

# Learning English and Other Languages in Multilingual Settings: Myths and Principles

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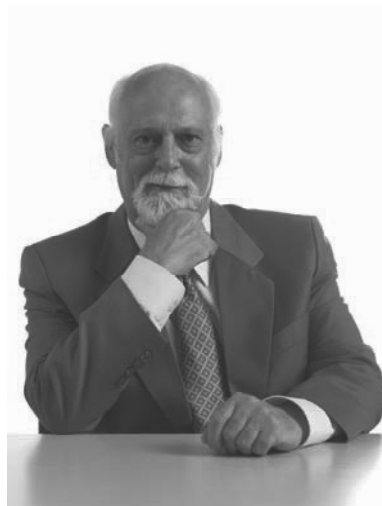
# About the Author

[http://www.ied.edu.hk/eng/staff/academic\\_akirkpat.htm](http://www.ied.edu.hk/eng/staff/academic_akirkpat.htm)

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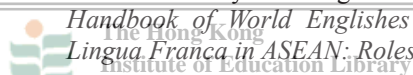
Prior to joining the Institute in January 2006, Professor Kirkpatrick had been Professor of Language Education at Curtin University for more than ten years. He has also worked at the Institutes of Education of Singapore and Rangoon, at the Australian National University, and been a visiting scholar at Beijing University, the Beijing University of Astronautics and



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*Language Teaching* for Hong Kong University Press, *Chinese Academic Writing Styles: An Introduction for Teachers of Writing* for Writing Across the Curriculum (WAC) / Parlor Press, and *Chinese Rhetoric and Persuasion* for Klincksieck.



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# Learning English and Other Languages in Multilingual Settings: Myths and Principles

Andy KIRKPATRICK

## *Abstract*

More than one billion people now use English as a second or additional language, largely to communicate with other second language users with whom they do not share a cultural and linguistic background. While some may debate whether English is really as important for all as is claimed, the widespread demand for English is here for the foreseeable future. Without exception, Ministries of Education throughout East and Southeast Asia have decided that English is a vital skill that must be learned by their citizens from as early an age as possible, if their respective countries are to modernize and to be able to participate in today's globalised world.

In this seminar, I want to discuss the teaching and learning of English by these multilingual users, and consider the challenges that the desire to learn English places on the learner and the curriculum. My context will be on schools in the Asian region and my focus will be on the relationship between English and local languages in the school curriculum. Is, for example, the relationship between English and local languages complementary or competitive? In this context I shall also consider the recent fine-tuning debate about EMI in Hong Kong schools and propose an alternative.

This seminar will consider ways in which English might be taught which would help maintain and nurture the child's mother tongue as a basis for the acquisition of multilingualism on the one hand, and allow the child to develop an understanding of English as a pluricentric language on the other. This will require arguing that three well-accepted beliefs about the learning of languages are, in fact, myths. Three new principles will be proposed to replace the three myths, principles which would more easily allow the teaching and learning of English alongside local languages.



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## Introduction

More than one billion people now use English as a second or additional language, 'largely to communicate with other second language users with whom they do not share a cultural and linguistic background' (Clyne and Sharifian 2008: 1). In this essay I want to discuss the teaching and learning of English by these multilingual users, and consider the challenges that the desire to learn English places on the learner and the curriculum. My context will be on schools in the Asian region and my focus will be on the relationship between English and local languages in the school curriculum. Is, for example, the relationship between English and local languages complementary or competitive?

While we may debate whether English is really as important for all as is claimed, the widespread demand for English is here for the foreseeable future. Without exception, Ministries of Education throughout East and Southeast Asia have decided that English is a vital skill that must be learned by their citizens from as early an age as possible, if their respective countries are to modernize and to be able to participate in today's globalised world.

This essay is an attempt to consider ways in which English might be taught which would help maintain and nurture the child's mother tongue as a basis for the acquisition of multilingualism on the one hand, and allow the child to develop an understanding of English as a pluricentric language on the other (Kirkpatrick 2008). This will not be easy. As will be illustrated below, the perceived need for English along with the need to learn the national language and/or a regional lingua franca commonly presents a serious threat to mother tongues and local languages, especially those which are spoken by a relatively small population and which have no script. The early introduction of English also places extreme linguistic and cognitive demands on children, especially when the classroom model remains an idealised native speaker model against which the learners' performance is measured.

## Three Myths

Benson (2008 pp 2 ff) identifies three myths, acceptance of which routinely bedevils language learning and the maintenance of the mother tongue. These three myths are:



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- (i) ‘the best way to learn a second language is to use it as a medium of instruction’;
- (ii) ‘to learn a second language you must start as early as possible’;
- (iii) ‘the home language gets in the way of learning a second language’.

In the next section of this essay, I shall consider each of these myths in turn, and provide specific examples where acceptance of them has been realised in language education policy and the teaching of English.

Several educational systems accept the first myth, as English is used in many countries as a medium of instruction. For example, Brunei, Malaysia and the Philippines teach maths and science subjects through English from primary school (Jones 2007, Gonzalez 1996). In the case of Malaysia, in a reversal of the Malaysianisation policy under which Malay was the medium of instruction, maths has been taught through English from primary one since 2002 (Gill 2007). In recent months, however, the Malaysian Government has decided to rescind this policy and will revert to using Bahasa Melayu as the medium of instruction from 2012. Singapore also uses English as a medium of instruction from primary 1, but for all subjects. English is therefore *the* medium of instruction in Singaporean schools. In Hong Kong, some 25% of *secondary* schools are English medium. It should be noted, however, that the vast majority of Hong Kong’s *primary* schools retain Cantonese – the mother tongue of the overwhelming majority of the population – as the medium of instruction.

Despite its popularity, the use of a second language as a medium of instruction in the early years of primary schools is not recommended by experts. It is agreed that *at least* five years of instruction in the second language is needed before children can learn academic concepts through that language, (Benson 2008, Cummins 1981). With regard to the teaching of maths through English, the Filipino scholar Bernardo is unequivocal,

‘there seems to be no theoretical or empirical basis...to obligate the use of English in teaching mathematics’, and that,

‘there are clear and consistent advantages to using the students’ first language...at the stage of learning where the student is acquiring the basic understanding of the various mathematical concepts and procedures’ (Bernardo 2000: 313)



The second myth states that the earlier English is learned the better. This may be true, all things being equal, but things very seldom are equal in the contexts which we are describing. If there are qualified, proficient and committed teachers, if there are excellent facilities and materials, and if the child already has literacy in the mother tongue, then learning an L2 early can indeed be beneficial. But in most contexts in Asia, there are seldom sufficient teachers, materials or facilities to justify the early introduction of English, even as a subject, let alone as a medium of instruction. All too often the perceived demand for English sees it introduced too early and taught by teachers with low levels of English proficiency and who have access only to inadequate materials. This early introduction of English is often at the expense of literacy in the child's mother tongue. Rather than introducing English in such circumstances, a wiser long-term investment would be to ensure that the child first achieves literacy and fluency in the mother tongue, as the L1 knowledge then acts as a bridge to L2 and L3 literacy and learning. Far from the home language getting in the way of learning a second language, as claimed in the third myth listed above, the greater the investment in the child's first language, the more successful the acquisition of a second and third language will be. Children are able to transfer the L1 skills they have learned to L2 learning (Benson 2008, Cummins 2008). Support for the L1 is a crucial principle in the successful Canadian immersion bilingual programmes (Swain and Johnson 1997).

### Three Principles

Given the widespread demand for English, how might English best be taught in schools in East and Southeast Asia? I here propose replacing the three myths with three related principles.

The first principle is that the child's first language should be the language in which the child learns. English should only be introduced in the earliest years of primary schools when conditions allow. This, at the very least, means there needs to be sufficient proficient and trained teachers and suitable materials. Most importantly, it should be introduced only as a subject. If these conditions cannot be met, the teaching of English needs to be delayed. There is no reason why children cannot successfully learn a language if they start learning later in the curriculum.

The second principle is thus to delay the introduction of English until the child has literacy in the first language, and until conditions and facilities merit it. Introducing English too early either as a subject or especially as a



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medium of instruction will adversely effect the development of the child's L1. 'The danger is for education programmes to focus on the L2 and L3 without building on a strong L1 foundation' (Benson 2008: 9). In Singapore, where English is the medium of instruction and the ethnic languages, Chinese – although this is actually Mandarin (Putonghua) rather than a local dialect of Chinese – Malay and Tamil, are taught as subjects, there is now concern that many ethnically Chinese students are graduating from secondary school without being literate in Chinese (Goh 2009). It is therefore ironic that Singapore is often considered to have adopted a successful language policy based on the relative proficiency *in English* possessed by most Singaporeans. Compare this with Hong Kong, where the home language of the great majority of the children, Cantonese, is the medium of instruction in almost all government primary schools and where English is taught as a subject. This allows the children to develop literacy in Chinese at an early stage. The special cognitive demands of learning the Chinese logographic script means that it takes two and a half years longer for a child to become literate in this than it does for a child to become literate in an alphabetic language (Chen Ping 1999, Taylor and Taylor 1995). In prioritizing literacy in Chinese in Hong Kong's primary schools, the Hong Kong government is ensuring its children inherit an invaluable 'birthright'. And in making Cantonese the medium of instruction in primary schools, it is supporting and validating the child's L1 and sense of identity. It could be argued that a language policy that sees its citizens literate in Chinese and with some proficiency in English is more successful than one which sees its citizens fluent in English, but with poor levels of literacy in Chinese.

To move now from when to introduce English to what type of English to introduce, one can ask whether non-native varieties of English and non-native but intelligible pronunciation can be accepted as standard (this volume). One of Kachru's great contributions has been to demonstrate the plurality of Englishes (cf. 1982, 1992) and where there is a local variety of English which has been codified, there is no reason, other than social acceptability, why the local variety should not provide the classroom model. It is important to note, however, that social acceptability can be some time coming (Schneider 2003), as Australians know only too well (Delbridge 1999). Nevertheless, the educated varieties of Singaporean and Filipino English, for example, could provide the linguistic benchmarks for Singaporean and Filipino children. By the same token, trained Singaporean and Filipino English language teachers should not only be *role models* for their learners but also *linguistic models*. The native speaker model, which is based on monolingual performance, is replaced by a performance model derived from a relevant multilingual speaker. This requires a shift of

paradigm from the traditional second language acquisition perspective which sees the target of second language learning as native-like proficiency (cf. Firth and Wagner 2007, 1997, Jenkins 2006). In Garcia's words, we must understand that a bilingual education 'doesn't accommodate to monolingual standards' and we therefore must 'avoid the inequities in comparing bilingual children to a monolingual child in one of the languages' (Garcia 2009: 386). Instead we need to consider language acquisition in the context of complex multilingual settings, where it may be difficult for speakers to be able to identify which is their first and which is their second language. Language contact is seen as natural and inevitable. Multilinguals who speak many languages will naturally sound multilingual. An individual who speaks four languages will not sound like four different native speakers. The third principle, therefore, is that multilingual performance and proficiency should be adopted as the language learning goal, not idealized native-like proficiency. We need to move from the traditional cognitivist second language acquisition perspective where the goal of second language learning is seen to be native-like proficiency (Abrahamsson and Hyltenstam 2009) to a more social SLA perspective, where language learning goals are measured in terms of successful language use (Larsen Freeman 2007, Swain and Deters 2007)

## Teaching English as a Lingua Franca

In many of the multilingual nations and regions of Southeast Asia, English is commonly used as a lingua franca. Following the third principle, where English is used primarily as a lingua franca it should be taught as a lingua franca. This would see the following implications for English language teaching in the region. First, international intelligibility becomes a more important goal than the acquisition of a pronunciation model based on native speaker and monolingual performance (Jenkins 2000). The successful multilingual user of English provides a more relevant and attainable 'model' of English. L1 influence on the speaker's English need not be seen negatively as 'interference', but positively, as evidence of a multilingual speaker. L1 influence can, in any event, heighten the speaker's international intelligibility, especially if the speaker's L1 has a tendency to syllable timing, as is the case for many African and Asian languages (Deterding and Kirkpatrick 2006, Hung 2002). The speaker's identity is also crucially important. Multilinguals using English with fellow multilinguals are likely to identify with multilinguals, and therefore neither seek nor need a native speaker accent. Multilingual English teachers (METs) thus become seen as more relevant and appropriate than native English



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teachers (NETs), especially those who are monolingual. The local, well-trained and highly proficient English-knowing multilingual English language teacher is now seen as possessing the linguistic skills, resources and language variety most useful for the regional English language classroom.

Acceptance and adoption of the multilingual performance principle would lead to significant changes in ELT pedagogy. For example, a monolingual pedagogy, whereby it is argued that only English should be used in the English classroom, would be replaced by a multilingual pedagogy, whereby the teacher is encouraged to use the linguistic resources of the teachers and learners to facilitate the learning of English.

Cummins (2005: 9) points that the ‘dominant monolingual instructional orientation’ is based on three sets of assumptions, ‘none of which is empirically supported’. They are:

Instruction should be carried out exclusively in the target language without recourse to the students’ L1. Bilingual dictionary use is discouraged (= *direct method* assumption);

Translation between L1 and L2 has no place in the teaching of language or literacy. Encouragement of translation in L2 teaching is viewed as a regression to the discredited grammar/translation method; or in bilingual/immersion programs, use of translation is equated with the discredited concurrent translation methods in which teachers switch constantly between languages translating all relevant instructional content;

Within immersion and bilingual programs, the two languages should be kept rigidly separate (= *two solitudes* assumption).

Cummins urges, however, the adoption of ‘bilingual instructional strategies’. The children’s first language can be used in systematic ways to enhance second language learning. For example, the use of the first language can explain concepts and phenomena in the most time effective way. This can range from simple translations to explanations of grammatical structures and cultural values. This can be especially informative when ways of naming, patterning and functioning in the first and target languages are compared.

More sophisticated uses of the first language include allowing children to use the first language while working on tasks which will need to



be reported – either orally or in written form – in the target language. A strategy which promotes ‘literacy engagement in both L1 and L2’ (Cummins 2005: 9-10) is the creation of ‘dual language books’. An example of the ‘dual language books’ strategy is the authoring of a bilingual Urdu-English book, ‘*The New Country*’ by three recent migrants to Canada. The three girls discussed the draft in Urdu but wrote the initial draft in English. The final product was a dual language book, and is an example of what Cummins refers to as an ‘identity text’. More examples of these dual books and identity texts can be seen at <http://thornwood.peelschools.org/DUAL/>.

Teaching English as a lingua franca would also see significant changes in ELT curricula and materials. For example, the English language classroom would provide a cross-cultural learning environment, as lingua franca speakers need to know about the cultures of the people they are likely to be communicating with. At the same time, they need to be able to discuss and describe their own cultures and cultural values to other people. Thus, in the ASEAN context, students can learn about, and learn to talk about, regional cultures through English (Kirkpatrick 2007a, 2002).

Regional lingua franca speakers would become commonly represented and *heard* in English language teaching materials. One example where this is already happening is at the Far East University in Vladivostok where Russian students of English use materials which familiarise them with the English spoken by Chinese, Japanese and Korean speakers (Proshina 2005). This raises the interesting question of cross-cultural communication and pragmatics. In these multilingual contexts, the pragmatics preferred by the English users may conform more to the cultural norms of their first language. This, for example, Asian lingua franca users of English may well feel more comfortable forming requests by providing prefacing the request with a number of reasons and justifications for it, as is common in Chinese (Kirkpatrick 1991) and other Asian speech styles (Scollon and Scollon 1991). They may feel more comfortable using forms of address that conform to their own cultural norms and wish to avoid the feeling of ‘pragmatic dissonance’ caused by adopting Anglo cultural norms which violate their own cultural norms (Li 2002: 580). The transfer of the pragmatic norms of the L1 to a speaker’s variety of English is a natural way of adapting English to the speaker’s own cultural norms (Sharifian 2006).

For the same reason, local literatures in English can become important and valuable teaching materials. A striking example of this comes from a Filipino secondary syllabus for English literature, which



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chooses literary texts based on the following grade year themes (Thomson 2003):

- S1: 'I am a Filipino'
- S2: 'I am an Asian'
- S3: 'I am an English speaker'
- S4: 'I am a citizen of the world'

In summary, the adoption of the multilingual performance principle to English promotes and validates the multilingual. It focuses on regional and international communication. It draws on the learner's LI to achieve competence in English. It uses local multilinguals, cultures and literatures in teaching materials. It recognizes that the local trained multilingual English language teacher provides a more relevant, appropriate and attainable variety of English than the native English speaker. The move is from a monolingual restrictive ideology to a multilingual liberating ideology.

In the preceding discussion, ways have been described in which English could be taught in East and Southeast Asia given the development of Asian varieties of English and its major role as a regional lingua franca. The fact is, however, that in the great majority of Asian educational systems, it is not taught in these ways. On the contrary, the privileged position of the native speaker model and the native speaker teacher remains entrenched, while the local variety of English and the local teacher's model are negatively evaluated, not least by the locals themselves (Jenkins 2007). Linguistic benchmarks for the English language classroom remain derived from the native speaker model (Kirkpatrick 2007b). Not surprisingly, therefore, the native speaker remains highly sought after in Asian language classrooms, both as model and teacher, so much so that it is a commonplace to find English teachers employed solely on the grounds that they are native speakers of the language. That is to say, they are employed as English language teachers even when they have no teaching qualifications, often at the expense of local and suitably qualified English language teachers.

At the same time, as reported above, most educational systems in the region introduce English into the primary classroom, sometimes as early as in primary one and sometimes as a medium of instruction. This seriously disadvantages the poor and those without access to English. Success in content subjects – and in education itself – is dependent upon success in English (Graddol 2006:120). Introducing English too early into the primary curriculum, especially when it is at the expense of local languages of education, does great disservice to most children (Bruthiaux 2002). While



using a national language as the medium of instruction is greatly preferable, when the child's L1 is not the national language, the linguistic and developmental burden this places on the child is even greater, especially when no support is given to the child's mother tongue. Some systems allow instruction in the child's mother tongue for the early years of primary school, typically switching to the national language in primary three, but these programmes are ad hoc and there is no guarantee that a child can learn though the mother tongue in many contexts. Some governments – and Cambodia and Vietnam are examples – have inclusive education *policies* which respect the linguistic rights of ethnic minority groups but these are not often implemented (Haddad 2008). In Vietnam, for example, while the government has worked with UNESCO and other NGOs to develop scripts for several of Vietnam's ethnic and minority languages, this has not, to date, proved effective in attracting minority groups to schools, as literacy in the mother tongue has been used primarily to teach the children Vietnamese. Indeed Vietnam provides a good example of how pressures to learn the national language along with regional and international lingua francas means that local languages are in serious danger of dying out. Vietnamese, the language spoken by over 80% of the population as a mother tongue is the medium of instruction. The foreign language curriculum is now dominated by English with over 90% of children learning it (Baker and Baker 2003). The other languages taught include Putonghua and French and the French francophone agency AUPELF has the ambitious goal of 5% of Vietnamese secondary school students graduating through a French-Vietnamese bilingual system (Wright 2002).

Typically, therefore a child in Vietnam will learn through Vietnamese as a medium of instruction and also learn English and either Putonghua and/or French. Given that these languages are not cognate and, while Vietnamese now has an alphabetic script, it is different from the English/French scripts and that Putonghua has a logographic script, the linguistic demands this places even on the LI Vietnamese child are challenging to say the least. If the child comes from one of the ethnic minorities, the challenge is even greater. Indeed it is likely that such children will drop out of school at an early age. Less than 7% of Yao and Hmong children remain in school (Thaveeporn 2003). Primary school drop-out rates are a serious concern in many countries of Asia. In Cambodia for example, only 10% of the Primary 1 cohort will graduate from secondary school (Heder 2007). A major cause of these drop-out rates is that children are not taught in their first language.

The need to focus on local languages in multilingual contexts is well-recognised by experts. Table 1 is adapted from the UNESCO report



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*Education For All by 2015* (UNESCO 2007). It identifies main challenges facing a selection of countries in ASEAN and suggests measures to help meet these challenges. The measures are all connected with the provision of bilingual and mother-tongue education designed to improve retention rates up to Primary (Grade) 5.

**Table 1: Education for All: Challenges and Measures**

<i>Country</i>	<i>Main challenges</i>	<i>Measures to help</i>
Cambodia	reduce low levels of survival to grade 5	develop bilingual education
Indonesia	reduce low levels of survival to grade 5	add mother tongue education for early grades
Laos	reduce low levels of survival to grade 5	develop multilingual materials
Philippines	reduce low levels of survival to grade 5	make curriculum flexible to allow for cultural diversity
Vietnam	decrease number of children out of school	develop bilingual education for ethnic minorities

## **Conclusions**

The pressure to learn the national language, Putonghua and English is common in educational systems in Asia. The perceived need for these languages is tied to globalization and modernization. A national language is seen as essential for national unity; Putonghua is seen as increasingly important as China's economic and political power increases; and English is seen as essential as the language of modernisation, knowledge transfer and international communication. The importance of a language is currently measured its cultural capital, of which linguistic capital is a part (Bourdieu 1986). These are highly instrumental motivations for language learning (Rappa and Wee 2006). While such instrumental motivations remain strong, the future for local languages which are neither national nor which act as lingua francas appears extremely bleak. Unless education systems accept that the three myths outlined at the beginning of this essay

are indeed myths – and the evidence strongly suggests that these myths are still considered uncontested truths by most systems – many local languages will soon die out. The Endangered Languages Project predicts that half of the world’s 6,500 languages will be lost by the end of the century and that the major reason for this is people’s switch to learning the national language and lingua francas (Hans Rausing 2008). While a new multilingual performance approach to the teaching and learning of English may help validate and promote the local English-knowing multilingual speaker, there is also little evidence that this approach is being adopted in East and Southeast Asia, where the native speaker and the native speaker model remain highly privileged. It is all the more important, therefore, that applied linguists constantly challenge the myths outlined at the beginning of this essay, while at the same time promoting a pluralist approach to English language teaching. Replacing the three myths with the following three principles would help retain local languages on the one hand and validate and promote multilingualism on the other:

- (i) wherever possible, the mother tongue should be used as the medium of instruction; otherwise a local language should be used;
- (ii) English can happily be delayed until at least the later years of primary school;
- (iii) the goal of learners of English in multilingual and lingua franca settings should be multilingual performance and proficiency, not an idealized native-like proficiency.



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- Thompson, R.T. (2003). *Filipino English and Taglish: language switching from multiple perspectives*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
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- Wright, Sue (2002). Language education and foreign relations in Vietnam. In James W. Tollefson (Ed.) *Language Policies in Education*. Mahwah, New Jersey. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates: 225-244.



# Selected Academic Publications

## Books / Edited Books

1. (Forthcoming a). English as a Lingua Franca in ASEAN: Roles, Features and the Multilingual Model of Language Teaching. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.
2. (Forthcoming b). A Handbook of World Englishes: Routledge (Editor).
3. (Forthcoming c). In preparation, contract signed). Chinese Rhetoric and Persuasion. Paris: Klincksieck.
4. (2007a). World Englishes: Implications for International Communication and English Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
5. (2007b). English in Southeast Asia: literacies, literatures and varieties. Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars Publishing (co-editor with David Prescott, Azirah Hashim and Isabel Martin).
6. (2002). Englishes in Asia: Community, identity, power and education. Melbourne: Language Australia (editor).
7. (2000). Contrastive Chinese - English Discourse: A Critical Appraisal (with Ron and Suzanne Scollon). Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
8. (1998). Framing Reading (with Ian Reid and Denise Mulligan). Sydney: Macquarie National Centre For English Language Teaching and Research.
9. (1995). The Hardwork and Entertainment Continuum. Teaching and Learning Asian Languages in Australia. Canberra: Australian Review of Applied Linguistics. Special Series 12 (Co-editor with Yong Zhong and Helen Kirkpatrick).

## Course Books

1. (2004). Intercultural English (with N. Honna). Tokyo: Ikubundo Press.



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2. (2003). Culture Based English for College Students. (Consultant Editor) Jakarta: PT Grasindo (PT Gramedia).
3. (2001). English Across Cultures (with N. Honna and S. Gilbert). Tokyo: Sanshusha Publishing.
4. (1992/6/7). Advance with English Volumes 1-3 (with cassettes, workbooks and teachers' manuals). A three-year English course. (With D.H. Howe and D.L. Kirkpatrick). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
5. (1992a). Stories from the Ming Dynasty. Kuala Lumpur: Oxford University Press.
6. (1992b). Communicative Comprehension Volumes 1-3. A three-volume supplementary English course. Malaysia: Falcon Press.
7. (1987). Access Today Volumes 1-3 (with cassettes, workbooks and teachers' manuals). A three year English course for Hong Kong secondary schools. (With D.H. Howe and D.L. Kirkpatrick). Hong Kong: Oxford University Press.
8. (1982/7). Interlink Volumes 1-4 (with cassettes, workbooks and teachers' manuals). A 4 year English course for Singapore Secondary Schools. (With D.L. Kirkpatrick, Vanita Saravanan and Christopher Fry). Singapore: Oxford University Press.

## Book Chapters

1. (in preparation). 'Theoretical Issues'. In Azlina Hashim and Low Ee Ling (Eds.) English in Southeast Asia: Features, Policy and Language in Use. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
2. (in preparation). 'World Englishes'. In James Simpson et al. (Eds). Handbook of Applied Linguistics. London: Routledge.
3. (2009). English as the working language of ASEAN: pedagogical principles and implications. In C Ward (Ed). Language Teaching in a Multilingual World: Challenges and Opportunities. RELC Anthology Series 50. Regional Language Centre, Singapore: 215-232.
4. (2009). English as the international academic language: implications for 'other' knowledge. In F. Sharifian (Ed.) New Perspectives on Language and Education Clevedon: Multilingual Matters: 254-270.



5. (2007). Linguistic imperialism: English as a global language. In Pauwels, A. and Hellinger, M. (Eds.) Handbook of Applied Linguistics, Volume IX, Language Diversity and Change. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter: 333-364.
6. (2007). The communicative strategies of ASEAN speakers of English as a lingua franca. In Prescott, D. (ed.) English in Southeast Asia: literacies, literatures and varieties. Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars Publishing: 121-139.
7. (2006). 'English as a lingua franca in Asia: implications for research and teaching'. In A. Hashim & N. Hassan (Eds.). Adapting to New Realities: Prospects, Perspectives and Possibilities. Kuala Lumpur: University of Malaya Press: 9-20.
8. (2006). 'Which model of English: Native speaker, nativised or lingua franca?' In M. Saraceni and R. Rubdy (Eds.). English in the World: Global Rules, Global Roles. London: Continuum Press: 71-83.
9. (2006). 'Oral Communication and Intelligibility among ASEAN speakers of English'. In J. Foley (ed.) New Dimensions in the Teaching of Oral Communication. Singapore: Regional Language Centre Anthology Series 47:33-52.
10. (2005). 'English across cultures'. In N. Honna (Ed.) English as an International Language. Tokyo: ALC Press:161-170.
11. (2005). 'Pragmatic issues in English communication in Asia'. In N. Honna (Ed.) English as an International Language. Tokyo: ALC Press: 171-182.
12. (2005). 'The intelligibility of Singaporean English: a case study in an Australian university' (with Neville Saunders). In D. Deterding, A. Brown, & Low Eeling (Eds.) English in Singapore: Phonetic Research on a Corpus. Singapore: McGraw Hill: 153-162.
13. (2004). 'Norms, Varieties and Intelligibility'. In J. Mukundan, D. Abidin and D. Singh (Eds.). ELT Matters 2: Developments in English Language Learning and Teaching. Serdang: Universiti Putra Malaysia Press, pp.11-27.
14. (2003). 'Redefining tertiary literacy – how literate do you need to be? (with Katie Dunworth). In A. Liddicoat, S. Eisenchlas & S. Trevaskes (Eds.) Australian Perspectives on International Education Melbourne: Language Australia: 27-38.

15. (2002). The Use of Citation Conventions and Authorial Voice in a



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- Genre of Chinese Academic Discourse’ (with Yan Yonglin). In David Li (Ed.) Discourses in search of members. In honour of Ron Scollon. University Press of America: 483-508.
16. (2002). ‘Chinese Rhetoric by the Book: What the Textbooks and Handbooks Say’. In Lu, L., Jia Wensha, Heisey, R. (Eds.) Chinese Communication Studies: Comparison and Contrast Westport, CT, Ablex: 245-260.
  17. (2002). ‘ASEAN and Asian cultures and models: implications for the ELT curriculum and teacher selection’. In Kirkpatrick, A. (Ed.) Englishes in Asia: Community, Identity, Power and Education. Melbourne: Language Australia: 213-224.
  18. (2002). ‘Contrastive rhetoric in Chinese and English’. In Lu Guobin (Ed.) Xing Shijie Jiegui: Hanyu Wenhua Xue (Connecting the World: Studies in Chinese Culture). Taiwan: Xuesheng Shuju: 421-446.
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  20. (2000). ‘English as an Asian Language: implications for the English language curriculum’. In Brown, A.(Ed.) English in South East Asia. National Institute of Education, Singapore.
  21. (1999). ‘Which language is easier to learn: English or Chinese?’ In Gao Yuan, Li Baokun and Tang Dexin (Eds.) Language, Culture and Language Teaching. Beijing: Beijing University of Astronautics and Aeronautics).
  22. (1996). ‘The learning and teaching of English in East and South East Asia: the role of the non-native speaking teacher of English and implications for teacher training courses’. In Gao Yuan, Li Baokun and Wang Zhenya (Eds.) Waiyu Jiaoxue: Guandian yu Fangfa (Language Teaching: Viewpoints and Methods) Beijing: Beijing University of Astronautics and Aeronautics.
  23. (1995). ‘Teaching and learning the four priority Asian languages’. In Kirkpatrick A. et al. (Eds.)
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## Journal Articles

**Guest editorship** of special issue of *Asian Englishes* on Australian Aboriginal English (Vol 3, 2, 2000)

### Articles

1. (2009). A Tale of two songs: Singapore versus Hong Kong. English Language Teaching Journal (ELTJ) 63(3): 265-271 [with Andrew Moody].
2. (2008). Learning English and other languages in multilingual settings: principles of multilingual performance and proficiency. Australian Review of Applied Linguistics, 31(3): 1-11.
3. (2008). The international intelligibility of Hong Kong English. World Englishes 27 (3/4) (with David Deterding and Jennie Wong) 359-377.
4. (2008). One Country, two systems, three languages: a proposal for combining Cantonese, Putonghua and English in Hong Kong's schools. *Asian Englishes* 11(2): 32-45 (with Michael Chau).
5. (2008). English as the official working language of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN): features and strategies. English Today 94 Vol 24(2): 37-44.
6. (2008). The Pronunciation of Hong Kong English. English World-wide 29 (2): 148-175 (with David Deterding and Jennie Wong).
7. (2008). Adopting a 'multilingual' model in ELF contexts. Voices 200:11-12.
8. (2007). Setting Attainable and Appropriate English Language Targets in Multilingual Settings: A Case for Hong Kong. International Journal of Applied Linguistics.17 (3) 353-368.
9. (2007). The arrangement of letters: hierarchy or culture? From Cicero to China. Journal of Asian Pacific Communication 17 (2): 245-258.
10. (2007). Asian Englishes: implications for English Language teaching. Asian Englishes 9(2): 4-19.

11. (2007). Teaching English Across Cultures. What do English language



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- teachers need to know to know how to teach English. English Australia Journal 23(2): 20-36.
12. (2007). Language Variation and the Multilingual Speaker of English: Implications for English Language Teaching. The New English Teacher 1(1), 44-60.
  13. (2006). Variation and Intelligibility in Older Varieties of English: Implications for Newer Varieties of English. HKBU Papers in Applied Linguistics 10: 1-20.
  14. (2006). Intelligibility and an emerging ASEAN English lingua franca. World Englishes 25 (3): 391-409 (with David Deterding).
  15. (2005). China's first systematic account of rhetoric: an introduction to Chen Kui's (陈騏) Wen Ze (文则). Rhetorica 23(2): 103-152.
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  17. (2004). Some thoughts on the Chinese learner and the teaching of writing. The East Asian Learner 1(1): 6-15.
  18. (2004). Medieval Chinese rules of writing and their relevance today. Australian Review of Applied Linguistics 27 (1):1-14.
  19. (2002). Cultures of learning. Critical reading in the social and applied sciences. Australian Review of Applied Linguistics 24(2): 67-101 (with Denise Mulligan).
  20. (2002). Chinese pragmatic norms and China English. World Englishes 21 (2): 269-280 (with Xu Zhichang).
  21. (2002). Australian Aboriginal English as a lingua franca. Ateneo de Manila University, Ateneo Centre for English Language Teaching Journal 6(1): 28-34.
  22. (2001). Is Australian English a standard or a variety? A suggested answer for the Australian TESOL industry. English Australia Journal Vol 19 (2): 68-75.
  23. (2001). The new language law of the People's Republic of China. Australian Language Matters 9(2): 14-18 (with Xu Zhichang).
  24. (2000). How much do they really understand? Listening to lectures. Higher Education Research and Development (HERD) Journal 19(3):311-335 (with Denise Mulligan).

25. The (2000). The disadvantaged monolingual. Why English alone is not



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26. (1998). Language, culture and the development of regional varieties of English: who owns the varieties? Asian Englishes 1(2):76-86.
  27. (1997). A reply to the replies. Babel 32(1):22-26.
  28. (1997). Future directions in English, ELT and Research. English Australia Journal 15(1):28-35.
  29. (1997). Traditional Chinese text structures and their influence on the writing in Chinese and English of contemporary Mainland Chinese students. Journal of Second Language Writing 6(2):223-244.
  30. (1997). Teaching contrastive rhetoric: seven principles. Australian Review of Applied Linguistics, Special Series 14: 89-102.
  31. (1996). Topic - comment or modifier - modified? Studies in Language 20 (1):93-116.
  32. (1996). Using authentic texts to teach Modern Standard Chinese. Journal of the Chinese Language Teachers Association 31 (1):15-28.
  33. (1995). Are they really so different?. The 'Chinese' genre of University entrance essays. Open Letter 5 (2):43-53.
  34. (1995). Chinese Rhetoric: methods of argument. Multilingua 14 (3): 271-295.
  35. (1995). Learning Asian languages in Australia. Which language and when? Babel 30(1):4-31.
  36. (1994). How do you know what I'm going to say? Advance organisers in Modern Standard Chinese. Australian Review of Applied Linguistics, Special Series 11:83-96.
  37. (1994). Teaching international students and 'FLOTE's' at tertiary level. Language or culture? TESOL in Context 4(2):33-36.
  38. (1993). Information sequencing in Modern Standard Chinese in genre of extended spoken discourse. Text 13(3):422-452.
  39. (1993). Information sequencing in Modern Standard Chinese. Australian Review of Applied Linguistics 16(2):27-60.
  40. (1992). Schemata, authentic texts and cross-cultural communication. Australian Review of Applied Linguistics, Special Series 9: 101-120.
  41. (1991). Information sequencing in Mandarin in letters of request. Anthropological Linguistics 33 (2):1-20.



42. (1985) Further Thoughts on Language Learning and Language Acquisition. Teaching and Learning 5 (2):42-46.
43. (1984). Models in Mandarin and English - Implications for Language Teaching. Singapore Journal of Education 6 (1): 44-50.
44. (1984). Language Learning and Language Acquisition. Teaching and Learning, Singapore 5(1):5-12.



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# Selected Research Projects

1. 2005-2008. Australian Research Council (ARC) Discovery Grant (A\$120,000). 'English as a spoken lingua franca in ASEAN: a study of its linguistic and socio-cultural features'. (Principal Investigator).
2. 2006. 'A comparative study into the international intelligibility of HKIEd English majors' English: implications for English language teacher education' Internal Research Grant, HKIEd (HK\$ 84,109). (Principal Investigator).
3. 2002. Australia Indonesia Institute funded (A\$12000) project for the development of an ASEAN-culture-based English language course for Indonesian university students. (Principal Investigator).
4. 2000/2001. Australian Department of Education funded (\$32,000). Student Action Research for University Access (SARUA). Action research projects for high school students that help the school and, at the same time, prepare students for university study. (Principal Investigator).
5. 2000. Australian Department of Education funded (\$9065). Reading across cultures: comparative practice in academic reading. A study of cross-disciplinary reading practices in a Chinese university. (Principal Investigator).
6. 1999. Australia-Japan Foundation funded project (total funding A\$120,000) to develop distance English language and professional development courses (to Masters level) for Japanese secondary school English teachers. (In a consortium with University Technology, Sydney as lead partner.)
7. 1998/9. Australian Department of Education funded (total funding A\$266,719) The attainment of language proficiency (with Language Australia, the University of Melbourne and the University of Western Sydney). (Co-Investigator).
8. 1996/7. Australian Department of Education funded STEP grant (A\$25,000) for the development of an innovative teacher training course for Australia's strategic partners. (Principal Investigator).



9. 1996. Education Department of Western Australia funded (A\$39,500) Language Teacher Proficiency Assessment. (Principal Investigator).
10. 1995/6. Australian Research Council (ARC) large grant project (\$247,000) Framing student literacy: cross-cultural aspects of English communications skills in Australian University settings. (Professor Ian Reid as Chief Investigator.)



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