoism and Buddhism, resulting from 1,000 years of Chinese rule and cultural assimilation (Tuong, 2002). Family life, respect for seniors in age, status and social-academic-work position, friendships, self-respect and face-saving are highly valued in Vietnamese society. In the classroom, Vietnamese students are usually quiet, and wait for their teacher to call on them to speak rather than volunteer to voice ideas in the classroom, and this propensity to wait to be invited to speak is "often misunderstood as a passive or non-cooperative attitude" by foreign teachers (Tuong, 2002, p. 2).

2.3.1.3. Sociolinguistic context

Vietnam has 54 different ethnic groups with the dominant Kinh (Viet) people, making up nearly 90 per cent of the population. Vietnamese, the language of the Kinh or Viet people, is the current official language in Vietnam. Some elderly people still speak French as a second language as a colonial legacy while others still use Russian due to ties with the former Soviet Union, but , both French and Russian have become less popular. Since the "Doi Moi" policy in 1986, English has gained a high status as a foreign language, currently studied by more than 90 per cent of students, starting at primary school. There is also a growing demand for Chinese, Japanese and Korean in recent years. The status of English in Vietnam is rising rapidly due to globalisation, which has had a significant impact on social relations, ideology, and culture in Vietnam.

2.3.2. The status of English in Vietnam

The history of ELT in Vietnam has two main stages: English in Vietnam before 1986 and English in Vietnam from 1986 until now. 1986 was the year that Doi Moi policy (open-door or renovation policy) was introduced in Vietnam, and it was that which made English the most learned foreign language in the country.

2.3.2.1. English in Vietnam before 1986

According to Hoang (2011), ELT in pre-Doi Moi Vietnam can be reflected into three periods: (1) the time of the French invasion of Vietnam before 1954; (2) after the French departure from 1954 to 1975; and (3) English in Reunified Vietnam from 1975 to 1986. Each period will be discussed briefly in the following sections.

2.3.2.1.1. The colonial period (before 1954)

Vietnam was invaded by the French in 1847 and wholly occupied in 1884. During that time, French was made the official language and used as a language of instruction at primary, secondary and tertiary levels. Although it is impossible to know exactly when English was introduced into Vietnam, it is believed the language was taught under French rule. However, it could not compete against the status of French during that time and its history is not easy to trace due to the lack of extant writings on ELT in Vietnam (Hoang, 2011). Indeed, there are just a few English textbooks written by French textbook writers which enable us to infer that the method of teaching English in Vietnam during this time was the grammar-translation method.

2.3.2.1.2. After the French departure (1954-1975)

In 1954, the struggle between Vietnam and France ended, which brought the status of French as the official language to an end. According to the 1954 Geneva Accord, Vietnam was divided into two parts: the North and the South, with opposite political orientations. The North was allied with the former Soviet Union, and the South with America. Hence the status of English was different in these two regions. English became the dominant foreign language for direct communication with America in the South, while Russian became the top language in formal education for interaction with the former Soviet Union in the North. During this period, English was not as popular as Russian, being taught only in some classes in towns or in big cities at the upper secondary level (Nguyen, 1993). At the tertiary stage, English was offered as a major in only two foreign language institutions, the Ha Noi Foreign Languages Teachers' Training College (now known as the University of Languages and International studies, Vietnam National University Ha Noi) and the College of Foreign Languages (now known as the University of Ha Noi). Some other

universities offered English as a subject oriented to the goal of understanding the U.S.A. and preparing to fight against American invasion on the diplomatic front (Hoang, 2011).

2.3.2.1.3. English in Reunified Vietnam from 1975 to 1986

This period between 1975 and 1986 witnessed the rising status of Russian and the decline of English and French due to political, economic and educational alliances with the former Soviet Union. The targets set for high schools with foreign language programmes were to have 60 per cent of students studying Russian, 25 per cent English and 15 per cent French (Denham, 1992). Russian continued to dominate in the North, where the number of students studying Russian was larger than the combined enrolments of all other foreign languages (Do, 2006). In the South, Russian gained the dominant status particularly rapidly. Russian departments staffed with academic staff from the North were started in many universities, attracting an increasing number of students enrolling in Russian, both as a discipline and as a subject. During the time, the expansion of Russian was further stimulated through Russian education aid programmes which sent hundreds of Vietnamese teachers and students to the former Soviet Union to study Russian at the undergraduate and graduate levels.

Because of the dominant status of Russian, English was only taught in a small number of classes in upper secondary schools, and more in towns and big cities than in rural areas. However, during this period, several Vietnamese teachers and interpreters of English were selected to pursue English majors at a graduate level in Australia, Britain, India and New Zealand. For instance, roughly 40 Vietnamese teachers and interpreters of English went to Australia to study ELT, having received Australian support through the Australian International Development Assistance Bureau and Australian Agency for International Development programmes (Do, 2006).

In terms of ELT, the dominant method was the structural one which focused on lexicogrammar, reading and translation skills. A sentence pattern was first introduced to students, who were then instructed to use substitution and transformation techniques, and were drilled in that pattern. From there, they were required to produce new sentences based on the structure of the model sentence. Finally, they were asked to translate their sentences into Vietnamese and vice versa to consolidate what they had learned. As a result, little attention was paid to the teaching of oral skills and learners, therefore, usually failed when asked to use English in real communication (Hoang, 2011).

2.3.2.2. English from 1986 up to the present

The year 1986 was an important year for the status of English in Vietnam. In that year, Vietnam started the overall economic reform known as the Doi Moi policy, which meant opening the door of Vietnam to the whole world with the goal of creating socialist-oriented market economy. Since then, English has played a vital role in Vietnam's political, economic, cultural and social life, especially so after Vietnam became a member of ASEAN in 1995, the Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) in 1998 and more recently, the World Trade Organization (WTO). Thanks to the Doi Moi policy, more and more English-speaking foreigners from Australia, Malaysia, Singapore, Taiwan, and the European Union come to Vietnam to do business, stimulating the need for Vietnamese nationals to learn English. This trend reflects globalisation which is deemed to be the most influential external force behind English language teaching and learning in Vietnam (Hoang, 2011). Vietnam has also gained significant attention from Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), much of the interaction with this requires communication in English (Gos.gov.vn, 2016).

During the early 1990s, English, chosen by more than 85 per cent of foreign language learners in Vietnam, became so popular that there were not enough English teachers to meet the demand for

ELT (Denham, 1992; Do, 2006). As Do (2006, p. 6) notes, "In the early 1990s, since the demand for English outstripped supply, those who had no official training also became teachers". To solve the issue of English language teacher shortage, teachers of Russian (mostly in the North) were allowed to take special training courses in the English language so that they could continue to work as Vietnamese ELT teachers. This point is confirmed in Denham's (1997, p. 195) statement that there was "…a surfeit of teachers of Russian, many of whom sought to be re-trained as teachers of English".

Currently, English is taught at government schools and language centres. It is one of the three required national examinations for students who wish to graduate from upper secondary schools. Based on "A National Strategy for Foreign Language Teaching and Learning throughout all Levels of Education" (MOET, 1994c, as cited in Do, 2006), university students from all majors are required to take foreign languages, mainly English, for their graduation exams as do those seeking post-graduate education and the granting of professorships. Furthermore, even long-time employed government officials are encouraged to do further study to acquire a foreign language to use as a communication tool. As a result, foreign languages, mainly English, have gained the special status in education and daily-life activities. Ninety per cent of English learners have a favourable attitude and strong motivation to learn English for job seeking, job advancement and overseas studies (Do, 2006).

2.3.2.3. *Features of English in Vietnam*

English used in Vietnam does share similar distinct features that English in East Asia has as documented in the literature as follows:

- Less distinction is made between long and short vowels (e.g. *seat* vs *sit, seen* vs *sin*).

- Final consonants in consonant clusters are often omitted.

- Locally coined idioms, such as *honda/motorbike taxis* (motorbikes used to take people from one place to another place like taxis; *floating markets* (places where you can shop along river banks); *love market*s (places where ethnic boys and girls declare one's love to each other usually on Saturday nights).

- Plurality: additive differences - often no distinction is made between countable and uncountable nouns due to the lack of inflectional endings in Vietnamese.

- Articles are usually omitted due to the absence of the article system.

- Tense and aspect: little distinction is made between simple present and present progressive; simple past and simple present etc.

- The *yes/no* response can cause confusion. For instance, when responding to a negative question such as *Don't you like English?* a speaker may answer *yes* to signal agreement with the negative question (meaning, *No, I don't like English*).

Despite these common features shared with English in East Asia, the sociolinguistic profile of English in Vietnam is not comprehensive since Vietnamese English is in the very early stage of emerging. Thus, more research on the features of English in Vietnam is needed (to be further discussed in Chapter Nine).

2.3.3. Current situations of ELT in Vietnam

2.3.3.1. The formal system

The Vietnamese education system is divided into five levels:

- Primary education from year 1 to year 5 (for children aged 6-11)

- Lower secondary education from year 6 to year 9 (aged 11-15)

- Upper secondary education from year 10 to year 12 (aged 15-18)

- Higher education, and

- Postgraduate education (To, 2010).

Before 1998, English was the preferred foreign language, selected as a compulsory subject at lower and upper secondary schools. For some time, teacher-centred, book-centred and grammar-translation methods have been the dominant approaches in ELT. As Le (2000) observes the traditional view of the teacher-student relationship which supports teacher-centred methods and a structured curriculum is central to pedagogical practices in Vietnam. Indeed, being considered as the only provider of knowledge, the teacher is highly respected by students, students' parents and the society as a whole. What the teacher or textbook says is unquestionably accepted as standard norms and students are expected to strictly follow them. Moreover, the textbooks used at the time largely focused on reading and grammar, which hindered learners from being able to develop oral skills for communication.

Because of the impact of English as a global language and the need to foster communication skills for students, ELT in Vietnam has leaned towards implementing the learner-centred approach, which has been dominant in English-speaking countries. According to this approach, the teacher is a facilitator providing students with creative contexts for language learning. This new philosophy of foreign language teaching led the Vietnamese government to work on the Renovation of the Vietnamese General Education Curriculum (Decree N° 14/2001 TC-TTg), focusing on the requirements and tasks set by the Ministry of Education. In 2002, a redesign of textbooks was implemented in response to the decree. In the case of English teaching, the new textbooks included one set for lower secondary schools and two sets for upper secondary schools (a standard set for 96 per cent of the students and an advanced set for four per cent of the students)

(Hoang, 2011). To prepare teachers of English to use these new textbooks, they were extensively retrained over a long period of time to apply communicative language approach in their classrooms. This will be discussed in depth in the following part.

Based on the new general curriculum, English is now compulsory at both lower and upper secondary schools and an optional subject in primary education. The teaching periods in English at all levels are illustrated in the table below:

Table 2.2 Total Teaching Periods in English by Year Level (Thu vien phap luat, 2016)

Years	Periods per week	Total
Primary (years 3-5)	2/week/35 weeks	210
Lower secondary (years 6-9)	3/week/35 weeks	420
Upper secondary (years 10-12)	3/week/35 weeks	315
Total		945

Aiming to develop learners' communicative competence in language learning environment that meet their needs and abilities, the English teaching content in secondary school programmes include: themes, topics, communicative competence, linguistics knowledge, and learning how to learn. In particular, the goals of ELT in Vietnam for students completing their upper secondary education are stated in the new curriculum as follows:

- To achieve the ability to understand clearly the main ideas from the input about typical things that regularly take place in school, work, and recreation;

- To be able to handle situations that are mostly likely to arise in the process of communication;

- To develop/write simple and logical paragraphs about familiar or favourite topics;

- To describe experiences and events in the past as well as dreams, hopes and ambitions for the future, plus being able to explain/describe briefly learners' points of views and plans for the future;

- To understand and appreciate diverse cultures, and reflect on the values of the culture of Vietnamese people through English;

- To use English as a means to link the knowledge of the English language to other learning subjects in the curriculum;

- To use English to pursue higher educational goals or to look for jobs independently after finishing upper secondary schools;

- To apply different learning strategies to further develop English language abilities independently after upper secondary school graduation (Phap luat thu vien, 2016).

In order to better the quality of English teaching and learning in Vietnam in the context of globalisation, the Vietnamese Prime Minister issued Decision N˚ 1400/QD-TTg the 10-year national plan for "Teaching and Learning Foreign Languages in the National Formal Educational System in the period of 2008-2020" in 2008 with three stages. The first stage (2008-2010) aims at developing the 10-year foreign language curriculum with a particular focus on writing foreign language textbooks and on preparations for conducting a pilot 10-year foreign language programme from year three. The second stage (2011-2015) is targeted at implementing the foreign

language programme nationwide. The last stage (2016-2020) focuses on 'perfecting' or improving the programme and on developing intensive foreign language programmes for vocational schools, colleges and universities.

The plan adopts the six-level testing system designed by the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) for language as the standard for assessing the quality of English learning in Vietnam. Students graduating from primary (6-10 years old), lower secondary (11-15 years old) and upper secondary schools (15-18 years old) are required to reach levels A1, A2, and B1 of this framework respectively. For undergraduate education, B1, B2 and C1 are the target for non-English major students, college students of English (two - three years) and university students of English (four years) respectively.

In order to help students to achieve those objectives, primary and lower secondary teachers are required to achieve B2 and teachers at upper secondary and higher must obtain C1. With the adoption of CEFR, there have been efforts to develop an English Teacher Competency Framework (ETCF) (Nguyen, 2013). The ETCF proposes five domains, mainly pertaining to providing Vietnamese ELT teachers with knowledge of language learning as well as methodology in language teaching. For instance, English teachers will be expected to have "a working knowledge of CEFR and be able to apply it to teaching practice" (Nguyen, 2013, p. 63). In addition, they need to develop an understanding of not only how languages are learned but also of the cultures of English-speaking and ASEAN countries. As Vietnam is a member of ASEAN, Nguyen (2013) calls for a common Language Framework of Reference for ASEAN to be developed, especially in the context of preparing learners to learn English to join the ASEAN economic community established in early 2016.

At a tertiary level, English is taught both as a discipline and as a subject (referring to the English taught to English majors and non-English majors). English major students study approximately 1,000 hours of in-class English subjects including language skills, literature, linguistics and so forth to obtain a BA in English. After graduating, those with BAs can become teachers, translators/interpreters or researchers either in English linguistics or in ELT methodology. Non-English major students, on the other hand, study around 300 hours of English to acquire general English proficiency and for academic enhancement.

In recent years, the Vietnamese government has encouraged tertiary institutions to use English as the medium of instruction to promote English language teaching and learning at tertiary level. For example, in some cases, several science subjects such as maths, physics and chemistry are taught in English. This has been implemented at a number of pivotal universities (Vietnam National University, Hanoi and Vietnam National University, Thai Nguyen University, Hue University and Da Nang University) before being applied for the whole tertiary educational system.

2.3.3.2. The informal system

In addition to the English language programmes within the formal system, the informal system has been developing rapidly. This system offers English language training in the form of continuing education, including foreign language centres; public and private, foreign and joint venture language schools; language centres of universities; professional associations; government agencies and socio-economic organisations. This non-formal education sector provides a variety of English courses at different levels to meet the demands of various types of learners. Hence, English has "developed with an unprecedented speed in Vietnam" (Do, 2006, p. 8).

2.3.4. Issues of ELT in Vietnam

In spite of these abovementioned on-going efforts and policy initiatives in promoting the quality of the English language teaching and learning in Vietnam, the diversity of English has faced ELT in Vietnam with remarkable challenges when it comes to the application of communicative language teaching methods, which is the focus of the next sub-sections.

2.3.4.1. Communicative language teaching

In order to minimise the limitations of the traditional methods that mainly emphasized grammar and vocabulary, teachers have been encouraged to apply communicative language teaching (CLT) in the classroom. CLT has been popular in Vietnam since the 1990s (Pham, 2005a). Based on the ideas proposed by Hymes (1972), a sociolinguist who suggests that it took more than a set of grammatical, lexical and phonological rules to know a language, CLT refers to a method that enables language learners to develop communicative competence - the ability to use the target language appropriately in a given social context.

Hymes' definition of communicative competence was explored and further refined by several language educators. Canale and Swain (1980) propose that communicative competence consists of grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic competence. Grammatical competence refers to the mastery of the language code itself. Discourse competence concerns the mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve unified spoken or written texts in different genres. Sociolinguistic competence addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts depending on contextual factors. Finally, strategic competencies include the mastery of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action for two main reasons: (a) to compensate for breakdowns

in communication due to limiting conditions in actual communication, or to compensate for insufficient competence in one or more of the other areas of communicative competence; and (b) to enhance the effectiveness of communication. It is worth noting that communicative competence refers to NS competence such as American or British competence.

Breen and Candlin (1980) develop five main characteristics for communicative language teaching within a curriculum framework. They include (1) focus on the knowledge which is important for learners; (2) cyclical sequencing in communicative content; (3) subdivision of the content into activities and tasks to encourage the learners' involvement in communication; (4) the need to maintain continuity in those activities and tasks, and (5) allowing negotiation between learners and learners, learners and teachers, and learners and texts to play the key part in choosing the direction for a curriculum.

Savignon (1991, 2002) continues to elaborate on the implications of Canale and Swain's notion of communicative competence for more than 10 years, with an emphasis on the learner, and that the "learner communicative needs provide a framework for elaborating programme goals in terms of functional competence" (1991, p. 266).

Overall, CLT stresses the importance of meaningful communication in language learning and classroom activities that foster learners' communicative needs. In terms of its pedagogical implications, Richards and Rogers (1986, p. 83) conclude,

> Communicative language teaching is best considered an approach rather than a method. Thus although a reasonable degree of theoretical consistency can be discerned at the levels of language and learning theory, at the levels of design and procedure there is much greater room for individual interpretation and variation than most methods permit.

2.3.4.2. CLT in practice in the context of Vietnam

Even though there is an increasing need for oral communication skills in Vietnam, the application of CLT is quite challenging.

The first issue challenging teachers is the goal of achieving NS communicative competence, which is a goal highly desired within Vietnamese society and is considered the main aim of learning English for Vietnamese learners. As mentioned above, however, in a setting in which English is learned as a foreign language, as in Vietnam, "…many Anglo-Saxon norms and values contradict the culture norms and values of learners and, in turn, challenge the identity of these learners" (Pham, 2005, p. 5). Indeed, Byram (1997) argues that to apply NS norms in speaking and writing is problematic, because this model may hinder learners from displaying their social identities and cultural competence in intercultural communication. This point is underlined by the fact that modern Vietnamese learners use English to communicate, not only with NSs of English, but also with a larger number of NNSs of English, especially within Asia. Statistics from Vietnam's Ministry of Planning and Investment (MPI) taken in April, 2012 show that Asian countries ranked second among 95 countries that were investing in Vietnam. In addition, according to statistics from Vietnam's Ministry of Planning and Investment (MPI) taken in July, 2016, Vietnam attracted 3,040 FDI projects from ASEAN countries with a total capital of 64, 475 billion USD. For instance, Singapore was the biggest investor in Vietnam with a total capital of 38.1 billion USD. This suggests there is strong intercultural communication with Vietnam and Asian and ASEAN countries. That is why Alptekin (2002) downplays the necessity to acquire English NS competence in cross-cultural settings for learners and calls for the need to define communicative competence in a way that acknowledges the nature of EIL (see section 2.2 for more details).

The second challenge is the notion of creating genuine communication in CLT. Nunan (1989, p. 194) proposes "activities that involve oral communication, carrying out meaningful tasks, using language which is meaningful to the learner" as well as "materials that promote communicative language use… are task-based and authentic". In terms of activities, Pham (2005) contends that since Vietnamese students learning English share the same first language, they have little motivation for conducting real-life activities in English. The use of the mother tongue in ELT is still common in Vietnam (Nguyen, 2006). In addition, "the principle of doing tasks in the classroom which are applicable to the world outside the classroom is not as valid in Vietnam as in an English-speaking country, since Vietnamese learners rarely need to communicate in English outside the classroom" (Pham, 2005, p. 4). Furthermore, Le (2000) observes that students find language activities like role plays, problem-solving tasks or information gap activities strange to their culture of learning. Influenced by Confucianism, for instance, learners feel that it is impolite and face-threatening to interrupt or question the teacher. Hence, they do not ask teachers for clarification of those language activities they fail to understand, resulting in their lack of active participation in communicative tasks.

Another issue adding to the difficulty of the application of CLT in Vietnam is the exam-oriented curriculum, with an emphasis on grammar and reading rather than on communicative competence at both secondary and tertiary levels. English is one of the required subjects in the national examinations in which learners are expected to take written exams that mainly focus on reading comprehension, grammar and translation. Therefore, teachers find it difficult to implement a communicative approach in the classroom when they are mainly obliged to prepare their students for such exams. In reality, students who gain high grades in these exams may nevertheless fail to use English effectively for interaction in real-life situations (Hoang, 1999). Thus they may end up

feeling embarrassed, confused and lacking confidence in communication (Hoang, 2000). Studies shows that most Vietnamese graduate students have problems with communication skills (Bui, 2006), and that they are good at grammar and aspects of linguistics such as syntax and morphology, but incompetent in intercultural communication (Nguyen, 2007). Consequently, about 51 per cent of university students of English have to take extra English classes to improve their communication skills (Vietnamnet, 2004). To address this challenge, the Vietnamese MOET has recently issued the formats and structure of the national English exams that focus on the four language skills for year -12 students, starting from April, 2016 (Thu vien phap luat, 2016). It is questionable whether this will improve the application of CLT in the classroom as MOET announced that students got an average of 3.3 marks out of 10 at the national secondary school finals in 2016 (Vietnamnet, 2016).

In practice, therefore, most teachers continue to opt for traditional methods such as grammar-translation methods in English classes (Le & Barnard, 2009; Tomlinson & Dat, 2004; Utsumi & Doan, 2009). Utsumi and Doan (2009) find that university teachers were still adhering to textbooks and workbooks, error correction, whole-class recitations and lecturing without creating many opportunities for students' response or interactions. The results of Tomlinson and Dat's (2004) study show that many teachers are still in favour of the traditional methods and are concerned that communicative activities may cut into the time needed to cover the assigned syllabus. Albeit both pre-service and in-service teachers were interested in the new methods or did very well in the teacher training programmes on the application of CLT, they continued teaching with the old methods (Hoang, 2011) or found it difficult to apply the CLT methods (Le, 2002).

Overall, Pham (2005) presents a summary of the reasons why CLT fails to be applied in the Vietnamese classroom context as follows:

1. Vietnamese learners, especially those in remote areas, do not have many opportunities to use English outside the classroom.

2. Teaching materials which are mostly relevant to English speaking countries are often inappropriate for Vietnamese settings.

3. The traditional examination system in which teachers have to cover the syllabus to prepare learners for written tests prevents them from applying the new methods/techniques they have studied.

4. Except in big cities and in affluent private institutions, there are classroom constraints such as large size classes with rather simple teaching facilities such as blackboards and textbooks.

Beside these major challenges pertaining to the application of CLT in Vietnam, the plan to introduce English to primary schools by MOET has been difficult to implement as there is a serious shortage of qualified teachers of English to staff these English teaching programmes. The results of the survey conducted by MOET show that the number of teachers meeting the required national teaching standards is rather low. For instance, up to 51 per cent of Vietnamese teachers teaching English at primary schools, more than 63 per cent at lower secondary schools and over 73 per cent at upper secondary schools were not qualified to teach English (Vietnamnet, 2016). According to Nguyen (2013), 24,000 teachers of English are needed from year three at primary schools by 2018. Indeed, statistics show that there are currently more than 17,000 primary schools but there are only 7,000 English primary school teachers (Vietnamnet, 2016). Meanwhile, training programmes for students wishing to become teachers of English at the primary education level are not being offered by pedagogical universities, which is an added obstacle to the plan. To solve this problem, the Ministry has piloted a training programme for primary school teachers at the pedagogical

universities. However, these pilot programmes do not sufficiently meet the goals of training enough qualified teachers of English in response to the high demand for elementary school teachers of this language (Vietnamnet, 2016).

According to local education and training departments, the poor training offered at the pedagogical universities is the major cause of this failure. Moreover, teachers of English are deprived of chances for on the job practice for speaking and listening skills in English because their teaching mainly focuses on grammar and vocabulary in school curricula (Vienamnet, 2013). According to this source, around 80,000 teachers of English nationwide working in the formal education system must have their English proficiency re-tested. From now until 2019, 100 per cent of all teachers of English will also be retrained. In particular, the teachers deemed under-qualified will be put through two-year retraining programmes. The Deputy Minister of Education has urged teachers to design and impletement their own self study programmes because the training courses aim to provide them with skills for self-study. He said "the Ministry is building a website for English teachers to log in for self-study" (Vietnamnet, 2012). Indeed, it is reported that the National Foreign Languages Project 2020 will continue organising online training courses and there are also many training materials online (Vietnamnet, 2016).

Even though MOET has recently focused on the communicative approaches which have been made the official goals of teaching and learning English in Vietnam as indicated above, it is questionable whether this model can provide sufficient training for either the teaching or learning of EIL. With the diverse status of English worldwide, it is of importance that English curricula and instruction are updated to take account of the internationalisation of English.

2.4. Chapter summary

Chapter Two has provided a brief overview of the current status of English globally through the presentation of the demographic, geographic and structural changes to the English language. The overview has shown that English is not a monolithic entity but has undergone massive change over time and reached a position in which its NNSs outnumber NSs, which has extraordinary implications for ELT. The second section of this chapter, therefore, has focused on the issues of teaching English as an international language. These issues involve the discussions of teaching models of English, the teaching of culture(s) and teaching materials in response to the changing status of English around the world. In this section, previous studies into teachers' and students' attitudes and perceptions of English have also been reviewed. These research studies play an important role in raising awareness of the changing sociolinguistic uses of the English language and in considering what is relevant and useful when it comes to teach English for intercultural communication. It is found that there is a lack of studies exploring teachers' perspectives on the implications of the changing status of English for ELT in the context of Vietnam. As a result, the historical context of English development and features in Vietnam has been examined in detail in the final section, along with the challenges that ELT in Vietnam faces in teaching and learning English for in today's world. It is these challenges that help to create the need to carry out the study, the research methodology of which is the main focus of the following chapter.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0. Introduction

This chapter begins with an introduction to the research approach employed in this study, followed by a detailed description of the methods for data collection that highlights the advantages as well as the disadvantages of focus groups and individual interviews, research instruments and the research team. The characteristics of the participants and procedures of data collection are outlined in the section on the data collection process. Also presented are the approaches used to analyse the data as well as the trustworthiness of the study.

3.1. Research approach

In recent decades, there has been growing interest in qualitative research across all disciplines of the social sciences (Dörnyei, 2007). Since the mid-1990s, the field of applied linguistics has witnessed increasing recognition of qualitative research (Duff, 2007) as qualitative research is an ideal tool for providing insights into contextual conditions shaped by social, cultural and situational factors (Dörnyei, 2007). Used as an 'umbrella term' to indicate a complex and evolving research methodology (Heigham & Croker, 2009), qualitative research is

> …a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consists of a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of presentations, including field notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings, and memos to the self. At this level, qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them. (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p. 3, as cited in Creswell, 2007, p. 36).

As described in Chapter One, the primary aim of this thesis is to investigate the implications of the recent changes in English for the teaching profession from the perspectives of ELT teachers in

Vietnam. Based on the nature of this research study, a qualitative research approach was employed to achieve a detailed understanding of the research focus by tapping the participants' ideas such as their opinions about the implications of the current status of English for their teaching methods. To enhance data richness and depth of inquiry, this study triangulated its qualitative data collection by combining individual interviews and focus groups, a practice that has been "advocated as a strategy to achieve more comprehensive understandings of phenomena" (Lambert & Loiselle, 2008, p. 228). The implications of combining multiple methods for this study will be discussed in depth in the section on data collection methods. Below is a table showing the research methodology timeline employed in this study.

Table 3.1. Overall summary of research methodology timeline

Timeline	Stages	Research Questions	Instruments	Data collection methods	Participants
August 2013	1	RQ1- RQ4	Fact sheets	Focus groups	Language centre + university teachers (10)
				Individual Interviews	Language centre teachers (4)
September 2013	2	RQ1 - RQ4	Fact sheets	Focus groups	College + university teachers (12)
				Individual Interviews	College + language centre teachers (3)
October 2013	3	RQ1 - RQ4	Fact sheets	Focus groups	University + upper secondary school teachers (11)

				Individual Interviews	University + upper secondary school teachers (9)
July 2014	4	RQ1 - RQ4	Fact sheets	Individual Interviews	Lower secondary school + language centre teachers (3)
October 2013 – onwards	5			Data analysis	

3.2. Data collection methods

3.2.1. Interviews

Interviews are "valuable to teachers because, properly conducted, they can provide insights into people's experiences, beliefs, perceptions, and motivations at a depth that is not possible with questionnaires" (Heigham & Croker, 2009, p. 187). Indeed, these authors contend that while interviews do not obtain the breadth of information that can be gained from questionnaires, they can serve as helpful tools for "understanding the lived world from the perspective of the participants involved" (p. 187). The primary purpose of the interviews in this study is to explore the views, experiences, and perceptions of teachers on the relation between the changing status of English and their teaching practices. To this end, a combination of six focus groups and 19 semi-structured individual interviews with the purpose of collecting rich and comprehensive qualitative insights from the participants were employed. Each method is described in the following sub-sections.

3.2.1.1. Focus groups

The focus group interviews conducted in this study aimed to obtain qualitative data, namely the reflections of the participants on the research topic as stated above. According to Wilkinson (2004), a focus group is a discussion group that concentrates on a particular topic. The group is considered focused because "it involves some kind of collective activity" (Kitzinger, 2005, p. 56) with the aim of describing and comprehending "meanings and interpretation of a selected group of people to gain an understanding of a specific issue from the perspective of the participants of the group" (Liamputtong, 2011, p. 3).

In qualitative research, focus group methodology is a useful tool for discovering and examining the stories, experiences, points of view, beliefs, needs and concerns of individuals (Kizinger, 2005). Indeed, this methodology helps the researcher "explore individuals' diverse perspectives since focus groups function within the social network of groups" (Liamputtong, 2011, p. 5). Serving as a tool that enables researchers to obtain information from a wide choice of topics, from a variety of groups of people and in different contexts (Stewart et al, 2009), the focus group, thus, presents itself as a flexible research technique for obtaining rich and detailed data. The focus group interviews, in addition, may offer shy participants "a safe environment where they can share ideas, beliefs, and attitudes in the company of people from the same socioeconomic, ethnic, and gender backgrounds" (Madriz, 2003, p. 364). Also, this methodology helps save a considerable amount of time since the data that can be collected from two eight-person focus groups is equal to that from 10 individual interviews (Fern, 1982). The relatively low cost of using this method is another advantage.

There are, however, several disadvantages to this data collection technique. It has been criticized for offering a shallower understanding of a topic than that collected from individual interviews (Hopkins, 2007; Liamputtong, 2011). Moreover, some participants may dominate and impact the focus group discussion (Liamputtong, 2011). In the context of Vietnam, for instance, older and more experienced people tend to exert more power over the group interaction than younger and less experienced ones. Therefore, they may lead the group discussion and deprive other members of the chance to actively contribute to the discussion.

Based on the characteristics of this data collection method as discussed above, it is considerable that the focus group methodology meets the research focus of this study which is to explore teachers' experiences and perspectives about the given topic. The primary consideration for using this method is to ascertain who would be willing to provide the most insightful information. Through volunteering to be recruited in this study, all the participants displayed their willingness and interest in sharing their ideas in the interviews. In fact, all the focus group interviews took place relatively longer than the allocated times (see section 3.3). Realising that focus groups have been criticised for certain weaknesses, the researcher pre-tested this methodology both through a trial at Monash University in Australia and a pilot study in Vietnam. Two focus groups were recruited and engaged in around 60-minute interviews. There was some amount of dominance in presenting opinions from the senior participants as predicted. This issue was resolved by signalling each participant's chance to speak in the focus groups. The interview process as well as the results of the trial and pilot study show that the focus group method worked efficiently and acted as a starting point for the actual data collection.

This present study employed six focus groups of 33 teachers in total. According to Stewart and Shamdasani (1990), the optimum size of a focus group is six to eight participants, but focus groups

can be carried out with as few as three and as many as 14 participants. To maintain sufficient opportunities for each participant to speak, a smallest focus group in this study consisted of four teachers whilst the largest had seven. The profiles of each group are described in detail in section 3.3.

3.2.1.2 Individual interviews

In order to enhance data richness, this study employed individual interviews in addition to focus groups. Individual interviews are considered the most popular strategy for data collection in qualitative research (Creswell, 2013; Sandelowski, 2002). They are used to gather detailed accounts of a single participant's thoughts, attitudes, beliefs and knowledge related to a given matter (Creswell, 2013; Loiselle et al, 2007). It is generally believed that if the interview questions are correctly formulated, the participants' responses will reflect reality (Creswell, 2013).

Individual interviews can be structured or semi-structured depending on context (Dörnyei, 2007). In this study, semi-structured interviews were used to create a relaxed environment for the discussion of the topic. The structure was supplied by a set of four main interview questions and prepared in an open-ended format in which the moderator could elaborate on to ensure that the issues were raised in an exploratory manner. During the session, both closed and open-ended questions were asked to sustain discussion (see Appendix B).

Despite the in-depth data individual interviews yield, they have several drawbacks. It is quite time-consuming to set up and conduct these interviews. It was found in this study, however, that all 19 individual interviews consumed less time than the focus groups employed in this study. Another drawback is that individual interviews do require a high level of communication skills from the interviewer/moderator. Thanks to the trial and pilot study conducted before the actual data

collection, the moderator was able to improve interviewing skills from self-evaluation after each interview session.

3.2.1.3. Integrating focus group and individual interview data

Due to the strengths and weaknesses of each data collection method, using focus groups and individual interviews in parallel was helpful in exploring the participants' perspectives to the fullest. The combination of these two independent data collection methods is beneficial to researchers because they may generate complementary views of the phenomenon (Lambert & Loiselle, 2008). According to Lambert and Loiselle (2008), such combination can be beneficial for practical pragmatic reasons. An example of this is that individual interviews may be employed in cases where participants are unable or unwilling to attend a focus group (Taylor, 2005), leading to fewer refusals or withdrawals. In this study, several participants who were not free to attend the focus groups took part in individual interviews.

Another benefit is the use of triangulation to confirm earlier results or to achieve data completeness (Adami, 2005; Lambert & Loiselle, 2008). That was the primary purpose of including both methods in this study. Indeed, each method reveals different viewpoints, contributing to a more comprehensive understanding of the topic and expanding both the breadth and depth of the findings. For instance, one key difference is that focus groups can be employed for the investigation of opinions and beliefs about the topic while individual interviews are most effective in eliciting personal experiences (Molzahn et al. 2005, as cited in Lambert & Loiselle, 2008). Indeed, Lambert and Loiselle (2008) place special emphasis on the integration of individual interview and focus group data as a productive strategy for an enriched description of both the structure and the essential characteristics of a phenomenon.

To gain the best quality data, this study employed both focus groups and individual interviews to examine teachers' reflections on the implications of the current status of English for their professions. During fieldwork, where possible, the focus groups were conducted first and then individual interviews were carried out to confirm, verify, or add to the findings. There were, however, for reasons of the convenience of the participants, some individual interviews which were conducted prior to the focus groups. When further clarification of any points was needed, an attempt to contact the relevant participant was made. Indeed, the researcher contacted half of the participants for further thoughts on ideas noted in the interviews.

3.2.2. Instruments

3.2.2.1. Fact sheets

In both focus groups and individual interviews, the participants were provided with opportunities to reflect on the implications of the current status of English for their teaching profession. All the interviews were based on the fact sheets that serve as the main instrument of data collection.

The fact sheets, designed by the researcher, provided the participants with the facts and observations on the current status of global English. The information was based on internationally available sources and quotes from international demographers and scholars of English such as Bolton, Crystal, Graddol, Kirkpatrick and Sharifian. The fact sheets describe the demand for Englishes, the forms of Englishes and the future of Englishes, and reflect the fact that English has diversified at all levels. Below are some examples of the information presented on the fact sheets (see appendix A for further details).

Over 80 per cent of interactions in English today are presently between non-native speakers of English.

There are established varieties of English such as Indian English, Singaporean English…

There are emerging varieties of English such as Chinese English, Japanese English…

Since English has become the common language for international communication in almost all fields, it has been diversified at all levels from sounds, morphology, syntax, and semantics to cultural meanings.

The fact sheets were validated through a trial with four teachers in Australia in late 2012 and during a pilot phase with 13 teachers in Vietnam in early 2013.

3.2.2.2. The research team

As this study involves both focus groups and individual interviews, it was important to build a research team to implement the data collection methods. The research team consisted of the moderator and the note -taker, as described below.

3.2.2.2.1. The moderator

A key person in collecting data from discussions in interviews, especially focus groups, is the moderator or the facilitator because she/he plays a vital role in eliciting rich and valid information (Liamputtong, 2011). Liamputtong explains that the moderator's main task is to enable participants to engage actively in the topic of discussion. It is also important that the moderator can flexibly manage the group dynamics. According to Liamputtong (2011, pp. 60-1), these are characteristics of a good moderator:

- be sensitive to the needs of the participants;

- be non-judgemental about the responses from the participants;

- respect the participants;

- be open-minded;

- have adequate knowledge of the project;

- have good listening skills;

- have good leadership skills;

- have good observation skills;

- be patient and flexible.

To run focus groups and individual interviews in this manner, an experienced moderator was invited to take part in the research team voluntarily and trained based on these above characteristics. The moderator currently works as a lawyer but also teaches English to a variety of levels as a part-time job. She has conducted a number of interviews both in English and Vietnamese related to her work in Vietnam. A pilot focus group was conducted in Vietnamese to ensure that the discussions took place in the direction that the interviews should follow.

3.2.2.2.2. The note-taker

A note-taker is also important in focus groups as she/he takes notes of the key issues/ideas emerging in the interviews and other factors that may be essential in the analysis and interpretation of the findings. The field notes should supplement the data recorded in all the interviews. The note-take helps the moderator to check the whole process of the interviews to ensure that all they key

issues have been covered. In this study, the researcher acted as the note-taker as well as the observer in all the interviews.

3.3. Data collection process

3.3.1. Participants

3.3.1.1. Recruitment

In terms of criteria for selection, the participants required for this study were Vietnamese teachers teaching various English subjects at a variety of levels and workplaces across Vietnam. It was paramount to select a group of teachers with a wide range of ages and teaching experiences from various areas of Vietnam in order to collect data that represented the whole range of perspectives and opinions of English teachers in Vietnam. It was also important to invite teachers who were willing to participate in the interviews and to contribute to the discussions about the teaching implications of EIL for ELT in Vietnam.

In order to gain access to the participants and the locations necessary for the study, a snowball sampling method (Atkinson & Flint, 2001; Browne, 2005), also known as the 'word-of-mouth' technique, was employed because of its extensive use in qualitative research. According to the principles of ethics in research, the basis for participation in this study was willingness. Therefore, no force was used when recruiting participants to take part in the research. These aspects of voluntarism and safety were conveyed in the written informed consent form, signed by each participant. In line with the principles mentioned above, the recruitment was carried out by emailing or telephoning the leaders of each workplace in Vietnam such as Deans or Vice-Deans for formal permission. Their contact details were displayed on the websites of the target colleges, universities, English language centres and high schools in which they worked. The Deans or Vice-

Deans then circulated the researcher's invitation to call for teacher participation in focus groups and individual interviews to their faculties. Thus, prospective participants were well-informed of why the research was conducted, where it would be published, and what the possible results were in forms of explanatory statements. They then had the ultimate right of accepting or refusing the recruitment. Those who responded to the invitation contacted the researcher for interviews that were arranged at pre-determined times and at neutral places, namely the local universities' offices or buildings. Within one month and a half, 33 people had volunteered to participate in focus groups and 19 for individual interviews.

3.3.1.2. Descriptions of the participants and locations

Based on the selection criteria mentioned above, this study consisted of 52 participants, all of whom were Vietnamese ELT teachers at lower and upper secondary schools, tertiary institutions such as colleges, universities as well as English language centres in Vietnam. To adequately represent a wide range of teachers, participants were not only selected from various workplaces but also from geographic locations from the North to the South. For instance, this study recruited a focus group from an upper secondary school in a province of the mountainous Northwest region of Vietnam. The majority of the participants were women, a situation that reflects the over-representation of female English teachers in Vietnam. For ethical reasons, their real names were replaced by other Vietnamese names as presented in Appendix D.

The participants were divided into two sets: focus groups participants (set One) and individual interview participants (set Two). The descriptions of each set are presented below.

Set One:

Set One comprised six focus groups with 33 participants, most of whom were employed to use the communicative approach to teach various subjects of English such as general English, the four language skills, and English for specific purposes to both non-English major and English-major students. Twenty-one of them had Master's degrees in ELT with 19 in TESOL, three in educational administration and educational leadership while the remainder had BAs. Eight out of the 19 MA holders had earned their higher education overseas in a range of countries such as America, Australia, Britain, New Zealand and Thailand. In addition, six of those with MAs had travelled to several countries such as China, Singapore and the U.S.A for professional development courses. As a result, as they reported, they had interacted with various speakers speaking different varieties of English in those countries.

Table 3.2 below details the structure of the six focus groups, presenting the participants' gender, age, teaching experiences as well as the locations of their workplaces in Vietnam based on the demographic information they provided during the interviews. Since there are more female teachers in the teaching context of Vietnam, the table reveals that 76 per cent of the teachers are female. Their ages ranged from 23 to 50 and their length of service ranged from one to 27 years. Four of them worked at an upper secondary school, six of them at college, 19 at universities, and four at an English language centre.

Table 3.2 The structure of focus groups

Group		Gender	Age		Teaching levels	Workplaces

	Group members	F	M		Teaching experience (years)		
A	6	3	3	30-42	2-15	Elementary – Advanced	University in Southern Vietnam
B	4	2	2	24-30	2-8	Elementary – Advanced	English language centre in Southern Vietnam
C	6	6	0	30-50	4-27	Elementary – Advanced	College in Central Vietnam
D	6	5	1	24-34	1-10	Elementary – Advanced	University in Central Vietnam
E	7	7	0	23-26	1-7	Elementary – Advanced	University in Northern Vietnam
F	4	2	2	26-36	3-14	Intermediate-Advanced	Upper secondary school in Northern Vietnam
Total	33	25	8	23-50	1-27	Various	Three regional areas in Vietnam

Set Two:

Set Two consisted of 19 teachers who taught various English subjects at a variety of schools and institutions across Vietnam. Twelve of them had an MA in TESOL while the others had a BA from Vietnam. One MA holder had been educated in Australia and five other participants had attended short language teaching training courses in several countries such as Korea, Japan and Thailand. They reported that they had had opportunities to expose themselves to different varieties of English

in these countries. All these participants considered the communicative language teaching approach the most appropriate method for their pedagogical practices.

Table 3.3 below displays the participants' detailed demographic information including their gender, age, teaching experience and teaching levels at various affiliated institutions. Reflecting the over-representation of female English teachers in Vietnam, there is an unequal proportion of female and male participants and 84 per cent of the teachers are female. The participants in this set came from quite a wide range of ages ranging from 23 to 63. As a result, their teaching experience levels vary from one to more than 20 years of teaching. Their workplaces are also various, ranging from lower secondary school to university level.

Table 3.3 The structure of individual interview participants

Participant (numbers)	Gender		Age	Teaching experience (years)	Teaching levels	Workplaces
	F	M				
4	2	2	31-63	7 - >20	Elementary – Advanced	Various workplaces in Southern Vietnam
6	5	1	23-36	1-12	Elementary – Advanced	Central Vietnam
9	9	0	29-42	7-20	Elementary – Advanced	Northern Vietnam
Total 19	16	3	23-63	1->20	Various	Three regional areas in Vietnam

All the participants showed interest in the research focus and were willing to express their opinions in the interviews, as described in the next section.

3.3.2. Data collection procedures

3.3.2.1. Interview procedures

To comply with the policy of Monash University, ethics approval was obtained from the appropriate ethics committee before seeking the formal permission of the Deans/Heads of the Department of Foreign Languages at the selected Universities, lower and upper secondary schools as well as formal permission from the Directors of the private language centres in Vietnam.

A formal cover letter (the Explanatory Statement) accompanied the application for permission to collect data in the places mentioned above. The aims of the research were explained in detail and it was stated that the results of the study will be provided to the participating schools, universities and English language centres so that the teachers may use them as resources in their pedagogical practice.

All the participants were asked to complete a demographic information form, which sought information regarding their age, gender, education, field(s) of study, qualifications, and teaching experience. The demographic information form appears in Appendix C. In order to sustain anonymity, a code such as 1, 2, 3…or A, B, C…was assigned to each participant. This code is recorded on the demographic information forms and on a small identification card (to enable the participants to remember their code). A step-by-step description of the data collection procedure follows:

1. In the interview session, the researcher had the moderator introduce herself, and welcome the

participants.

2. The moderator provided the participants with the consent forms, stating that all the information collected remains confidential and will be used only for the purpose of the research. The participants were required to sign before the interviews could start. All the participants in the study signed an informed consent form.

3. The moderator briefly presented the outline of the interviews to the participants.

4. They were asked to choose Vietnamese, English or both/code-switching for use in the interviews.

5. The interviews started with the participants reading the fact sheets for about 10- 12 minutes. Most of them finished reading the fact sheets within 8-10 minutes.

6. They were asked to discuss the main messages of the fact sheets. The discussion continued prompted by relevant questions.

7. A 60 – 120 minute conversation was tape-recorded with the participants' permission.

8. At the end of the session, the researcher thanked the participants.

3.3.2.2. Methodological modifications

After each interview, the researcher and the moderator listened to the recordings making comprehensive notes and summaries of the discussions among the participants so as to make adjustments in interview techniques where needed. After the first focus group, for instance, engaging in some small talk prior the formal beginning of the session was added in the following interview process in order to enable the participants to feel more comfortable with the moderator.

This, in turn, made the teacher participants in the groups to feel easier and more relaxed to take part in the discussions while being interviewed. Moreover, non-verbal communication such as hand-signalling and eye contact was generously utilised to ensure every participant's input could be fully obtained during the interviews. Setting more detailed instructions at the beginning of the interviews were also found effective in providing each participant an opportunity to express their ideas, especially in focus groups.

3.4. Approaches to data analysis

3.4.1. Data transcription

The transcribing process was conducted by the researcher with the aid of Microsoft Word, audio program Audacity and Nvivo10, one of the tools available in Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) (Mackey & Gass, 2005). When a researcher, rather than an assistant, transcribes their own group discussions, as was done in this case, access can be gained to "the social and emotional aspects of the interview situation present or reawakened during transcription, and will already have started the analysis of the meaning of what was said" (Kvale, 2008, p. 95). In other words, transcription enables the researcher to become familiar with the data in a way that enhances its further analysis.

The information obtained from the demographic information forms was firstly grouped on the basis of the most relevant and fundamental variables such as age, gender, qualifications and teaching experience. Then the exact responses of the both focus group and individual interviews were typed carefully, storing an accurate record of the actual answers for the purpose of analysis. Codes/pseudonyms were assigned to the interview participants to minimize the potential problem of "social desirability bias" (Garrett, 2010, p. 45) and to maintain confidentiality (see appendix D).

The transcription process mainly employs standard punctuation together with several transcription symbols as presented in the table below.

Table 3.4 Simplified Jeffersonian transcribing conventions (pp. 169-70)

(…)	Pauses
(.)	Micro-pause, less than two-tenths of a second
(0.5)	Length of silence or pauses
?	Rising intonation
.	Falling intonation
( )	Inability to hear what was said
(word)	The best possible hearing
'(coughs)', '(sneeze)'…	Laughing, coughing …
(-)	Interruptions
'(overlapping)'	Overlapping speech

For interviews in which the participants used Vietnamese, the transcripts were in Vietnamese and all relevant data was translated into English. Some of the data was found irrelevant to the research. For instance, when the moderator asked the participants if they wanted add further comments on the discussion topic, a teacher participant expressed their interest in postgraduate studies in Australia and enquired about this. In this case, this particular piece of data was not translated into English. By analysing the data from original excerpts in Vietnamese, the researcher was able to gain deeper insights into the perspectives of the interviewees. To gain translations that retain the authenticity of the original data, a Vietnamese ELT teacher who teaches English-Vietnamese translation was consulted and the results were double-checked by the moderator as well as an Australian PhD student at Monash University.

3.4.2. Data coding

After organizing the data, the next step was coding the transcribed data for in-depth analysis. This study employed the coding technique adapted from Auerbach and Silverstein (2003). The process of coding began with the answers provided by the interviewees. The interview questions performed as signposts, indicating when the topic shifted from teaching models, to the teaching of culture(s) and teaching materials and so on, enabling the researcher to construct a clear thematic framework for analysis. There were three stages of coding the data: firstly, making the text manageable; secondly, hearing what was said; and thirdly, developing theory (Lewins & Silver, 2007, pp. 262-267; Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003, p. 43). The first phase of making the text manageable refers to identifying the key research areas and main theoretical concepts in the research literature. Hearing what was said aims at collecting the ideas repeated in the data and later organising them into relevant themes. Finally, developing theory is used to develop theoretical constructs or themes. These themes are presented in details in the Findings Chapters.

3.4.3. Data analysis

Coding the transcribed data enabled the researcher to construct a thematic framework for data analysis as indicated above. There are two appropriate ways to analyse focus group data. Thematic analysis is "a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within the data" and it has been used as other qualitative methods (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 79). Another analytical approach is the analysis of group interaction that "allows the researcher to see how themes or discourses are jointly formed by the participants in the group" (Liamputtong, 2011, p. 175). Liamputtong (2011, p. 175) stresses the importance of focusing on the "forms and scopes of expressions (both verbal and non-verbal), the interactive nature of the discussion, the context in which interaction occurs, and the contents which are produced by the group" (see Appendices E and F for basic guiding details for these analytical tools).

Below is an example of analysis of group interaction in this study:

Group A showed a significant level of negotiating and constructing normality in interaction among the participants. At the beginning, only the two out of six participants who have visited foreign countries such as Myanmar and Thailand actively reflected on the information presented on the fact sheets. The remaining participants started to contribute to the discussion a few minutes later after listening to these two teachers' reflections. Among the six participants, Cuong expressed the belief that pronunciation was the most important factor in teaching English and showed interest in discussing how to teach pronunciation effectively. Thanh and Hinh also turned their attention some difficult English sounds that do not exist in Vietnamese, such as /dʒ/ and /ʒ/. It is noted that the participants began to reflect on their own pronunciation. For example, Thanh stated that she was using American English. Nam, on the other hand, pointed out that the English Thanh was

using was actually Vietnamese English, not American English. The theme of pronunciation in ELT continued to be discussed until Tam expressed an interest in different varieties of English as follows:

Moderator: *Do you think the forms of English will stay the same?*

Ha: *It will be used widely and based on 'standard' English.*

Tam: *There will be different varieties of English. Language is just a tool to communicate aspects of life. It just exists in your own culture. That is why I say there will be a lot of varieties of English.*

Hinh: *Depends on the development of the country (America), the power…*

Moderator: *With this current status of English, what do you think will be the implications for teaching models?*

Cuong: *English remains championship…we need to help learners to be more aware of clear English. I am trying to systemise and simplify English for the majority of learners. I choose the accent that is easier for Vietnamese learners to use… that is American English.*

Tam: *During our teaching, we should raise students' awareness of flexibility besides correct pronunciation. We cannot force students to follow one system of pronunciation. I think it is better to make students know the differences and varieties of English.*

Cuong: *I quite agree with that. We need to introduce varieties of English but in the process, I would like to combine that…if they study too many accents at the same time, they will be confused.*

Ha: *Depends on what students can get from learning that language. If students can get more benefits, we will try our best to learn more about different Englishes to teach students. We need experiences because we just have American and British English. We can't teach them other kinds of English.*

This extract displays two different sets of opinions in relation to the discussion of future forms of English. Ha, Hinh and Cuong expressed the belief that the development of English would be based on 'standard' English, in their view that is American English. Tam, on the other hand, tried to influence the other participants by emphasizing the emergence of other varieties of English. After Cuong said that he selected American English for his students to learn, Tam expressed the importance of raising students' awareness of the diversity of English instead of forcing them to learn a fixed system of pronunciation. He even said, 'Because Cuong raised pronunciation, we focused on pronunciation' in order to shift the participants' attention to the discussions of the implications for teaching English today from broader perspectives. This observational response challenged the perceived agreement between Ha, Tam and Cuong. The sequence was then characterised by an agreement from Cuong and Ha. Cuong accepted Tam's positon on the importance of exposing students to other varieties of English but expressed his concern over overwhelming learners with many accents at the same time. In addition Tam's response helped to trigger Ha's reflections on the necessity of examining students' needs when learning English so that teachers would teach English according to these needs. Ha then stressed the importance of integrating other varieties of English into the classroom providing that it would benefit students

in the future. It is noted that the group of participants engaged in a wide-ranging discussion on the implications for teaching English instead of focusing primarily on pronunciation after that point.

The interaction above illustrates that there was diversity in the group with regard to their reflections on the current status of English and its pedagogical implications for ELT classrooms. The exchanges in the interview, including the agreeing, disagreeing, challenging and negotiating parts provided rich data on the theme of teaching models. A number of varied perceptions of goals for teaching and learning English were expressed. It is worth noting that the participants' views on the diversity of English ranged from pronunciation, phonetic mistakes and errors to increasing awareness of how English is used in different contexts. (See Appendix G for other examples of this type of analysis).

Overall, this study applied a mixture of these two types of data analysis to the focus group data leading to the identification of emerging themes as well as investigating the group interaction during the interview process. For the individual interviews, thematic analysis was used as the main analytical tool for data analysis. The findings were integrated and reported upon according to the themes including teaching models, the teaching of culture(s), teaching materials and teaching constraints and challenges that were emphasized in the interview questions and the results of this study are presented from Chapter Four to Chapter Eight.

3.5. Trustworthiness of the study

Even though a qualitative approach to research has gradually gained increasing acceptance in social sciences, "there exists a subtle and lingering concern that qualitative research provides merely a collection of anecdotes and has not firmly established its scientific grounding" (Williams

& Morrow, 2009, p. 576). There have been questions about the validity of such research. For example, "Do we believe in the claims that a research report puts forward? On what grounds do we judge these as credible? What evidence is put forward to support the claims? How do we evaluate it? Are the claims potentially useful for the problematic we are concerned with?" (Marshall & Rossman, 2011, p. 40).

In any research, it is essential that researchers justify to the research community that they have a rationale for the study, a clear description of the procedures of data collection, methods for data collections and data analytic methods, and a clear description and interpretation of the data (Choudhuri, Glauser & Peregoy, 2004). According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability are the standards of trustworthiness required for a qualitative research. It is important for the researcher to remain in the setting for a long period of time for validity/credibility (prolonged engagement); to share data and interpretations with participants (member checks); to triangulate by gathering data from multiple sources (triangulation); and to discuss the emergent findings with academic peers to ensure that the analyses are probably grounded in the data (peer debriefing). Creswell (2003) also presents a similar list of a number of strategies that are useful in grounding qualitative research. They are searching for disconfirming evidence, engaging in reflexivity, collaboration and developing an audit trail to ensure the trustworthiness of a qualitative study.

The study employed several of the strategies mentioned above to establish its trustworthiness:

- Triangulation of the data: This refers to a variety of methods for data collection and examination from different perspectives. As discussed in section 3.2., both focus groups and individual interviews were used along with the fact sheets as the main instrument of

data collection. Besides, the objective roles of the moderator and the observant note-taker were set up to ensure that data was triangulated to secure the validity and credibility of the study.

- Respondent validation or member checking: In the process of collecting the data, many moves were made to check that the researcher accurately understood the participants' contributions. In the analysis phase, the data, the transcripts and extracts of data were sent to the participants to check if they are in line with what they thought and felt in the interviews (Schwandt, 2007). In addition, some of the participants were contacted with more in-depth questions about their responses during the interviews to obtain further clarifications and interpretation.

- Prolonged engagement in the field: The researcher spent at least six months on the process of contacting the participants, exchanging information and conducting interviews in 12 locations in Vietnam.

- Peer debriefing: The process of data collection and data analysis was discussed intensively with the dissertation supervisors, especially with the main supervisor as the world expert/scholar in the field of EIL. Some lecturers and other PhD candidates from the School of Languages, Cultures and Linguistics at Monash University were invited to share their thoughts on the research questions, data collection methods and data analysis, especially through three important PhD milestones.

- External auditing: The researcher has presented various results of this research study at several international conferences such as AILA, ALAA, Tri-ELE and WE in Australia, Thailand, Turkey and the U.S.A, where she received critical comments and suggestions for

research direction from well-known researchers and scholars in the field. The researcher remains in contact with these scholars to engage in further discussion and obtain feedback when necessary.

3.6. Chapter summary

Chapter Three has outlined the overview of the research approach employed to achieve the research objective in the first section. Section 3.2 has provided a detailed description of the data collection methods, which involved a combination of focus groups and individual interviews. It then proceeds to a discussion of their possible limitations in qualitative research and a detailed presentation of the instruments (the fact sheets) and the research team (the moderator and the note taker). Section 3.3 has discussed the process and procedures of data collection through the descriptions of participants and interview steps. The study recruited 52 participants who were teachers of English with a variety of ages, teaching experience, teaching levels and workplaces in Vietnam. They were all willing to share their perspectives about the research topics in the interviews. The organisation of data has been presented including details about the process of transcribing, coding and analysing it. The chapter has finished with a discussion of the trustworthiness of the study. All the data collected and analysed in this study will be comprehensively presented and discussed in the following Findings Chapters (Four to Eight).

OVERVIEW OF FINDINGS CHAPTERS

This research aims to explore the opinions of Vietnamese ELT teachers about the implications of the recent changes in the English language for their teaching practices. Although scholars have undertaken theoretical examinations relating to this area, and have discussed the resulting implications for ELT, teachers' perspectives have not as yet been extensively presented in the literature. The main focus of this study places an examination of this under-research area of TEIL in a Vietnamese EFL context. The findings of this study are presented over five chapters - Chapter Four to Chapter Eight.

As mentioned in Chapter Three, the qualitative data was collected from six focus groups and 19 individual interviews involving 52 participants in all. All the interviewees were teachers currently teaching English at secondary schools, colleges or universities as well as at English language centres in the Northern, Central and Southern parts of Vietnam. The focus groups were conducted in both English (groups A, D, E and F) and Vietnamese (groups B and C) according to the participants' choice. For the individual interviews, seven interviewees preferred to use English while 12 participants felt more comfortable speaking in Vietnamese. During the interviews in Vietnamese the participants occasionally used English words or phrases when expressing their opinions. English transcripts translated by the researcher are provided. The aim was to ensure the translations were as close to the original meanings as possible. As a result, some forms or structures of the translated quotes may look awkward, but they have been kept to maintain the sense of the originals. Moreover, [sic] is provided to reflect originals that are not complete or ungrammatically correct. The main ideas of each excerpt are in bold. Please note that pseudonyms are used to maintain anonymity (see Chapter Three for more details).

The following chapters present an analysis of a combination of the data from focus groups and individual interviews, and identify the themes emerging from participants' discussions on the first four interview questions as stated in Chapter One. While the focus groups reflect a general understanding of the diversity of English and contribute to a discussion of the possible implications of teaching English in the context of Vietnam; the individual interviews provide more detailed descriptions of individual teaching experiences and present a number of more specific ways to teach English relevant to today's context. Thus, the separate data sets of focus groups and individual interviews were mutually informative and complementary, together contributing to a more coherent and deeper understanding of the participants' reflections.

Chapter Four is devoted to exploring the results of the focus groups and individual interviews and to conducting a preliminary discussion on the participants' initial responses about the changing status of English presented on the fact sheets. Chapters Five, Six and Seven focus on the examination of the implications of the changes in English for teaching models, the teaching of culture(s), and teaching materials. Chapter Eight discusses possible teaching constraints and challenges faced by teachers in this new context.

Each chapter offers an in-depth discussion of the findings in relation to the research/interview questions presented in Chapter One. Since the findings of this study are closely related, there is an unavoidable degree of overlap in the discussion of each of the research questions. The organisation of the presentation of the findings in the five chapters is as follows:

Figure 4.0. Organisation of the Findings Chapters

Findings Chapters

Chapter Four:
Findings: Reflections on the current status of English
- 4.1. The spread of English
- 4.2. The diversity of English
- 4.3. Attitudes towards globalised English

Chapter Five:
Findings: Reflections on the implications for teaching models
- 5.1. Teachers' strong preference for 'standard' English
- 5.2. The insufficiency of teaching 'standard' alone
- 5.3. The importance of raising learners' awareness of the diversity of English
- 5.4. Students' proficiency requirements for the introduction of other varieties of English

Chapter Six:
Findings: Reflections on the implications for the teaching of culture(s)
- 6.1. Teachers' attachment for American and British cultures
- 6.2. The need to include other cultures in teaching
- 6.3. Suggestions for teaching a variety of cultures in the classroom

Chapter Seven:
Findings: Reflections on the implications for teaching materials
- 7.1. Teachers' preference for American and British publicaitons
- 7.2. Various ways of using current textbooks
- 7.3. The need for additional teaching materials reflecting the diversity of English

Chapter Eight:
Teaching challenges and constraints of TEIL
- 8.1. Teachers' limited capacity to teach the diversity of English
- 8.2. Exam-orientated curriculum
- 8.3. Lack of teaching materials reflecting the recent changes in English
- 8.4. Scarcity of supportive environments for English language practice
- 8.5. Insufficient financial support for teaching activities
- 8.6. Time constraints
- 8.7. Students' low proficiency in English
- 8.8. The adoption of CEFR for language competency

FINDINGS: REFLECTIONS ON THE CURRENT STATUS OF ENGLISH

4.0. Introduction

As discussed in Chapter Two, it is important for teachers to be up to date about the current status

of English since

> central to transforming the teaching of English in the coming decades is a need for teachers to inform themselves of the many changes that are occurring both in the use of English and the mode of present-day communication (McKay, 2012, p. 345).

In seeking to investigate and analyse the participants' reflections on the recent changes in English for their teaching practices, therefore, it may be useful first to consider what they think about the observations about current developments in English as presented on the fact sheets. This chapter will examine these issues discussing the participants' responses to the diversity of English.

The observation notes from the interviews reveal that over two-thirds of the participants indicated their interest in the information listed in the fact sheets during the reading periods. They nodded their heads in response to what they were reading, smiled at some examples of other varieties of English and later on, asked for permission to keep the fact sheets for their future reference. While Nga (group C) said that she really liked the topic of the interview, Loan (group D) commented, "It is very interesting to see different ways that English is used in the world". After spending about 10 to 15 minutes reading, they all shared various reflections on the recent changes within the English language. The data in both focus groups and individual interviews reveals some level of diversity in terms of the participants' responses as summarized in table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1. A summary of the participants' reflections on the current status of English

The spread of English

- English has spread globally as an international language.
- The number of non-native speakers of English is increasing fast.
- English is not only the language of native speakers.
- English will continue to become popular in the future.

The diversity of English

- English is a language with variations.
- English has its different varieties.
- Vietnamese English will be developed in the future.

Attitudes towards globalised English

- Attitudes towards 'standard' English
- Attitudes towards different English varieties.

As can be seen from table 4.1, their reflections can be summarised under three major themes: (1) the spread of English, (2) the diversity of English and (3) attitudes towards globalised English. Each will be addressed below. All the findings are summarized in the final section of the chapter.

4.1. The spread of English

4.1.1. English has spread globally as an international language.

With regard to this sub-theme, there was a widely-held view shared by 54 per cent of the participants that English had developed as a language which was used on a global scale, performing now as the most popular language worldwide. As Lan said, "English is now an international language because if peoples in the world want to communicate with each other, they must use

English". Her opinion was echoed by other informants' reflections during the discussion about English being used for overseas study, work, living, and travelling and so on. According to these participants, more and more people from Outer-Circle countries could afford to travel to Inner-Circle countries as students, tourists and migrants. This led to their reflecting on the interactions in English among an increasing number of NNSs.

4.1.2. The number of NNSs of English is increasing fast.

Of the 52 participants, 23 believed that English was increasingly used by NNSs due to the global spread of this language. Eight of them reported that when they travelled to several English-speaking countries such as America, they interacted more with people from different cultural backgrounds than with Caucasian Americans. This reflection accords with Sharifian's (2014) observation that a number of learners in Australia mainly use English to communicate with people who use different varieties of English other than Australian English. Based on this point, even several interviewees stated that NSs of English did not exclusively hold claim over this language anymore.

4.1.3. English is not only the language of NSs

It is interesting to note that seven participants expressed their belief that English was no longer the exclusive property of NSs or specific countries but belonged to all peoples/countries in the world. This perception corroborates the idea of Widdowson (1994, p. 382), who argues, "Standard English is no longer the preserve of a group of people living in an offshore European island, or even of larger groups living in continents elsewhere. It is an international language". This sub-theme has an important implication for future understanding of the ownership of English in ELT in Vietnam, where NSs of English are presently considered the only owners of this language. This

belief, hence, leads to an over-valuation of native-speaker-like competence by learners of English in Vietnam. Consequently, the attitude that English belonged to those who used it was seen as possibly facilitating the participants to think about their teaching practices beyond the English NS episteme. In fact, four teachers questioned if students should be aimed to achieve NS competence in learning English, a point which is mentioned again in Chapter Five. However, this sub-theme emerged from a small portion of the participants that should not be generalised to the whole population of teachers. Yet the fact the issue was raised and discussed had some certain effect on other participants' mindset, as is discussed further in the following Findings Chapters.

4.1.4. English will continue to be popular in the future

When asked about the status of English in the future, 98 per cent of the participants commented that English would certainly continue to serve as a dominant language in the future. They all referred their belief to the fact that the demand for English would continue to be strengthened, especially for the development of national economies, education and international relations. This view can be found in the following quotation,

> English is very popular as many people all over the world use it every day for different purposes. In the future, English is **still popular and no language can replace it**, especially in Vietnam, more people will study English [sic]. (Kiet)

In contrast, Hoa (group C) expressed her doubt that English would retain its global dominance. She said that English would have to compete with Chinese in terms of maintaining its international status because Chinese would be the most popular language in the future. The remaining participants, however, believed that English would prevail as, in fact, has been predicted by Galloway and Rose (2015).

These reflections indicate that most of the participants acknowledged at least to some degree the global spread of English and its use for a varied range of activities across a wide range of contexts. Reflecting on the ownership of English and on the increasing number of English speakers, they stated that English now had a special position in many countries in the world. This reflects the reality of English being used by over 700 million people who speak it as a native or second language, and by over one billion who use it as a foreign language (Galloway & Rose, 2015). Because of its increasing worldwide popularity, the English language was believed to have been significantly diversified, which is the main focus of the following section.

4.2. The diversity of English

4.2.1. English is a language with variations

Fifty-eight per cent of participants reported that the global spread of English had brought about the diversity found in this language since it had been affected by local and regional languages, and cultures of its speakers. According to these participants, English had changed extensively in terms of pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, pragmatics, and semantics. This is exemplified in Cuong's opinion as below:

> I see the changes of English across the world because when people use English, they will **add their accents, grammar cultures to make English more diversified**. I think in the future, the world will see **a new kind of English** and people need to **understand more cultures** of other countries. Some ways people use English are not standard but people will automatically understand that, some kind of tolerance towards that [sic].

This idea reflects a significantly strong theme that emerged from the participants' discussions. Indeed, they called for the acceptance of the fact that in becoming a global language, the nature of English had changed dramatically. In particular, those who had been exposed to the diversity of English in foreign countries not only talked about why English had changed, but also provided

some specific examples of English variations such as the phrase 'thank you, lah' used widely in Singapore. In addition, while reflecting on this theme, seven participants engaged in a discussion about the diversity of local varieties of the language in America, Australia, Britain, and Vietnam. For instance, Cuong (group A) noted that there were more than 60 accents in America as well as many different accents in Britain and Australia. In the same vein, two participants who reflected on the diversity of Vietnamese used in the North, Middle, and South of Vietnam commented that English, spoken all over the world, must inevitably be diversified into various varieties. Their further discussion is presented below.

4.2.2. Different varieties of English exist

Of the 52 participants, 25 believed that it was the interactions between English and other native languages during the global spread of English that had resulted to the formation of different varieties of English. While Suong viewed the diversity of English in the light of "different forms of English and varieties of English in terms of pragmatics, vocabulary and phonology" in a general way, Quynh referred to specific varieties of English:

> There are some differences in English, like we **have varieties of English in every country**, like Vietnamese English, Singaporean English….that's why it makes English different from each other from country to country [sic].

It is obvious that the fact sheets provided the participants with a chance to reflect on the causes of the emerging varieties of English. On that basis, the participants explained that English had changed both phonologically and culturally because NNSs had injected the features of their mother tongues into English. For example, Binh said, "There are various regional dialects in each country… they use the features of their own regions in English. So there are varieties of English".

In addition, four of the participants expressed the belief that more varieties of English would develop in the future as a result of globalization. They predicted that one of these emerging varieties would be Vietnamese English, a point which was mentioned by 17 per cent of the participants.

4.2.3. Vietnamese English will develop in the future

It is significant that nine participants (five from set One and four from set Two) reflected on how English was used in Vietnam, and expressed their confidence that there would be an emerging variety of Vietnamese English in the future. For example, Lan (group C) explained, "As English is used widely, it is influenced by different accents and cultures…and in the future, there may be Vietnamese English". Similarly, three teachers in group A said that Vietnamese English would develop in the same way as Singaporean English. Their opinion was, however, challenged by Cuong, who argued that Vietnamese English already existed, explaining in his view that Vietnamese English was English spoken with Vietnamese accent.

In the same manner, Tin from individual interviews brought to notice the fact that Vietnamese words were used by speakers of English while in Vietnam. For instance, instead of using 'motorbike taxi', the direct translation of 'xe om', they said, "Can you get me an 'om'?" He also expressed the belief that Vietnamese English was on the way to become an emerging variety like other non-native varieties of English in the world.

This finding, though small, suggests that the fact sheets provided these teachers with an opportunity to take part in a certain amount of critical reflection on the changes in the use of English in different countries, including Vietnam. While discussing the diversity of English, their attitudes towards the current status of English were revealed as presented below.

4.3.   Teachers' attitudes towards globalised English

The findings reveal the participants' attitudes towards globalized English though their discussions of 'standard' English, and of other varieties of English. Sarnoff (1970) defines attitude as "a disposition to react favourably or unfavourably to a class of objects" (as cited in Galloway & Rose, 2015, p. 174). Research into attitudes towards English is important since, as discussed in Chapter Two, attitudes can influence curriculum development. Indeed, teachers' attitudes towards the English language have important implications for their selection of teaching models, cultures and materials, all points which are discussed in detail later in the following chapters.

4.3.1.   Attitudes towards 'standard' English

Around this sub-theme, despite their acknowledgement of the variations in the English language indicated above, 77 per cent of the interviewees asserted that 'standard' English was the language of NSs. When asked about what 'standard' English is, they said that it referred to American and British English. It is interesting to note that their view of 'standard' English did not explicitly include English used in other Inner Circle countries such as Australia or New Zealand. A possible explanation for this is that American and British English are so dominant in ELT (see Chapters Five - Seven for more details) in Vietnam that these teachers had come to automatically consider these two varieties of English as 'standard' English. This point is also consistent with Galloway and Rose's (2015, p. 44) statement that "the belief in the existence of a 'standard' English, the promotion of standardization towards this 'ideal' language, is deeply rooted in history". Standard language ideology does exist in the context of Vietnamese ELT and has powerful influence on teachers' attitudes.

On the other hand, the data shows that 12 participants responded to the variations of the English language by predicting that there would not be a variety that provided a standard for English followed by all speakers in the future any more. For instance, Long (Group B) said, 'When English is used by a particular country it will be influenced by its culture. That is the diversity of English. In the future, people will not follow 'standard' English because English will have its different varieties". Furthermore, seven participants had apparent difficulty in defining what 'standard' English is today. They used words like 'a new kind of English' or 'this kind of modern English' instead of 'standard' English.

4.3.2. Attitudes towards other English varieties

In response to the emergence of varieties of English and the use of English as a lingua franca, 40 per cent of the participants agreed that different varieties of English should be accepted and respected. For instance, Hien commented, "We should respect other varieties of English to help learners to be open, non-judgemental and non-critical because that is the reality of how English is used". She further said that students should learn to tolerate Thai English or Philippine English despite the pronunciation differences of these varieties from American and British English. Her views were echoed by the remaining participants, who expressed a belief in the importance of helping learners to be aware of the changes in English. For instance, Tam reported that he found it necessary to introduce Singaporean English and Burmese English to his students so that they would be more prepared for real-life communication in the future.

In spite of their call for the acceptance and respect for various varieties of English, seven of these teachers clearly stated that they would not encourage their students to learn those varieties. They reported that they would need to teach American and British English because of examinations that

focused mainly on American and British norms (to be discussed in detail in Chapter Five). Four other participants, in addition, explicitly expressed their negative attitudes towards different varieties of English. An example is Giang, who was in Singapore for three months. She said that she did not like 'ungrammatical' English used in this country, "They say 'today is sale off but tomorrow not sale off'. I don't like it". This attitude could hinder these participants from willingly accepting those varieties on an equal footing with American and British English. This can be demonstrated by the fact that some of the participants treated the phonological and lexical examples of other varieties in the fact sheets as errors that English learners should avoid. They further said that their students were definitely not keen on learning Asian Englishes, an opinion which is consistent with the long-lasting desire of achieving NS competence in ELT in Vietnam as discussed elsewhere in this section.

4.4.   Discussion

The findings reflect various degrees of awareness of the recent changes in English among the participants' and show that this awareness had affected their views of English to varying extents. The impact of the diversity of English on teachers might vary depending on many factors such as their social and educational backgrounds. For those who had had little opportunity to be exposed to other varieties of English, the information from the fact sheets helped to raise their awareness of Englishes to some extent. Meanwhile, for the teachers who had had such experiences, the fact sheets seemed to provide them with a chance to reinforce their existing knowledge of the changes in English worldwide and confirm the value of what they were teaching in class.

The participants' contradictory positions on the ownership of the English language were revealed during the interviews. On one hand, 100 per cent of the participants viewed English as the language

of NSs, namely of American and British people. The terms 'original', 'standard' or 'native' English were used quite consistently to refer to the English language during their discussions of this theme. On the other hand, there was an expressed belief that English no longer served as the property of NSs or specific countries but as the property of all peoples and countries in the world. A number of examples elicited from the participants' observations show that they were aware of English being used by a diversity of speakers, and that it had led to the emergence of multiple varieties of English that had significantly developed beyond NS norms. In fact, the call for the acceptance and acknowledgement of these changes in English was visible in the interviews as well. The aforementioned conflict in the participants' perceptions of the ownership of English has important implications for their attitudes towards English today.

As discussed in the literature review chapter, teachers' understanding of the diversity of English is significant because teachers are the first and most influential contact students have with the language. It has been argued that English users should aim to be "quite resourceful and flexible" and be "able to accommodate a wide range of variation at all levels" (Friedrich, 2012, p. 44). To achieve this, teaching EIL needs teachers whose mindset is considerably different from the mindset of traditional ELT teachers who consider only American and British English can be erected as 'standard' models (Matsuda, 2009). Consequently, it is significant that 12 teachers expressed the belief that the standards of 'standard' English were not strictly adhered to in teaching. Yet this number is a relatively modest proportion of the whole and this view cannot be generalised as the majority of participants still accept American and British English as 'standard' English as discussed above.

4.5.   Chapter summary

Chapter Four has provided a detailed presentation of the participants' reflections on the current status of EIL as showcased in the fact sheets. Section 4.1 has examined the teachers' views about the globalization of English. It has been followed by the discussions about the changes in the use of English in section 4.2 and of their attitudes towards the English language today in section 4.3. The data suggests that the participants responded to the information listed in the fact sheets with various degrees of awareness of the recent changes in English and displayed diverse responses to those changes. In spite of these diverse responses, the findings show that all the teachers were concerned about how to help students learn English in order to be successful communicators in English, especially so that they would be able to converse with a variety of people who have different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. The interviews reveal an interest expressed in the instructional implications of the recent changes in the use of English for teaching practices relating to which model(s) of English should be taught in the classroom. This is the main content of Chapter Five.

FINDINGS: REFLECTIONS ON THE IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING MODELS

5.0. Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to investigate answers to the first interview question, which asks: "What are the implications of the recent changes in English for teaching models of English?" As was pointed out in Chapter Two, the question of which model(s) of English should be employed in the classroom is important in the light of the changes in the use of English today (Kirkpatrick, 2006; Matsuda, 2012; McKay, 2002; Saraceni, 2015). This question has been extensively discussed by EIL and WE scholars and they have proposed several instructional models such as (1) an/the international variety of English (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2012), or the lingua franca model (Kirkpatrick, 2006); (2) the speakers' own variety of English (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2012), or the nativised model (Kirkpatrick, 2006); (3) the established variety of English (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2012); and (4) the multilingual model for intercultural communication (Kirkpatrick, 2013). Since there is no research investigating teachers' opinions on this issue in the context of Vietnam, it is important to examine teachers' discussions in this study.

While reflecting on the facts and observations of the current status of English as presented in the fact sheets, four participants from groups C and F raised questions about the variety of English that teachers should teach once they accept its widespread and diverse nature. For example, Ly asked:

> As English does not belong to native speakers, should we teach students to achieve native-like competence?'

Likewise, Lan wondered if teachers in Vietnam should teach native speaker English or Vietnamese English. These questions led to extensive discussions about the pedagogical implications arising from the main interviews questions (presented in Chapter One) among the participants. The findings reveal that when discussing the most appropriate teaching models to choose, the participants had quite varied responses. The following introductory excerpt reflects the diverse thoughts that were found quite consistently in both the focus groups and individual interviews when it came to the question of the possible implications of the current status of English for their selection of teaching models.

> Moderator: Which English would you like your students to achieve?
>
> Tham: I think American and British English. Some of my students like American English and some like British English.
>
> Duyen: I myself feel confused with my own English now. I do not know which English I am using now. Is it American English, British English, Vietnamese English or mixed? It is difficult to identify which English I am going to teach my students…I think the variation is not important…the most important thing is they know how to use English. (Quotes from group E)

Despite their positive attitudes towards the diversity of English described in Chapter Four, over two-thirds of the participants expressed confusion about the current status of English when asked about the possible implications for teaching models. One participant from group C expressed such a concern:

> The diversity of English makes teaching **more difficult and complicated**. If a student asks where one word comes from, teachers cannot know all varieties of English to explain to them.

This opinion was reiterated by 21 other participants, who asserted that they had not had the opportunity to get to know those kinds of English that were rarely encountered when they communicated in English. As a result, most of them argued that they would prefer one fixed or consistent way - a 'standard' model - to teach their students. This was the case even though,

nearly half of the participants were already adding elements of different varieties of English to their teaching repertoires. They also showed their consideration for selecting relevant teaching models to prepare students to become effective intercultural communicators. Their reflections are briefly summarized in table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1. A summary of the emerging themes on the implications for teaching models in EFL Vietnam

Reflections on teaching models			
Teachers' strong preference for 'standard' English	The insufficiency of teaching 'standard' English alone	The importance of raising learners' awareness of the diversity of English	Students' proficiency requirements for the introduction of other varieties of English

As seen in table 5.1, the participants' reflections on the implications of English varieties for teaching models are presented in four separate sections, ranging from a preference for the NS model to a desire for integrating other varieties of English into classrooms, including a consideration of the point at which these should be introduced. The next section attempts to discuss the sub-themes derived from the implications for teaching models in EFL Vietnam. The chapter ends with a summary that addresses the main ideas presented in the above sections.

5.1. Teachers should teach only 'standard' English

In terms of the selection of an appropriate English language variety for teaching, 100 per cent of the participants, especially those who had never been exposed to different varieties of English before, were in favour of the so-called 'standard' English that they had employed since the beginning of their teaching careers. According to these teachers, the NS model from the U.K. and the U.S.A. should continue to be prioritized in EFL Vietnam, particularly when it came to teaching from elementary to upper secondary schools or English for academic purposes at the tertiary level. It was found that the teachers in this study, divided English into two different kinds of language: formal English (academic English) and informal/practical English (spoken English in daily use). Native English varieties especially American and British English were perceived as formal English while the rest were classed as informal English.

The findings show that when the implications of the current status of English for teaching models in EFL classrooms were being discussed, the participants had a strong preference for American and British English. While Hien (group B) asserted that American and British were the most 'standard' and therefore teachers should follow these two varieties in ELT, Nga (group C) emphasized, "Teachers' main task is to teach 'standard' English even though there is the diversity of English". These opinions were also shared by a majority of the informants in the individual interview data who indicated that 'standard' English should be used, especially when teaching young learners. While Tin stated that he would prefer to teach American and British English (not Thai English) to any student level, Thien thought that 'standard' English was the best variety to teach to children and young learners.

Interestingly, after extensively reflecting on the current status of English, as discussed in Chapter Four, participants still opted for the NS model. Even though they said that it was important for students to know about differences in English as mentioned in sub-section 4.3.2,

they finally showed their sole preference for 'standard' English when discussing the implications for teaching models in the classroom. There were several perceived reasons behind this selection.

Firstly, the predominant influence on choice of teaching models was the dependence on available textbooks. All the participants claimed that textbooks, which are used as a major guide for teaching models, were mainly imported from America and Britain. Second, 21 participants talked about the constraints imposed by the Vietnamese Ministry of Education exams which focused largely on American and British norms. Third, 10 teachers preferred the NS model because of the power of 'standard' English and the belief that 'standard' English would benefit learners in the future, helping them to communicate not only with NSs of English but also with NNSs. In addition, many teachers expressed the view that their lack of knowledge of other varieties of English made these varieties difficult to teach competently. Finally, 17 participants mentioned positive attitudes of teachers and students towards American and British English. The pronunciation of British and American English was also thought to appeal to more students.

These aforementioned reasons shed some light on the participants' selection of American and British English as the favoured instructional varieties in the classroom. It is apparent that the participants were facing a number of pressures and constraints in their teaching (to be presented in-depth in Chapter Eight). An example of the constraints and challenges that significantly contribute to their reluctance to integrating EIL into ELT classrooms was the lack of an adequate range of teaching materials and their limited knowledge of EIL. This result suggests the need for a greater diversity of resources and targeted teacher education to foster the adoption of a more EIL-oriented approach in the classroom. In addition, the data implies that the participants were still sceptical about whether Outer and Expanding Circle Englishes were

truly varieties with their own norms as was discussed in sub-section 4.1.3. The findings are in line with the results of Ton and Pham (2010), which show that teachers continued to use the NS model in the classroom even though they were aware of other kinds of English. This, therefore, indicates the existence of a theory/practice divide in the minds of many of the teachers who participated in this study. Indeed, EIL was initially accepted in the abstract by the participants but mostly rejected or questioned in their teaching practice.

During the interviews, however, nearly half of the participants questioned the definition(s) of 'standard' English and discussed the possibilities of going beyond the dominant teaching models currently used in Vietnam. These views are explored in the next section.

5.2. The English being taught is insufficient

Even though there was a strong commitment to 'standard' English as reflected above, 21 out of 52 teachers (15 from set One and 6 from set Two) claimed that when considering relevant teaching models for ELT, they found American and British English did not sufficiently reflect the current status of English. While three members in group F stated that teachers should follow American and British English so as to avoid creating another kind of English that may cause misunderstandings, Ngoc strongly disagreed. She said:

> I don't think American and British English are enough. The textbooks are in American English and British English but **English has changed a lot, so we need to learn more**. If we just follow the books even American English or British English, we don't understand others. When we speak English, we **bring our cultures in that language**. We play jokes, and they don't understand. For example, seven love…(*seven love:* direct translation from Vietnamese to English meaning lovelorn).

Her observations about the current status of English show that this language could not be made to fit the 'standard' norms since her message indicates how English was creatively used by Vietnamese speakers who injected their cultural features into the target language. She further suggested that teachers should update themselves with these changes in English to help students

to achieve communicative success. Her suggestion goes hand-in-hand with Matsuda's (2012, p. 171) conclusion that "…teachers must have a good understanding of the historical spread and current use of English in order to implement changes in the curriculum that better reflect the needs of EIL users today".

In addition, Ngoc's opinion was echoed by a majority of the participants in this study. Tai (Group D) said that although learning American and British English was important in order to understand all kinds of English, it should not be presented as the only form of English at the expense of non-standard forms. He then stated the importance of encouraging students to understand other varieties of English, a point agreed with by Tam (group A), who stressed that he wanted his students to know different ways of speaking English besides the NS model.

The idea that teachers should go beyond the NS model was also extensively discussed and reflected upon by the members of group E. Since Nghia had experience in interacting with the diversity of English in America, she realized that people spoke different kinds of English not just American English in America. Although she confirmed that she would teach students American English not Chinese English, she said that 'standard' English was insufficient for her learners and that it was important to introduce 'some [further] kinds of English' to students so that they "are not shocked when they talk to Chinese or Indian people". Duyen agreed, stating that teachers should prepare learners to avoid culture and language shock, especially by familiarising them with the "accents used in different countries".

While both Nghia and Duyen were concerned to help students overcome language barrier that they might encounter while communicating with a variety of speakers of English, Phung looked at different communicative contexts in which modern technology and the internet could provide opportunities for language learners to interact with other speakers in English. Perceiving the disadvantages of teaching only NS models, she suggested:

> We base on textbooks [sic], but now students can gain access to the vast knowledge like they have reference books, they search for materials on the internet…so there are a lot sources…so sometimes **we cannot limit them to specific models**...

Similar to the participants in the focus groups, the teachers who were individually interviewed explained that they were obliged to follow the NS model because of its dominance in EFL Vietnam. However, six of them indicated that both American and British English were too limiting for their students. Truc, who had had difficulty understanding different varieties of English when working for an airplane company, said that she would be failing her students if they could understand only NSs but not other speakers of English. In the same vein, as a teacher at a lower secondary school where teachers had to follow the textbooks strictly, Tu expressed the view that teaching both American and British English prevented students from enriching their knowledge further. He said, 'If we want to broaden students' minds, we use varieties of English such as Singaporean English and we should know about the diversity of English'.

As can be seen from the above excerpts, these participants, during the interviews, gradually showed their increased awareness of the changes within the English language and its relevance to their teaching. Despite their preference for American and British English as the primary teaching models, they expressed the belief that teaching 'standard' English would be insufficient to prepare learners to be successful communicators in the real world. This attitude seems to represent a slight move away from the endorsement of native English-speaker expertise towards a focus on teaching EIL, a paradigm shift needed in ELT that a number of scholars (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2012; Sharifian, 2009) believe is important today. Indeed, after reflecting on others' opinions about this sub-theme, 21 teachers carefully considered the implications of exposing students to English changes. As nearly half of the participants was already including several elements of other English varieties in the classroom, they actively exchanged their teaching ideas and discussed the need to prepare learners for effective intercultural communication.

5.3. Raising students' awareness of the diversity of English can be done in various ways

Two-thirds of the participants stated that they would be willing to teach different kinds of English whenever they could. When they discussed the introduction of the diversity of English to students, however, there was a certain amount of confusion displayed in deciding what English varieties to teach. The following is a short excerpt of the conversation between participants from group E that best reflects this observation.

Khanh:	Can we teach all? No, right? So we only teach one variety and introduce the others.
Phung:	I am confused. How do we know which variety is good for students?
Tham:	Introduce as much as you can...
Duyen:	Raise their awareness to let them prepare…

As can be seen from the above exchange, Phung was confused and asked for advice about selecting relevant instructional varieties of English. The remaining participants in this group emphasized the task of raising students' awareness of the diversity of English whenever possible. This idea was commonly shared and discussed by other participants who after being asked for ideas about how to integrate the diversity of English into their teaching content came up with quite various pedagogical implications for teaching EIL. Table 5.2 presents a brief summary of their discussions on this theme.

Table 5.2. The participants' suggestions for introducing different varieties of English to

students

Introduce other varieties of English via	Focus Groups	Individual Interviews
Different ways of pronunciation, spoken Englishes, various accents	A, D, E	4
Presentations about the diversity of English to help students learn to respect and select what is suitable for them	B	2
Teaching materials reflecting the diversity of English such as books, films, music, mass media including different varieties of English	A, B, C, D, E, F	4
Provisions of diversified situations in which English is used	C	1
Teachers' experiences in foreign countries	A, B, D, F	4
Inviting non-native speakers of English to interact with learners	E	1
Having students visit famous local tourist attractions that have a variety of speakers of English	E	0
Creating free talk sessions for students	F	0

Table 5.2 presents a diversity of teaching ideas drawn from the informants. The most common

suggestions were to use the teachers' own experiences in foreign countries and teaching

materials which introduce other varieties of English to students. Among the six groups, group

E, consisting of seven young female teachers, engaged in an active discussion about ways of helping learners to learn about the diversity of English. The observation notes capture a significant change in their attitudes towards other varieties of English that took place whilst discussing this question. Initially, all of them expressed a strong preference for 'standard' English as stated above. After reflecting on the fact sheets and on other teachers' opinions, however, they indicated their interest in introducing the diversity of English to their students. The following excerpt shows this transition in one teacher's mindset:

> Usually, teachers have opportunities to make environment [sic] like to invite some native speakers to their class … but **after reading this fact**, I think it would be ok for teachers to create chances for students to **meet other speakers of English** like my Korean friend who can speak English very well**… I have this friend but I have never thought of that**. I think it is a good idea.

Her reflection helped to prompt other specific teaching ideas from the remaining participants, and these are presented in the following sub-sections.

5.3.1. Use of teaching materials reflecting the diversity of English

Matsuda (2003, 2012) emphasises the need to use teaching materials representing EIL users in ELT since these materials would help learners become familiar with other varieties of English in addition to the NS model. It is, therefore, worth noting that the majority of the participants (37) expressed their interest in using teaching resources available to them such as textbooks, audio and videos that included the diversity of English. While Khanh had already made good use of EILTs materials that reflected the diversity of English, Tham and Hao had introduced English songs by Korean singers or Indian movies to students.

On the other hand, Dan (set Two), who teaches both English-major students and non-major English students, had introduced EIL by using several textbooks including those using other varieties of English to her students in her listening class. She explained to them that 10 per cent of listening tests would use some of the listening sources from those textbooks. She further

said that this activity encouraged her students to practise listening to various kinds of English more frequently at home.

The notion of teaching materials here mainly refers to American and British publications, publications which really limit teachers' choices of relevant teaching resources for the purpose of addressing the changes in the use of English today. Consequently, 19 participants had opted to use their own experiences of the varieties of English in foreign countries to introduce EIL.

5.3.2. Use of teacher experiences in foreign countries

Having the advantage of having visited several foreign countries such as China, Britain, Singapore, Japan and the U.S.A, three teachers from group F saw that their experiences abroad would be useful in introducing the diversity of English to students. For instance, Ngoc was excited about sharing teaching tips as follows:

> So besides textbooks, I can **teach students what I can learn abroad**, something **new, not mentioned** in the books….I **have one section for free talks** (*put everything related to English not mentioned in textbooks*) **for international students to create new words based on their nationalities**. So I will put them in, when they meet international people they can understand others better [sic].

Group B members also reported that they used what they had learned in foreign countries to raise their students' awareness of the diversity of English. Acknowledging that even American people did not understand some Australian dialects, Long said, "When we teach students, we should let them know the changes of English so that they can be prepared for real communication".

In the same vein, Thuong (set Two) said that while studying in Australia for two years she had had the opportunity to be exposed to different varieties of English. She explained that she now thought she could use her experiences to introduce pragmatic examples (e.g. greetings in

different countries) to students in order to help them to avoid misunderstandings during intercultural communication.

While this teaching tip is highly practical, not all teachers have had the luxury of travelling abroad. As a result, motivating students to talk to tourists who come to Vietnam was an alternative option proposed by several teachers participating in this study.

5.3.3. Students' exposure to various spoken Englishes

Living in a city that has centuries-old architecture and a rich culture, Duyen (group E) proposed that students should visit these famous tourist attractions to exchange English with a variety of tourists, as can be seen from the following quote:

> In my class, when I was teaching speaking for semester 1 and 2, I organized a trip for students to Sword Lake and Temple of Literature in Hanoi. A lot of English speakers there [sic]. So I thought it was better for them to **speak English to a variety of speakers like non-native speakers**…. So I asked them to talk to **some Asian tourists**. My students were very excited because they found that the Asian speaker made the same mistake…they were happy because they were not the only ones …**they are more confident** ….so they become less worried.

This activity enabled her students to have an opportunity to speak English to Asian speakers whose pronunciations were similar to theirs and thus increase their confidence in speaking, which was highly valued by the remaining participants in this group.

Familiarizing students with the variation in pronunciation was also one of the main suggestions from the participants of groups A and D. Tam (group A) expressed the belief that it was better to raise students' awareness of other varieties of English, stating teachers "cannot force students to follow one system of pronunciation". Tai (group D) also acknowledged the importance of reminding students of "how to use words correctly when they communicate with non-native speakers of English from other countries".

5.3.4. Introduction of NNSs of English to students

The individual interview data shows that teaching English for tourism enabled Truc (set Two) to introduce different varieties of English to students in a practical way. She happily shared her experiences of inviting speakers of English from Thailand, Malaysia and the Philippines to talk to her students in English clubs every month. She explained:

> It is **important to introduce English used by other peoples and countries to students, not just American English,** especially in listening and speaking periods because students can't communicate with Asian or French people speaking English.

Truc was exposed to a variety of Englishes when working for an airline company before becoming a teacher of English. She reported that she could communicate effectively with American and British people but not with other speakers of English. She said that this experience had played an essential role in her determination to help students to learn about the diversity of English by having various speakers of English talk to her students.

Similarly, Lien (set Two) also advocated for interaction between students and a variety of speakers of English for the purpose of raising students' awareness of the diversity of English. While working for an international English centre, she suggested having teachers from different countries teach at the school because this provided students with various examples of English diversity. This, however, is not an easy option because teacher hiring practices prioritise NS teachers in Vietnam as indicated in Chapter Two.

In fact, not all the teachers had had an opportunity to introduce different speakers of English to their students, especially in EFL contexts of Vietnam. One group C participant placed importance on providing learners with experience of the diversified situations in which English was used globally, a point which was endorsed by the remaining teachers in the group. She said:

> Because of the development of such varieties of English, we should **diversify the situations** in which English is widely used for our students so that when they go to the

real world, they can interact not only with American or British people but also with Indonesians or Malaysians.

Moreover, two participants in group B emphasized that once learners had been exposed to the changes within English by teachers, their role in deciding which model to focus on was important. One suggested that students could choose the model they thought suitable for themselves based on their own flexibility, perceptions and purpose. Encouraging students to speak their own English was also Duyen's suggestion. She said that teaching 'standard' English was one way to discourage students from speaking their own English. Her opinion was, however, challenged by Khanh, who stated:

> We **cannot learn all varieties**…what we can do is we can learn one variety and all varieties share common things…those differences we can adapt [sic]. For example, I first meet a Chinese, he may speak differently. Through time, I get familiar…

When asked if she had to accommodate to the accent of this particular Chinese speaker, she replied that she did not need to do that, and that she would expect him to adapt to her English. She then went on saying that she could teach only one variety and introduce the others. This led to the question of the appropriate point at which to introduce other varieties of English to students in the classroom.

5.4. Other varieties of English should only be introduced to experienced students

Nine participants were quite concerned about choosing the appropriate time to integrate other varieties of English in the classroom. They felt that the diversity of English should only be introduced to students whose English levels were more advanced. According to them, introducing other varieties of English to beginning learners might be confusing or overwhelming because it would be unlikely for them to fully understand the diversity of English. Tai (group D) expressed such a view as can be seen below:

> At the **beginning level**, it may be **confusing for students** to understand the diversity of English. When they want **to study for higher level**, we teach students something related…step by step.

Concerned about students with low levels of English such as beginning students, three other teachers expressed the same opinion and said they felt the need to provide students with "certain background knowledge" before teaching the diversity of English. In their view, this "certain background knowledge" referred to the provision of 'standard' English which was considered a foundation on the basis of which they could learn different varieties of English in their later learning process. A common worry among the participants was that they were afraid that learners might find it hard to learn 'good' English models once they were exposed to the changes in English. A possible explanation for this may be these participants had negative attitudes towards other varieties of English because they still stigmatised them as 'distorted' versions of English. For example, one teacher in an individual interview said that she used Indian English for her students to analyse pronunciation mistakes in speaking classes. Another participant (set Two) expressed her desire to encourage her students to expose themselves to varieties of English but cautioned them not to imitate the pronunciation of those varieties. To illustrate her point, she commented that Japanese English had typical ways of pronunciation (e.g. mɪn(ə)ˈral instead of ˈmɪn(ə)r(ə)l) that she did not want her students to copy. These instances indicate that the teachers wished their students to achieve NS competence in the classroom despite their desire to equip learners with knowledge of the global status of English. This result seems to corroborate the idea of Kuo (2006, p. 220), who suggests that the NS model should be employed as "a complete and convenient starting point" in teaching English.

5.5. Discussion

The purpose of this section is to provide a summarized discussion of the theme - the implications of the recent changes in English for teaching models of English in the classroom

- as it emerged from the data. Four important sub-themes have arisen in relation to the possible implications for teaching models for ELT in EFL Vietnam. The findings show teachers' preference for the native English speaker episteme, namely American and British English and their claim that these two varieties were still the original sources of the language, and their view that teachers must follow 'standard' norms in teaching. For example, even though one participant in group B claimed that teachers should accept the changes in English, and help learners to avoid negative attitudes towards other varieties of English, she finally emphasized that teachers should direct learners to 'standard' English only. One participant (set Two) said that her university allowed an Indian teacher employed there to teach only one class per semester because Indian English was considered non-standard English at her workplace. Despite the fact that they were aware of the diversity of English, they preferred the NS model when it came to their teaching. This adherence to 'standard' English coincides with Ton and Pham's (2010) findings that Vietnamese teachers continued to use the NS model in the classroom despite their awareness of the diversity of English. A high valuation of the NS model was also found in a number of studies such as Adolphs (2005), Sifakis and Sougari (2005), Cargile et al. (2006) and McKenzie (2008a, 2008b) that focused on non-native English speakers' perceptions of regional varieties. These studies reported that teachers' attitudes were still norm-bound and indicated that they had a strong preference for 'standard' English.

It is important to note the mixed beliefs expressed by participants during the interviews. As indicated in Chapter Four, their acknowledgement and acceptance of the changes in English was marked after they had engaged with the points of the fact sheets. At that stage, they further expressed the need to increase EIL exposure in language curriculums. Yet their enthusiasm for the pedagogical implications of this seemed to disappear gradually when it came to discussing of selecting relevant teaching models. They strongly asserted that teachers should teach only American and British English despite the diverse status of English. The data mirrors Matsuda's

(2009) study that found most of the language practitioners investigated expressed a positive first impression of the diversity of English and its implications in ELT but then opted for 'standard' English in selecting teaching models.

The findings suggest that teacher attachment to the NS model was so strong that no other varieties of English could compete with it. Moreover, it was not clear to what extent the participants understood EIL as representing many different varieties of English, as envisaged in EIL, ELF and WE research. For instance, when reflecting on the current status of English some teachers identified the diversity of English as comprising of two varieties – American and British English. Thus, teachers' loyalty towards American and British English was reiterated in this study.

It is worth noting, however, that 21 out of 52 participants stated that the English they were teaching was insufficient for their students since English had changed tremendously in all its aspects. Among these teachers, those who had themselves experienced other varieties of English expressed the need to raise learners' awareness of the recent changes within the English language. The importance to them of such a need was strengthened when they said that teachers should not limit their students to one or two varieties of English. Indeed, they actively discussed different ways of introducing the diversity of English to students by using additional teaching materials, including those from mass media and the audio resources that were available on the internet. They also stressed the importance of applying teachers' real experiences as well as of creating opportunities for students to interact with NNSs of English. Their teaching ideas are in line with Matsuda's (2003) and Galloway and Rose's (2015) suggestions on how to incorporate WE in TEIL by using teaching materials that represent the real language use of EIL users.

Additionally, it is important for teachers to consider at what stage it might be appropriate for the inclusion of other varieties of English into teaching lessons. Being afraid that learners might end up learning 'distorted' English, most of the teachers suggested that students should achieve certain English competence before they were exposed to other varieties of English. For instance, Nga said that students need to learn 'standard' English at the beginning because "later on, their English may become a variety, which is still intelligible to other speakers. If they learn variations of English at the beginning, their future variety of English will be impossible to be understood". While this analysis may be applicable to ELT settings in EFL Vietnam, several participants said that they thought they should leave the decision about which variety of English to study to the students.

5.6. Chapter summary

Chapter Five has examined the teachers' reflections on the implications of the recent changes in English for their teaching models in the classroom. Section 5.1 has focused on their preference for NS models in their teaching practices while section 5.2 has discussed the shortcomings of these models for catering to the need of raising students' awareness of the diversity of English presented in section 5.3. Section 5.4 has analysed the participants' discussions about the appropriate stages for integrating different varieties of English into teaching.

The participants' statements on this theme ranged from a preference for 'standard' English to the need to include other varieties of English in the classroom. Even though the teachers in this study continued to use 'standard' English for their teaching, they realized that more diverse English varieties should be introduced to students to encourage successful cross-cultural communication with speakers of various Englishes. Indeed, they perceived themselves as guides who could help learners to learn about the diversity of English, including becoming

familiar with aspects of the cultures linked to these varieties; an important element in English classrooms. One participant from group D, for example, stated, "We should remind students how to use English…we should teach them cultures…how to behave when you meet a Thai or Chinese person". Their reflections about the teaching of culture(s) will be analysed in depth in the following chapter.

CHAPTER SIX

FINDINGS: REFLECTIONS ON THE IMPLICATIONS FOR THE TEACHING OF CULTURE(S)

6.0. Introduction

The previous chapter dealt with the participants' reflections on the implications for teaching models. This chapter presents the participants' responses to the second interview question, 'What are the implications of the recent changes in English for the teaching of culture(s)?' As discussed in Chapter Two, teaching about culture has a crucial role in ELT and in developing students' intercultural competence and its importance has been emphasised in the literature (Baker, 2012; Matsuda, 2006; McKay, 2012; Sharifian, 2009). Indeed, multilingual and multicultural contexts require learners to develop a more comprehensive understanding of the varied cultural contexts of English use, leading to the broadening of the culture content in English lessons for those who recognise the importance of EIL. This accentuates "the need to move away from monocultural and monolingual norms" (Galloway & Rose, 2015, p. 206) and the need to re-examine the notion of target culture from within the EIL paradigm (McKay, 2003; Pennycook, 2007; Doan, 2014). Since teacher discussion about the implications of the current status of English for the teaching of culture(s) is missing in the Vietnamese EIL literature, Chapter Six attempts to address this issue from the perspective of ELT teachers in Vietnam.

The findings show that whilst discussing the first interview question pertaining to teaching models, 12 participants expressed their already held belief that the teaching of culture(s) could not be separated from teaching the English language. As a result, they displayed significant interest in expressing their views on the importance of the teaching of culture(s) before dwelling on the specific pedagogical implications. While Tin said, "One needs to be good at teaching culture to be a good language teacher", Sam asserted that learning a language meant

learning all cultures. Six of the participants expressed the belief that culture should be taught to students because they liked to learn about the cultures of countries they might visit in the future. Thus, the need to equip students with knowledge of different cultures was raised by three teachers who revealed their aim of helping students to avoid culture shock when interacting with people from various cultural backgrounds.

Even though all the participants highly acknowledged the important role of cultures in ELT, they held differing opinions concerning the teaching of culture(s), especially in relation to which cultures should be taught. As mentioned in Chapter Two, culture is a complex issue in ELT, and selecting the culture(s) to be addressed in the classroom is not an easy task. Indeed, some participants asserted the view that the domain of culture was so huge that it was impossible for them to introduce all cultures to their students. It is also noted that most of the participants tended to perceive the English language as including the norms and values of Anglophone countries.

Overall, the participants' various responses to this interview question can be divided into three sub-themes and they are presented in three sections: (1) teachers' preference for American and British cultures; (2) the need to include other cultures in teaching, and (3) various ways for teaching a variety of cultures in the classroom. The chapter continues to address the main results around this theme in a discussion section, and then concludes with a chapter summary.

## 6.1. Teachers teach mainly American and British cultures

Reflecting on the implications of the recent changes in English for the teaching of culture(s), all 52 participants stated that they would predominantly teach American and British cultures. Their main reasons are summarized in figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1. The participants' main reasons why participants adhere to American and British cultures.

Dependence on teachers' knowledge and experience of cultures (83%)

Dependence on textbooks that are largely imported from America and Britain (100%)

Dependence on the requirements of their departments/schools (40%)
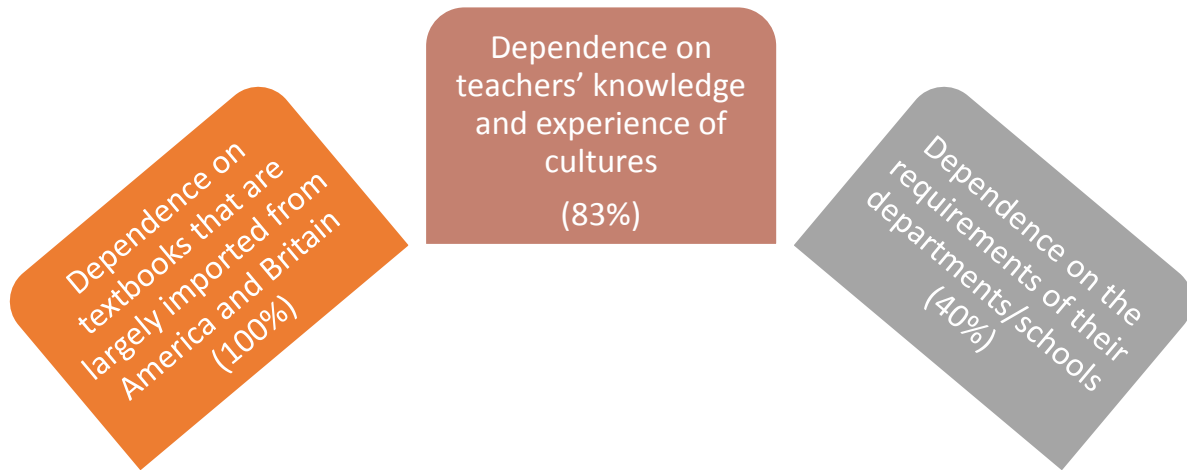
6.1.1. Dependence on textbooks based on American and British norms

As seen in figure 6.1, all the participants explained that they mainly selected American and British cultures since the teaching of culture(s) largely depended on textbooks and that these were mostly imported from the U.K and the U.S.A. A strongly held view was reflected in Cuong's opinion, "Textbooks are from America and Britain. I myself do not see a lot of Asian cultures. We have to get back to the syllabus and textbooks". The dominance of American and British publications was so strong that Van said that despite her willingness to include publications from various places in her teaching, she had to use NS sources.

In the individual interviews, eight out of 19 teachers explained that their preference for teaching American and British cultures was based on the fact that teachers' books had culture notes to help them with their teaching. These culture notes explained the cultures reflected in the textbooks and provided specific examples of aspects of mainly American and British cultures. In justifying her approach, Sam said, "I usually introduce cultures from English-speaking

countries such as American and British cultures. Teachers' books have culture notes that I can use to teach my students". She then continued to say that it was important to focus on American and British cultures because her students would not be interested in learning about Thai or Indonesian cultures. This result indicates a link between students' perception of the appropriate target culture and teaching materials, to be presented in detail in Chapter Seven.

These comments reflect the reality of textbooks used in ELT in Vietnam, to be explored in the next chapter. Since textbooks provide teachers with the main source of cultural input for English teaching and these textbooks are mostly imported from American and Britain, they hinder teachers from introducing other kinds of cultures to their students. The voices of the teachers in this study match those observed in earlier studies (Ton & Pham, 2010; Doan, 2014) and reinforce the call for the inclusion of textbooks that present a wider representation of cultures so that teachers can be better equipped for the teaching of culture(s). Until more culturally diverse materials are published, these teachers seem to feel they have no other choice but to continue to employ Inner Circle textbooks. Nevertheless, the teachers' own knowledge and experience of foreign cultures are also used as a resource for the teaching of cultures, which is the focus of the following section.

6.1.2. Dependence on teachers' knowledge and experience of cultures

Individual teacher's knowledge and experience of certain cultures also account for their selection of which culture(s) they introduce in the classroom. This is obviously reflected in Long's statement, "The teaching of cultures doesn't depend only on textbooks. It also requires teachers' ability and rich experience to teach the culture of a certain country". The findings show that 83 per cent of the participants felt confident teaching about the cultural content of the U.K. and the U.S.A. since they had studied these Anglo cultures at school. For instance,

Tai said that American and British cultures were mainly taught in his university curriculum because:

> When we studied American and British cultures at university, we understood a lot. Now we also help our students in the same way.

His opinion was echoed by a majority of the teachers, who claimed that they were mostly familiar with American and British cultures as that was what they were taught themselves. As a result, they aimed their students to behave like NSs of English, e.g. Americans and Britons, in culture learning lessons. For example, Suong expected her students to express their opinions directly like Westerners in communication despite the fact that Vietnamese people tended to beat about the bush before addressing the main points.

This finding has important implications for suggesting the need to integrate the diversity of cultures into teaching content for in- and pre-service teacher training so that teachers will be equipped with the understanding of diverse cultures in order to prepare their learners to become successful intercultural communicators in English.

6.1.3. Dependence on the requirements of the departments/schools

All the participants who teach at public secondary school, colleges and universities reported that they mainly focused on American and British cultures due to the requirements of their faculties. Working at a university in the central part of Vietnam, Tai (group D) explained that American and British cultures had been included in the ELT curriculum from generation to generation. Khanh (group F), who teaches at a college in the North, expressed the same opinion, "In our faculty, we have subjects on civilization and cultures, mainly American and British cultures". Thuong (set Two) who teaches mainly translation at university said that American cultures were the main reference point, although her teaching modules focused on the differences between Western and Eastern cultures.

In addition to the three main reasons stated in figure 6.1, the findings demonstrate that several teachers believed that the only American and British cultures were suitable target cultures. Three participants stated the view that NSs of English such as Americans should teach culture(s) to Vietnamese students. Moreover, according to the perspectives of some participants, the notion of cultures from English speaking countries should be limited to the cultures of the U.K. and the U.S.A. Two participants placed importance on using 'authentic' sources by which they meant sources from these two main countries. This result is consistent with the data obtained in Doan's (2014) study that reveals teachers' monocentric/native-speakerist view of the teaching of culture(s).

When the moderator asked about the cultures of Australia, Canada and New Zealand, the participants said that they would teach the cultures of these countries whenever they were addressed in the textbooks. Moreover, six teachers seemed to separate the teaching culture(s) from teaching the English language. For instance, Tin claimed, "I only teach cultures whenever mentioned in books because I do not have time for that". Meanwhile, his colleague suggested that teachers could integrate culture into any English lesson. She gave examples of readings that reflected cultures such as those about funerals in Thailand and birthdays in Korea and expressed an interest in designing cultural topics for students to discuss based on their needs and ages. This led to the discussion about the necessity of teaching about other cultures in the classroom, which is presented in the next section.

6.2. Other cultures should be introduced to students in the classroom

In spite of their strong attachment to American and British cultures, 19 out of 52 participants (14 participants in set One and nine in set Two) expressed the need to introduce other cultures to students to help with intercultural communication. After discussing the importance of teaching culture(s) to modern language learners, three members in group D discussed the role

of focusing on the diversity of cultures in ELT, one of the strategies that Baker (2015), Kirkpatrick (2011) and Matsuda (2003) believe is significant today. Hanh shared her view, which was echoed by other two teachers in the group:

> Here we teach American and British cultures only but I think **we should introduce other cultures** as well because later students go to work with other people, they do not only work with American or British people…so we should **help them understand the diversity of English**'

She further pointed out the fact that not all teachers were aware of the need to include other cultures in their teaching because the current approach was mainly influenced by a perceived need to foster understanding of American and British cultures.

Hien from group B called for the need to promote intercultural awareness and said she did so in her teaching. She explained, "When teaching culture, it is necessary to introduce or raise intercultural awareness for students to teach them how to adapt to the diversity of cultures". She clarified her view by providing an example of designing teaching activities in which her students were instructed to compare Vietnamese cultures with the cultures of other Asian countries.

While the focus group findings mainly reveal the participants' views about teaching cultures in general, the data from the individual interviews presents more detailed data about the choice of cultures that should be included in the classroom. They ranged from global cultures to regional and local ones. Five teachers, examining cultures from wider perspectives than those presented by most set textbooks, stressed the importance of teaching global cultures to learners. Observing the opportunities his students had to expose themselves to global English through the internet, Tin concluded that it was important to integrate global cultures into current textbooks. Sharing a similar opinion, Hoan and Sam said they aimed to make global citizens out of their students. Since learning about different cultures has no boundaries, they did not

teach any fixed culture but made an effort to introduce as many cultures to students as they could.

Teaching English for tourism at a college, Truc also believed that having knowledge about more cultures in the world could only benefit her students in their future communication as her students were quite interested in learning about the differences between cultures around the world. Teaching regional cultures was also mentioned by three participants in the individual interviews. Dao saw a need to teach Chinese culture because Vietnam borders China to the North, while Tu said he liked to use examples from Asia such as the environment in Singapore when teaching his students about various cultures. Giang, despite her preference for teaching British culture, claimed that it was important to teach about "other cultures in our region".

The need to teach about Vietnamese culture was also expressed by 11 teachers who said they believed in helping students to expand their knowledge of cultures. These discussions are in line with Matsuda and Friedrich's (2006) suggestions for integrating three kinds of culture(s), specifically global cultures, the cultures of learners' future interlocutors and students' own culture into EIL lessons.

It is significant that a transition between their initial attitudes which espoused teaching mainly American and British cultures and a new more inclusive attitude towards the diverse cultures of EIL was observed as the discussions proceeded. This transition indicates the development of a positive change in the teachers' mindset, which Saraceni (2015) considers the key to teaching the diversity of English. Although their teaching of culture(s) heavily depended on textbooks which featured mainly American and British cultures, the participants were interested in discussing the next sub-question, which addresses specific ways to integrate other cultures into teaching content. Their discussions on this sub-theme are presented in depth in the following section.

6.3. Other cultures can be included in various ways

This section continues to explore the issue of teaching diverse cultures in the classroom. The data pertaining to this topic shows a variety of implications for teaching, as illustrated in figure 6.2 below.

Figure 6.2. The participants' suggestions for integrating other cultures into teaching content
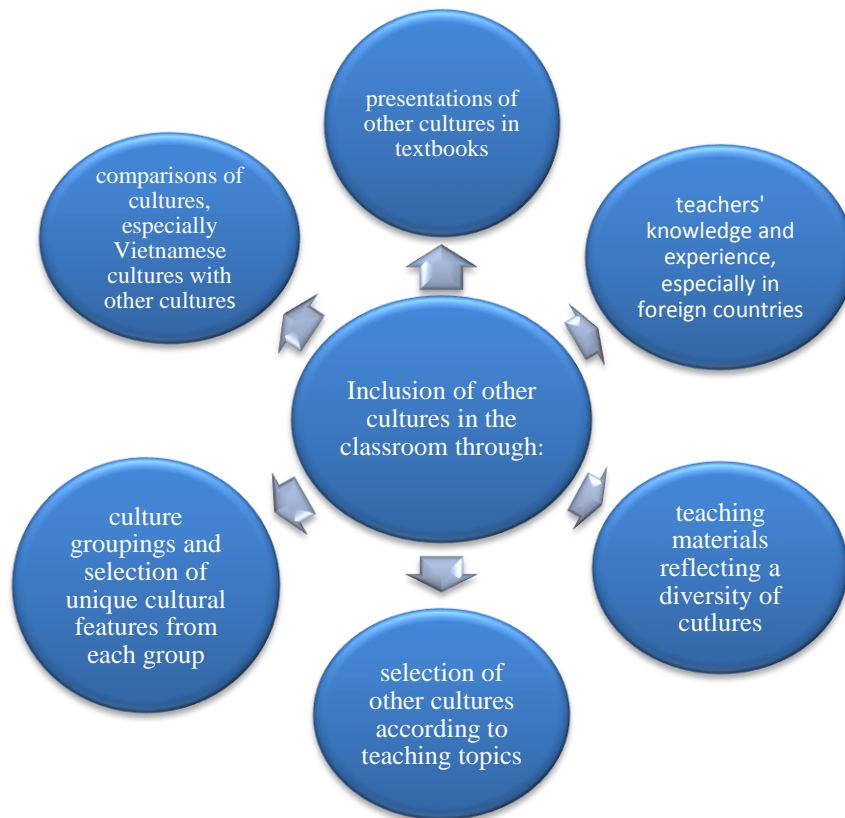
6.3.1. Introducing other cultures whenever they are presented in textbooks

All the participants expressed their willingness to introduce different cultures if they were represented in the textbooks used in the classroom. This result may partly be explained by the fact that course books played a key role in guiding them in the teaching of culture(s). Ngoc (group F) shared her opinion on introducing other cultures as follows:

> Whenever the lessons, readings, exercises, sentences mention something related [to other cultures], I will help students to learn [other cultures].

Fifteen teachers reflected on the inclusion of cultures such as Indian and Singaporean cultures in their current textbooks, namely *English Unlimited*, *Top-notch* and several IELTs materials. In addition, three teachers provided specific examples from their own teaching about other cultures in the classroom. For instance, Nga reported that she introduced the cultures of Thai people in Unit 9 titled 'Tips for visitors to Thailand" in the *New Cutting Edge* textbook for college students while Tuan said, "For grade 11, there is one section about celebrations in the world such as Iran, Japan, Brazil and America…that is a good thing [sic]".

As presented above, however, these textbooks imported from America and Britain only reflect other cultures to a limited extent. Consequently, the data shows that the teachers who found it important to teach other cultures to their students found different ways of introducing other cultures in their classrooms such as using their own knowledge and experience gained in foreign countries.

6.3.2. Teaching other cultures through teachers' knowledge and experience, especially their experiences in foreign countries

Group F enthusiastically engaged in a discussion on this sub-theme suggesting that using knowledge gained from travelling would enable teachers to introduce other cultures to students. While Ngoc frequently asked students to learn about non-verbal communication such as the body language practised in Britain and China, Tuan preferred to introduce aspects of as many cultures as he could. Having been to several Asian countries and some states in America, he commented:

> It is **international culture** now, not just American culture or British culture… I often mention many cultures… I just **observe in other countries and introduce to students**. The textbooks for 3-year course are very limited in terms of cultures. Adapt a bit. A boy may combine American, Korean and Vietnamese style….in him…

This opinion was echoed by the 15 teachers who had visited different countries and experienced a variety of cultures there; for instance, they had introduced Russian, Thai, Japanese and Nepalese cultural information to their students in the classroom.

Unlike the participants in the focus groups, the individual interviewees had not had many opportunities to travel to other countries. Only four out of the 19 participants had been elsewhere and they had travelled to Australia, Korea, Singapore and Thailand. These four teachers said that their experiences in foreign countries helped them a great deal with the teaching of culture(s). Moreover, An found a need to teach her students Chinese customs because of the fact that China is Vietnam's neighbour country, and Korean cultures because of the popularity of K-pop movies in Vietnam.

Since not all participants had had the advantage of visiting foreign countries, many had to depend on various teaching materials in order to portray other cultures in the classroom. How this is done is presented in the following sub-section.

6.3.3. Use of teaching materials containing a diversity of cultures

The data reveals that the participants considered using reading materials collected mostly from the internet as the best choice for exposing students to cultures apart from those of America and Britain. Having the freedom to select teaching materials for the faculty, all six teachers from a college in the central part of Vietnam used internet reference materials as the main source of information when introducing other varieties of English and different cultures to their students. Lan (group C) said that teachers at her college acknowledged the importance of using supplementary resources in addition to their textbooks in order to teach English effectively. Examples of these supplementary resources include eBooks, movies, pictures and reading materials from the internet. Van from group D, however, argued that too many readings were designed to be academic and advised teachers to "make the readings less academic" in order to

teach cultures where appropriate. This idea triggered a discussion of how teaching materials should be used accordingly in the classroom, which will be presented in detail in Chapter Seven.

In line with the focus groups' findings, the individual interview data shows that five of the teachers also employed various teaching materials as the main tool to teach students other cultures. For instance, Tran said that she would use readings that included aspects of other cultures such as funerals in Thailand or birthdays in Korea in the classroom. Two teachers from a private university reported that they used Indian and Thai books available in the library to integrate information about other cultures into their teaching. As a teacher of the subject English for Tourism, Truc stressed the importance of using extra teaching materials in order to introduce as many cultures to her students as she could.

Despite the teachers' willingness to employ teaching materials to introduce various cultures into the classroom, the available teaching materials were very limited as indicated above. Due to time constraints and lack of such teaching materials, the participants found it hard to incorporate a diversity of cultures into their teaching. As a result, they expressed the need to include other cultures based on the main teaching topics in the lessons.

6.3.4. Integrating other cultures through teaching topics

Another sub-theme arising from the data is that 12 out of 19 participants in the individual interviews expressed interest in introducing different cultures to students based on relevant teaching topics. In the interviews, the role of the teacher as someone able to select and design topics in order for students to learn about and discuss various cultures was emphasized. Some examples of topics addressed holidays in Korea, Lunar New Year in South East Asia, and natural disasters in Asia. Dan provided a specific example in this sub-theme:

> I usually **introduce other cultures through topics**, especially in public speaking class and my students like it. The topics can be about Lunar New Year in South East Asia or ways of greetings in the world.

Suong, on the other hand, tended to focus on teaching various cultures through a comparison of daily activities. She said she helped her students to learn about other cultures "based on common daily life topics such as going to hospital". Additionally, two other teachers both working at a private university reported that they usually asked their students to use the internet to learn about other cultures, and then to present their information to their classmates. They claimed that not only the other students but also the teachers could learn about different cultures from these presentations.

A majority of participants held the view that it was impossible for teachers to include all cultures in their teaching. They, therefore, suggested focusing on introducing unique aspects of various national cultures through groupings, a method which is presented in the following sub-section.

6.3.5. Grouping culture(s) and selecting unique cultural features from these groups

When asked how they included a variety of cultures in their classrooms, two participants from group E expressed the difficulty they found in selecting relevant cultures to teach. Khanh suggested that teachers could group cultures based on geographical regions such as Asia and Europe. This idea was accepted by four other members, who stated that grouping cultures was a more practical means of including other cultures in the classroom.

This approach was also found in the instructional strategies of seven of the teachers who participated in the individual interviews. The main rationale for this approach is because it was impossible to have a thorough understanding of one particular culture. As a result, they introduced shared or contrasting cultural features from Asian, African and European countries to the students. A good example of this was heard in Sam's voice below:

> I teach cultures in general like **Asian cultures and European cultures**. For example, people from Asia are quite reserved and they do not show off. I usually ask my students to position themselves as global citizens in communicative activities.

These participants also reported that comparing other national cultures with Vietnamese culture was usually the next step in a culture learning lesson, and this strategy is the focus of section 6.3.6.

6.3.6. Comparisons of cultures, especially Vietnamese culture with others'

Comparing and contrasting different cultures with Vietnamese culture was found to be quite common with 11 participants' claiming to use this teaching technique. Teaching at an upper secondary school in a remote area, Khoa detailed his approach to the teaching of culture(s):

> When we teach, we should **compare and contrast cultures among countries**. In one unit, we give similarities and differences **between Singapore and Vietnam** and in another unit, American culture vs. Vietnamese culture. We should give knowledge of **Vietnamese culture and then the cultures of other countries**...all over the world.

His view was shared by another 10 teachers, who explained that this approach helped to deepen students' understanding of the cultural points in the lesson. The data indicated that teachers created opportunities for students to reflect on cultural behaviours in Vietnamese culture first and then relate these to other cultures. The importance of helping students to learn about their own culture was also expressed by Khoa, who said, "In teaching a foreign language, we need to teach our students to learn Vietnamese culture first. Then we encourage them to compare that with the target language". For instance, Binh asked his students to practise greetings as they were given in Vietnam and then relate them to the greetings of other cultures mentioned in textbooks. In the same way, Thuong pointed out that her students in the subject of translation needed to be aware of the differences between Vietnamese and European rhetorical styles such as the tendency for Vietnamese, Japanese and Chinese people to prefer indirect to direct styles of communication.

6.4. Discussion

This chapter aims to explore teacher reflections on the implications of the recent changes in English for their teaching of culture(s). As can be seen in the previous sections, all the participants needed the support of textbooks to teach about culture in the classroom. In Vietnam EFL settings, more than 80 per cent of textbooks are imported from both America and Britain and these textbooks, therefore, mainly focus on the Anglophone world. Indeed, content analysis of ELT textbooks shows that English is portrayed as used in a limited range of cultural artefacts in these textbooks (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999; Vettorel, 2010; as cited in Baker, 2015). As a result, when asked about which culture(s) to teach in the classroom, the participants answered automatically, "American and British cultures". This assumption is directly linked to their belief that the target cultures for their students were those that come from America and Britain. In fact, several participants expected their students to behave like NSs of English as indicated in Latulippe's (1999) suggestion that teachers should aim students towards English native-speakerism.

Numerous authors have already challenged this view, especially in the context of the globalisation of the English language. According to Power (2005, p. 42), equating American and British culture with the culture of the entire English speaking world does not make much sense when "New Englishes are mushrooming the globe over". Baker (2015) also argues that the extensive emphasis on Anglophone cultures such as American and British cultures in ELT is problematic and he calls for more presentations of images and materials from other settings in which English is used locally and regionally. For instance, Kirkpatrick (2011) suggests that learners of English in the ASEAN setting should explore the diversity of cultures of the member countries in this region, such as those of Indonesia, Malaysia and Thailand, in addition to American and British cultures. Indeed, Kirkpatrick (2012) emphasizes that the curriculum used

in this region should focus on the cultures of ASEAN itself. Vietnam, being a member of ASEAN, should, therefore, attempt to include aspects of other ASEAN cultures in ELT as well. The findings of this study, however, reveal the participants' sole preference for cultures from the U.K. and U.S.A. mainly due to their dependence on imported textbooks from these two countries.

Some unique findings emerged in relation to teaching culture(s) in the classroom. Despite their preference for Anglophone cultures, 36 per cent of the participants claimed that lessons about American and British cultures provided insufficient preparation for the intercultural communication their learners would engage in. They, therefore, expressed the need to integrate various cultures into teaching content, a necessary shift towards raising students' intercultural awareness that has been mentioned by a number of scholars (Baker, 2015; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Kirkpatrick, 2007, 2011; McKay, 2002; Matsuda, 2012; Sharifian, 2014). As can be seen in section 6.3, these participants found it important to equip their learners with some knowledge of a variety of cultures in order to prepare them for interacting with speakers from diverse cultural backgrounds. Three teachers even pointed out that not all teachers were aware of this important task because most were so used to teaching about American and British cultures. For these three teachers, their perceptions of the role of the teaching of culture(s) played a significant role in informing their teaching practices. Indeed, the findings display a number of teaching implications for these teachers in relation to introducing various cultures to their students in the classroom (see section 6.3 for more details).

The participants' reflections show that they have a position quite different from Baker's (2015) conclusion that even though teachers may be aware of the important role of cultural and intercultural competence, they do not highly prioritise this and seldom systematically integrate it into their teaching due to the constraints they face. By contrast as indicated above, 56 per

cent of the teachers in this study expressed their desire to integrate diverse cultures into their lessons. In addition, while Baker's (2015) study fails to mention which specific constraints that hindered teachers in teaching culture(s), this study can report that teachers find integrating a diversity of cultures into teaching quite challenging due to time constraints, requirements of teaching curriculum, and especially their heavy dependence on teaching materials that reflect mainly Anglophone cultures. The issues of teaching materials will be discussed in detail in the next chapter.

6.5. Chapter summary

This chapter has presented three emerging sub-themes concerning the participants' reflections on the implications of the current status of English for the teaching of culture(s). These sub-themes consist of (1) the participants' preference for teaching American and British cultures, (2) their stated need for the integration of a diversity of cultures in the classroom, and (3) their suggestions about various ways to introduce other cultures to students.

While discussing these ideas, all the informants acknowledged the important role played by the available ELT teaching materials in EFL Vietnam. As mentioned in the previous chapters, they used these teaching materials as the main guide for their selection of teaching models and cultures. The findings also reveal that two-thirds of the participants commented that some teaching materials were too academic and expressed the need to revise them to suit their students' language levels. To explore their perceptions of the teaching materials currently used in Vietnam, a number of sub-questions were raised during the interviews such as "What would relevant teaching materials contain?", "Are teachers satisfied with the required textbooks currently used?", and "What would teachers do if they had the authority to design or choose their own textbooks?' Their reflections on the topic of teaching materials will be presented in the next chapter.

FINDINGS: REFLECTIONS ON THE IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING MATERIALS

7.0. Introduction

This chapter addresses the third research question in this study, which asks: "what are the participants' reflections on the implications of the recent changes in English for the use of teaching materials?" In the ELT literature, teaching materials play such an important role that Brown (1995) considers them, together with needs analysis, goals and objectives, testing, teaching and evaluation, as one of the six elements of a language curriculum. According to Matsuda (2012, p. 168), teaching materials provide a source of input for learners and "play a vital role in the construction of students' perception of and beliefs about the target language". As indicated in Chapters Five and Six, teaching materials are widely regarded as the major guide for the teachers when selecting appropriate teaching models and cultures for the classroom. Consequently, all of the participants showed a significant degree of interest in reflecting on this theme. Their responses to this interview question can be divided into three sections. They began with expressing a preference for American and British publications including several teaching tips relating to the use of current textbooks, followed this by expressing a desire to incorporate various teaching materials into their teaching lessons. These results are presented in the following sections.

7.1. Teachers' preference for American and British publications

As discussed in section 6.1 in Chapter Six, ELT teaching materials in Vietnam are mostly imported from the U.K. and the U.S.A. The data shows that all the 52 participants were strong adherents of the view that teaching in academic settings should be based on American and British publications. This was especially apparent among the teachers employed at secondary schools and those preparing their students for EILTs and TOEFL tests at English language

centres. The following table presents a brief snapshot of the textbooks being used at these institutions.

Table 7.1. An overview of textbooks currently used by the teachers in this study

#	Institutions	Textbooks	Publishers	Instructional models reflected in textbooks	Teachers' authority in selecting main textbooks
1	Lower secondary schools	Tieng Anh (English) 6,7,8,9	Vietnamese Education Publisher	- AE from year 6-9 (main programme) - BE (year 6-8) and AE (year 9) (pilot programme)	No
2	Upper secondary schools	Tieng Anh (English) 10,11,12	Vietnamese Education Publisher	AE and BE	No
3	State colleges and universities	Selected books, teachers' own designed books E.g. Cutting Edge	Various publishers (mainly American and British publishers)	AE and BE	Yes (approved by the Head of the department)
4	Private universities	Selected books, teachers' own designed books E.g. Top Notch	Various publishers (mainly American and British publishers)	AE and BE	Yes (approved by the Head of the department)
5	English language centres	Selected books e.g. IELTs and TOEFL books Let's go English Unlimited	Various publishers (mainly American and British publishers)	AE and BE	No but teachers have discussions and suggestions of the textbooks.

Table 7.1 shows that the textbooks used in these institutions were mainly from American and British publishers such as Cambridge University Press, Oxford University Press and Pearson Longman, Routledge and Taylor and Francis. As explained by all the teachers from upper secondary schools in this study, even the content in the textbooks published by Vietnamese publishing houses focused for the most part on American and British norms. It is noted that the teachers who work at colleges and universities had the authority to recommend the teaching materials their faculties would use. They, nevertheless, also expressed a preference for well-known publishers from the U.K and the U.S.A. For example, Duyen (group E) said:

> Actually, the priorities for choosing textbooks from our faculty are mainly from **famous publishers such as Oxford and Cambridge**. They are all native.

This opinion was highly consistent with the reflections in the individual interview data. All the informants displayed a tendency to select materials produced by NSs of English from America and Britain. For instance, Thuong reported that her university did not opt for publications that reflect World Englishes because they thought Anglophone sources were the best. She added that the university only purchased other books, such as Korean books, if they were really good. In addition, nine out of 19 interviewees from a variety of workplaces expressed a disinclination about using books from Vietnamese publishers owing to the fact that they were not perceived to be 'authentic'.

As mentioned in section 2.3.4 in Chapter Two, traditional ELT teaching textbooks designed for classroom use mainly reflect American and British varieties, and these have been dominant in EFL Vietnam since the beginning of ELT. These publications, therefore, appeared to be the first and an automatic choice for all the participants in this study and two-thirds of them claimed that these textbooks offered "authentic" or "original" sources to their students. They further said that they would be willing to teach other varieties of English as long as they were officially documented in these publications. This result indicates their explicit attachment to American

and British sources which is likely to be due to their long-lasting dominance in Vietnamese ELT. As a result, even though the fact sheets provided some information about the recent changes in English worldwide, the participants still found it natural to opt for Inner Circle teaching materials. This finding supports Galloway and Rose's (2015) conclusion that a lack of materials contributes to teachers' reluctance to change their current teaching practices. Despite their preference for American and British publications, 48 out of 52 participants said that there were no ideal textbooks and they were actively engaged in discussing the teaching content of the course books used at present. This is the main focus of the next section.

7.2. Various ways of using existing textbooks

This section is divided into two parts. The aim of the first part is to address two key drawbacks that have been attributed to current textbooks: the out-dated nature of textbooks and irrelevant content in them. The second part focuses on teaching tips suggested by the participants to overcome those two drawbacks. It is noted that the term current textbooks here refers to teaching materials currently used by the teachers in this study as presented in table 7.1 above.

7.2.1. Drawbacks of current textbooks

This sub-theme was mostly discussed by the teachers who used the required textbooks mentioned in table 7.1. The voices of the participants who had more freedom to select teaching materials are reported in sub-section 7.2.2.

7.2.1.1. Out-dated content

The out-dated nature of in current textbooks was raised by teachers who used the required teaching materials designed for secondary school levels. All four teachers in group F showed concern over the course books. Tuan emphasized when they were produced:

> The textbooks used here are not very good because they **were written in 2006**…. Nowadays, **everything changes quickly. The textbooks are out-dated now**.

He gave a specific example of about reference to outdated technology in the course books and said that he had to use more modern products for the students. His opinion was echoed by 13 teachers, all of whom later engaged in discussions of the irrelevance of specific teaching topics in the textbooks.

7.2.1.2. Irrelevant teaching content

The data shows that the teachers classified irrelevant teaching content into two major categories: cultural and linguistic content.

With a frown on her face, Hang from group F said that while some teaching content might be good for students in big cities, it was not suitable for her students who lived in a remote area. She provided an example to prove her point:

> The book is **not designed suitably for our local students**. We have sections about tourism but I think it is so far away from reality in our place [sic].

A similar evaluation was also made by a group A participant who said she usually skipped over some parts of the course books in her lessons. In the individual interview data, Tran also reported that books imported from Europe had some content that was irrelevant for the learners at her English language centre. She gave the specific example of the topic of marriage which, in her opinion, was not a suitable one for younger, Vietnamese learners.

In terms of the linguistic content, four group B participants stated that several textbooks used at their English centres were not suitable for children. Long explained, "The textbook 'Family and Friends' is kind of difficult because it mainly focuses on complicated grammatical structures that are hard for six-year-old learners to study". For instance, he explained that teachers had difficulty in teaching the rules of simple present tense to child learners. However,

they reported that they were obliged to strictly follow these teaching materials as it was required by their institution.

In addition to the issues of out-of-date and irrelevant teaching content, Giang reflected that she did not like the current textbooks she was using owing to the differences between the teaching aims required by the department and teaching methods reflected in textbooks. She said, "We have to teach our students to pass final exams which focus on reading and grammar but we have to teach them how to use English, speaking and listening in the class every day". This result indicates the mismatch between teaching goals and pedagogy with which teachers were confronted in ELT, an issue discussed in detail in Chapter Eight.

7.2.2. Suggested teaching tips

In response to the above comments from the participants, the moderator asked them about the positive ways they had to deal with these issues. They responded that teachers needed to creatively adapt to the textbooks. According to them, it was important for teachers to select from them the teaching materials suitable for their students' levels and needs. They also presented a few criteria for selecting or designing teaching materials, on which they would base their courses. The following table provides a brief summary of how they employed their textbooks in their teaching.

Table 7.2. The participants' use of teaching materials

Adaptation	Creativity	Use of reference books	Use of non-native writers	Wish to design own textbooks

Number	33	21	7	6	4
%	63	40	13	11	8

7.2.2.1. Teachers' adaptation and creativity

Table 7.2 shows that more than 60 per cent of the participants said they used adaptive strategies and 40 per cent used creative strategies with the current textbooks to overcome the drawbacks presented above. According to these participants, adaptation referred to modification and simplification of teaching materials to match their students' needs and creativity means creating something new related to the main teaching content. Adaptation was revealed in the responses that stated they skipped some parts, replaced them with more relevant content, or added supplementary sources. The thrust of the following reflection is found consistently in the interview data:

> I sometimes **replace some parts** and it depends on my purpose for the class. For instance, if I want my students to learn some other cultures, I will look for other relevant sources from the internet and other textbooks. (Loan)

Expressing the view that there were no ideal teaching materials, nine participants proposed several creative strategies for teachers to respond to their students' levels and learning objectives. For instance, Ngoc (group F) suggested creating sections for free talks in the use of her current textbooks. She explained that students were encouraged to invent new English words based on their linguistic use of their mother tongue so that they could understand how English has become diversified worldwide. Meanwhile, Quynh (set Two) encouraged her students to carry out their own projects by combining various materials from the internet and the library. As a teacher of English for tourism, Truc (set Two) said that asking students to role play based on real situations was one of her favourite ways to combine the theory presented in textbooks and the practice needed for communication. All of these participants were

interested in discussing the importance of diversifying their lessons as long as the basic knowledge presented in textbooks was covered. This concern to cover 'basic knowledge' suggests that teachers were pressured by the knowledge that they had to ensure that they prepared their students to pass required exams as indicated in this chapter.

7.2.2.2. Teachers' criteria for selecting and designing teaching materials

At tertiary institutions in Vietnam, teachers of English usually have the authority to recommend to their superiors teaching materials for consideration and approval. Besides, some colleges and universities encourage teachers to design their own teaching courses and materials to suit their students' levels and needs. Asked about the criteria they used for selecting relevant textbooks and for designing their own teaching materials, the participants provided various responses:

Tam:	It is **good for teachers first, easy to teach**…and easy for students….
Cuong:	**Acceptable English, various writers**…from America, India, Kieu's story….even Vietnamese English.
Tai:	I prefer something **new, good and suitable** for students.
Suong:	Teaching materials should promote interaction between students and include reading and listening for homework for students to improve vocabulary at home.

As for the teaching materials designed by teachers at tertiary institutions, all the participants reported that they still needed to adapt these sources. For instance, all the teachers in group F said that faculty-designed books were not always 'perfect' and seemed to become out-of-date quickly. Four other participants who came from secondary schools and English language centres expressed their desire to design their own teaching materials. For example, Hang focused on writing tourism topics for current textbooks because her town is in an area in the North famous for its landscape. She expressed the importance of providing local students with general information of Lao Cai and interesting ways to attract tourists from all over the world.

In addition, Tran (set Two) commented that she wished to design her own teaching materials because the textbooks from Cambridge were quite 'mechanical' while Le (set Two) also indicated that she was interested in designing her own teaching materials by combining the strengths of various textbooks and materials. This finding, though small, suggests the felt need to use supplementary teaching materials to meet the learning objectives of ELT in EFL Vietnam.

7.3. The need to integrate additional teaching materials reflecting the diversity of English into teaching

Despite the teachers' attachment to American and British publications, their discussions about selecting relevant teaching models and cultures reveal their conviction that these publications cannot fully represent the ultimate in the cross-cultural knowledge students need. Eleven participants highlighted the need for the use of a variety of teaching materials in the classroom because "all textbooks are imported from America or Britain but not all students like to learn about these two countries" (Lien, set Two). Her observation was in agreement with those obtained from the remaining participants. Considering her students' needs in learning English, Truc (set Two) said:

> My students like to study what is **ground-breaking and up [to] date**. They do not care much when teachers **just use the content of the textbooks** to teach them. Yet if we use current or modern English, they are very interested in learning. It is important for teachers to update what to teach.

When asked how they would incorporate other teaching materials into their teaching, seven of them volunteered the idea of using supplementary materials including other varieties of English as teaching content. While Lan (group C) said that she used reference books that reflect WE to teach students, Tai (group D) often selected Asian or non-native writers of English for his teaching materials. It is noted that English versions of Vietnamese literature translated by Vietnamese writers were Cuong's (Group A) choice when integrating other teaching materials

into his lessons. The data indicates that he explicitly considered the English of these translations to be Vietnamese English. For instance, he reported that he used the English version of the poem 'Truyen Kieu' to introduce Vietnamese English to his students. He further said that he would select similar sources to supplement current teaching materials. His perspective was shared by several other teachers in this study as noted in Chapter Five.

This is one of the most striking results to emerge from the data that provided important insight into teachers' use of a diversity of teaching materials, which is a pedagogical approach that EIL scholars (Matsuda, 2006, 2012; McKay, 2002) suggest in the context of ELT today. Indeed, this indicates the teachers' awareness of the inadequacy of their existing textbooks when it comes to fully reflecting the existence of the multiple legitimate varieties of English and diverse cultures required for intercultural communication. This awareness can act as a starting point for a change in mindsets or attitudes towards more EIL friendly teaching practices and ensure that they come to meet the needs of students today. However, due to the small sample size, caution must be applied about the generalisability of the findings, as it might not be accurate to extrapolate them to all teachers in ELT in EFL Vietnam.

7.4. Discussion

The participants' reflections on the possible implications of the recent changes in the English language for teaching materials in Vietnamese ELT have been covered in Chapter Seven. The emerging themes arising from this study include (1) the participants' preference for American and British publications; (2) their opinions upon several issues relating to the use of current textbooks and (3) their desire to integrate various teaching materials to better fulfil their students' needs.

The data from both focus groups and individual interviews display the teachers' preference of American and British publications which can be attributed to their popularity in Vietnam. As

noted in section 2.3.4, traditional teaching materials generally offer a picture of life in America and Britain. Indeed, Kirkpatrick and Sussex (2012b) observe that native speaker English is dominant in current teaching materials, especially in textbooks. As Alptekin (1993, p. 138) contends,

> Most textbooks writers are native speakers, who consciously or unconsciously transmit the views, values, beliefs, attitudes, and feelings of their own English-speaking society - usually the United States or United Kingdom. As such, when learners require a new set of English discourse as part of their evolving systemic knowledge, they partake of the cultural system which the set entails.

It is not surprising to find that many teachers interviewed said they wished to encourage their students to behave like American or British people. Apparently, this is considered beneficial for learners who are interested in studying in the UK or USA in the future. An example of this group was students at an English language centre in this study who were learning IELTs and TOEFL. According to a minority of the participants in this study, not all students, however, aimed at communicating with American or British people. For instance, Truc (set Two) said that her students learned English to interact more with Russians than with Americans in her hometown. Textbooks based on American and British norms, therefore, "fail to acknowledge the increased use of English among non-native speakers of English" (Matsuda, 2012, p. 171), possibly leading learners to experience bewilderment and resistance when they are exposed to other English varieties.

One encouraging finding from this study is that one-third of the participants stated the need to integrate a variety of teaching materials into the classroom because, as mentioned in section 7.3, not all students were interested in learning more about America and Britain. Considering the needs of students is instrumental in determining the relevant instructional models for teaching practices (Matsuda, 2012). This point may be reflected in the suggestions for selecting reading materials representing the diversity of English to prepare learners for successful

intercultural communication, a point which echoes Matsuda's (2012b, p. 169) observation that few teachers,

> have a rich enough knowledge of and personal experience with all of the varieties and functions of English that exist today, and, thus, they need to rely on teaching materials in order to introduce students to the linguistic and cultural diversity of English.

7.5. Chapter summary

This chapter has provided a detailed presentation of the participants' reflections about the implications of the changing status of English for their choice of teaching materials in the classroom. All the interviewees stated that they needed to use American and British publications due to their popularity in Vietnam. Imported teaching materials came mainly from American and British publishers such as Cambridge University Press, Oxford University Press and Pearson Longman. During the interviews, the participants had an opportunity to reflect on the teaching content in the textbooks and presented a number of the drawbacks with which they were confronted. They noted that they often needed to use additional sources, and were also required to spend an enormous amount of time designing their own teaching materials. Most of the participants stressed the importance of using supplementary materials that included other varieties of English. Non-native writers of English, particularly those from Asia, were selected for this purpose by eleven participants. They further commented that while teaching materials played a vital role in determining which teaching models teachers should follow when teaching the English language, there was agreement that there were no 'perfect' teaching materials at present. Reflecting on this lack of 'perfect' teaching materials, they discussed a number of the teaching challenges and constraints facing them. This is the main focus of the next chapter.

FINDINGS: TEACHING CONSTRAINTS AND CHALLENGES OF TEIL

8.0. Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to detail participants' responses to the fourth interview question, regarding the teaching constraints and challenges encountered when implementing the teaching of culture(s) and choosing teaching materials, given the current changing status of English. These instructional implications were extensively presented and discussed in Chapters Five, Six and Seven. Since nearly half of the teachers' responses on the current status of English for their teaching practices relate to the incorporation of diverse English varieties into their lessons, it is important to examine what challenges and constraints operate to curtail the use of diverse English varieties. The findings from this interview data, therefore, should provide some pedagogical insights for the revision of English curricula used in ELT in Vietnam and in similar contexts.

Ton and Pham's (2010) study, discussed in Chapter Two, found three main issues that face teachers trying to teach about the diversity of English: time constraints, a shortage of materials that reflect different varieties of English and a lack of tests based on NNS models. This study, however, has found five more major challenges that confront teachers in Vietnam attempting to teach EIL. The findings show that all the participants had quite similar responses and they are summarized in Chart 8.1 below.

Chart 8.1: Teachers' perceived teaching challenges and constraints in TEIL

Teachers' limited capacity for teaching current English

The exam-orientated educational system

The adoption of CEFR for assessing language competency

Lack of teaching materials representing the recent changes in English

Students' low proficiency in English

Time constraints

Scarcity of supportive environments for English language practise

Insufficient financial support for teaching activities

8.1. Teachers' limited capacity in teaching EIL

Two-thirds of the participants stated that teaching about today's English was more challenging than it used to be. This is mainly due to teachers' lack of awareness of the increasing role of different varieties of English in intercultural communication as discussed in Chapter Two. Twenty-six teachers reported that they had no knowledge of, or experience in teaching about the diversity of English. In addition, 11 participants expressed that they had difficulties in updating themselves with knowledge about different varieties of English. Possible explanation

for this includes that teachers have not learned about other varieties of English formally, at school, and that these varieties are not widely reflected in teaching materials. These results suggest the need to update instructional materials, with this information, a point to be discussed in depth in section 8.3. In fact, eight teachers commented that the changing status of English made them feel that their teaching ability was really limited. For instance, Hoa explained:

> The **diversity of English poses challenges** for teachers as it is impossible to know all the varieties to teach. We feel that we lose face when our students seem to know more than we do.

This finding is consistent with Matsuda's (2012) observation that teachers find it hard to change their current teaching practices despite their awareness of the fact that these practices are not sufficient to prepare learners for intercultural communication. This is because they have not had any training in how to teach EIL and this, "leaves many teachers with no choice but to continue doing what they have been doing, only now feeling less confident about what they deliver to their students" (Matsuda, 2012, p. 6).

Furthermore, several interviewees admitted that they had not known about the topic of EIL until they read the fact sheets. Tran explained, "I have not had a chance to travel to other countries. I did not know there is Chinese English until now". She further stated that Chinese English existed only in China and that she would accept this variety only when it was presented in American and British publications. On the other hand, Suong reported that she was not aware that diverse varieties of English were used under the umbrella of an international language despite her interest in helping her students to learn about Asian cultures. She did reveal that she considered teachers' awareness of EIL as an important aspect in teaching students by her statement, "Probably in the future, when I understand EIL, international features and changes, I need awareness of those to teach my students. We can talk to students about that". Her reflection accords with Nelson's (2012, p. 95) view about teaching WE, "Teachers teach their own Englishes and elements of others that they make themselves aware of".

The participants' discussions about teachers' lack of awareness of EIL make plain the need for the continuous professional development of teachers on this topic, especially for those who come from remote regions in Vietnam. When asked how to overcome this challenge, they said that the government should train English teachers by providing them with opportunities to visit foreign countries to experience the diversity of English, as is shown in the following excerpt:

> **Teachers do not know what is going on in the world**. We have **never been abroad** even we are teachers. We do not have chances to talk to other speakers of English. Second**, teachers are lazy to update themselves with English**. I have to learn Korean English, Japanese English…now teachers are very busy…they do not put effort into learning those. (Duyen, group F)

They further said that it would also be necessary for teachers to learn about the diversity of English from the media and the internet because not all the teachers could be given the luxury of traveling abroad. Having had the advantage of experiencing other varieties of English in England, one participant from group F suggested organizing group meetings, presentations, workshops and seminars to share teaching experiences among colleagues. She thought that teaching model-exchange programmes should be run at her school for the professional development of teachers. In addition, one interviewee in set Two said that teachers in small cities did not have many opportunities to advance themselves academically. She explained that big cities have centres to provide information for teachers who wish to search for scholarships to study in foreign countries and suggested that there should be a similar centre in her area.

It is not possible that shifting from a traditional method of teaching English, focusing on the NS model, to teaching EIL would be a smooth transition, especially in the context in which students are assessed by an exam-orientated education system mainly based on American and British norms. A discussion of this challenge is the focus of the next section.

8.2. The exam-orientated educational system

All the public school participants reported that while they aimed to encourage students to communicate in English, this was not a focus of the current written tests and exams. They expressed frustration at the fact that the main intended outcome of teaching English was to prepare students to pass exams rather than to be able communicate in English. An example of this is given in Khoa's point below:

> We teach students to talk, listen…but in exams, they have to do **written exams**… So our students' purpose is to make sure they **can pass exams** and go to university.

His opinion was echoed by a majority of participants, who expressed the position that this exam-orientated system was a hindrance to students becoming successful communicators in English. While Truc blamed the fact that her students had to cram for exams, Tuan claimed that his students did not like studying English due to the formats of the tests and exams. Both wanted to free students from some of the pressure associated with this. Addressing the mismatch between teaching aims and language assessment, Thi and Khoa suggested that the Vietnamese Ministry of Education should change the exam formats so that teachers could change their teaching accordingly.

The exam-targeted educational system has a negative impact even on teachers who are required to take B1 and B2 tests (levels of the CEFR) according to the National Language Project 2020 as mentioned in Chapter Two. As someone who trained teachers for such tests, Tin sadly stated: "Teachers expect students to become successful learners of English while students just want the diplomas or certificates. Students want teachers to teach them what is easy to study to pass exams". As a result, participants pointed out that most graduating students had difficulty with English communication, a point which is in accord with Nguyen's (2007) and Trinh's (2015, as cited in Vietnamnet, 2015) findings that even students who excel in exams may fail to use English effectively in real-life situations, and instead ending up embarrassed, confused and

lacking communicative confidence. According to a more recent survey stated in Vietnam News (Bao tin tuc, 2016), for instance, more than half the graduates did not meet the requirements for English language skills, especially listening and speaking in English. As indicated in Chapters Two and Seven, examinations were inclusively based on the American and British norms as predominately found in imported textbooks. Hence, teachers were obligated to teach mainly Anglophone varieties so that their students could pass exams as required. For instance, Tran said that her students did not feel the need to study other varieties of English because they only learned to pass exams and those exams mainly required knowledge of American and British varieties. This situation possibly explains why teachers were reluctant to introduce different varieties of English to students in the classroom. All the participants, however, said that they would be willing to teach about the diversity of English if textbooks reflected this, a point which leads to the third theme which relates to teaching materials. Participants continued to share the view that limited teaching materials are an obstacle to carry out the pedagogical changes they suggested in the Findings Chapters (Five to Seven).

8.3. Lack of teaching materials representing the recent changes in English

One of the main principles for EIL materials development suggested by McKay (2012) is that teaching materials should include examples of different English varieties used today. The findings of this present study show that the lack of such materials acts as another barrier preventing teachers from teaching EIL effectively. All the interviewees said that they had to adhere to American and British publications because of their dominance in Vietnam. As a teacher at an English language centre, for instance, Thien said: "I use textbooks from Cambridge and Oxford. They do not include varieties of English". A secondary school teacher explained that even textbooks published by the Vietnamese publishing houses focused on

American and British norms for the most part (see Chapter Seven for details). Matsuda (2012, p. 169) argues that teachers need teaching materials "to introduce students to the linguistic and cultural diversity of English". Lack of teaching materials, especially those reflecting the diversity of English, however, contributes to the difficulties teachers face in integrating EIL into their lessons. This is compatible with Maley's (2009) statement that teachers can only teach what they are able to teach. Indeed, it is impractical for teachers to teach different varieties of English for which teaching materials are not yet available. This becomes a more challenging issue when teachers lack the authority to select relevant teaching materials as reflected below:

> Though I would like to teach my students to communicate internationally, I have **no authority to select materials** to allow them to improve their English proficiency. That's why the understanding of the students is based on the two cultures of the two countries such as America and Britain. (Suong)

It can be seen from the data that the participants were facing two problems in relation to teaching materials. The first one was the lack of a diversity of teaching materials for them to use in teaching English. The second one was that they lacked the authority to select relevant teaching materials for their English lessons (refer to table 7.1 in Chapter Seven for further details). Due to the scarcity of these teaching materials, teachers found themselves insufficiently aware of the recent changes in English to teach students in a timely manner. This finding has important implications for the ELT publishing industry. It needs to develop teaching materials that reflect the diversity of English to bridge the theory/practice divide discussed in the literature. In addition, it is important for ELT in Vietnam to use a variety of publications that capture the reality of EIL.

As one of the main roles of textbooks is to provide language and culture input for students, the interviewees said students mainly learnt English from these sources. They did not have

opportunities to practise the language outside the classroom. A discussion of this problem is presented in the next section.

8.4. Scarcity of supportive environments for English language practice

Another constraint facing teachers is the lack of opportunities for students to use the target language for communication, especially outside the classroom. Because of this, most students spoke "like a book" and lacked the motivation to learn English. For instance, Cuong stated:

> My students don't have **environment to practise English**. They just **learn English in classrooms**. They don't have chances to expose themselves [sic]. They are quite bookish…

In the same vein, one-third of the individual interview participants indicated that their students also did not have many opportunities to interact in English with different speakers worldwide. Even though Quynh tried to create practical situations for her students to use English, she said that they preferred real contexts and tended to forget what they had learned in the classroom. Three other teachers stressed the limited time for learner practice in the classroom. They all said that students received a lot of input during lessons but did not have enough time for practice/production in the classroom. Moreover, the fact that there were normally 35 to 40 students in a language class is an obstacle to sufficient opportunities to practise the target language for communication.

Seeing the disadvantages of the limited English-speaking environments with which students were confronted, Thi expressed her concern about students' use of Vietnamese rather than English during the time they were supposed to be practising English in the classroom. She said, "When they are asked to speak English in groups, I walk around and notice they shift to Vietnamese quite often". Similarly, Tuan stated that his students preferred to speak Vietnamese in class since being able to speak English was not important for them.

In addition, seven individual interviewees stated that a shortage of teaching facilities also contributed to the lack of a supportive English practice environment for learners. Teaching facilities were considered inadequate, especially for teachers who felt the need to use new teaching techniques or to update themselves on recent developments in English. For instance, Thuong said she was interested in introducing diverse English varieties to students in listening periods but found it difficult to do so owing to the low quality of the language laboratories.

These abovementioned points are consistent with Pham's (2005) observations that Vietnamese learners do not have many opportunities to use English outside the classroom, especially in remote areas (see Chapter Two). To address this challenge, several teachers suggested creating more teaching activities for students (see Chapter Five for more details) but worried if their suggestions would be hard to implement due to a lack of funding, a point discussed in the next section.

8.5. Insufficient financial support for teaching activities

Lack of funding is an issue mentioned by 16 participants. When discussing how to teach different varieties of English to students, Quynh suggested organizing outdoor activities for students in areas where there were foreign visitors so that students could be exposed to different kinds of English and culture(s). She said, however, that it was not easy to do because the institution where she worked could not finance these activities. The situation was the same for Truc, who was substantially trying to integrate other varieties of English into her lessons by regularly inviting speakers of English from Outer and Expanding Circles to talk to her students. She commented that creating this supportive environment was really challenging mainly due to the lack of funding. She further addressed the difficulty, not only of finding qualified speakers of English from other countries, but also of providing them with sufficient pay for their work/contribution.

Meanwhile, Thuong expressed her concern about the low salaries paid to teachers at government universities. She stated, "Low salary does not equate to teachers' effort and labour. Teachers have to work part time jobs in other sectors". She then continued to state that low salaries had a negative impact on teachers' lives and considered this as one of the main reasons that research in ELT in Vietnam was still of low quality. Money issues were also the main reason one teacher left a public university to work for an English language centre. He further said that teachers found it hard to become totally devoted to their teaching when they did not receive reasonable financial support from their workplaces.

This sub-theme suggests the need for better remuneration for teachers attempting to create better learning experiences for learners inside and outside the classroom. As addressed in Chapter Six, teacher creativity motivates learners to learn English and this, therefore, should be encouraged in ELT in Vietnam.

8.6. Time constraints

For over two-thirds of the participants, time was a big issue constraining the integration of the diversity of English into their lessons. Despite having a number of teaching ideas for teaching other Englishes, a teacher from group E sadly concluded:

> Teaching reading can integrate some other cultures…sometimes we can use films or pictures…to let our students to be exposed to that. However, **in reality, I cannot teach that much**. With two hours, I have so many things to do.

Due to the lack of EIL teaching materials discussed in section 8.3, teachers who wished to integrate the diversity of English into their teaching must design their own lesson plans to do so. For 17 participants, however, this task significantly consumed time and money. Tu addressed the issue of time constraints in carrying out an effective lesson plan as follows:

> We may teach Malaysian English or Singaporean English but by doing that, I **have to spend three or four hours** surfing the web, books…to support students with information...[sic]

In the same vein, Long said that a lesson had seven teaching parts which he found he could not finish within 1.45 hours. As a result, the lessons were usually "burned" (meaning "cannot be finished on time" in Vietnamese English) and teachers had to consider which sections needed to be included in the time available. A demanding curriculum and a tight syllabus were key factors contributing to the time constraints according to 14 of the teachers who participated in individual interviews. They said teachers had to teach large amount of knowledge to students. As a result, they favoured their current teaching methods and expressed concern that integrating the diversity of English would mean they lacked the time to cover the assigned syllabus.

These responses echo Ton and Pham's (2010) conclusion that Vietnamese ELT teachers face time constraints, which prevents them from incorporating the diversity of English into their lessons despite their wish to do so. This finding suggests the need to revisit the existing curricula, especially revising the distribution of teaching content in allocated periods, to allow teachers to include different English varieties in their teaching.

8.7. Students' low proficiency in English

Of the 52 participants responding to this theme, 21 reported that the students' low English proficiency made their teaching task significantly more challenging, especially in terms of teaching EIL. As discussed in section 8.2, although they were good at grammar and linguistics such as syntax and morphology, students mainly studied to pass exams rather than to gain skills in intercultural communication (Nguyen, 2007). This study repeats this finding that not only students in the countryside but also those in the city were evaluated as having low levels of English.

From the 21 participants, seven secondary school and three private institution teachers said that their students had little background in English. Teaching at a public university, Truc commented:

> In general, students' backgrounds are very limited. Teachers have to face lots of challenges in transferring knowledge to them.

Her opinion was reflected by other teachers. Tin mentioned students' levels as one of the most challenging factors affecting his teaching goals and Kiet said that even experienced teachers had difficulty in teaching English, especially listening. He further explained that his students could not answer questions despite having a printed guide and help from teachers mainly because of their low English levels. Sam and Tu saw these low levels as a demotivating factor in learning English. This is one of the main reasons some of the participants preferred to use Vietnamese to teach English. They said Vietnamese helped convey complex concepts which could not be communicated in English due to the students' limited English proficiency.

The findings show that students' poor levels in English were seen as an obstacle by participants when considering incorporating different varieties of English into their teaching. As discussed in Chapter Five, introducing the diversity of English to students with low English levels might be overwhelming and prevented them from learning 'good' English models. For these participants, 'good' English models referred to American or British English. They further argued that diverse English varieties should only be introduced to students whose English levels were advanced (see Chapter Five for more details). This argument highlights teacher reluctance as to when to integrate the diversity of English into the classroom in the context of having students with low levels of English. This finding indicates that it is important for teachers to be provided with specific instructions of how/when to introduce the diversity of English in such contexts, a point to be discussed in Chapter Nine.

8.8. The adoption of CEFR for assessing language competency

In 2008, the Vietnamese Ministry of Education embarked on the National Foreign Language 2020 project to increase foreign language proficiency as indicated in Chapter Two. In this project, CEFR was selected and adopted by Ministry of Education and Training of Vietnam (MOET) as a guide for measuring and assessing language proficiency (Hung, 2013). With the adoption of CEFR, teachers of English are required to take assessment tests employing the 6-level (from A1 to C2) which describes language learners' ability in relation to speaking, reading, writing and listening, namely IELTS and TOEFL tests. It is noted that IELTS and TOEFL tests are mainly based on American and British norms. Primary and lower secondary teachers are required to achieve B2 while teachers at upper secondary and higher must obtain C1 (see Chapter Two for details).

The findings show that all the interviewees in group C significantly questioned the suitability of using CEFR as the standard for assessing the quality of English proficiency in the context of Vietnam. While Huong elaborated on the fact that this exam consumed both energy and time since teachers were so busy preparing for it, they could not really focus on teaching, Nga said:

> We do not know if assessment tests such as IELTS or TOEFL are really standard since teachers do not use much from those tests to teach students in reality.

Similarly, two participants from group E said that TOEFL and IELTs tests were good for academic purposes but not effective for real life purposes. An individual interviewee said that IELTS and TOEFL focused more on quantity rather than on quality. He observed, "Teachers just wanted to pass these exams to get the certificates for their jobs".

This finding is in line with Galloway and Rose's (2015, p. 217) statement that "proficiency scales and language tests use native English and native-like proficiency as yardsticks for assessing non-native English, despite its irrelevance for many test-takers". This, therefore, has

important implications for the critical reappraisal of language assessment, suggested by Hu (2012), who asserts the importance of exposing test takers to multiple native and non-native varieties of English, to the construct of EIL, and proposes tests that call for intercultural strategic competence.

8.9. Discussion

Chapter Eight has presented a number of important findings pertaining to the perceived challenges and constraints confronting teachers considering integrating EIL into their teaching lessons. As can be seen in Chapter Five, the necessity of incorporating the diversity of English into teaching was extensively discussed by nearly half of the participants. One of their suggestions of how to integrate EIL into lessons necessitated awareness and certain knowledge of recent changes in the English language. This study has reflected that the most frequently discussed challenge was the diversity of English itself. Most teachers argued that it was not possible for them to know several varieties of English, let alone all the different varieties. Confronted with the pressures of helping students to pass exams mainly based on American and British English, they said they would find it particularly hard to keep up to date with the changes in the use of English.

Furthermore, the lack of teaching materials that reflect the diversity of English prevented these teachers from developing the relevant awareness of current English use. As discussed in Chapter Seven, teachers used textbooks as their guides to English teaching methodology. This finding is in accord with Rubdy's (2003) proposal for textbooks to act as agents of change, encouraging teachers to revise their traditional practices. That the current course books are mainly imported from America and Britain, however, limits the teachers' ability to keep themselves up to date with the recent changes within English. There is a need for teaching materials that promote varieties of English used outside the inner circle to be employed in ELT

in Vietnam. Recently, the Vietnamese minister of Education has stated that Vietnam will not spend time and money on compiling English textbooks, but will use teaching materials from foreign countries instead (Vietnamnet, 2016). In particular, general schools will use foreign textbooks localised to fit Vietnamese conditions while junior colleges and universities will use foreign school materials (Vietnamnet, 2016). Hence, it is significant to include teaching materials from as many Outer Circle and Expanding Circle countries as possible, in addition to the use of sources from Inner Circle countries.

According to the participants in this study, time constraints and insufficient financial support for teaching activities limited the possibility of teaching EIL. Even though a number of participants were interested in organizing field trips and inviting NNSs of English to create more English-speaking environments for students, lack of time and money presented a problem. As a result, most of the participants tended to use teaching materials to provide input for language learners instead, leading to the need to sample a variety of teaching materials discussed above.

Furthermore, all the participants in this study expressed the need to develop their own language skills and knowledge of the changing status of English so that they could feel confident in teaching their students. Even though the Vietnamese Ministry of Education has made efforts to send teachers abroad, this has been a very limited opportunity, and is out of reach for the majority of teachers from remote areas.

In addition to these above challenges and constraints, the informants elaborated on their struggle to teach English more effectively, to increase student motivation and especially to encourage students to learn English for communication purposes rather than for exams. The data shows that some participants were still trying to achieve native-like competence and considered lack of native speaker competence as a challenge for teaching English. For example,

one teacher who teaches pronunciation expressed her frustration about not being able to pronounce certain sounds in English correctly. Some of the participants' responses suggest that the changes undergone by English did not relieve them of trying to strictly conform to NS English in their teaching.

The findings in this section have important implications for updating current teaching practice in response to the changes in the use of English. As Matsuda (2012) argues discussing EIL is very challenging for teachers. On one hand, they are aware that their current teaching is inadequate to helping learners become successful communicators with speakers from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. On the other hand, they find it hard to update their current teaching practices due to the lack of a set of teaching ideas in light of the changes in English (Matsuda, 2012). Indeed, the abovementioned challenges and constraints impeded teacher participants' willingness and ability to implement the necessary changes required by the EIL paradigm. TEIL was even more challenging since teachers were largely deprived of the opportunity in the service training and professional development that could inform them of the changes in ELT. As a result, there was a constant 'inner battle' about the use of current teaching practices and what teachers saw as a need to introduce new skills and awareness to students in the classroom. These points are discussed in depth in Chapter Nine.

8.10. Chapter summary

Chapter Eight has addressed eight major challenges and constraints which prevented participants from implementing EIL in the classroom, ranging from personal, school-related to socio-cultural levels. The findings reveal teachers' views on this theme, ranging from the teachers' own teaching abilities to students' levels of English, from language assessment to teaching facilities as well as various external factors that contributed to the paradigm shift struggles in ELT in Vietnam. Although nearly 50 per cent of the participants were aware of the

importance of helping learners to communicate with users of diverse Englishes worldwide, the existing barriers meant placing the NS and NNS model on an equal footing was not an easy task.

These challenges and constraints are important considerations for ELT scholars, materials developers, syllabus designers and administrative staff. Awareness of them should encourage the revisiting of existing curricula as well as teacher and student training programmes if the needs of learners in the context of globalisation are to be met. As Matsuda and Friedrich (2012, p. 25) note, the paradigm shift to EIL cannot simply take place by

> …adding a new lesson or component on EIL to an existing programme. What is needed is a complete revision of the entire programme, using one's understanding of the use of English in international contexts as a foundation that influences every single aspect of the curriculum. It entails a major overhaul, but a much-needed one.

The pedagogical implications of the challenges and constraints discussed here will be explored in the next chapter.

CONCLUSION: SUMMARY DISCUSSION, PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.0. Introduction

Chapter Nine is divided into four sections. The first section provides a comprehensive summarising discussion on the major themes that have emerged from the data in response to the four main research questions stated in Chapter One. These themes were systemically presented and discussed in the Findings Chapters from Chapters Four to Eight. The discussions of the findings in this study were primarily built upon the relevant literature and previous research findings pertaining to EIL/WE that were comprehensively addressed in Chapter Two. Overall, the emerging themes pertaining to the participants' reflections on possible pedagogical implications of the changing status of English in terms of the most appropriate teaching models for English, the teaching of culture(s), and teaching materials for ELT in EFL Vietnam were very diverse. Based on these themes, the second section of this chapter, addressing the last research question, is devoted to the presentation of pedagogical directions for English language teaching and learning in Vietnam as well as in similar Expanding Circle teaching contexts. The implications involve the importance of inspiring a change in teachers' mindsets and attitudes towards the global spread of English in part by including EIL in teacher education. The next section outlines the limitations of the study whilst the last focuses on a number of recommendations for future work. More research that focuses on the pedagogy of EIL should be conducted in the context of EFL Vietnam in response to the implications that the changing status of English may have for English language teaching practices.

9.1. Summary discussion of the findings

The purpose of this section is to present a summary discussion of all the themes that have arisen from the findings in relation to the implications of EIL for teaching English in Vietnam.

Consistent with Jenkins' (2012) view that "we do not believe it is our place to tell teachers what to do, but that is for ELT practitioners to decide whether/to what extent EIL/WE/ELF is relevant to their learners in their context" (p. 492, EIL/WE is added), the study explored teachers' perspectives on the changing status of English globally and investigated how their opinions on this issue might have an actual bearing on their own teaching context. The participants had an opportunity to reflect on the implications of the current status of English for teaching and to re-evaluate their beliefs about long-established practices. Important findings of the study are summarized in the following table.

Table 9.1 A summary of key findings emerging from the research questions

Teachers' reflections on the changing status of English for teaching implications	
RQ1 **Reflections on the implications of the diversity of English for teaching models**	➢ All the participants preferred to teach 'standard' English. ➢ 21 out of 52 participants reported that teaching only American and British English was not sufficient for students to develop intercultural communication skills. ➢ Two-thirds of the teachers stated that they would teach different varieties of English whenever they could. Among them, 21 teachers had already included several English varieties in their classrooms. ➢ 12 teachers suggested teaching about the diversity of English to students who had already achieved a certain level of English.
RQ2 **Reflections on the implications of the diversity of English for the teaching of culture(s)**	➢ All the teachers showed a preference for American and British cultures. ➢ 19 out of 52 participants expressed the need to introduce other cultures to students to equip them for intercultural communication. ➢ More than half of the teachers suggested teaching a variety of cultures in a number of ways such as by drawing on teachers' knowledge and experience in foreign countries, using teaching materials that reflect the diversity of cultures and comparisons of cultures.
RQ3 **Reflections on the implications of**	➢ All the teachers supported the use of American and British publications. ➢ 48 out of 52 participants claimed that there were no ideal textbooks and discussed several issues with the current textbooks such as outdated and irrelevant teaching content.

the diversity of English for teaching materials	➢ 11 out of 52 teachers suggested integrating additional teaching materials reflecting the diversity of English into teaching.
RQ4 **Teaching constraints and challenges of TEIL**	➢ Two-thirds of the teachers reported that they found it challenging to teach about the diversity of English due to their limited understanding of EIL/WE. ➢ Two-thirds of the participants viewed the exam-orientated educational system, mainly based on American and British norms, as a hindrance in helping students to learn different varieties of English. ➢ Half of the participants saw the lack of teaching materials representing the recent changes in English as another barrier for teaching EIL effectively. ➢ One-third of the teachers said that students lacked supportive environments for English language practice. ➢ 16 out of 52 participants revealed that they were not adequately recompensed financially for the extra work needed to produce teaching activities pertinent to an EIL/WE perspective. ➢ Two-thirds of the participants predicted they would have difficulty teaching other varieties of English due to time constraints. ➢ For 21 teachers, the low proficiency of their students' English was seen as another drawback in teaching about the diversity of English. ➢ One-third of the teachers considered the adoption of the 6-level testing system designed by the CEFR for language as the standard for assessing the quality of English learning as irrelevant in the context of Vietnam.

Table 9.1 presents a number of important findings for understanding teachers' perspectives on the global function of the English language and on its instructional implications for ELT in EFL Vietnam. Overall, American and British English were preferred and considered 'standard' English by all the teacher participants in this study. As a result, over two-thirds of the teachers had the aim of their students achieving NS competence (see Chapter Five). In addition, the cultures of and teaching materials from Inner-Circle countries were the main ones selected to teach learners of English (see Chapters Six and Seven). This study re-affirms teachers' long-lasting attachment to native-speakerism that has been mentioned in a number of previous studies (Ahn, 2014; Ali, 2015; Ton & Pham, 2010; Saraceni, 2015).

During the interviews, however, the participants reflected in diverse ways on their perceptions of the ownership of the English language. On the one hand, all of them supported the view that English was the language of NSs such as American and British people. One-third of these teachers, on the other hand, expressed a belief that English was no longer the exclusive property of NSs or of specific countries. A number of examples elicited from the participants show an understanding that speakers used English in their own ways, leading to the emergence of multiple varieties of English (see Chapter Four for more details).

The above analysis indicates a conflict in the participants' perceptions about the ownership of English. Apparently, their belief that English belonged to NSs had been with them for such a long time that it was taken for granted. It was not possible for them, however, to ignore the fact that English had significantly developed beyond those fixed boundaries. Whilst mentioning other varieties of English, such as Thai English and Singaporean English, used for communication that several participants had exposed to, they somehow acknowledged the changes that had been occurring within English even though some others refused to accept that fact. This conflict has important implications for the participants' attitudes towards today's English. It is important that both teachers and students develop open and positive attitudes towards the diversity of English in order to communicate successfully with people from diverse backgrounds. This implication will be further discussed in section 9.2.3.

The study shows that two-thirds of the informants preferred American English because of its popularity and power in the global economy and the media. The remaining portion opted for 'royal' English, which referred to British English. It is noted that the participants' preference for a specific variety of English also depended on the traditions of the institutions where they worked. An example of this is that seven teachers in group F said that their university strongly favoured British English and encouraged teachers to study in countries such as Australia, New

Zealand and the U.K that use this variety. They further explained that most teachers at their workplace considered British English as the only standard variety. As a result, noticeably negative attitudes towards different varieties of English, especially Asian Englishes, were found in this study. This finding is consistent with previous studies (Ahn, 2014; Ton & Pham, 2010; Duong, 2012).

These results offer an understanding of how the teachers in this study generally considered American and British English as well as their associated cultures as their major teaching models and cultural content (see Chapters Four - Seven). In addition, the study reveals a number of challenges and constraints facing teachers in teaching current English (see Chapter Eight). One of the biggest challenges was for them to keep up to date with the current sociolinguistic landscape of English so that their teaching practices could be based on this understanding.

Taken together, the findings in this research point to the need for a thorough new perspective on what it means to teach English today. This is becoming more important since the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Planning has set a goal of teaching English as a second language at universities across Vietnam starting from 2016. This new perspective does not entail replacing all the current ELT practices but calls for the reconsideration of these practices to ensure that they meet the learning needs of students in relation to the recent changes in English (Galloway & Rose, 2015). As Kumaravadivelu (2012, p.15) contends,

> The native speaker episteme has not loosened its grip over theoretical principles, classroom practices, the publication industry or the job market. What is surely and solely needed is a meaningful break from this epistemic dependency, if we are serious about sanitizing our discipline from its corrosive effect and sensitizing the filed to the demands and its impact on identity formation. How and where do we start?

The notion of an epistemic break refers here to "a shift in materials designs, views on ownership, cultures, norms and role models, as well as a change in those who teach English" (Galloway &

Rose, 2015, p. 209). It is, therefore, important to examine a number of practical implications of the epistemic for TEIL practice based on the findings of this research study.

9.2. Pedagogical implications

This section offers a detailed discussion of the instructional implications of the data collected in the present study by investigating the answers to question five, which asks: 'Would informing teachers about recent changes in English affect their perceptions and attitudes towards English pedagogy?' This section starts with a presentation of the participants' perceptions of English pedagogy whilst reflecting on the changing status of English, followed by arguments for the integration of EIL/ELF/WE into teacher education as well as for a change in attitudes and mindsets of English language practitioners in response to the paradigm shift in ELT discussed in Chapter Two. These implications are summarised in the following figure.

Figure 9.2   Suggested implications for teachers in preparation for teaching today's English
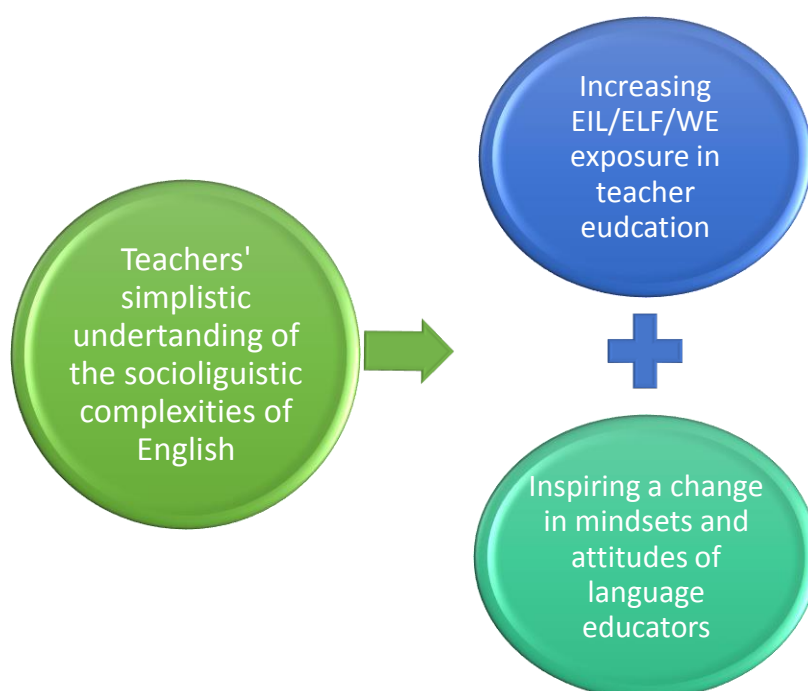
9.2.1. Teachers' resulting perceptions on English pedagogy

Many in the field consider that it is important for teachers to be informed of the current status of English. McKay (2012, p. 345) writes,

> Central to transforming the teaching of English in the coming decades is a need for teachers to inform themselves of the many changes that are occurring both in the use of English and the mode of present-day communication.

In particular, teachers should be encouraged to reconceptualise the notion of the English language (Galloway & Rose, 2015) since "the first step is to raise awareness of teachers that there is an alternative way of thinking about the subject they teach, based on an understanding of ELF/WE/EIL" (Widdowson, 2012, p. 24, WE/EIL is added).

As stated in Chapter One, one of the primary aims of this research study is to critically examine whether or not providing teachers with updated information about the current status of English would lead to changes to their perceptions and attitudes towards English teaching practices in the classroom. Thus, the study informed the teachers of the facts and observations about current and future English presented on the fact sheets (see Appendix 1). As discussed in the Findings Chapters, their subsequent discussions reflected various amounts of openness to or awareness of recent changes in English. Such awareness determines their views of English to various degrees.

As noted in Chapter Four, the extent to which teachers were willing to become aware of the diversity of English on the basis of the fact sheets seemed to depend on several factors such as their social and educational backgrounds. For teachers who had had a few chances to interact in contexts where the recent changes in English were obvious, the fact sheets helped to raise their awareness to some extent. A good example of this is that nearly half of the participants reported that they had not noticed that there were other varieties of English than American and British English until they engaged with the information in the fact sheets. Meanwhile, for those

who had been exposed to the diversity of English, the fact sheets seemed to reinforce their existing knowledge of the changes that were taking place with English and stimulate them to reflect on the value of what they were teaching. Indeed, as presented in the Findings Chapters, 15 of the teachers who had been to countries where different English varieties were used expressed an understanding of the diversity of English and suggested integrating EIL/WE into the classroom.

This study found that, after reading the fact sheets, the participants initially reflected positively on the diversity of English and called for instructional changes in ELT in EFL Vietnam. During the course of discussions, a number of teaching ideas were proposed with the purpose of providing students with more chances to be exposed to different English varieties used around the world (see Chapter Five). This enthusiasm, however, disappeared gradually when it came to the question of how they could implement those changes in their teaching practices. Indeed, the data suggests that teachers' mindsets were finally unchanged despite reflecting on the facts and observations listed in the fact sheets. Most of them expressed their continued support for NS models in spite of their new awareness that 'standard' English was somewhat insufficient for students' intercultural communication skills.

The participants' discussions indicate that their perceptions remained relatively simplistic in terms of sociolinguistic complexities of the English language in today's world. Indeed, Chapter Eight reveals that the majority of the teachers were in conflict about which paradigm would be best to apply to their teaching practice. In particular, they appeared to be confused about which models of English to teach. This finding is consistent with Sifakis and Bayyurt's (2015) observation that teachers are not certain about "the principles for teaching that arise from ELF/WE research and how these principles might have an actual bearing on their own teaching context" (p. 472). Consequently, the participants in this study emphasised their need for a good

understanding of the diversity of English in order to enable them to make appropriate pedagogical choices, such as selecting relevant varieties of English in suitable contexts. This entails the necessity of integrating knowledge of and approaches to teaching the diversity of English into teacher education in Vietnam, which is the focus of the next section.

9.2.2. Increasing EIL/ELF/WE exposure in teacher education

This present study highlights that the most challenging constraint for teachers in teaching English today was the lack of awareness of the variability and diversity of the language. As indicated above, it is important for teachers to have "a good awareness of the diversity of forms and functions of English found today and how English may unite or divide in the global community" (Matsuda, 2006, p. 165). Such awareness would not only help teachers to design lessons reflecting these topics, but also to ensure that their teaching practice is based on a well-grounded understanding of the current status of English (Matsuda, 2006), enabling them to prepare learners to communicate successfully with people from diverse backgrounds.

Many researches in the field have recommended that both teachers and students should be exposed to various varieties of English and encouraged to view those varieties as legitimate models for communication (McKay, 2012; Matsuda, 2012; Marlina, 2014; Galloway & Rose, 2015). This study reiterates that EIL/ELF/WE-aware teacher education is a necessity for ELT and EIL/ELF/WE-related subject matter should be increasingly integrated into both pre-service and in-service teacher training programmes. This study, for instance, showcases a proposal for teacher EIL/ELF/WE education programmes that is adapted from Sifakis and Bayyurt's (2015) project. This ELF-aware project was conducted in Greece and Turkey, countries in the Expanding Circles similar to Vietnam, is put forward here. In this EIL/ELF/WE-aware teacher education project, teachers are expected to:

1. engage with the principles of EIL, ELF and WE;

2. are prompted to form their own understanding of what these may mean for their own teaching context;

3. design whole lessons and individual activities in that basis;

4. teach these lessons or activities;

5. evaluate the impact of the lessons or activities for their learners, themselves and other stakeholders; and

6. design a series of teaching plans.

During all these phases, teachers engage in "an on-going reflective appreciation of beliefs, deeper convictions and practices" by reflecting on the importance of EIL/ELF/WE research and on its pedagogical implications for their own teaching practices (Sifakis & Bayyurt, 2015, p. 474). Participation in this programme results in teachers becoming more aware of the diverse nature of English and new ELT-related developments (Sifakis & Bayyurt, 2015). More importantly, it can be "integrated or embedded within a traditional EFL curriculum, provided this integration is the responsibility of the teachers themselves" (Sifakis & Bayyurt, 2015, p. 482).

Similarly, this present study records the positive initial effect that the fact sheets had on the participants with over two-thirds welcoming information about the changes in the use of English and enthusiastically suggesting instructional implications (see the Findings Chapters). It can be concluded that the information presented on the fact sheets did act as a starting point for the teachers to re-evaluate the way they perceive and teach the English language. Nonetheless, this one-shot intervention was clearly not as effective as a continuous educational programme implemented in daily teaching practices as professional development in the workplace. As Brown and Peterson (1997, as cited in Matsuda, 2006, p. 166) argue,

> Simply infusing a brief introduction of WE (World Englishes) issues into teacher preparatory programs is unlikely to bring out the kind of paradigm shift that is called for, a course devoted to the understanding of World English needs to be mandatory in a teacher preparation program in order for the curricular changes to take place in EIL programs.

Sifakis and Bayyurt (2015) also reached the conclusion that repetitive attempts with the nature of WE and ongoing reflections are required before new ideas about appropriate models for English and new approaches to teaching communication as well as the awareness of the difference in meaning carried by cetain works dependent on cultural context produce innovative teaching. Indeed, only systematic long-term teacher education can ensure a paradigm shift towards EIL and facilitate the development of new curricula based on EIL-inspired goals and assumptions (McKay, 2002, 2012).

It is obvious that increasing EIL in language curriculums will not in itself be enough to sustain the implementation of the needed epistemic break in ELT. As Bartels (2005) contends that significant change in pedagogy will not be instigated by simply helping teachers to acquire knowledge and conceptions about language. In fact, it requires the active participation from teachers so that they will be able to respond to EIL in a practical way (Dewey, 2012). The findings of this study suggest an underlying factor that helps to promote intercultural and multicultural understanding of diversity in international communication. That contributing factor involves a call for inspiring a change in the mindsets and attitudes of English language educators, a point which is discussed in the following section.

9.2.3. Inspiring a change in attitudes/mindsets of ELT practitioners

As a response to the epistemic break mentioned in section 9.1, English language educators are encouraged to "break the dependency on Western knowledge production", "Inner Circle -based methods", "Inner Circle - based cultural competence", and "Inner Circle - based textbook industry" (Kumaravadivelu, 2012, pp. 16 - 20). In order to do so, it is essential for language

educators to develop attitudes and mindsets that are "appreciative rather than fearful of the diversity and multiplicity in communicative norms" (Clyne & Sharifian, 2008, p. 28.12). In other words, it is necessary for them to become more open. According to Kubota (2012, pp. 64 - 65), open attitudes refer to "affirming the interlocutor's background, being interested in learning about new language, culture and life experiences from him or her, avoiding quick judgements and engaging in communication actively and respectfully".

It was found in this study that most participants tended to make quick negative judgements about several Asian Englishes due to their fixed notions of what variety of English was 'right' or 'wrong'. In this case, Seidlhofer (2008, p. 33.4) suggests that teachers should change their "normative mindsets" since norms are "unstable, negotiated online, continually shifting and changing". In the same vein, Dewey (2012, p. 166) highlights the importance of moving beyond normativity, and adopting a post-normative approach in which teachers are encouraged to develop "a more rationalized, informed perspective on the (de)merits of selecting language norms in the classroom". These suggestions are in close agreement with Saraceni's (2015, p. 185) proposal that WE should

> represent a general *attitude,* a *mindset,* of scholars, teachers and students alike, who are not happy with blind, a-critical adherence to pre-conceived, never-challenged ideas but are willing to question them and, if necessary, develop them further or replace them with new ones altogether (his emphasis).

The findings of this study indicate that the call for flexibility was lacking and the participants' mindsets and attitudes tended to comply with standard language ideology. Indeed, the majority of the participants expressed their support for native English-speaking norms and a belief that the English language had a set of fixed conventions that learners need to conform to (see the Findings Chapters). In addition, other varieties of English such as Singaporean English and Indian English were generally viewed negatively and considered flawed versions of English. Consequently, these teachers aimed to equip their students with a knowledge of British English

or American English even though they were aware that the knowledge of these two varieties could not sufficiently prepare learners for intercultural communication.

Attitudes and mindsets, however, are clearly subject to change. With the increasing use of EIL worldwide, mindsets and attitudes towards English at a policy level and in the classroom may also change although it may take some time for this process to happen. Indeed, it is found that "attitudes towards prestige accents have changed over the years" (Galloway & Rose, 2015, p. 177). For instance, Received Pronunciation is much more preferred outside Britain than it is within the country, where its value has significantly degraded in the last half-century (Morrish, 1999, as cited in Garrett, 2010). As a result, it is hoped that when teachers are provided with the diversity and plurality of EIL/ELF/WE interactions in teacher education suggested in the previous section, they will be able to develop more flexible and open attitudes as well as mindsets towards the English language. Teachers, once achieving that, will become more likely to opt for a transformation of their beliefs and assumptions about their long-established teaching practices so as to adopt an EIL/ELF/WE perspective in a practical way, an important implication suggested by Clyne and Sharifian (2008); Saraceni (2015); Sifakis and Bayyurt (2015), and Widdowson (2012).

9.3.   Limitations of the study

As mentioned in Chapter One, this study aims to contribute to the exploration of teachers' reflections on the recent changes within the English language for their teaching profession in the context of EFL Vietnam. Although this study has successfully answered the five major research questions, it has a number of following limitations:

- The study used only interviews as the major method for data collection although there was effort to employ both focus groups and individual interviews for the purpose of triangulation of the data of this study.

- While the fact sheets - the main research instrument - acted as a guide for the teachers to reflect on the implications of the recent changes in English for their teaching, there was the possibility that the fact sheets sabotaged the reflection process since the participants could just repeat the information presented on them. Although the moderator made efforts to ask additional questions to provoke more thoughtful discussions, this limitation remained.

- The generalisability of the findings is an issue as this study was confined to particular educational settings in a number of areas in Vietnam.

- Since the researcher did all the transcribing and translating of the findings, there was some possibility of bias. This probably remained even though the translations were carried out with the consultation of the moderator and a Vietnamese teacher teaching translation and an Australian PhD student.

- The first four research questions acting as the major interview questions were relatively broad. This limitation seemed to become less noticeable since the moderator tried to ask specific relating questions so as to capture the participants' focused reflections as well as elaborations on certain opinions.

9.4. Recommendations

9.4.1. For future research

Based on the limitations of this study indicated in section 9.3, it would be helpful to replicate this study with a larger range of teachers as well as with a more diverse mixture of research methods to ensure greater accuracy in the findings for better implications. It would be also desirable to examine the perspectives of curriculum developers, textbook designers, EFL practitioners, and policy makers to capture various insights which can offer valuable

information and instructional implications pertinent to the global spread of English that will hopefully be applicable to English language teaching and learning in Vietnam.

This research has thrown up another question in need of further investigation. It is noted that a number of the participants in this study mentioned the variety of Vietnamese English, a variety which they felt is in the process of emerging. It is expected that this process will take a long time but as important as other Asian Englishes such as Chinese English, Japanese English, and Malaysian English, the development of Vietnamese English is worth investigating. Indeed, research on the features of Vietnamese English and its role in ELT is crucial, since several teacher participants in this study expressed their interest in selecting this variety as their teaching model in the future.

In addition, this study provided teachers with an opportunity to reflect on their teaching practice in relation to the recent changes in the English language. The fact sheets were initially useful in raising the participants' awareness of the global status of English and in enabling them to re-evaluate their current teaching methods as well as teaching materials. As indicated in the Findings Chapters, however, teachers need more institutional support and more practical suggestions to implement change. For instance, they need professional development to keep them fully informed about the diversity of English, as well as about how they can link the knowledge and skills gained from their understanding of the current status of English with their own teaching context. It is fundamental to engage themselves in some instructional experiments and how feasible and practical those experiments mean to the English language teaching and learning. The findings of this study, as a result, can serve as a base for further research focusing on EIL/EFL/WE-aware teacher education in the future.

9.4.2. For the development/application of TEIL in Vietnam

It can be seen from the findings of this study that TEIL is only perceived superficially in Vietnam currently. It is, therefore, important for teachers, curriculum developers as well as policy makers to be informed about the implications of EIL research and reflect on their perceptions about it and related matters so that they can develop, teach and evaluate EIL-aware lessons for learners. In order to apply TEIL in Vietnam context, EIL-related subject matter should be integrated into teacher training programmes in language education and applied linguistics. For TEIL to be developed in Vietnam, it is fundamental to learn from other countries such as Australia, China, Japan, Malaysia, Turkey and the U.S.A that are already offering EIL courses and applying it in their teaching. Some of these examples were presented in the previous section. In addition, Vietnamese researchers, scholars and language teachers should conduct more research focusing on re-examining current methodology and teaching practice in context-relevant ways in order to build frameworks for change and innovation in the implementation of TEIL. For instance, classroom-based action research (see Burns, 2009) based on integrating the diversity of English into lessons can be carried out to trial a variety of teaching techniques, the successful examples of which other teachers can use in the classroom.

Final words

It is obviously not enough to simply state that EIL has implications for instructional pedagogy, and that teachers need to be aware of EIL, and that it would therefore be important for them to integrate an EIL perspective into their teaching (Dewey, 2012). In this study, there are cases that although the teachers could gain some awareness of EIL and express positive views about its relevance in teaching, they then continued to teach what they have taught, regardless of the implications of EIL research. Despite all the pedagogical problems faced by the participants of this study when it comes to the application of TEIL, a striking theme that

emerged in their discussions about their own teaching practice was the need to integrate the diversity of English into their classrooms so as to prepare learners for success in intercultural communication in many contexts. While it is not easy to break away from a dependency on NS models, it is an optimistic sign that this theme should have arisen as it did. It is hoped that this perceived need of the participating teachers will serve as a starting point for ELT change in EFL Vietnam, making for a more flexible and effective response to the globalisation of English in the future.

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Appendix A

List of facts and observations of recent and future English

The following information is based on internationally available sources and quotes from international demographers of English.

Demand
for English(es) *(English(es) in this context mean all varieties of English including Japanese English, Chinese English…)*

Users of English	With a total population of over **2 billion**, English has an official or special status in at least **75 countries** around the world, including **ASEAN** (Association of South-East Asian Nations) and **ASEAN + 3** (+ China, Japan & South Korea).	Over **80%** of **interactions in English** today are presently between **non-native speakers** of English. Many of these speakers speak **different varieties of English** such as Indonesian English, Japanese English…	One out of four of the world's population speak English(es) to some level of competence; **demand** from the **other three-quarters** is **increasing**.	In addition to face to face communication, with the development of technology, learners of English(es) can interact with other speakers in English(es) online. E.g. about **565 million** English speaking people use the Internet in the world.	In Asia, **around 388 million** people learn and speak English(es) for various purposes such as for education, employment opportunities, travelling… Likewise, English is being learned and spoken as a FL by around **42 million** people in Vietnam.
English for migrants	Nowadays, **more than 214 million of the world's population are migrants. Most will need an additional language to live and work in their new countries of residence.**	Migration takes place across language boundaries within economic blocs, such as the European Union and ASEAN, increasing **demand for learning and using English(es)** at a large scale.	Regionally, ASEAN has plans to move to a **free regional labour market** starting in **2015**, which enables more ASEAN people to work abroad, calling for the **need to communicate in English(es)** among them.	In Vietnam, about **70,000 Vietnamese** leave Vietnam for jobs overseas each year with approximately **400,000 Vietnamese labourers** working abroad in over **50 countries and territories** worldwide. In many cases, they use **English(es) for communication**.
English for tourism	International tourism is growing with more than **74% of all travel** among **non-English speaking countries.**	Tourists arrive in ASEAN: **81, 228** in total (about **37, 732** people **intra-ASEAN** and 43, **496extra-ASEAN** in 2011). In most cases, they need to interact in English(es).	In Vietnam: in the first seven months of 2012, Vietnam welcomed **777,000** Chinese, **421,000** South Korean and **329,000** Japanese travellers.
Academic mobility	Nowadays, universities in most Asian countries are trying to compete to offer **international education** with English(es) as the means of instruction.	English(es) has/have become the **global academic language** that facilitates the international mobility of researchers, teachers as well as students.	Over **100,000** Vietnamese students studied abroad in **49** countries and territories in 2011. Besides USA and Australia, **China** received 12,500 students from Vietnam, followed by **Singapore** with 7,000, **France** with 5,540 and **Russia** with 5,000.

Forms

Varieties of English	Since English has become the common language for international communication in almost all the fields, it has been **diversified** at all levels from sounds, morphology, syntax, semantics to cultural meanings.	There are **established varieties** of English such as Indian English, Malaysian English, Singaporean English, Philippine English…	There are **emerging varieties of English** such as Chinese English, Japanese English, Korean English, Vietnamese English….
Phonology examples	Lack of distinction between long and short vowels E.g. "*eat*" vs. "*it*" (Chinese English, Thai English)	Consonant-cluster reduction E.g. "*send*" and "*sent*" as "*sen*" (Chinese English, Thai English, Japanese English, Korean English)	Shifting the stress to the last syllable of the word (Thai English, Philippine English)
Lexical examples	**Semantic shift** + *Bungalow* means a two-story residential house. (Singaporean English) + *Market* means go shopping. (Singaporean English) + *Face* refers to an individual's pride, dignity, honour and even identity. (Chinese English)	**Novel expressions** + *Floating markets* are places where you can shop along the river banks (Thai English, Cambodian English, Vietnamese English) + *Love market* is a place where ethnic boys and girls declare one's love to each other usually on Saturday nights (Vietnamese English) + *Motorbike taxis* means motorbikes used for taking people from one place to another like a taxi (Vietnamese English)	**First language words and phrases transferred into English** + "Hurry up, *lah*" (*lah* is to make it less formal in Singaporean English) + "You must do your homework first *na?*" (using *na* as a question marker for Thai English)
Culture/ Pragmatic examples	English is now used to express many cultures in the world. For instance, "the more frequently English is used among Asians, the more **Asian communication patterns** will seep into their Englishes."	**Negotiation of meaning** A: *You stupid.* (Chinese English) B: Can I ask in what contexts you usually use this expression in your culture? A: Hmm, we can use it as a term of endearment between husband and wife, like the wife saying this to husband to say, "you're not kind to yourself" B: (Surprised and smile) Ah, right! So I should take it as *a compliment*.	**Greetings** + "*Have you eaten already*"? (Singaporean/Malaysian/Chinese English) + "*You're enjoying?*" (Nigerian English) + "*How? How now?*" (West African English) **Refusal** + "*I'll try*" means "No, I can't do that" (Philippine English)

Future trends

With the **global spread** of English(es):
- More and more people will continue to use English(es)
- English(es) will continue to diversify
- More varieties of English will develop.

Appendix B

Interview questions

Part 1: Please provide any initial comments you have based on the fact sheet you have just read.

Part 2: Based on the current status of English now in the world,

1. What do you think are the implications for the teaching models?

2. What do you think are the implications for the teaching of culture norms?

3. What do you think are the implications for the teaching materials?

4. What can be the constraints for your/these teaching implications?

Appendix C

Demographic Information Form

Instructions: Please provide a response for each of the following questions:

1	Code (provided by the researcher): …………………….	
2	Gender	Male ○ Female ○
3	Age	……………..
4	Your highest qualification (s)	Name of the university: ……………………………. Your major: ………………………………………… BA ○ MA ○ PhD ○
5	Your teaching experience	Years of teaching: ……………………………. Your students' level:…………………………… Your teaching specialization: ………………………………………. Your favourite/most used teaching methods/ techniques: ………………………………………………………………………… ………………………………………………………………………… ………………………………………………………………………… …………………………………………………………………………

6	Do you speak languages other than Vietnamese and English?	Yes○	What language(s): ……………………………. What level: Excellent ○ Good ○ Poor○
		No○	

7	Have you lived in countries other than Vietnam?	Yes○	What country (countries): ……………………………. How long? ………………………………………………..
		No○	

Appendix D

Name coding in focus groups

Groups	Codes	Pseudonyms
A	1,2,3,4,5,6	Nam, Tam, Thanh, Hinh, Ha, Cuong
B	1,2,3,4	Long, Binh, Le, Hien
C	1,2,3,4,5,6	Hoa, Nga, Huong, Ly, An, Lan
D	1,2,3,4,5,6	Loan, Hanh, Van, Tai, Hong, Dieu
E	1,2,3,4,5,6,7	Linh, Phung,Duyen, Tham, Hao, Khanh, Nghia
F	1,2,3,4	Hang, Tuan, Khoa, Ngoc

Appendix E

Basic questions used for coding strategies (Flick, 2006, p.300)

What?	What is the concern here? Which course of event is mentioned?
Who?	Who are the persons involved? What roles do they have? How do they interact?
How?	Which aspects of the event are mentioned (or omitted)?
When? How long? Where?	Referring to time, course and location: When does it happen? How long does it take? When did the incident occur?
How much? How strong?	Referring to intensity: How often is the issue emphasized?
Why?	Which reasons are provided or can be constructed?
What for?	What is intention here? What is the purpose?
By which?	Referring to means, tactics and strategies for achieving the aim: What is the main tactic here? How are things accomplished?

Appendix F

Analysing group interaction (Willis, 2009, p.133)

Group component	Aspect of interaction for analysis
What?	What topics/opinions produced agreement? What statements seemed to evoke conflict What were the contradictions in the discussion? What common experiences were expressed? Did the collective interaction generate new insights or precipitate an exchange of information among participants?
Who?	Whose interests were being represented in the group? Were alliances formed among group members? Was a particular member or viewpoint silenced?
How?	How closely did the group adhere to the issues presented for discussion? How did group members respond to the ideas of others? How did the group resolve disagreements? How were emotions handled? How were non-verbal signs and behaviours used to contribute to the discussion?

Appendix G

Examples of analysis of group interaction

Group interaction in group D (Homogeneity)

While group A presented a snapshot of divergent views among the members, group D displayed the participants' consensus and its impact on the content. The following extract illustrates the role of homogeneity in group interactions and in the contents of the discussions.

Moderator: *So with the diversity of English today, what teaching models…?*

Hong: *We use 'standard' English, American and British English.*

Loan: *…tend to use American English.*

Hanh: *We just teach students what we have learned from other teachers. We mainly teach American and British English. We have never learned Singaporean and Thai English before.*

Tai: *We should teach 'standard' English… we don't have a chance to show other kinds of English. We rarely see that in communication in 'standard' English and we know that Singaporean and Thai people, we often remind students of this. I think we should remind students how to use it in spoken English but we don't teach them.*

Moderator: *How do you remind your students of that?*

Tai: *We should teach them cultures…how to behave when you meet a Thai or Chinese person….like the culture of receiving gifts.*

Dieu: *I agree with my colleagues here. We teach 'standard' English because it is the language we learned and also because of the materials…*

nowadays American English becomes more and more popular. The levels of students are not high. If we teach them a lot, they can't remember.

Moderator: *...your definition of 'standard' English?*

Hanh: *English from native speakers*

Loan: *Actually, I am thinking about 'standard' English. Years ago, I was told by my teacher that there is no 'standard' English. Even though native speakers, American people, they also have different accents. It is very difficult for us to give definitions of standard English but I think the language is for communication. As long as you can get your messages through and you can understand what they are talking about...that is 'standard' English.*

Hanh: *Agree...*

Tai: *Yes, it is difficult to say what 'standard' English is...*

This sequence illustrates interaction characterised by consensus and its influence on the discussion content. The group initially showed similar perceptions of employing 'standard' English as teaching models in the classroom. Their exchanges display agreement between participants when they addressed the role of teaching English native speakers models. For instance, when Hanh said that she had never learned Thai or Singaporean English before and she, therefore, opted for American and British English, Tai accepted the invitation by elaborating with the confirmation that teachers rarely see other kinds of English in communication. The sequence of interaction is characterised by an easy flow among group members. This is illustrated by the example where Loan expressed the uncertainty of referring

'standard' English to American or British English. She raised the importance of considering 'standard' English as a language that is used for successful communication. Her opinion provoked supporting ideas from other participants. The extract contains few descriptions that display diverse opinions on the topic of discussion. Indeed, this indicates a general homogeneity among the teachers, who then observed that even they as English teachers speak different kinds of English. More interestingly, one participant explicitly began to pay attention to English that the moderator was speaking, which she considered 'Vietnamese English'. Building up from their acknowledgement of varieties of English, the group members engaged in discussing what they could do to help their students to be exposed to the diversity of English. It is worth noting that towards the end of the interview the teachers showed their increasing confidence in applying these teaching implications.

Group interaction in group E (Disagreement and consensus)

Group E interaction displays active interaction in relation to disagreements among the participants. The following extract provides such an example when discussing the constraints and challenges in teaching English as an international language.

Moderator: *So what are your constraints and challenges in teaching English today?*

Tham: *A lot of accents, varieties…that is the big difficulty for us because we can't teach all.*

Duyen: *Teachers do not know what is going on in the world. We have never been abroad even we are teachers. We do not have chances to talk to other speakers of English. Second, teachers are lazy to update themselves with English. There are Korean and Japanese English…now teachers are very busy…they do not put effort into learning those because it is not*

necessary if students will be teachers and they teach high school students… teachers have to learn themselves.

Khanh: *I disagree. We can't learn all varieties…what we can do is we can learn one variety and all varieties share common things...those differences we can adapt. For example, when I first meet Chinese, he may speak differently. Through time, I get familiar…*

Tham: *You can imitate his accent?*

Khanh: *No need. The person has to adapt to my English too. We keep our ways of speaking?*

Duyen: *What is the role of teachers?*

Khanh: *You teach one variety.*

Phung: *American or British English?*

Khanh: *Can we teach all? No right? So we teach only one variety and introduce the others.*

Phung: *How do we do which variety is important for students?*

Tham: *Introduce as much as you can…*

Duyen: *Raise their awareness to let them prepare…*

The above extract illustrates a significant degree of disagreements among the participants and the impact of the interaction on the content of the discussion. Tham opened the sequence by stating that different varieties of English cause difficulties for teachers to teach English today, leading Duyen to elaborate on the reasons why teachers have not updated themselves with the

current trends of English to teach students. This is followed by Khanh, who obviously disagreed with their reflections and used teachers' lack of capacity to learn all varieties of English as assistance in justifying her opinion. Tham and Duyen reacted with questions to challenge Khanh's argument. In return, Khanh continued to reinforce her previous statement so as to respond to the questions raised by other participants. The other participant

The sequence above is characterised by active interaction: the participants disagreed and they questioned themselves and one another. This active interaction is extensively displayed in the remaining data sequences. For example, after question herself about what kind of English she is using now, Duyen said, 'We cannot limit students to specific models because of the diversity of English'. Her opinion entailed Tham's agreement as well as Linh's disagreement. However, she further said that she invited her German friend to talk to her students to promote intercultural understanding, which is necessary for her learners. These ideas raised a number of teaching implications among the participants, who then actively engaged in the discussions of how to help learners to avoid culture and language shocks when they talk to different speakers. Despite their preference for 'standard' English, all of them then came to the agreement that American and British English models are not enough for their students. They commented that they should create opportunities for students to learn as many varieties of English as possible for successful communication as presented in Chapter 4. Indeed, group E interaction reveals the most dynamic features of group interaction in terms of insightful reflections on the fact sheets as well as on the participants' opinions.

Appendix H

Simplified Jeffersonian transcribing conventions (p.169-170)

(…)	Pauses
(.)	Micro-pause, less than two-tenths of a second
(0.5)	Length of silence or pauses
?	Rising intonation
.	Falling intonation
( )	Inability to hear what was said
(word)	The best possible hearing
'(coughs)', '(sneeze)'…	Laughing, coughing …
(-)	Interruptions
'(overlapping)'	Overlapping speech

Appendix I

The structure of the participants in focus groups

Main Groups	Participants Vietnamese ELT teachers		Gender		Locations in Vietnam
	Focus groups	Individual interviews	Female	Male	
I	6		3	3	A university
	4	4	4	4	An English centre
	14				(Ho Chi Minh City & Ba Ria-Vung Tau Province)
II	6	2	8		Two colleges
	6		5	1	A university
		1	1		An English centre
	15				(Nha Trang & Da Nang)
III	7	6	13		Three universities
	4	3	5	2	An upper secondary school
		3	2	1	A lower secondary school & an English centre
	23				Hanoi, Lao Cai, Hoi An & Quy Nhon
Total:	52		41	11	12