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CONTENTS

MỤC LỤC

FOREWORD

Dear Readers,

It is our pleasure to offer you the 3rd issue of *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies* this year with articles addressing a variety of social, cultural, linguistic as well as language education questions of current scholarly interest. It is also interesting to see that the authors of the articles in this issue are continuously pushing boundaries rather than restricting themselves within a particular aspect of the respective disciplines, as reflected in their papers – the results of their indepth studies from different perspectives.

It is evident that discourse analysis in general, and critical discourse analysis (CDA), has been drawing attention from an increasing number of researchers. Within this particular issue of the journal, several authors have made use of CDA in their research. Notably, Nguyen Hoa's paper touches upon the construction of identities through verbal humor, and analyses how verbal humor can discursively construct identities, grounded in the assumption of social constructionism that identity is not given, but constructed in social practice, or discourse practices. His paper applies a mix of methods and Gricean pragmatics in the analysis of implicature-generated humor occurring in a speech delivered in the political context of a presidential election. Similarly, Nguyen Thi Thu Ha *et al* take a post-structruralist approach to discourse analysis, positioning that power is contructed and negotiated through discourse, with the aim to find out how students actually realize their power through linguistic choices. Huynh Anh Tuan continues with a review of CDA research in the fields of media, politics, racism and sexism discourse with voices raised against socio-political inequality, which is also one of the fundamental goals CDA has been attempting to attain.

In addition to CDA, borrowing in language as a result of diverse socio-economic and cultural factors is the second area addressed by several papers in this issue. The first is a review of borrowing by Pham Hung Viet and Ly Toan Thang from both theoretical and practical perspectives. Their paper discusses the concept of language borrowing from different viewpoints and considers approaches to that linguistic phenomenon, from traditional to modern ones concerning borrowings at various levels in a language system, including phonetic, lexical and syntactic levels. These offer practical implications to research on the issue of borrowing in the Vietnamese language at present. This theoretical insight of Pham Hung Viet and Ly Toan Thang is illustrated by a specific study by Nguyen Thuy Nga in which English borrowings and scale of borrowability are analyzed through data collected from Vietnamese magazines.

Apart from CDA and language borrowing, a "trendy" interest among Vietnamese scholars at present in Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), a linguistic school initiated by Halliday and further developed by many others, can be seen in a number of papers. For instance, Tran Quoc Thao and Nguyen Van Muoi make a syntactic analysis of the English discourse marker *only* and its Vietnamese translational equivalents, which involves the development of a bilingual corpus of 168 English and 168 Vietnamese instances of sentences containing *only*. Another instance is Nguyen Thanh Nga's article entitled *Doctor-Patient Power Relation: A Systemic Functional Analysis of a Doctor-Patient Consultation* based on a consultation taken from YouTube. The paper uses systemic functional linguistics as the main theoretical framework, following the top-down approach to analysis; particularly from the analysis of the consultation in terms of field, tenor and mode down to the analysis of the consultation in terms of transitivity, mood and modality. The third paper in this vein is a study on the use of rhetorical devices in 10 Hillary

Clinton's speeches from 2010 to 2016 by Pham Thi Minh Phuong. The fourth paper which applies functional approach in this issue is entitled *Some Suggestions on How to Identify and Classify Behavioral Processes in English and Vietnamese* by Nguyen Thi Tu Trinh, Phan Van Hoa and Tran Huu Phuc. In this paper, the authors make an attempt to explore in some depth the causes of the troubles due to the semantic ambiguity of behavioral processes and offer some suggestions on how those troubles should be shot. Obviously, SFL is now proliferating and securing the position it should have assumed in the country.

In tandem with linguistic research, language education also receives substantial attention. Amidst vigorous implementation of the National Foreign Language Project 2020, many Vietnamese institutions are now piloting English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in their courses. In this line, the paper by Vu Thi Thanh Nha aims to analyse the literature to explore the various agendas (social, economic, political, and educational) that underlie the EMI expansion. It examines the world literature as a framework of reference for analysing the Vietnamese case. Assessment is an integral part of language education, so Dinh Minh Thu's article discusses the significant contributors to a teacher's preparation for performance-based assessment (PBA) toward learners' success in achieving both the deep knowledge of a linguistics subject and the 21st-century skills for English majors at a university in the country, and Nguyen Thi Anh Thu looks at the way to increasing motivation through task-based learning in an *ASEAN Studies* course. Not only focusing on the learner, Truong Vien addresses the issue of teachers' professional development (PD) with a view to assisting EFL teachers improve the effectiveness of their PD in Vietnam. This issue of the journal also benefits from the paper by Vu Ngoc Tu and Nguyen Phan Quang entitled *Vietnam - France Higher Education Systems and University - University Cooperation in Joint Training Programs*.

Quality and variety – these two words hope to encompass what you are going to read in this issue.

Respectfully,

Lam Quang Dong
Editor-in-Chief

RESEARCH

A DISCURSIVE CONSTRUCTION OF IDENTITIES THROUGH VERBAL HUMOR

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Abstract: This study focuses on how verbal humor can discursively construct identities, grounded in the assumption of social constructionism that identity is not given, but is constructed in social practice (Foucault, 1984), or discourse practices (Fairclough, 2001). I exploit a mix of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) methods and Gricean pragmatics in the analysis of implicature-generated humor occurring in a speech delivered in the political context of a presidential election. The findings show that verbal humor (created through the use of language in contexts of situation) is not just for "fun" or "humor", but also for performing a variety of pragmatic functions such as developing social relations, creating solidarity, or the construction of identities in socio-political contexts (presidential election), which is consistent with other research projects concerning the function of verbal humor.

I have made every effort to conceal the identity of the individuals to the possible extent in ways that do not hinder comprehension. The two main characters are named John and Mary. Three individual are coded X, Y, and Z as they appear in the remarks. The election happened in country A.

Keywords: identity, image, humor, construct, discursive, intertextuality, interdiscursivity

Introduction

Identity has received much attention from many disciplines including psychology, social and cultural anthropology, philosophy, art, and linguistics. For some, identity is identification with something. For others, it may be seen as a label that distinguishes one individual or group from another. So far, research interests have been devoted to how language is constitutive of identity. This study focuses on the function of humor in forming and shaping identities that we as human beings acquire. Humor

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research is not just focused on the dimension of "fun" or the "humorous effects", but also on the pragmatic aspects of humor. But a point worthy of note is that to date little research has been carried out to explore how verbal humor can discursively construct identities in socio-political context. Most of the work done so far indicates that humor can perform a variety of functions such as maintenance of good relations with fellow workers (Holmes, 2006), creating solidarity, power or dealing with a psychological problem (Hay, 2000). Habib's study (2008) applying ethnography of communication approach explained how disagreement and teasing (humor) can work

together to enrich pragmatic and cultural knowledge and display personal identity in cross-cultural communication.

This study takes a discursive approach to identity construction, looking at how verbal humor can discursively construct identities, and what discursive resources are exploited to achieve this goal. I want to stress the fact that this study is concerned with identity construction in a socio-political context. The notion of humor is often defined in terms of irony and sarcasm, and this study just uses the term "humor" regardless of whether the intended effect is ironic or sarcastic.

The context

The setting is a presidential election in country A. This election is believed to be unprecedented in many ways. For the first time in its history, a woman has been nominated by a major party to carry its mantle. Further, the two candidates had high negatives. For example, an article in a famous journal reported that "some 60% of registered voters held a negative view of John, …" and "Mary fared somewhat better, with 55% viewing her in a negative light…". Opinions were expressed in the media in such terms as "crazy", "unpredictable" or "taking a dark turn", or "race to the bottom". John and Mary were both trying to construct the other's identities in such unheard-of terms as: "crooked", "lying", "mentally unfit", "dangerous", or "unfit to be president". A CDA of the speech in such context can be ideologically, socially, or linguistically revealing. Mary has made many speeches on the campaign trail, but I find the speech given at the event in question of special linguistic significance as it includes self-deprecating humor while roasting the other candidate.

The event, where the Mary's remarks were given, is an dinner for the elite politicians,

media figures, and clergyman who gather for fun and for raising money for the disadvantaged children in the name of Catholic charity. The interesting thing about this gathering is every four years, two presidential candidates are on hand to traditionally roast each other with gentle jabs and make self-deprecating jokes.

Theoretical and analytical framework

This study draws on critical discourse analysis (CDA) which has its impact felt in many disciplines in the social sciences and humanities. As Jorgensen and Phillips (2002) note CDA is more concerned with the linguistic organization of discourse (text and talk). As talk and text are oriented toward social action, it follows that their meaning is dependent on context or the use to which language is put, or we may say that this language use is context-bound. But it is crucial to keep in mind that language use in social contexts is viewed as resources for use by people to construct the world, social relations and identities. This view is shared by researchers in anthropology, linguistics, psychology, sociology, history, literature, gender studies, and social theories, among others, (Fina, Schiffrin, & Bamberg, 2006).

Firmly grounded in social constructionism, CDA studies how people use discursive resources to construct their social world and perceptual realities. CDA views identity as something not isolated, not autonomous, but rather as a something that is formed, negotiated and shaped or reshaped in discourse. Seeing identity as constructed implies a reorientation from a more essentialist position. Some philosophers of anti-essentialist orientation like Rorty (1980) argues that identity is a culturally specific discursive construction. In other words, we no longer view a person as having an identity, but rather we focus on the discursive process in which his or her identity is made, changed, negotiated, or maintained.

Language does not reflect the world out there, but is better understood as repertoires at our disposal to "make" or to "construct" the social world. A person's identity whether it be social, personal, or professional, is something that is not reflected, but constructed, negotiated in discourse; and language offers choices to do this job, (Potter and Whetherell, 1987). Choosing the right discursive resources will enable a speaker/writer to achieve his or her goal of identity construction.

The idea that language at best only represents or reflects reality stems from the view that reality is external to, and independent of, how we as human beings makes sense of, and conceptualize, or "construct" the world. Lakoff and Johnson (1980/2003: 146) rightly observe that such a view does not take into account "*the human aspects of reality, in particular the real perceptions. Conceptualizations, motivations, and actions that "constitute" most of what we experience*". In the same vein, Jorgensen and Phillips (2002/2014) believe that rather than just neutrally reflect the world, identities, and social relations, discourse plays an active role in creating and changing them. But I will see a dialectical relationship between representation and construction: we represent the world by constructing it, and we construct the world by representing it. Representing the world in one way or another is something we all do in the production of discourse and construction of the world. We use language to both represent our identity and at the same time construct it. "Construction" is used in this sense in this study.

I will now just discuss Norman Fairclough's discourse analytical framework, which I will apply in my analysis. Fairclough regards discourse as a social practice, or a kind of language used in a particular domain, and/ or as a way of speaking that gives meaning to experiences from a particular perspective.

Discourse, in his view, constructs identities, social relations and systems of knowledge and meaning. Foucauldian discourse analysis takes a similar view. There are obvious reasons to choose this framework. First, as Jorgensen and Phillips observe this framework is a text-oriented form of discourse analysis where the use of language figures prominently. Second, Fairclough also believes that the analyst needs to go further than just focusing on a detailed textual analysis, and his job is to explain the links between texts and societal and cultural processes and structures. One of Fairclough's major contributions is his understanding of discourse as both constitutive and constituted in the sense that it both constitutes the social world and is constituted by other social practices.

Fairclough views each instance of language use as a communicative event, which can be an article, a political speech, or interview, and in this case it is the remarks made by Mary at the Alfred E. Smith Dinner. This can be seen as made up of three aspects: the text, the discursive practice, and the social practice. Fairclough's approach will entail analyzing the use of linguistic resources such as vocabulary, syntax and textual organization from which discourses and genres are realized linguistically, and analysis of discursive practice, which is about how existing discourses and genres are drawn upon to produce and consume (interpret) a text or talk. The role of the (inter) discursive practice is to mediate the relationships between texts and social practice. In other words, it is about the strategies used. The social dimension provides the content aspect, but understanding it will require knowledge of socio-cultural, and political theories. In short, CDA's aim is to provide an account of the linguistic-discursive dimension of the social (Fairclough and Wodak, 1977). The following figure represents the model used in this study. I have made a small change from "discursive" into

"interdiscursive" as interdiscursive practice is the rule rather than the exception.

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│   │     Text production         │   │
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│   │   │                     │   │   │
│   │   │       TEXT          │   │   │
│   │   │                     │   │   │
│   │   └─────────────────────┘   │   │
│   │   Text consumption          │   │
│   │   (INTER) DISCURSIVE PRACTICE│  │
│   └─────────────────────────────┘   │
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│   SOCIAL PRACTICE                   │
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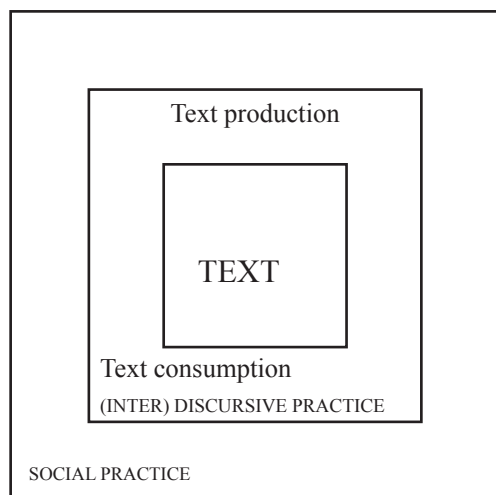
Fairclough's adapted three-dimensional model for Critical Discourse Analysis (1992a: 73)

Some key notions

In what follows, I will try to clarify some of the key terms underpinning this study. First is the notion of "identity", which is closely linked to that of "Image", which has been the subject matter of many disciplines especially art, literature, cognitive linguistics. Generally, image is viewed as a visual perception, or a mental picture of an entity. As such, it is a make-up of the major traits or defining characteristics of an entity, or in other words, of identities. Identity is a historical, social and cultural construct, and as such it is not neutral as it tells us about who we are in terms of our gender, social class, age, sexual orientation, race and ethnicity our power, ideologies, and value systems from a certain point of view. Similarly, in terms of identity theory the core of identity is the categorization of the self as an occupation of a role, and the assignment of meanings, expectations, and its performance to that role (Burke and Tully, 1977; Stets and Burke, 2000). For example, a person can be said to possess a numbers of identities

as a "politician", a "university lecturer" a "neighbor", or a 'community organizer". In this study, "identity" will be used in the latter sense to denote a particular instantiation or manifestation of the image associated with an individual. The construction of identity spells out what it equals and what it differs from. Identity construction can happen in a myriad of ways, for example in art by way of metaphor or symbolic communication (Dowling, 2011), or in discourse, which is the issue this study deals with. Discursive psychologists such as Potter and Whetherell, and critical discourse analysts (Fairclough) see identity as a discursive construct. That is something we use language to create in socially-situated interaction. Note that the term "identity" is used in two ways either as a non-count or a count noun. In the former instance, it is the overall image of an individual whereas in the latter case, it refers to each manifestation of a person in a particular context.

The other notions are "intertextuality" and "interdiscursivity". "Intertextuality" was first coined by Kristeva (in "The Kristeva Reader", edited by T. Moi, 1966) as an attempt to combine Saussure's semiotics with Bakhtin's dialogism. For Kristeva, meaning is not transferred directly from writer to reader but is mediated through or filtered by, codes imparted to the reader by other texts. For Jorgensen and Phillips (2002), intertextuality refers to the conditions where all communicative events draw on earlier events, and the language that have been used before are used. This means that texts draw on other texts (Fairclough, 1992), for example, by citing them. One example is the use of reported speech. Reisigle and Wodak posit that texts are linked to other texts in a phenomenon called "intertextuality" through reference to a topic or events by allusions or evocation; or by the transfer of the main arguments from one text to the next. The process of transferring is

referred to as "recontextualization". The most obvious example of intertextuality is reported speech or quotes.

Interdiscursivity, on the other hand, may be seen as a mix of discourses, genres and styles in a communicative event, or a single text, and it is a form of intertextuality. In simple terms, it is the creation of a text's meaning by other texts. Among the means available, quotation and allusion are most common. It is rare to find a "pure" discourse or text in practice. About the distinction between intertextuality and interdiscursivity, the following can be said: Intertextuality refers to texts which are made up of elements from other texts (quotes, for example), whereas interdiscursivity is about the process of constituting texts by combining discourses, genres and styles from the language system, or in other words, simply making linguistic choices to achieve strategic purposes.

Allusion is defined by the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (1987) as an act of speaking about something or somebody in an indirect way. Another way of looking at it is as a passing or casual reference, an incidental mention of something, either directly or by implication. It is often confused with intertextuality.

The framework of textual analysis

It is quite hard to find a well-defined empirical methodology in CDA, and its landscape seems to be that of a number of approaches characterized by theoretical similarities (Wodak and Meyer, 2009), and eclecticism. Our review reveals that there are two main approaches to textual analysis. One approach is offered by Machin. D and Mayr (2012), which is not limited to word choices, but actually goes further into more dynamic dimensions of the interaction including intertextuality, personalization,

individualization and collectivization, nomination or functionalization, representing action, concealing and taking for granted, persuading with abstraction, committing to, and evading truth. Fairclough (2001), based on systemic functional grammar, proposes a list of guiding questions, looking at the use of vocabulary in terms of their experiential, expressive, relational values that words have, and metaphors, especially conceptual metaphors. Grammar is also analyzed along similar lines. Textual structures, are analyzed, as well.

I adopt a mix of Fairclough's analytical model and the pragmatic approach in this study of humor-constructed identity. I will, while keeping the two phases of interpretation and explanation, not apply Fairclough's first phase of textual description. Instead, I will basically takes the Gricean pragmatic approach to the textual analysis of the realization of creating identity, based on humor as it serves its socio-pragmatic function in self or other-construction. Humor hails from implicature, which is engendered by flouting one or more of the CP maxims (Leech, 1983). Flouting may be defined as an act of breaking a maxim on purpose to create implicature, and in this sense it is conversationally cooperative. Thus, the analytic approach involves finding out 1) what maxim(s) is flouted, 2) what knowledge is presupposed, and 3) what interdiscursive strategy is employed either to enable a speaker to appear objective, or to shield the speaker from committing to a fact.

Implicature refers to what a speaker can imply, suggest, or mean, as distinct from what he literally says. Here is what Grice (1975: 49/50) says about implicature:

"A man who, by (in and when) saying (or making as if to say) that p has implicated q, may be said to have conversationally implicated that q, PROVIDED THAT (1) he is presumed to be observing the conversational maxims,

or at least the Cooperative Principle; (2) the supposition that he is aware that, or thinks that, q is required in order to make his saying or making as if to say p, (or doing so in THOSE terms) consistent with this presumption; and (3) the speaker thinks (and would expect the hearer to think that the speaker thinks) that it is within the competence of the hearer to work out, or grasp intuitively, that the supposition mentioned in (2) is required".

To work out implicature, Grice suggests that the hearer needs to know or share the conventional meaning of the utterance, the CP maxims, the context of the utterance, background knowledge, and the fact that all relevant elements mentioned above are available to both participants, and they know or assume this to be the case (Grice, 1975). It is apparent that both linguistic knowledge, and sharing background knowledge or information seem to be crucial in making sense of implicature upon which humor is based. There is no doubt that implicature is one of the key factors that creates humor, and shared background knowledge operates as the basis for interpreting and grasping the intended meaning or the illocutionary force of the punch utterance through the act of *alluding.* Cutting (2015) offers a brief description of how maxims can be flouted. In particular, he discusses in greater detail the flouting of the quality maxim. According to Cutting, this maxim can be flouted by using an exaggeration (or hyperbole), or a metaphor, or an irony and banter, or sarcasm. As Attardo (1994) observes all jokes involve the flouting of at least one maxim, and in many cases of all maxims.

Without a shared background or contextual knowledge, it is impossible for jokes to go off as intended. A viewing of the video shows that those present there enjoyed themselves and laughter could be heard at the end of each joke. But, a group of Vietnamese MA students whose major is English were shown this video, and it is apparent that they simply watched it with some interest, but they did not show any obvious appreciation of the humor. They simply did not laugh.

Construction of identities by humor: findings and discussion

Mary's speech at the Dinner in question is the empirical material for my analysis (for the transcripts, see *References*). Her speech consists of 13 punchline jokes made about John as identified by me, and the structure of punchline joke includes a setup which is the narrative providing background information, and the punchline or the laugh line. It is simply referred to as a joke. In this study, I will only focus on the jokes about John, not the self-deprecating ones that Mary made about herself. My analysis of the data will focus on maxim flouting, the kind of assumed knowledge, and the interdiscursive strategy involved. In addition, to find out the social dimension of the speech, content analysis was used to set up a conceptual framework within which to conduct this study, as suggested by Baker & Galasinski (2001). This framework can offer key information on the main themes contained therein. These themes were cross-checked with those found in other speeches that these two individuals made on their campaign trails, and in using this method, I am fully aware of its limitations as content analysis may not be able to reveal the underlying motives, and be limited by availability of materials (in this case, just the above mentioned text). The main themes serve as the grounds for sketching the image of the individual (John). Our findings are presented below.

1. John is a sexist.
Example 1. "*But this has been a really strange campaign. You saw it last night*

and tonight. John has attacked me for life in public service. I did not get that at first. I kind of get it now. As he told X, he does not like it when women have been around for more than 35 years".

Example 2. *"People look at the Statue of Liberty and they see a proud symbol of our history as a nation of immigrants, a beacon of hope for people around the world. John looks at the Statue of Liberty and sees a "four."* (LAUGHTER) *"Maybe a "five" if she loses the torch and tablet and changes her hair".* (LAUGHTER)

As is discussed above, a very critical part of the joke is the narrative or the act of narrating performed by the joke creator. This part that provides a lead-in to the punchline where the implicature is to be found. It may not matter whether this narrative is true or not. These jokes are based on a presupposition of socio-cultural background knowledge: It is no secret that in a radio talk, John described a woman sexually at her best at thirty, and he checked out of the relationship at thirty five. As owner of the Miss World beauty pageant, John is known to rate a woman's body from one to ten. This is the knowledge that Mary assumed people present there had.

The punchline is: "…*sees a 4. Maybe a 5"*, which reminds the audience of what they know about John's habit of rating a woman's body from one to ten. Obviously, alluding is the speech act that is performed by the speaker and pervades implicature-induced humor.

The interdiscursive strategy here is the use of reported speech to allude to the assumed knowledge: "As he told X, he does not like it when women have been around for more than 35 years".

Flouting of the quality maxim occurs here by way of using a sarcasm: *John looks at the Statue of Liberty and sees a 4. Maybe a 5 if she loses the torch and tablet and changes her hair".*

2. John is a racist.

Example 3. *"And if John does win, it will be awkward at the annual President's Day photo, when all the former presidents gather at the White House, and not just with Bill. How is Barack going to get past the Muslim ban?"* (LAUGHTER)

Mary presupposed that the audience had access to, or shared the background knowledge of what happened on the campaign trail. John is known to say that he would impose a total ban on Muslim immigration into the country, though he flip-flopped on occasions. Mary simply alluded to this fact.

Flouting the maxim of quality: It is not at all clear whether what Mary talks about will happen. That is Barack is not going to be there. The key is the use of "awkward" as a metaphor.

3. John seemingly had a personality and temperament problem.

Example 4. *"And, you know, because this is a friendly dinner for such a great cause; John, if at any time, you don't like what I'm saying feel free to stand up and shout "Wrong!" while I'm talking".* (LAUGHTER)

Presupposition of socio-cultural background knowledge: John is seen in debates to make a lot of interruptions when Mary is speaking. This is a violation of the rules they agreed upon. They both have a time limit for their turns. He looks rude in the debates.

Intertextuality is an obvious feature of this joke as Mary was trying to allude to what actually happened at the debates: *and shout "Wrong" while I'm talking"*. Mary flouts the maxim of quality (*And because this dinner is for such a great cause, John, if at any time you don't like what I'm saying*).

He is ready to say anything without any evidence. For example, he can make a false claim that Mary used drug to be able to

get through the tough going debates. As is apparent from example 5.

Example 5. *"There is nothing like sharing a stage with John. John wanted me drug tested before last night's debate. And look, I've got to tell you, I am so flattered that John thought I used some sort of performance enhancer."* (LAUGHTER). *"Now, actually, I did. It's called preparation"*. (LAUGHTER)

Presupposition of socio-cultural background knowledge: John was reported to be ready to say anything unhinged. Then he denied ever saying it. For example, he said that he did not supported the War in Iraq, but this claim was fact-checked, and it turned out that he actually supported it. Mary smartly used this to evoke the sense that John was not prepared for the job he wanted.

Mary on purpose flouted the maxim of quality when saying: *"I am so flattered that John thinks I used some sort of performance enhancer"*. And intertextuality is manifested when she reported: *"John wanted me drug-tested before last night's debate."*. This was a ridiculous charge against Mary.

Another example is example 6 where John is a portrayed as a "sore loser". *"You know, I've had the privilege of being at the Al Smith dinners in years past and I always enjoy it. But, remember, if you're not happy with the way it comes out, it must be rigged."* (LAUGHTER)

Presupposition of socio-cultural background knowledge: John constantly complained that the system was rigged against him, everything, even the polls. The conventional wisdom is that people whine when they are losing. John's character was put on the line, evoking a sense of untrustworthiness.

4. John was constructed as unprepared for the job.

Example 7. *"And I don't understand their unhappiness. They say John doesn't have any*

polit-cies (sic). He has no policies. I keep hearing that. I'd actually like to defend him on this. John has issues, serious issues." (LAUGHTER). *"Really, really serious issues"*. (LAUGHTER). *"And I worry about John's go it alone attitude. For example, at his convention, when he said I alone can fix it, you know, in the '90s, I said the same thing about America's health care system and it didn't work out so well for me, either."*

Presupposition of socio-cultural background knowledge: At the National Convention, John declared: "*I alone can fix it*". Here the strategy is the use of intertextuality: "*he said: I alone can fix it."*. By alluding to this act by John, Mary was smart enough to remind the audience that this attitude will inevitably fail as was the case with her in the early 1990s when she was leading the efforts at health care. Again the maxim of quality is flouted as Mary said she was "*defending him*". It was simply not true.

Mary employed an interdiscursive strategy to achieve this goal "*They say John doesn't have any polit-cies (sic)"*.

5. John may have a problem with trust. This is shown by the fact that John has dubious business practice, as is illustrated by the following example.

Example 8. *"Now, look, I have deep respect for people like Y. She's working day and night for John and because she's a contractor, he's probably not even going to pay her."* (LAUGHTER) (BOOS)

What was presupposed was the fact that there are stories in the media that John refused to pay his contractors for the work they did for him. Mary obviously alluded to this fact, reminding people that John was not trustworthy as he did not honor the promise to pay when the work was finished.

The punchline is: "*she is a contractor, he is probably not even going to pay her."*

This implicature is created by the flouting of the maxim of relation. One has to be able to understand the link between having deep respect for Y and the fact that John was probably not going pay her for the work she was doing for him.

Example 9. "*For example, I have tried to inspire young people by showing them that with resilience and hard work, anything is possible, and you are doing the same. A third-grade teacher told me that one of her students refused to turn in his homework because it was "under audit*."

Presupposition of socio-cultural background knowledge: John has consistently refused to release his tax returns, which is a common practice in the country when someone is running for the highest office of the land. The implication here is that he had something fishy to hide, and it is also noteworthy that intertextuality occurs here, too (*A third-grade teacher told me …*).

Mary flouted the maxim of quality too: "*A third-grade teacher told me that one of her students refused to turn in his homework because it was "under audit*". In fact no teacher had ever told her. It was simply made up. Flouting of relation occurred as the audience was expected to be able to imagine what was not said, and make the connection between the first and second utterance of this joke.

Example 10. "*Republicans in particular seemed frustrated with their nominee. The Speaker told the members of the House, "You don't have to support the top of the ticket; just do what's in your best interest." So I guess John really has unified his party around his core philosoph*y".

As news of John's own stories about his sexual behavior emerged, The House Speaker was known to tell their members everyone for himself. This was what Mary presupposed to happen. This, according to Mary, applies

to John and is attached to him as a defining trait or core philosophy. He looked after only himself. The key to humor is intertextuality in the form of reported speech is used here to allude to what the Speaker said: *the Speaker told the members of the House….* In reporting the House Speaker's words, Mary did not commit herself to this reality. Flouting the maxim of quality was the case, too: *So I guess John really has unified his party around his core philosoph*y".

6. John is influenced by a foreign actor.

Example 11. *"Now, you notice there is no teleprompter here tonight, which is probably smart, because maybe you saw John dismantle his prompter the other day. And I get that. They're hard to keep up with, and I'm sure it's even harder when you're translating from the original Russian"*. (LAUGHTER)

Presupposition of background knowledge: John was reported to dismantle the teleprompter when it did not work. It is obvious that Mary flouted the maxim of quality. There is no evidence that: "… *when you are translating from the original Russian*", and the maxim of relation as well. The hearers are expected to be able to imagine what is not said there, but make the connection between dismantling the teleprompter and translating from the Russians. In other words, Mary wanted to imply that John was speaking the language of the Russians. Now we know that in January, 2017, a newspaper ran this headline "Declassified report says President Z 'ordered' effort to undermine faith in our election and help John", reporting this as the conclusion of multiple intelligence agencies.

Example 12. *"But I - but I kind of want to just put the information out there, so everybody can draw their own conclusions and you can judge our relative health. We've each released our medical records. My blood pressure is 100/70. His is unbelievably great."*

(LAUGHTER). *"My cholesterol is 189, his is presidential"*. (LAUGHTER)

"My heart rate is 72 beats per minute, his is the most beats ever, or the least beats ever, whichever sounds best." (LAUGHTER). *"But John really is as healthy as a horse, you know, the one President Z rides around on."* (LAUGHTER)

Presupposition of socio-cultural background knowledge: John was said to be an admirer of a foreign leader, who is regarded as a dictator, and not a friend of America, he went so far as to say that the current president of the country was a weaker president than him. He seemed to subscribe to many of the political lines held by the Russians. It was very strange when his doctor released his statement of health in terms believed to be very unprofessional. Here in this joke, intertextuality abounds in this humor: *My blood pressure is 100/70. His is unbelievably great. My cholesterol is 189. His is "presidential." My heart rate is 72 beats per minute.*. Flouting the maxim of quality using a sarcasm (*…the one that President Z rides around on*) and hyperbole (as healthy as a horse) are crucial.

7. John might be seen as behaving in a way not acceptable in a democracy.

Example 13. *"You know, come to think of it, it's amazing I'm up here after John. I didn't think he'd be okay with a peaceful transition of power"*. (LAUGHTER) (APPLAUSE)

Presupposition of socio-cultural background knowledge: Mary alluded to what John said during the third debate: when asked whether he would accept the results of the election, he said; "*I'll keep you in suspense*", refusing to say in the affirmative that he would honor American tradition of democracy. In the minds of many, this act might pose as a threat to democracy. Here, the maxim of quality was flouted as it was not true that John would

be okay with a peaceful transition power. Mary actually used something which may be described as both an example of sarcasm and exaggeration (*It's amazing!*).

My analysis of these instances of humor in Mary's speech shows how humor plays a powerful role in the production of identity of John. Mary as the speaking subject chose discursive devices from existing repertoires that lean toward a world-to-person direction of the fit. Mary was trying to narrate a world to fit John by way of implication. The themes identified above look like a series of descriptions of an individual in language, but they implicitly construct John's image *as a sexist and racist, a person unqualified to be president and commander-in-chief*. That is the key message that Mary tried to hammer in her speech and throughout the campaign and probably with some success with the audience as they laughed (and probably with certain blocks of voters as she won more popular votes).

The underlying basis is the production of implicature by Mary, followed by a successful interpretation of it by the hearer (audience). For this purpose, Mary consistently flouted the Gricean maxims. All this happened in a social context (the Foundation Dinner), based on a presupposition of some facts, stories, or incidents, or simply background knowledge, supposedly available and known to the audience. To allude to that supposedly shared knowledge, intertextuality is the main resource. It is not clear to me how Mary chose all the stories and incidents to presuppose. Some of them go back a long way, to the radio talk with X, for example. But it can be said that the selection of the incidents was wise. It was a clever choice to serve her purpose. By hammering on the themes of sexism and racism, she was, in my view, trying to appeal to women, and especially the non-European-Americans, the increasingly important constituencies in the election. All the incidents

about his character should be what she had in mind. At the end of the day, a question often asked by the voters is do I trust this person to run the country. The act of narrating takes on a crucial role as it lays the groundwork leading up to the punchline or laugh line. Implicature underpins the humor, but it is apparent that both background knowledge and its presupposition play a critical role as the basis of humor. However, it should be stressed that all these discursive strategies (presupposition of background knowledge, interdiscursive practice, and narrating to lay the groundwork for the humor) work together in tandem as a function of factors. The smart choice of discursive tools by Mary provides consistent proof that discourse can be viewed as a system of options, and that the construction of identity or the social realities is selective. Our intertextual analysis shows the journey of text-embedded ideas from one site (a story told by a person) to another (it got reported/ narrated as part of the joke). However, what emerges out of the analysis is that the key role of a negative construction of John's identities was accorded to humor created by the act of presupposing. It worked as the audience understood the humor and they laughed as they worked out the implicature, based on their shared linguistic and background knowledge, as Grice mentioned. Mary was implicitly constructing John's identities by creating humor, which involves using the strategy of flouting the Gricean maxims based on presupposition. The strategy was made possible because she assumed that that stories she was narrating were what everybody knew and not that she was painting his image as such. She wanted to make it real.

Conclusion

This study has adopted the discursive approach of identity construction, but shifted from the common practice of textual description (Fairclough, 2001b) to an analysis of implicature-based verbal humor. Our findings are consistent with other researches in that verbal humor can function pragmatically. It plays an effective role in constructing the image and identities that we want to make of others. The themes identified above in negative terms construct John's image as someone with racist and sexist ideas, and not qualified to be president and commander-in-chief. This is the identity of a role and the assignment of meanings, expectations, and its performance associated with that role. This is what negative other-construction is all about. A successful construction and interpretation of the humor-induced identity is evidenced in the video by the audiences' laughter, groans and boos. That image is constituted of the identities that have been figured out above. This study indicates that CDA is interdisciplinary by nature, and thus, a mix of approaches and methods is the appropriate choice, and should be adopted if we want to know what identities are, how they are created, changed, or reproduced. The discursive strategies that are used here include flouting the CP maxims based on presupposition of socio-cultural background knowledge, intertextuality, and narrating what is assumed to be known and available to the audience (the setup to the punchline). The act of alluding is not realized linguistically, but is inferred. The interpretation of identities contains an element of subjectivity as the audience is engaged in a sense-making process. The issue is how real that identity is, or is it just a intended construct? I will argue that it was more or less appreciated as real because it produced effects (laughter by the audience). A negative picture was painted of John using the above resources, and the question is whether a positive image can be made using

the same. I think the answer is yes because it is the choice of these discursive strategies that makes the difference. It is obvious that the perceived implicature triggers the shift, but how it works remains an issue to deal with. Also, it remains to explore and understand how cultural values (for example, constructs of individualism and collectivism (Triandis, 1995) linked to personality traits, behavior, and habits may actually play out in both the construction and interpretation of identity. Verbal humor is an effective tool to construct identities and create image.

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KIẾN TẠO "IDENTITY" QUA HÀI HƯỚC NGÔN TỪ

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Tóm tắt: Bài viết trình bày nghiên cứu vai trò của tính hài hước trong ngôn ngữ trong việc kiến tạo và hiểu hình ảnh nhân vật (identity) trong một hoàn cảnh xã hội chính trị nhất định từ góc độ phân tích diễn ngôn phê phán trên nền tảng của lí luận kiến tạo xã hội (social constructionism). Tác giả không sử dụng phương thức phân tích ngôn ngữ truyền thống như Fairclough đề nghị, mà đã kết hợp phương pháp của CDA với dụng học của Grice trong quá trình phân tích để chỉ ra các chiến lược diễn ngôn được người nói vận dụng.

Từ khóa: căn tính, hình ảnh, hài hước, kiến tạo, diễn ngôn, tính liên văn bản, liên diễn ngôn

DISCURSIVE CONSTRUCTION OF POWER IN STUDENTS' ANONYMOUS FEEDBACK

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Abstract: This study was conducted on more than 400 negative anonymous comments, in which students convey some complaint or express discontent about their teachers. The study takes a post-structruralist approach to discourse analysis, positioning that power is contructed and negotiated through discourse (Foucault, 1972; Fairclough, 2010; Mills, 1997). The study aims to find out how students actually do their power through linguistic choices by looking at some pragmatic aspects such as speech acts, addressing terms and politeness strategies (Yule, 1996). The study found that students explicitly do power in this discourse; besides, negotiation of traditional roles was also present. This reflects the complexity of the teachers – students power relation in a comtemporary Vietnam, in which there exist both market economy's definition of education and traditional perception of teaching and learning.[1]

Keywords: anonymous feedback, discursive construction of power, poststructuralism

1. Introduction

In light of post-structuralist discourse analysis theory, this article examines an aspect of the power relation between teachers and learners in the context of contemporary Vietnam. In particular, it critically looks into the discourse of anonymous feedback given by students on their university lecturers. This social practice gives students the chance to evaluate their lecturers' performance and express their opinions concerning what should be improved in the lecturers' teaching. The practice itself reflects a change in the view of teacher – learner relationship in the education setting whereby students are made active participants in education, who have their voices to be heard and issues to be addressed. More importantly, anonymity gives students the chance to honestly "speak up" without fearing about the possible consequences of creating bad impressions on themselves. These comments later can be accessed by heads of departments and the teachers; however, while the Dean can read comments on all department staff, each teacher can only receive the comments on their own teaching, not those comments for their colleagues'. This arrangement eliminates unnecessary spread of reputation, but at the same time guarantees that the comments are well received. In the context where the data for this study were gathered, students are required to give anonymous feedback every two semesters on an online platform in which they will assess their teachers' teaching by giving them a score from 1 to 5 to each of the categories given and leave

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their written comments underneath the scoring tables. This practice has been implemented in the university for about ten years and has shown its strengths, a prominent of which is that teachers can have a reference about how well they are performing, from students' perspective, comparing to their co-teachers and to their colleagues across the departments. Also, without this practice, there seem to be no comments from the students just because direct feedback in any forms is rare.

The data of the study consist of 462 comments of students in which negative feedback rather than positive feedback is found. These comments are numbered from C1 to C462 for reference. Negative feedback in this study is understood as feedback in which students express their dissatisfaction about the teachers' performance and/or behaviors, which are believed to hinder students' learning or their motivation to learn. In other words, in these negative comments, at least one complaint is found about the teachers themselves or their teaching.

In the existing literature, complaints have been of interest of numerous studies in the domains of pragmatics and discourse analysis; however, none has been done from a CDA perspective to shed light on a social issue like the current study. For example, Chen (2011) focused on the strategies used in American and Chinese complaints from a cross-cultural perspective; Heinemann (2009) was interested in the participation and exclusion in third party complaints by looking at video – recorded data in Spanish and Selting (2012) looked into a corpus of audio and video recordings of German everyday private telephone conversations between friends in colloquial in order to find out the complaint stories and subsequent complaint stories with affect display. Apparently, a study on complaints from CDA perspective using pragmatic frameworks is worth carrying out.

2. Contextual background

Official education in Vietnam dated back to the 11th century during the feudal time, and one of the traditional values of the Vietnamese people is promotion of learning and high respect for teachers. Teachers' position was perceived even higher than that of parents and only lower than the king's. Teachers were believed to be the ones who taught children how to become "human beings". This stresses the crucial role of teachers in the traditional ideology of Confucianism-oriented education. It is important to note that, Confucius is until now an influential figure in the cultural-spiritual life of the Vietnamese; hence, even though education in Vietnam has gone through different political regimes of French colony and Vietnamese communism, the Confucian ideals of teaching and learning still remain. Take for example the Literature Temple where Confucius is worshipped. Every New Year occasion, people, especially children, rush there to pray and spiritually ask for good luck in study. Moreover, as a matter of fact, teachers are prevalently treated with respects by not only learners but also learners' parents.

However, it is essential to note that the current society of Vietnam, since the open door policy in 1986, has been undergoing far reaching changes in all aspects of life, and education is not an exception. The national reform to move from the centralized planning system to socialist oriented market mechanism entails broad reforms in education sector. One of the essential issues is that schooling is no longer solely state-owned and subsidized; but more options are introduced into the schooling system, to include private kindergartens, semi-public and people founded institutions at all levels. Recently, international schools, and international affiliate programs are also among the education options. This perfectly aligns with the trend in the world, whereby education is conceptualized more

as a 'service industry' in which learners are the customers and institutions are service providers. Teaching is a job just like any other jobs and teachers will get paid according to their qualifications and performance. They have certain responsibilities to fulfill just like any other employed people. Take Singapore as an example. A big university in Singapore perceive themselves as "a knowledge enterprise" and their teachers are strictly evaluated by students every semester. The evaluation result is calculated into the decision whether to continue or to terminate their working contracts.

The changes in education aligning to market economy as discussed above certainly affect the perception of education in general and the power relation between teachers and learners in particular. The position of the teacher may not be seen as high as in the feudal ideology of education, which is believed to be outdated in this 21st century. Apparently, the social structure concerning education has changed, and this change will shape and be shaped by discourse in education setting. In the current study, we look at the discourse of anonymous feedback to see how the power relation between teachers and learners is discursively constructed. Although the data were taken from a state owned university, we believe that market economy ideology of education can be found in all corners of life and not just in private educational institutions; however, admissibly, it might be more prevalent and profound in such private schooling.

3. Post-structuralist approach to discourse analysis

The 1970s saw the marriage of discourse analysis and social theory of discourse (Foucault, 1972); whereby, discourse is not seen and analyzed purely from a linguistic

perspective only. Rather, post-structuralist theorists see discourse as social practice through which social realities are constructed and reflected (Fairclough, 2001). This approach to language analysis was first named Critical Linguistics and later became Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). One of the main principles of critical discourse analysis is that power relations are negotiated and performed through discourse (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997). People may be perceived as having more power than others before discourse; however, it is in discourse that people choose to do power or not. In that sense, power is actually performed and constructed through participation in discourse rather than something fixed which is simply reflected in discourse. Power and power relations are hence discursively constructed and maintained or reshaped and brought forward as pre-assumption of upcoming discourse. In that sense, power before discourse can be seen as the result of power construction of previous discourse. The power relation in question in this study is the one between teachers and learners in the context of Vietnam. In the discourse of anonymous feedback, power is seen as presumably given to learners; however, whether they choose to perform power or not is constrained or supported by social assumptions of power dominance, which was discussed in the contextual background. The aim of the research is, hence, to find out whether students enact their power in this discourse, and if yes, then through which linguistic choices they do so.

4. Pragmatic frameworks in critical discourse analysis

This study takes a pragmatic approach to the analysis of the discourse in question. To be more specific, some pragmatic frameworks are used in data analysis, which has been

rarely seen in CDA. According to Fairclough (1989), speakers/writers are not usually free to manipulate language to achieve their goals, but they are constrained by social conventions. In other words, while choosing language to fulfill their aims in communication as claimed by pragmatics theorists, the speakers/writers at the same time reflect and construct social conventions, in which power relation is just one aspect. In communication, the positioning of participants is determinant and at the same time determinative of power ranking of people involved. Positioning (Harré, 2012) can be understood as perceiving who you are and what relation you are in with the person you are communicating with. In other words, positioning means "how people use words (and discourse of all types) to locate themselves and others" (Moghaddam, and Harré, 2010). This positioning sometimes needs negotiation because the relation between people may be complex. For example, when a young doctor who is talking to an old patient, the doctor will have to negotiate between the role of the one just doing his/her job as a doctor or the role of a young person to a senior. S/He may want to be cold and strict as a doctor; however, s/he may also not be comfortable being cold and strict to an old person of his/her grandmother's age, especially in the cultural context of Vietnam. In this case, s/he may find a neutral way which satisfies himself/herself to some degree, and this is called negotiation of roles or position.

The study chooses to look at the choice of speech acts, the choice of addressing terms and the choice of politeness strategies in performing the Face Threatening Acts (FTA) of complaining (Yule, 1996). According to Yule (1996), speech act theory states that people actually do things when they speak and speech acts can be categorized into directives, representatives, commissives, declaratives, and expressives. For convenience of readership, each type will be defined when

they are seen throughout findings presentation. The choice of speech acts in giving a negative feedback is believed to convey and construct power on the part of the speakers/writers, which will be further discussed with the data. Addressing terms are also one entry point to decode how power is constructed and reflected. This is a peculiar feature of the Vietnamese language because the choice of addressing terms in Vietnamese bear a lot more than the addressing system of English. According to Luong (1990) and Cooke (1968), addressing terms in Vietnamese varies according to the age of the participants, relationship and status. As far as (social and power) status is concerned, the choice of addressing terms is also believed to reveal much about positioning in the interactions. Besides speech acts and addressing terms, different politeness strategies are also analyzed to answer the question pertaining to discursive construction of power. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), to show our politeness when entering social interactions, we have to acknowledge and show awareness of the face, the public self image, of the people we address. This can be achieved through various means such as indirectness, hedges, or downtoners, etc. Specific terms are defined when they appear during presentation of findings.

With the pragmatic frameworks and CDA approach in mind, we carried out a primarily qualitative analysis of the data; however, quantitative calculation was also utilized at times to back up qualitative interpretations.

5. Main findings

5.1. Students do power through the choice of speech acts

The most prominent feature noticed through the analysis of speech acts is that in more than half of the comments in question,

there is a directive. To be specific, there are 304 directives, equivalent to almost 66% of the comments. Directives are defined as the acts in which the words are aimed at making the listener/ reader do something (Cutting, 2015). This is to show that the students want specific actions from the teachers. The following are just some examples.

    *(1) Cô giáo **nên** cho các dạng đề, câu hỏi luận đối với từng bài …(C2)*
        She teacher should provide samples of test and assignment questions for each unit.

    *(2) Giáo viên **cần** cho sinh viên thêm tài liệu ôn tập về nhà … (C13)*
        The lecturer needs to provide students with revision material to work on at home

    Fairclough (1989) supposes that, in communication, it is more often the person in a position of power who can use direct request. Examples can be found in a restaurant between a customer and a waiter, in an office setting between a senior and a junior and even in a family between parents and children. In giving requests on the actions which need to be performed by the teacher, the students are aware of their rights and position themselves as having power.

    The choice of modality in many of these directives further supports this argument. Modal "nên" (*should*) is found in more than 35% of the directives and "cần" (*need*) in more than 9%. These are two modals which show a high degree of imposition and necessity on the part of the addressees (Quirk, et al., 1979). The use of these modals apparently constructs students' power in requesting actions from the part of the teacher. Examples (3), (4) and (5) are taken from the data:

    *(3) cô giáo **nên** tạo nhiều hoạt động bổ ích hơn nữa… (C452)*
        She teacher should organize more useful activities …

    *(4) giảng viên **nên** tạo một môi trường học tập vui vẻ, ít áp lực hơn… (C462)*
        The lecturer should create a more amusing learning environment with less pressure…

    *(5) giảng viên **cần** sắp xếp thời gian học cao học và thời gian đi dạy hợp lý hơn để sinh viên theo kịp tiến độ chương trình … (C296)*
        the lecturer needs to better arrange the time for his/her Master course and teaching time so that students can follow the syllabus timely…

    The rest of the directives, not using the above modals, are found to be more indirect with the choice of modals "mong" (*expect*), "muốn" (*want*), "mong muốn" (*expect*), or "hy vọng" (*hope*) with the subject of these modals being the students, which is sometimes omitted. (6), (7) and (8) are examples:

    *(6) Em **mong muốn** được cung cấp nhiều tư liệu hình ảnh hoặc video ngoài hơn nữa (C152)*
        I expect to be provided with more visual materials or video from other sources.

    *(7) **Hi vọng** cô giới thiệu nhiều hơn nữa về tài liệu có ích cho môn học. (C156)*
        Hope that you introduce more about useful materials for the subject.

    *(8) Em **muốn** cô giáo giải thích bằng Tiếng Việt những khái niệm phức tạp… (C139)*
        I want you to explain complicated terms in Vietnamese…

    Apparently, although these directives are made less direct, they are still requesting for actions to be done. And when the subject is the student in the first personal pronoun, the power is once again explicitly placed on them. The students are the agents of those requests and they are present in the act of requesting.

    However, it is also interesting to note a few directives in which the power of the requester is reduced to the minimum. These

few cases will be discussed later in 5d together with other phenomena in which the students choose to maintain in the position of the less powerful.

5.2. Students do power through the choice of addressing terms

Addressing terms in Vietnamese are much more diverse and complicated in nature compared to those in English. That is why pragmatic linguists who based their works on English rarely discussed the use of addressing terms as markers of interpersonal relation or power rank between discourse participants. In this study, on the Vietnamese data, we choose to scrutinize the choice of addressing terms and this has revealed a lot of how students do power in anonymous negative feedback.

In the Vietnamese culture, it is common practice to address the teacher as "thầy" (same addressing term for father in the old time) or "cô" (auntie) and to address oneself as "em" (younger siblings) or "chúng em" (plural for younger siblings) in the university or college setting. This practice of addressing presupposes that the relationship between teachers and students are just like that among extended family members and teachers are the seniors while students juniors. In face to face communication, this way of addressing is prevalently found and there is almost no substitute for this.

However, it is noteworthy that in anonymous feedback, there are more diversified choices made in addressing teachers and oneself, which reveals interesting insights.

When addressing the teachers, we found many instances (24%) of "giáo viên" (teacher) or "giảng viên" (lecturer). These addressing nouns often pair with "sinh viên" (student) when the students refer to themselves. These nouns refer to career title and do not imbed any familial sense or intimacy as in the traditional common

practice of addressing mentioned above. The use of those career terms to address the teachers and self positions both the teacher and the student in a professional setting, where they are equal participants, however, with different functions and responsibilities. This gives rise to an interpretation that students see the teacher and themselves at least as having equal power, or they are not less powerful in this relationship. Some examples are given below:

(9) **Giáo viên** nên cung cấp thêm tài liệu để **sinh viên** tham khảo và mở rộng kiến thức. (C5)
Teacher should provide more materials so that students can consult and broaden their knowledge.

(10) **Giảng viên** chưa tạo được sự gần gũi thân thiện với **sinh viên**. (C1)
Lecturer has not been able to create rapport with students.

When addressing self, a few comments (1% or 5 in number) use first personal pronoun "tôi" (I, used in detached or formal sense). In reality, this personal pronoun can only be seen in the case (a) the speaker is of higher position, or (b) the speaker is older or (c) the speaker wants to show distance or formality, or (d) the speaker is angry. In face to face communication, if students address themselves as "tôi", it would be disrespectful or at least very weird, regardless of the age of the teacher and the students. The fact that "tôi" is used in anonymous feedback suggests that students are freer in positioning themselves as whatever they want in relation with the teacher. Examples of this addressing form are provided below:

(11) **Tôi** mong rằng cô giáo sẽ có thêm nhiều phương pháp hiệu quả để giúp sinh viên tiến bộ. (C20)
I expect that the teacher will have more effective methods to help students to improve themselves.

(12) **Tôi** *không cho rằng kĩ năng speaking của cô giáo có thể giúp sinh viên tiến bộ.(C248)*
I do not think that the teacher's speaking skills can help students improve.

It is also observed in a few other comments that there lack addressing terms so the comments are like in note forms as in examples (13) and (14). However, these comments are supposed to be read by the teacher in question, so omitting addressing terms altogether may result in less politeness. In the Vietnamese culture, courtesy is greatly important especially when communicating with teachers, who are culturally placed in a higher position.

(13) *Thiếu năng động, sáng tạo (C443)*
Lacking in dynamics and creativity

(14) *Giảng bài kỹ càng, khá thân thiện tuy nhiên chưa thực sự tạo được không khí thoải mái trong lớp (C356)*
Thorough explanation, fairly friendly; however, not be able to create a good learning atmosphere

The fact that those comments are lacking in all addressing terms suggests that some students have chosen not to abide by the etiquette rules. They are constructing themselves as being able to set their own rules and exercise the rules in the anonymous feedback practice. While this should not be encouraged, those comments without addressing terms prove that students perceive their power of choice of not going by the expected courtesy rules when communicating with teachers.

5.3. Students do power through the choice of directness

As far as politeness is concerned, complaining is a face threatening act, which can be defined as an act that may cause one or both of the interlocutors to lose face. That is why, in performing an FTA, it is common that

the speaker will need to choose appropriate strategies to lessen the possibility of someone getting hurt or feeling insulted. As a matter of fact, the more direct these FTA are, the higher the possibility of causing hurt or insults. Hence, indirectness is often the choice when an FTA such as complaints must be performed.

However, in the data of the current research, there is a fair percentage (31%) of complaints performed with directness. They are direct in the use of intensifying words, in the explicit use of the complaint target and in absolute negation as well as intensifiers as seen in the following typical examples:

(15) *thầy ABC dạy* **rất** *buồn ngủ (C26)*
Mr teacher ABC's teaching causes drowsiness.

(16) *Thầy nói* **quá bé** *nên khó nghe (C31)*
Mr teacher speaks too quietly, so difficult to hear him.

(17) *Chậm trả bài cho sinh viên, nên sinh viên không biết mình thiếu sót ở đâu để cố gắng tiến bộ. Dạy viết thì quá gò bó với sách. Không khuyến khích tinh thần (C243)*
Late in returning assignments so students **do not know** *where they need to improve. Teaching writing is* **too limited** *to the course book. (Teacher)* **does not** *encourage motivation.*

As a matter of fact, in the context of Vietnam, directness is also related to power rank (among other things) in communication. The more powerful one feels, the more direct they tend to be in communication in general and also in giving an FTA. This is because it is more often that the more powerful or the senior have the rights to comment on others rather than the other way round. In the discourse under analysis, in 30% of the complaints, students choose to be direct in performing an FTA, which proposes that they are in fact doing power. They are explicitly exercising the power of the ones who have the

rights to give comments on others' work. It is agreeable that giving complaints is already doing power, and giving direct complaints is doing power in emphasis.

5.4. Students' negotiation of roles

The points discussed in 5 a, b, and c clearly support the argument that students in this anonymous feedback practice are doing power through various linguistic choices. They do take advantage of anonymity to construct a new order of power relation in which they can complain, request and even criticize. This is exactly what is meant for them to do when the anonymous feedback practice is implemented.

However, it would be too shallow to be contented with that argument alone, although the argument has been strongly backed up with evidence. Data analysis also reveals that students do not just do their power as mentioned but at the same time, their negotiation of roles is also found. In many instances, students, while doing power, still try to maintain the existing power relation in which they are the lower in the rank and those who need to self-abase and respect their counterpart. It is, however, important to note that doing power and negotiating roles are not found at the same time in all comments but rather the two contending discourses emerges as patterns from the data analysis. There are clear cases of explicitly doing power as discussed in previous sections; however, there are instances where students choose to soften the complaints and maintain as much respect to the teachers as possible.

Indirectness in giving a request is one option used to negotiate roles as in the following examples:

(18) *Tuy nhiên, **sẽ tốt hơn nếu** cô ABC sôi nổi hơn. (C420)*
     However, it would be better if Ms. ABC is more motivating.

So, rather than just saying "Ms. ABC should be more motivating" like many other direct requests showing power on the part of the student, example (18) is a request in the form of a conditional statement. This is believed to be the softest way of making a request and the student made that choice to eliminate any face threat to the teacher.

In other complaints, different linguistic strategies are used to soften the criticism; hence, the position of students in their more or less traditional roles is defined.

(19) *Việc chấm các bài thuyết trình **có lẽ chưa** được phù hợp với tiêu chí **thì phải** (C106)*
     Presentation marking maybe does not match the set criteria.

(20) *Em rất thích sự tân tụy của cô khi dạy học tuy nhiên **nhiều lúc** em **có cảm giác** không khí lớp học **có phần** căng thẳng. (C455)*
     I very much like her devotion; however, sometimes, I have a feeling that the atmosphere is partly tense.

In (19), agentless nominalization "việc chấm các bài thuyết trình" (presentation marking) seems to direct the complaint to a process or a state of affair and avoid pointing out the person in charge of that process; i.e., who marks the presentation. This navigation of complaint together with tentative markers "có lẽ chưa … thì phải" makes the complaint less harsh and show a clear perception of power ranking on the part of the students. Much respect is still shown to the person being complained about.

In (20) hedges are found before the actual complaint and this is a common politeness strategy to save the face of the complaint receiver. Not just hedges, other down-toners are also found such as "nhiều lúc" (sometimes), "em có cảm giác" (I have feelings) and "có phần" (partly). When students express that this is just their feelings, it implies that the tenseness of the lesson might be what only they feel and that it should not necessarily be

a problem to other students. In doing that, the students also take their responsibility in how the lessons are perceived.

Apparently, beside the cases of explicitly doing power as discussed earlier, students are also found negotiating their roles: they are the one who complain; yet, they still want to lower themselves on the power scale by using numerous politeness linguistics strategies to minimize their judgmental power of the evaluators. In other words, while they are evaluating their teachers' work, they seem to still place themselves as learners so there is a certain degree of hesitation or reluctance in giving a complaint.

Throughout the findings as presented, it is prominent that students actually do power and construct their identity as the ones of power in this particular discourse of anonymous feedback. This can be seen to reflect and promote the ideology of market oriented education in which students are no longer submissive to their teachers and passive in the learning process. They are an important component of education and have their rights to speak up for their benefits as customers using a service. However, though not as prevalent, the traditional Confucian assumption on power relation between teachers and learners was also found in students' negotiation of roles. It would be safe to conclude that, in the discourse of anonymous feedback, there exist two contending ideologies that shape the power relation between teachers and students: one of market oriented education and one of traditional schooling, in which the former seem to weigh much more than the later.

6. Conclusion

This study has attempted to explore the power relation of learners and teachers in the discourse of anonymous feedback. In particular, the study aimed to find out how students do their power when giving negative feedback or complaints on their teachers and their teachers' teaching. The data were approached from a critical discourse analysis perspective using pragmatic frameworks of speech acts, choice addressing forms and politeness strategies. A prominent finding of the study is that students actually do their power by the choice of direct requests with modality expressing obligatory and necessity in making complaints. They position themselves as the one having power, who evaluate others' work performance. This reflects and at the same time reinforces a market oriented ideology of education whereby learners are customers and the education institutions are service providers. Besides, negotiation of roles was also found, whereby students while giving a complaint attempt to maintain traditional social order in which the teacher is of higher power rank. Negotiation of roles was found through the choice of various politeness strategies.

This study only looked into the complaints or negative feedback given by the students. Further studies may also analyze the positive feedback and it is believed that more on positioning will also be found in compliments. Other aspects of the power relationship between teachers and learners in other discourse may also be of interest in further research.

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SINH VIÊN THỰC THI QUYỀN LỰC THÔNG QUA NGÔN NGỮ NHƯ THẾ NÀO TRONG PHẢN HỒI KHUYẾT DANH

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Tóm tắt: Nghiên cứu này được thực hiện trên hơn 400 phản hồi khuyết danh của sinh viên mà ở đó, sinh viên thể hiện các khuyến nghị hoặc có nhận xét tiêu cực đối với giáo viên. Nghiên cứu sử dụng đường hướng phân tích diễn ngôn hậu cấu trúc với quan điểm cho rằng quyền lực có thể được kiến tạo và thực thi thông qua diễn ngôn (Foucault, 1972; Fairclough, 2010; Mills, 1997). Nghiên cứu nhằm mục đích tìm ra sinh viên đã thực thi quyền lực của mình như thế nào trong diễn ngôn phản hồi khuyết danh thông qua việc phân tích các khía cạnh ngữ dụng học như hành động lời nói, danh từ nhân xưng, hay chiến thuật lịch sự (Yule, 1996). Nghiên cứu chỉ ra rằng sinh viên đã thực thi quyền lực của mình một cách rõ ràng thông qua các lựa chọn ngôn ngữ; nhưng bên cạnh đó, vẫn còn sự gìn giữ những quan điểm truyền thống giữa thầy và trò. Điều này cho thấy sự phức hợp trong mối quan hệ quyền lực giữa người thầy và người trò trong xã hội Việt Nam hiện tại, ở đó có cái nhìn hiện đại về giáo dục của cơ chế thị trường và quan niệm truyền thống về giáo dục của đạo Khổng.

Từ khóa: quyền lực, phản hồi khuyết danh, phân tích diễn ngôn, hậu cấu trúc

DOCTOR-PATIENT POWER RELATION: A SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL ANALYSIS OF A DOCTOR-PATIENT CONSULTATION

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Abstract: This paper attempts to explore the power relation between a doctor and a patient through the language they use at a consultation. The consultation is taken from YouTube. The doctor and the patient are women of different ages. The doctor is much younger than the patient. The paper uses systemic functional linguistics as the main theoretical framework, following the top-down approach to analysis; particularly from the analysis of the consultation in terms of field, tenor and mode down to the analysis of the consultation in terms of transitivity, mood and modality. The results of the analysis have revealed that behind the language the doctor and the patient used in their interaction exists social relation in which the doctor has the power over the patient.

Keywords: doctor-patient consultation/interaction, systemic functional linguistics, power

1. Introduction

For many years, there have been a number of research papers conducted to investigate the language use at doctor-patient consultations. Notably, these studies, mostly based on the Critical Discourse Analysis's (CDA) theoretical lens (Fairclough 2001), have focused on the way doctors use their language to communicate with patients and on how doctors' communicative behavior can influence their clients' satisfaction, compliance and health (Ong et al 1995, Frankel 1990, Ruusuvori 2000, Heath 1992, Robinson & Heritage 2006, Ainsworth 1992). In Vietnam, besides some sociolinguistic and psychologist studies conducted by Long (2010), Chi et al (2012), Hung (2014), Dung et al (2010), Ha (2000), Hoa (2013) and Phuc (2000) that have shown doctors' behavior and patients' expectation, there has

no linguistic literature that investigates the power English speaking doctors utilize to communicate with their clients. Therefore, this paper will mainly use systemic functional linguistics (SFL) to explore some grammatical characteristics of the doctor's and patient's discourse and will then base on the findings to reveal the doctor's power over the patient through the patient-centered style of consultation. Besides, this paper will also base on CDA theory framework as a supplementary framework to analyze the power found in doctor-patient interaction.

The study is organized around four main parts. Part One is the Introduction. Part Two is concerned with the establishment of the theoretical framework for the study. In this part, this paper will revisit some basic concepts of SFL relevant to the study and set up the theoretical framework for the study. Part Three presents methodological processes such as procedures of data collection as well as data analysis. This part explains the

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process of collecting and analyzing the data from a consultation between a doctor and a patient recorded from YouTube. Part Four includes the findings and discussion that indicate the doctor's power over the patient. Part Five summarizes the main lexico-grammatical features found in the interaction and provides some general conclusions about the language the doctor uses to exercise her power over the patient.

2. Theoretical framework

2.1. Systemic Functional Linguistics

Halliday has shown that when exploring the meaning of language, SFL 'language as social semiotic'. The language interpreted based on SFL approach is developed respectively in four different strata: context, semantics, lexico-grammar and phonology (Halliday 1994, Halliday 1978, Halliday 1985, Hasan 1993, Hasan 1995, Hasan 1996). Here, SFL claims that the relation between these strata is that of **realisation**. The lower stratum realizes its next higher one. As phonology is not the concern of this paper, in what follows I will present briefly the three strata: context, semantics and lexico-grammar to establish the framework for analysis.

At the stratum context, SFL postulates that language has three contextual categories: *field*, *mode* and *tenor* (Halliday & Hasan 1989, Hasan, 1999). *Field*, 'the nature of the social activity', refers to what is going on through language, to activities and processes that are happening at the time of speech. *Tenor*, 'the nature of social relations', refers to who is taking part in the dialogue, particularly to the nature of participants such as the relationship between a speaker and a listener and the potential for interacting. *Mode*, 'the nature of contact', refers to the role of language itself in a

given context of situation (Halliday 1978, Halliday & Hasan 1989, Halliday et al 1964, Gregory & Carroll 1978). In general, categories of context in SFL - *field*, *mode* and *tenor*, classified as *register* - are used to study communicative behavior within which all of social interactions occur (Halliday M.A.K 1994, Halliday et al 1964).

At the stratum of semantics, SFL considers this level as a 'source of meaning' (Van 2012, Matthiessen 1995). In the description of language level from the view of the semantic stratum, Halliday categorizes semantics into three metafunctions such as *ideational* metafunction (including *experiential metafunction* and *logical metafunction*), *interpersonal metafunction*, and *textual metafunction*. In particular, experiential metafunction views grammar of a clause as *representation* and is realized by the systems of transitivity. Meanwhile, interpersonal metafunction considers grammar of a clause as *exchange* and is realized by the systems of mood and modality. Textual metafunction, realized by the system of theme, expresses the grammar of clause as *message*.

At the stratum of lexico-grammar, Halliday and other SFL authors rank this stratum into a resource for wording meaning and represents language under a set of texts (Halliday 1994, Van 2012, Matthiessen 1995). Lexicogrammar stratum helps us to understand how language is implied through its tool of wording system such as lexis (vocabulary) as well as grammar. In the description of language at the stratum of lexicogrammar, Halliday has indicated that corresponding with the three context-construing strands of meanings – ideational, interpersonal and textual, the lexicogrammar stratum is simultaneously realized as wording through the systems of *Transitivity*, *Mood* and *Theme*. At

this stratum, the language is represented in the forms of wording based on the grammar of the clause in order to reflex our experience (Transitivity), interaction (Mood) and discourse organization (Theme). Particularly, Halliday has stated that the clause has received a special status in SFL because it lies at the intersection of three dimensions: stratification, rank and metafunction (Halliday 1979). The relation of the clause in relation to the overall linguistic system can be represented as follows.
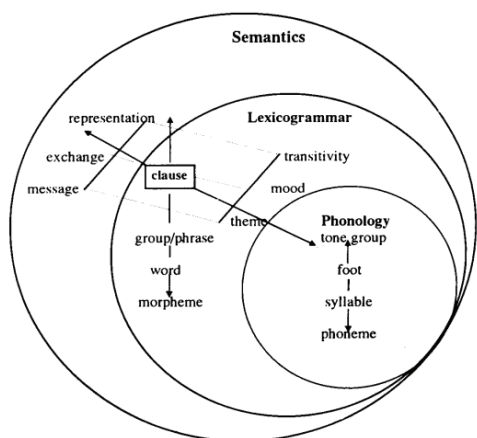
Figure 1. The location of the clause in the overall linguistic system

(Source: Hoang Van Van, 2012)

Convention: ↘ = stratification, ↕ = rank, ↘ = metafunction

Van (2012) explains the clause can serve to express the three largely independent sets of semantic choice (representation, exchange and message). By doing this, structures under Transitivity, Mood and Theme are also specifically reflexed. In particular, in terms of rank, the clause holds the highest position when being put into grammatical analysis. Below the clause, there will be a list of constituents,

which makes up a clause such as classes of group. Above the clause, there will be a consideration of clause complexes to see how clauses are related to each other to expand or to project meanings.

Due to the limited space of a scientific article, this paper will follow the top-down approach to conduct only the analysis from *field*, *tenor* and *mode* down to the clause transitivity, mood and modality.

3. Scope of data collection, data collection procedures, and aspects of data analysis

3.1. Scope of data collection

The data, collected from YouTube[1], is an eight-minute video clip of doctor-patient interaction at a consultation. The interaction includes 266 clauses and 55 clause complexes. There are two reasons for selecting this data. First, a live record of a doctor-patient interaction at a consultation can provide both pictures and sound which serve much better than a written text in seeing how interactants create the discourse and what language patterns occur in the context. Secondly, this resource is convenient to access and receives comments on quality from a large number of viewers. The video clip of doctor-patient interaction for this study has been received a great number of good comments and feedback from the viewers.

3.2. Data collection procedures

In collecting the data for the study, first, this clip has been chosen from a number of uploaded doctor-patient interaction as it has a Moderate length and includes enough three parts of consultation: Opening, Consulting and Ending. The data was then transcribed into text

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[1] https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WvNRe0Bh8Q8, uploaded by Jason Bannett on 14th November 2011

based on the system of transcription designed by Eggins and Slade (1997). However, only some transcription symbols such as punctuation, non-transcribe or uncertain segment of talk, filters were taken to serve for the investigation of the study, some others were ignored (e.g. tone, volume, overlapping, etc.). Next, the coding of grammatical symbols was based on Van (2006)'s coding system. Finally, all the data was computerized for the frequency use of grammatical features by both the doctor and the patient.[2]

3.3. Aspects of data analysis

In order to find out grammatical features of the consultation, the study follows the top-down scale. In general, grammatical features that enable to find the doctor's power over the patient during the consultation are the results of both quantitative and qualitative analyses as follows:

1. An analysis of *field*, *tenor* and *mode* that leads to the general understanding of the nature of the context, social relation and the language used throughout the interaction.

2. An analysis of clause complexes and clause simplexes used by the doctor and the patient to provide background information for the analyses that follow and the evidence of how power is projected;

3. An analysis for the wordings (lexico-grammar) through system of Mood and Modality that leads to the consumption of doctor's power. In particular, the investigation is mainly on the doctor's preferable use of mood choice (declarative, interrogative, and imperative); of modality options (types, values, orientation, and manifestation).

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[2] Due to limited space, an appendix of data analysis cannot be provided. For more details, however, readers, are invited to contact the author by phone at 0982204246 or by email at nganguyen1010025@yahoo.com

4. Findings and discussion

4.1. The analysis of Field, Tenor and Mode

The *Field* in this discourse is a medical consultation occurring at an institutional setting. This sample of consultation is uploaded to YouTube for educational purposes. In particular, the conversational setting is about a doctor who is providing her patient with a consultation of 'weight control'. The conversation is between a female doctor and a female patient at the doctor's consultation room. Both of them are native speakers of English. The doctor is much younger than the patient. It is clear from the interactions that the doctor and the patient have had some meetings before because at this meeting the patient reports the result of her weight regulation after the previous consultation. Usually, the natural setting of consultation is described with doctor-centeredness where the doctor's power is strongly emphasized because of their professionalism, knowledge, and skills. The *Field* in this case has been changed because the power is generated from the doctor's persuasiveness, intimacy and understanding. Thus, the *shift* in the doctor's discourse can be illustrated in the example below. (Pt for Patient and Dr. for Doctor)

(1)   Pt: *I'm not reading this because I have got a small mount wait. It is just that ...*
      Dr: *You are not going to read this, but this, but this is ... this is ... really ... really guilt to those people who have about 10 to ... 30, 40 pounds that you can lose it in any ... a short period of time. And, you will be surprised how much better you gonna feel.*

As example (1) indicates, instead of using power to dominate the patient's rejection, the doctor calmly persuades the patient to follow the steps of consultation.

The *Field* is maintained under the topic of 'weight control' despite the fact that the doctor sometimes shifts the topic to get the

patient's approval. For example, the doctor changes the topic of 'weight gain' to her kids' daily life. The aim is to get the patient's belief by depending on other practical evidence rather than the doctor's subjective commitment.

(2)   Dr: *I allow my kids just like "any guys eat something?" and they say: "Ok something like cheese…"(.)* [Laughing].

In other cases, the doctor also shifts her discourse when she wants to implement a practical check-up on the patient's body. Here, the doctor makes the patient forget her hand checking that might cause the patient physical pain by friendly talking about one of her colleagues the patient knows.

(3)   Dr: *I have pressured a bit. I thought Ms. (.) is wonderful.*
        Pt: *Umm. She's wonderful.*

Rather, in each case of shifting the topic for discussion, the doctor usually prepares her discourse to avoid the patient being misled during the consultation. For example, in order to start her physical hand checking, the doctor says:

(4)   Dr: *I can listen to your heart while you are lying.*

The *tenor* in this case is a social relation between a doctor (professional) and a patient (a laywoman) at a patient-centered consultation. Here, the *Tenor* characterizes differently from the traditional ones which consider doctors as decision makers because of their higher social status, greater scientific knowledge. Conversely, in this case, the gap of doctor-patient relation is narrowed as the doctor holds her authority in a subtle manner by tactically offering the patient an equal role during the interaction.

Firstly, the equal role can be realized when the doctor flexibly plays both role of information seeker and provider. In other words, the agentive roles, alternated dynamically between the doctor and the patient, enable the patient to take turns over the doctor.

(5)   Dr: *This is a couple of mean that makes people used to eat. And then we don't have to know the silly the problem is. And this is why we will try to get back to. So… it looks like…you are… so… 150 pounds, (.) index with 25 and produce lab next visit at the plan, ok? and … **what's your goal?***

Secondly, the equal role can be realized when the doctor expresses her politeness during the interaction with the patient. Particularly, the doctor is interested in using positive declarative clauses with modal operators in many cases of imperative (more details and examples can be seen in Section 4.3).

The *mode* of this consultation is a dialogue between a doctor and a patient through a spoken channel, face-to-face interaction. Both verbal and non-verbal linguistic patterns have constitutively contributed to the signs of relatively equal interactivity between the doctor and the patient. In terms of non-verbal communication such as the doctor's facial expressions, the office layout, and the uniform the doctor wears, have contributed markedly to the signal of patient-centeredness (Als 1997, Greatbatch et al 1995). In a research study that aims to compare the effect of doctors' verbal and non-verbal communication on patient enablement, Teresa et al (2012) concluded that doctors' non-verbal interaction, e.g. nodding, leaning forward, laughing can bring about more elements of interpersonal exchanges. Although the doctor in this current study was busy with explaining the diagnosis and analysis, she was observed to be warm and intimate with her smiling and nodding during that time while listening to the patient's narratives. Devlin (2015, p. 56) and many designers of medical workspaces have argued that there lies a closed relationship between 'seating' and 'social interaction' at doctors' office. These authors emphasizes on the role of designing doctors' office suite that enable to improve the healthcare

quality (Charmerl 2003, Cooper & Marni 1999, McGill 2010). It can be observed that there was no physical barrier as the doctor and the patient shared a close physical distance in their seating. During the time of the consultation, the two were found to be talking socially because the distance was so close that the doctor only needed to move her chair a little when she wanted to implement her manual examination. Besides, while the patient wears patient clothes, the doctor wears her casual clothes inside and a white blouse outside. Normally, uniforms are used to identify the difference among entities. Here, uniforms can characterize the distinction between a professional and a nonprofessional, between the doctor and the patient. However, the doctor's mixing fashion of casual and formal style partially reduces the institutional atmosphere and gives the patient an environment with pleasure. Thus, this realization supports to what Miles et al (2013) have found in a survey research on patient's preference on doctor's attire. The authors suggested that patients prefer doctors wearing white coats with scrubs such as jeans, shirts because this image can significantly improve patients' confidence and comfort during the consultation.

In terms of verbal communication, the *Mode* of the consultation which proves the doctor's subtle power can be seen through the use of thematisation in doctor-patient interaction. Particularly, the doctor has employed a number of conjunctives (80 instances) and continuants (20 instances) as well as the use of unmarked in Topical Theme indicates that the doctor tends to use cohesive, coherent, but less interruptive consultation strategies. The doctor always provides her patient with a chance to become involved in the consultation with a number of continuants such as *fine*, *great*, *OK, Mmm, mhm, hm, umm, yeah,* and *oh*. Here, the doctor has shown her subtle power by encouraging the patient to expose ideas and opinions about the patient's physical state.

In general, *field, tenor* and *mode* can describe the general context of the consultation. As can be seen, the context of situation in this study is an illustration of a subtle power being generated from new concept of medical consultation – patient-centeredness. Under this type of consultation, doctor's choice of language, moving towards informality and solidarity politeness, can gain effectively the communicative purposes. Here, both the doctor and the patient become engaged in the consultation 'through which the particular structure and organization of the medical interview is jointly constructed'. (Hyden & Mishler 1999, p. 176)

4.2. The analysis for interclauses of Transitivity

The first analysis is on clause simplexes and clause simplexes. The clause simplex boundary is indicated by || and clause complex boundary is indicated by |||. Table 1 shows the use of clause simplexes and clause complexes by the doctor and the patient.

Table 1. Clause simplex and clause complex used by the doctor and the patient

Type/ percentage	Doctor				Patient		
	Clause simplex	Clause complex*	Total N. of clause		Clause simplex	Clause complex*	Total N. of clause
TOTAL	28	162	190		49	27	76
%	14.73	85.26	100		64.47	35.52	100

* The total number of clauses in clause complexes

Table 1 shows that the total number of clause simplexes and clause complexes used by the doctor during the consultation is 190, of which the number of clause simplexes is 28 (accounting for 14.73%) and that of clause complexes is 162 (accounting for 85.26%). By contrast, the total clause simplexes and clause complexes used by the patient during the consultation is 76, of which the number of clause simplexes is 49 (accounting for 64.47%) and that of clause complexes is 27 (accounting for 35.52%).

The comparison of clause simplex and clause complex used during the encounter can illustrate the participants' preferred strategies of interaction during the consultancy. As can be seen, while the doctor dominates the frequency use of clause complex (85.26%) to extend her explanation and persuasion, the patient seems to have preference of using clause simplex to provide the doctor with clearly single responses. The frequency of clause simplex uttered by the patient is 64.47%, representing a triple percentage as compared to 14.73% of the frequency of clause simplex used by the doctor.

The second analysis is on the clause complexes - the relation between clause complex of Taxis and logico-semantic. The former is concerned with interdependency relations. The two options within the system of Taxis are those of Parataxis or Hypotaxis.

In a clause complex, if one clause is dependent on or dominates another, the relation between them is a hypotactic one; if they are of equal status, the relation is a paratactic one. Meanwhile, the latter is concerned with a wide range of possible Logico-Semantic relationships between clauses. The two options within the system of Logico-Semantic are those of Projection and Expansion. Projection is traditionally called reported speech. A paratactic relation holds when one clause quotes another, and a hypotactic relation when clause reports another. Expansion is concerned with three types Elaboration, Extension and Enhancement. (For more details, see Halliday 1994, Matthiessen 1995, Vân 2012).

Basing on the above theoretical background, my focus is on counting for the number of paratactic and hypotactic relations appeared in clause complex to decide whether the semantic relations of the text are expansion or projection. In this section, the reason why there is no comparison on the frequency of use of taxis and logico-semantic relations between doctor and patient is simply that the doctor has a remarkably dominant use of clause complexes (Table 1), resulting in the dominant use of every criterion belongs to taxis and logico-semantic. Therefore, the following table only shows the doctor's use of taxis and logico-semantic in clause complex.

Table 2. The doctor's frequent use of Taxis and Logico-Semantic in clause complexes

Taxis and Logico-Semantic	Taxis		Logico-Semantic				
	Para	Hypo	Expansion*			projection	
Type			Elaboration	Extension	Enhancement	Idea	Locution
N⁰ of frequency	127	152	32	93	43	1	0
Total	279		169				
%	45.5	54.5	18.9	55	25.5	0.6	0

As can be seen from the table, the doctor strategically uses both hypo-taxis and para-taxis clause complexes. The aim is to provide the patient with a cohesion narrative of consultation. Here, the content of the advice the doctor provides the patient tends to link cohesively from sentences to sentences.

In particular, Table 2 shows a slight dominance of hypotactic relation than paratactic relation (accounting for 54.5 % compared with 45.5%). Here, both hypotactic and paratactic relations are used with different aims. When the doctor emphasizes the steps of treatment procedure, she uses paratactic sequence to focus on the orders of the physical performance.

(6) ||| *You can also look at this number,*
                  1.1
        || *so you will watch your body,*
                  x 1.2
        || *so you also watch your body fat,*
                  x 1.3
        || *so that the decrease (.) may not better much.* |||
                                    x1.4

Meanwhile, hypotactic relation is mostly used when the doctor aims to expand her opinions or explanation, in other words, to supply the patient much more information on the discussion issue.

(7) ||| *For the first two days you may feel a little WEIRD*
                                    1 α
        || *as you start to get into (.),*
                          x1β
        || *then you will be better within 3 or 4 days.* |||
                      x2

In particular, the semantic relations are mainly of extension (accounting for 55%). Thus, among the expansion of logico-semantics, the extension effectively helps

the doctor provide her client with further explanation. For example, among 162 clause complexes spoken by the doctor, around 40 clause complexes include the conjunction *and* that indicates the most frequent signal of extension.

(8) ||| *I can go back for week,*
                  1.1
        || *and do my high protein, low carb*
                  +1.2
        || *and really get back to that*
            +1.3   *+2α*
        || *and*
        you need to keep an eye on your weight, you know, forever
                      +2β

Only one clause complex, exposed by the doctor, quoted relation which characterizing the dialogic portion. Thus, the projection of logico-semantic has been almost unused because this consultation is face-to-face interaction, the doctor preferred using a direct rather than indirect speech.

4.3. The analysis for mood and modality

Throughout this section, the investigation is mainly on the doctor's use of mood and modality options. The analysis for mood and modality is based on Halliday (1994) and Halliday (2012).

4.3.1. The analysis for mood

As suggested by Halliday (1994, p. 95), the mood analysis mainly depends on major and minor clauses that are divided into positive and negative form and embody the basic mood choice (declarative, interrogative and imperative). A major positive/negative clause is a clause which has a mood component and indicates polarity (e.g. *The medication is/ isn't in the same family*) even though that pood component is probably sometimes omitted (e.g. Yes/*No, I have/haven't*). A minor clause, on the other hand, is a clause which has no

mood and functions as a constituents (e.g. *OK, Well, Right, Uhm, Mmm*). Details of mood analysis are presented in Table 3.

doctor's high use of major declarative clauses presumably due to the responsibility for providing the patient with more detailed information during the consultation. This

Table 3. Number and frequency of use of mood by the participants (n=205; 100%)

	Doctor					**Patient**			
	Major		**Minor**			**Major**		**Minor**	
	pos.	**neg.**	**pos.**	**neg.**		**pos.**	**neg.**	**pos.**	**neg.**
Decl.	113 (55.1%)	11 (5.4%)	13 (6.3%)	0	**Decl.**	28 (13.6%)	1 (0.48%)	22 (10.7%)	1 (0.48%)
Interro.	8 (3.9%)	0	0	0	**Interro**	2 (0.9 %)	0	0	0
Imper.	6 (2.9%)	0	0	0	**Impe.**	0	0	0	0
Total 151 (73.7%)	127 (61.9%)	11 (5.4%)	13 (6.3%)	0 (0%)	**Total 54 (26.3%)**	30 (14.6%)	1 (0.48%)	22 (10.7%)	1 (0.48%)

* Decl: Declarative; Interro: Interrogative; Imper: Imperative; pos: positive; neg: negative

In general, both major and minor positive clauses record a dramatically high frequency use by the participants. Besides, interrogative mood registers a slightly higher use than imperative mood, however, both of them are seen at a low frequency choice, particularly, no option can be seen with major negative and minor mood.

In particular, while the doctor is interested in using major positive declarative mood, the patient prefers using minor positive mood. Thus, the doctor deploys 55% of the major positive declaratives, accounting for nearly fivefold higher than that of the patient's. Meanwhile, the patient shows a nearly double use of minor declarative mood accounting for 10.7%, compared to that of the doctor's which is only 6.3%. Only 3.9% of interrogative mood, a quadruple percentage comparing with that of the patient's, is used by the doctor. Besides, there is only 2.9% of imperative mood used by the doctor, meanwhile, no instance of this type of mood used by the patient.

In terms of declarative mood, the

coincides with what is found with the doctor's preferred use of complex clauses. Here, the doctor uses declarative mood to extend her explanation to persuade the patient to follow the advice. Example (9) serves to illustrate the point.

(9) || *The medicine is in the same family. ||| And if you do well with the divided dozes, || the new will start (.). ||| We can always move to the other pills || and see how you feel ||or you're just hungry all the time. |||*

This suggests a logic structure of interaction that the doctor uses a large number of major declarative clauses to persuade the patient with convincing information and explanation, meanwhile, the patient shows her agreement with the doctor by minor responses. Interestingly, the minor positive clauses, such as *ah, huh, well, ok, great; right, fine, good, uhm, alright, mmm, mhm, hm, umm, yeah,* and *oh*, used more often by the patient during the interaction. Thus, they act as expected

responses that construe the interactivity of the consultation. Also, the doctor uses the minor clauses because she wants the patient to become engaged in the consultation. Here, the minor declaratives can be considered as signals of the doctor's attention to the patient's narrative. The doctor wants the patient to continue by occasional giving minor responses to minimize the tendency of interrupting and taking over the patient. Conversely, the doctor uses the go-ahead signals such as *oh, good, yeah…* to keep the patient talking of her own experiences, feelings and expectation as well.

In terms of interrogative mood, the doctor projects questions with different aims of interaction. The doctor uses wh-questions when she wants to seek information from the patient's personal information.

(10) || how tall are you? ||

(11) ||| May I ask || how long were you in that weight, 125? ||

(12) || what about the mood? ||

Thus, the doctor may rely on the medical data to have the answers; however, asking the patient to review her own physical health or state can help the doctor implement a share-knowledge consultation strategy. For these questions, the doctor knows that the patient can answer them well because the patient surely has a much broader view of her own health in general.

Moreover, the doctor also projects some polar interrogatives with the expectation of opening answers.

(13) || Any other questions? ||

(14) || Have you ~ ever taken any medication for weigh control before in the past ||.

Normally, when a yes/no question is projected, the speaker wants the listener to specify with agreement or disagreement. In other words, a polar question may lead the listener to a limited range of responses such as acceptance or rejection. Exchanges of interpersonal meanings made probably limited to yes and no responses. However, basing on Halliday's (1995, p. 69)

system of speech functions and responses that covers the explanation of 'expected response' and 'discretionary alternative', this study finds that at the time the doctor initiates a polar question, the patient keeps talking about her own physical and emotional state. As a result, the doctor projects polar questions to expect the patient to keep acting the role as an information provider, not a passive listener. Thus, with polar questions, the doctor offers the patient a floor to express more information about the patient's problems. As a result, the doctor can employ further about the patient's desire and expectation.

(15)   Dr: || Any other questions? ||

Pt: || No, I'm just concerned about the medication. ||| I have never used this, || so I have found some troubles |||.

Besides, the doctor also projects some questions for confirmation starting with declarative clauses.

*(16) |||You are all gonna take great parties,|| gonna have Christmas,|| gonna have these things, || but you need to be prepared, **ok**? |||*

With a rising intonation of the minor declarative clause *ok*, the doctor seeks for the patient's agreement and confirmation. Supposedly, if the doctor keeps conducting a prolonged talk without getting the patient involved into the conversation, the patient will fail to follow the doctor's narrative. The confirmative question *ok* enables the doctor to offer the patient opportunity to take turn to express whether the patient agrees with the doctor's advice. Thus, the doctor's interrogative strategy illustrates the trend of patient-centeredness. Here, the addressee – the patient – actively engages the conversation by taking turns, moves, and floor through the doctor's initiation and regulation.

In terms of imperative mood, the doctor aims at non-open negotiation in some cases that require the patient seriously to follow. However although the doctor expresses her

authoritarian to control the consultation by some forcing imperatives, the patient actually obeyed the doctor's command with pleasure. Here, the doctor has tactically conducted a polite and delicate way of consultation by inaugurating modality before using imperatives. Thus, this type of consultation provides the doctor with the opportunity to do her job well without putting any pressure on the patient.

(17) || *Make sure your mood is fine with this* ||*and your pressure is stable.*||

However, in other cases of instructive imperatives such as *'Deep breath, breath out, again and again'* the doctor sends a message to inform the patient a probability of physical hurt before she intends to do her hand checking on the patient's heart.

(18) ||| *I can listen to your heart* || *while you are lying.* |||

(19) || *I have pressured a bit.* ||

Apparently, under this context of medical consultation, the doctor holds a higher position as she acts as a role of medical representative, being responsible for the patient's health. Therefore, the doctor certainly possesses the power over the patient. However, in this case, the doctor expresses her dominant power in another way. The imperatives the doctor uses functions as a mild instruction only, not as a command or an order.

4.3.2. The analysis for modality

The term modality is understood differently by different grammarians. As this study employs systemic functional linguistics as the theoretical framework, it follows Halliday's conceptualization of modality which is comprised of four parameters: (1) Types (consisting of assessment of propositions in relation to probability or usuality and of proposals in relation to obligation or inclination); (2) values (consisting of assessment grade in terms of high, medium, and low); (3) orientation (consisting of responsibility for assessment in relation to objective and subjective) and (4) Manifestation (consisting of individual variation in relation to explicit and implicit). The results of modality that come from the modal categories of types and values are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Number and frequency use of modality types and values by the participants

Types		Doctor				Patient			
		Values*							
		H	M	L	Total	H	M	L	Total
Modalisation (information)	**Probability**		5	8	13 (21%)	0	1	0	1
	Usuality	4	3	1	8 (12%)	0	0	0	0
Modulation (goods & service)	**Obligation (unmodulated)**	1	2	1	5 (8%)	0	0	0	0
	Inclination (modulated)	4	9	22	35 (55%)	0	2	0	2
Total: 64 (100%)		**9 (14%)**	**19 (31%)**	**32 (51%)**	**61 (96%)**	**0**	**3 (4%)**	**0**	**3 (4%)**

* H: High; M: Medium; L: Low

Table 4 shows that the total number of modals used by the doctor is 61, accounting for 96% while the total number of modals used by the patient is only 4%. The doctor's dominant use of modals can be seen in both modality types: modalisation and modulation. Notably, modality of probability *will/ may/might* and inclination *need/will/would/should/can* have been preferably used, comparing with the two other types of modality such as Usuality *always/usually/sometimes* and obligation *have to*. Particularly, comparing with the second highest modality of probability, the inclination has registered a double higher frequent use, accounting for 55%. Besides, the doctor's modal option is gathered mainly at medium and low values, respectively accounting for 31% and 51%. Meanwhile, there is only 14% of modal operators, such as *always/have to/ need/needn't* at high value.

The higher percentage of modulation, compared with that of modalisation, indicates that the doctor prefers using modal operators to exchange 'goods and services' rather than providing 'information'. In other words, as the doctor tends toward a consultation of patient-centeredness, she pays more attention to conducting a reciprocal speech than singly supplying information. In fact, for the clauses exchanged in terms of 'goods and service', the modal operators function as an effective tool that helps the patient feel secure about the doctor's explanation and persuasion. Without these modalities, the doctor's narrative tends to be direct, unmodulated, and apparently difficult to get the patient's agreement and satisfaction. Conversely, in this case, the patient understands that the doctor has attempted to choose the most suitable diagnosis for the patient to follow at ease.

(20) ||| I think ||that **should** be the better choice for you. |||

However, it cannot be denied that, clauses of exchanging information also plays an important role in providing patient medical knowledge in the *Field* of her disease.

(21) || *For the first two days, you **may** feel a little weird.* ||

(22) || *You **will** be better within 3 or 4 days. || You **will** get used to that.* ||

Although the doctor has warned the patient beforehand of unexpected effect, with the use of modalities *may* and *will*, the doctor is able to help the patient to overcome the mental fear of the treatment side effect. Thus, the modal verb *may* helps the doctor appease the patient that the negative impact does not always happen and if it does, it will not last for a long process. The modal verb *will*, on the other hand, serves as a strong confirmation that assures the patient of the doctor's best choice of treatment.

Furthermore, the modal of Inclination is used more frequently than that of the obligation. While the former functions as an instrument of polite consultation practice, the latter, on the other hand, is a useful tool that helps the doctor to express her power *'behind'* discourse. Here, the doctor gives priority to the patient's satisfaction and desire, not to the treatment workload. For the clauses of Inclination, the modalities majorly gather at low level of certainty like *need, will, should, can* and *may* function as persuasion or request when the doctor wants the patient to follow the treatment procedure in a polite consultation practice. Thus, by using the modalities of Inclination at medium and low level of values, the doctor is able to switch her voice and let the patient be calmly persuaded to follow the doctor's instruction.

(23) || *You **should** do well, || you **should** motivate it || and right now investigating yourself.* ||

(24) || *you **need** to keep an eye on your weight.* ||

Besides, clauses with modal operators of obligation, on the other hand, enable the

doctor to express her 'power' over their patients with warm and friendly controls through the flow of the interaction. In this case, obligation or commands which include modal operators at three level of values such as *not have to, shouldn't* helps the doctor both express her authority to do her job well and avoids a form of imperative and direct consultation.

and explicit variants to the subjective and objective orientation of modality. Based on what Halliday has systemized, in Table 5, this paper shows the examples of doctor's use of modality types that come from the modal categories of Orientation and Manifestation.

Table 5. An overview of modality type and orientation combined the doctor used

Types	Orientation combined			
	Subjective: explicit	Subjective: implicit	Objective: explicit	Objective: implicit
Modalisation: Probability	*This is something I **think** very durable programme.*	*For the first two days you **may** feel a little WEIRD*	*This is really … really **guilt** to those people who have about 10 to … 30, 40 pounds that you can lose it in any … a short period of time.*	*It's gonna be after that a slow weight loss, **typically** (sluggish) weight loss.*
Modalisation: Usuality		*You **will** divide, usually about 30 minutes before you eat or take water with these pills.*		*We can **always** move to the other pills*
Modulation: Obligation (unmodulated)	*I **wish** to see how you react to using it*	*You **shouldn't** try to leave liver cut in meats.*		*So you **also** watch your body fat.*
Modulation: Inclination (modulated)	*I **mean** …it is not the depression*	*You **will** watch your body.*	*This is **important** to look at everything, and also the interest, you know, that ..also come off as well.*	*Mmm… with the medicine that we have available, you **easily** use two different types*

(25) ||| *This is a couple of mean || that makes people used to eat ||| and then we **don't have to** know || the silly the problem is. |||*

(26) ||| *You **should not** to be stuck at number,|| look at the big picture. |||*

Halliday (1994, pp. 357-358) claims that modality orientation is the basic distinction that is used to determine how each modality meaning gets expressed. Meanwhile, the modality manifestation indicates implicit

Table 5 illustrates some modality choices in the doctor's talk that exemplify subjectivity and objectivity of explicit/implicit orientation. In terms of explicit assessment, subjective-explicit, realized by the 'Senser' and the mental verbs, explicitly represents the speaker *I* – referring to the doctor, and indicates the doctor's own point of view with verbal markers *think, wish, understand*. This type of assessment allows the doctor to highlight her prominent opinions, assertion

as well as tentativeness, and under this case, to pass her responsibility and decision to the patient. Explicitly objective type, realized by intensive attribute relational clause such as *It is…; This is…,* functions as an effective means of conducting persuasive purposes. Thus, this type of judgment depends on providing practical evidence to call for the patient's acceptance.

Meanwhile, implicit assessment does not represent the speaker-the doctor's judgments. Rather, it enacts the doctor's opinion and agreement degree on what is projected by the patient. Here, while subjective implicit is realized by finite modal operator *may*, *will*, *should*, objective-implicit is marked with comment adjuncts *especially*, *typically*, *well*, *also*, *always*, *sometimes*.

Table 6 presents the distribution of subjectivity and objectivity of explicit/implicit orientation by the doctor during the interaction.

– *you* and the finite modal operators such as *can, may, should, would, might, will, need.* In fact, of 66% frequent choices of implicit subjectivity, two third of them is exposed with modal clauses such as y*ou can/may/should/ would/might/will/need.* The doctor uses much *you*, attaching with modal operators to express her expectation and opinions about what the activities should be done by the patient.

(27) || *you **can** drop that night-time doze.* ||

The doctor's preferable use of implicit subjectivity indicates an adaptation of a patient-centered strategy at consultation. Here, the doctor aims to pay mostly attention to the patient, not to her own judgment or commitment. In other words, when expressing propositions, the doctor considers the patient as a central role and gives the patient a prior position in her narrative. Thus, this style of medical consultation actually helps the doctor

Table 6. Modality Orientation and Manifestation used by the doctor

Orientation / Manifestation	Frequency	Percentage
Subjective: explicit	9	15%
Subjective: implicit	40	66%
Objective: explicit	2	3%
Objective: implicit	10	16%
Total	**61**	**100%**

Of the 61 modal clauses, most of them are skewed towards subjectivity, totally accounting for around 80%. Conversely, explicitly objective assessment is classified as the lowest level of percentage, accounting for only 3% in total. Meanwhile, explicit subjectivity and implicit objectivity are equally ranked at around 15%.

In particularly, the doctor is favoured by using implicitly subjective assessment with the subjective operator referring to the patient

improve the patient's autonomy. Here, the patient understands she is the one that needs actively enact a subjective role during the treatment procedure.

Explicitly subjective assessment, on the other hand, realized by the subjective operator *I* – referring to the doctor herself and by the verbal markers *think, wish*, *understand*, *mean*, is used in only some cases when the doctor wants to highlight her own opinions and commitment. In this study, with the combination of the mental verbs *think/wish/*

understand/mean, the doctor can project her inner belief with a tender impact on the patient. However, this assessment type, accounting for 13%, ranks at the second lowest position and allocates mainly in the region of Probability and Inclination.

(28) ||| *So I* **think**, || *you might be better with that one.*|||

(29) ||| *So I* **think** || *you should do well.* || *You should motivate it.* ||

While explicitly subjective assessment of probability can show the doctor's judgment on an uncertain fact, that of Inclination, illustrates the doctor's management of building a shared and intimate consultation. Table 5 indicates that explicitly subjective assessment used by the doctor with different aims. For example, in one case that the doctor is unsure whether the patient can respond well to the diagnosis, or side effects might or might not come, the doctor projects a mental clause *I think* in the region of probability. By doing this, the doctor strategically provides the patient with a positive comment that is able to relieve the patient's nervousness and anxiety. Here, the doctor consults the patient not only with concrete knowledge but also with shared experience from her deeply inside consciousness. Besides, mental clauses in the region of Inclination help the doctor consult the patient in a way of sharing responsibility. In this case, the doctor may project *I wish* to expect or to call for the patient's cooperation to make the treatment improved; *I understand* to express her intimacy and sympathy when the patient tells about her fear and sorrow of the treatment side effect; *I mean* to extend her explanation to make a simple discourse that helps the patient understand at ease; and *I think* to highlight her comment as a subtle adjustment to ask the patient to follow her advice with pleasure. In this way, the doctor can both puts no pressure on the patient and shows her inner opinions that have no impact on the patient's physical world. In other words, the doctor can share her sole responsibility to the patient, enhance the patient's autonomy and independence, and build up a cooperative atmosphere with the patient.

Furthermore, the lower percentage use of objectivity indicates that the doctor strategically prefers expressing autonomy through her introspective assumptions rather than from the outer reflective opinions. As the discourse of face-to-face consultation is unplanned and happens naturally, the doctor prefers persuading the patient by her own practical knowledge, experience and inner belief rather than indirectly by someone else's point of views. It was only in two cases that the doctor aims to make her point of view appear to be neutral. The doctor takes example of other people's feelings and experience to make her suggestions or consultation sound more acceptable and persuasive.

(30) || *This is ~* ||| *this is ...* **really ... really guilt** *to those people* ||*who have about 10 to ... 30, 40 pounds.* |||

(31) || *This is* **important** *to look at everything, and also the interest.* ||| *You know,* ||*that ...also comes off as well.* |||

This type of assessment effectively functions as a means of encouraging acceptance. The doctor may quickly get the patient agreement since she depends on the obvious evidence rather than on her insistence or her personal reasoning. However, it may restrict the negotiation as it disguises the fact that the doctor has provided the patient with strong evidence supporting by other viewpoints, therefore, the patient can easily show her approval without any response.

In contrast to the little favour of explicitly objective type, the doctor shows a relatively preferred option of implicitly objective assessment. In this study, implicit objectivity, is realized by comment adjuncts such as

especially, *typically*, *well*, *also, always, sometimes*. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004, p. 129) claim that this type of assessment reflexes the speaker's attitude either to the proposition as a whole or to particularly speech function. In this study, implicitly objective assessments with comment adjuncts, occur in declarative clauses, help the doctor clearly express general opinions and plans for the treatment with a less directive and imperative voice. They also enable the doctor to weaken the intensity of the statements, moreover, tactically dominate the patient in a subtle manner. Examples of implicit objectivity in table 5 can illustrate remarkable functions of this assessment type. The doctor may flexibly include her judgment on the probability of the slow progressive result.

(32) || *It's gonna be after that a slow weight loss, **typically** (sluggish) weight loss.* ||

guide the patient thoroughly the frequency of taking medicine;

(33) ||| *So **sometimes** the other pill is just a day pill* || *that lasts all day long.* |||

ask the patient to take more care of her weight;

(34) || *So you **also** watch your body fat.* ||

or to persuade the client to follow the advice.

(35) || *you prepare **well** with weight loss, **especially** in the first week.* ||

Implicitly objective comments are located more in the two main types: Usuality and inclination. It can be explained that the implicit objectivity gathers round the usuality and inclination types because the doctor pays more attention on thoroughly instructing the patient the time and the manner of conducting the treatment.

(36) || *We can **always** move to the other pills.* ||

(37) ||| *Mmm… with the medicine that we have available,* || *you **easily** use two different types* |||.

Despite the different distribution of subjectivity and objectivity of explicit/implicit orientation by the doctor when interacting with her patient, this paper proves that the doctor has conducted an intimate, polite, and persuasive consultation. The doctor has shown her subtle power through reciprocal interaction with the patient, leading to the increase of the patient's autonomy and independence. By doing this, the doctor shortens the distance with the patient and builds an interactive relationship with the patient during the consultation.

5. Conclusion

This study has investigated the grammatical characteristics of context, clause complexes and clause simplexes, and Mood and Modality to reveal the power lying behind the doctor's discourse. In general, the following grammatical features contribute a well-founded evidence for the power that lies behind the doctor's words at the consultation.

- Evidence from the context of situation: *Field*, *mode* and *tenor*

The *field* of the consultation is a movement toward the alternative forms of consultation practice – patient-centeredness. The evidence, which proves the change of the *field* relating to the doctor's subtle power, is generated from persuasiveness and intimacy, not from professionalism, knowledge, or skill. The *tenor* of the consultation is an equally relative status between a doctor (professional) and a patient (a laywoman) at a consultation. The *tenor* is not an issue of one-sided talk between physicians and their patients as it is normally described (Adam, 2004). The *tenor* found in this case is relatively symmetrical because the agentive roles, information seeker and giver, are alternated dynamically between the doctor and the patient. The *mode* of the consultation is a relatively equal dialogue. For non-lexical choice, the evidence can be found from the

doctor's facial expression, layout office, and uniform. For the verbal choice, the study finds a number of cohesive and coherent, but less interruptive consultation strategies through the doctor's large use of conjunctives, continuants and unmarked in Topical Theme.

- Evidence from the use of clause complexes and clause simplexes

There is a greater use of clause complexes by the doctor and of clause simplexes by the patient. Particularly, there is a higher use of clause complexes by the doctor in hypotactic relation compared with that of in paratactic relation; an almost no use of ideal projection or quoted relation.

- Evidence from the use of mood and modality

In terms of mood, there is a dramatically higher frequent use of major and minor declarative mood by the doctor compared with that by the patient; A considerable use of interrogative mood by the doctor with different interactive aims of seeking information or negotiating for approvals; A seldom use of unmarked positive imperatives and no use of unmarked negative imperatives.

In terms of modality, there is a totally dominant use of modality by the doctor at medium and low values, being mainly distributed into modality of probability (*will, may, might*) and of inclination (*need, will, would, should, can*); a noticeable use of modal clauses skewing towards subjectivity, particularly, implicitly subjective assessment – y*ou*, referring to the patient*;* a relatively preferable use of implicitly objective and explicitly subjective assessment; a relatively little use of explicit objectivity.

From the results of the study, this paper provides some conclusions as followings:

In general, the study confirms that the doctor has expressed her power over the patient during the interaction. However, being different from the traditional consultation that is empowered by a doctor's higher position and knowledge, this study reveals the doctor's subtle power characterizing by politeness, solidarity and intimacy. In particular, in terms of context, the change of *field, tenor* and *mode* towards politeness originally comes from the movement in English that entailed a shift in the language of doctors. Thus, 'language, like everything else is joining in the general flux' (Aitchison 2000, p. 3). That means that there has never been a moment where a 'true standstill in language' exits. As a result, the language of doctors that underlies the system of general language is also moving towards increasing informality and solidarity. In terms of clause complexes and simplexes, the prominent use of clause complexes, particularly, hypotactic relation rather than paratactic relation indicates a new *model* of consultation that appeals the doctor to extend sentences by using mainly simple words and phrases instead of complex medical jargons; to provide intimate persuasion instead of direct imperative instruction. In terms of mood and modality, the doctor's greater use of major, minor declarative and interrogative mood, however, a seldom use of unmarked positive imperatives, proves the doctor's tactical and polite strategies in explaining and encouraging the patient at the consultation. Besides, a large number of modalities skewing towards implicit subjectivity imply the doctor's attempt to focus on improving the patient's democratic arguments and autonomy. Thus, mood and modal instruments, have contributed a great help to the doctor to weaken her authority power and encourage the patient's confidence and self-control. The doctor, in this case, has followed the trend of patient-centeredness as she expresses her power over the patients in a polite way. In other words, the doctor's power in this study is the power *behind* discourse in reciprocal consultation that aims to take the patients' concerns and expectations into account.

Thus, the language of doctors has always been expressed very powerfully

through their discourse. This has now been changed to become much more subtle. In this case, the power in the language of the doctor is minimized to create a friendlier environment, and to increase the patient's autonomy as well.

Acknowledgements

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MỐI QUAN HỆ QUYỀN LỰC GIỮA BÁC SĨ VÀ BỆNH NHÂN: PHÂN TÍCH MỘT BUỔI TƯ VẤN KHÁM BỆNH GIỮA BÁC SĨ VÀ BỆNH NHÂN TỪ CÁCH TIẾP CẬN CHỨC NĂNG HỆ THỐNG

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Từ khóa: Khám tư vấn/giao tiếp bác sĩ - bệnh nhân, ngôn ngữ học chức năng hệ thống, quyền lực

ENGLISH BORROWINGS AND SCALE
OF BORROWABILITY IN VIETNAMESE MAGAZINES

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Abstract: When two or more languages are in contact, it is impossible for them to remain completely discrete from each other and the most frequently encountered product of language contact is lexical borrowing. This paper reviews the background of lexical borrowing in Vietnamese context and investigates the scale of borrowability of English tokens that occured in magazine issues. The findings show that the syntactic system of the Vietnamese language has influenced how English word types are borrowed.

Keywords: language contact, borrowings, English, scale of borrowability

1. Introduction

Since 1986, the use of English has undergone rapid expansion in Vietnam. Not only are young people exposed to English because it is a subject offered at schools, but they may also gravitate towards it as a prominent tool to enable access to Western lifestyle and culture. Despite substantial studies on English borrowings, no research is conducted on written borrowings, written code-switching, and trends in borrowing over time in language for a youthful Vietnamese audience such as that encountered in magazines for teenagers. The current study innovates in all of these ways. First, consideration of written borrowings is useful in that it allows access to much larger data collections, thereby facilitating meaningful quantitative results. Second, the study of youth language helps capture borrowings closer to their time of entry into the language, since young people, especially in the English-focused educational context noted above, can be expected to instigate borrowing more often than older people. Moreover, borrowings examined over time provide insight into the relation between the influence of English in Vietnamese and the historical, cultural, and educational context in which the effect of English grew, changed, or diminished.

This study analyses the prevalence of English borrowings in *Hoa Hoc Tro*, a Vietnamese magazine for teenagers, to find out the scale of borrowability of English word types in Vietnamese.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1. Language Contact

Language contact takes place everywhere. It is hard to find an existing language that survives without having any contact with others. Besides being the main factor leading to the actions of borrowing and code-switching linguistic items, language contact is viewed as one of the external factors that 'can, and often does, lead directly to structural linguistic change' Thomason (2006: 1). Language contact occurs when there is interaction between people from different language backgrounds. Robins (1989: 14) sees language as 'adaptable and modifiable

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according to the changing needs and conditions of speakers'. The adaptability and modifiability of language can be seen in the adaptation of vocabulary to the scientific and industrial developments as well as in the importation of foreign words. Other researchers raise the questions such as to what degree of difference the code used in two 'languages' has to be and whether different dialects are categorised as different languages (Appel & Muysken, 1987: 3; Thomason, 2001: 3). Thomason (2001: 1) gives a more flexible definition of language contact as 'the use of more than one language in the same place at the same time'. This indicates that fluent bilingualism is not essential but communication between different languages is necessary. Moreover, contact can occur without speakers of two or more languages being in the same place at the same time, as in the case of contact through music, films, internet, books, magazines, and newspapers. Thomason's definition covers a wider range of language contact, including spoken and written contact, and can therefore be used as the guiding definition in this study for the analysis of language contact in Vietnamese magazine.

2.2. Borrowing

Borrowing is a natural consequence of language contact. The contact can be either tangible (conquest, boundary contact, and so on) or intangible (high technology, cultural contact, and so forth). Different definitions have existed due to different points of view on borrowing.

Borrowing in Haugen's words is 'the attempted reproduction in one language of patterns previously found in another' (Haugen, 1950: 212). The word 'reproduction' implies the imitation process of speakers of the recipient language. Haugen (1992: 197) later modifies the definition of borrowing as 'the adoption into language of a linguistic feature previously used in another' which focuses on the incorporation or insertion of a foreign element

into a language. Based on definitions proposed by previous researchers, Bussmann (1996: 55) describes borrowings as the 'adoption of a linguistic expression from one language into another language, usually when no term exists for the new object, concept or state of affair'. In fact, borrowing includes both imitation (reproduction) and insertion (adoption) because speakers of a native language can nativise the foreign word or simply use it more or less as it is in the donor language.

In Vietnamese, there are three terms that co-exist to refer to borrowing: *từ mượn* 'borrowed word', *từ vay mượn* 'loan/ borrowing', and *từ ngoại lai* 'imported word from outside' Nguyen (2007: 28). Although named differently, they are all used to refer to words borrowed from another language. In English, the words are described as borrowings or loan words, although 'it is more like a kind of stealing' (Haugen, 1956) or 'copied rather than borrowed in the strict sense of the word' (Aitchison, 2000) because the 'borrowed' words are never 'returned' to the donor language. Several alternative terms are proposed, such as 'copying' by Johanson (2002), or 'transfer' and 'transference' by Clyne (2003), to replace the well-established word 'borrowing'. Despite being slightly misleading, the word 'borrowing' has been used for a long time, the metaphor is well-established and is claimed that it does 'not lead to any misunderstanding' (Haspelmath & Tadmor, 2009: 37), so this study uses the term 'borrowing' instead of the other terms proposed above.

2.3. Scale of Borrowability

In the late nineteenth century, William Dwight Whitney (1881: 19-20) set up a scale based on the comparative ease or difficulty with which patterns are borrowed. In that scale, nouns are most easily borrowed, followed by adjectives, verbs, and other parts

of speech (adverbs, pronouns, and more), then prefixes and suffixes, and inflections.

(1) nouns > adjectives > verbs > other parts of speech

Since then, other observations have been made on linguistic patterns to determine which part of speech is more or less likely to be borrowed and various types of scales of borrowability have been proposed. A similar scale to Whitney's is elaborated by Haugen (1950: 224), based on the list of American English borrowings in Norwegian and Swedish:

(2) nouns > verbs > adjectives > adverbs, prepositions > interjections

In the study of Spanish borrowings in Ecuadorian Quechua, Van Hout & Muysken (1994: 42) list the number of types borrowed is in the order:

(3) nouns > verbs > adjectives > sentence adverbs > quantifiers > conjunctions > prepositions > interjections > negation > manner adverbs > greetings

Based on the number of word classes and word formation of English borrowings in German, Onysko (2007: 131) comes up with another order:

(4) nouns > adjectives > verbs > adverbs > others

Field (2002: 35) notes that there is correlation between the degree of grammaticalisation and the degree of borrowability. He claims that 'the more structural (or grammaticalised) an element is, the less likely it will be borrowed from one language to another'. Such scales support Field's statement that nouns are the most often borrowed items and the content items are borrowed more frequently than the grammatical ones. The difference in position of the second grammatical category that follows nouns is specific to certain structural properties of the languages. For example, Cree and other Algonquian languages do not have adjectives. As a result, verbs or relative clauses are used to attribute nouns, which leads to an increase

of other lexical items rather than adjectives. The position of adjectives or verbs in the scale of borrowability may be the reflection of the distribution of grammatical categories in the recipient language rather than the inclination of such items to be borrowed. Accordingly, Field proposes a scale in which nouns stand at the first place, followed by adjectives and verbs:

(5) nouns > adjectives, verbs

All of the scales proposed concur that nouns are the most frequently borrowed items. The second most borrowed can be either adjectives or verbs, depending on the structure of each language as well as the need for such items. The particular scales in different languages and the general scale affirm that the grammatical apparatus is least likely to be borrowed.

3. Methodology

3.1. The Hoa Hoc Tro magazine

Hoa Hoc Tro, a weekly off-shoot of the *Vietnamese Student* newspaper, was first published on 15 October 1991. *Hoa Hoc Tro* includes information, articles and stories for the younger generation. Being the first magazine for high school students in Vietnam, after a few years since its foundation in 1991, *Hoa Hoc Tro* reached a circulation of 100,000 per week, becoming one of the top circulating periodicals in Vietnam and currently sells 200,000 copies weekly Duong (2011). *Hoa Hoc Tro* provides opportunities for students to have their own magazine to which they can contribute by writing and expressing their ideas, and as a result, new word usages have been presented and developed. Many of the stories, poems, and so on in the magazines are written by student writers (e.g., at high schools, colleges, and universities). *Hoa Hoc Tro,* then, is one of the favourite magazines among Vietnamese teenagers and a good source of data on teen language use.

3.2. Data collection and analysis

This research collects English words in 111 *Hoa Hoc Tro* magazine issues starting from the first issue in 1991 using stratified sampling method, that is, one issue of each month is collected for the study. The borrowings appearing in each issue of the magazine are identified and classified into different word classes according to their usages. Proper names, title of songs, movies, books, translations of letters to idols, abbreviation of international units of measurement, and quotations are excluded from this study.

English words that meet one of the following criteria are subjects of the study:

1. An English word used in Vietnamese whose origin can be traced back to English is counted each time it appears in the magazine.

2. An acronym of an English phrase acting as a word in Vietnamese is counted as one word, for example: *UFO* (unidentified flying object), and *CD* (compact disk).

3. Noun Phrases such as crazy fan, sky train, smash hits, fan club, video clip, and stock exchange are counted as one entry.

4. Inflected forms of the same lexeme are counted as one word. For example *fan* and *fans* are counted as the same word.

5. Duplicated words such as *bye bye* are counted as one word.

6. Phrases and clauses such as *Happy New Year to you* and *Oh, fashion is always crazy* are selected and listed in a separate list for code-switching, hence, they are not added to the number of borrowings analysed.

4. Finding

Table 1 illustrates the type frequency of borrowings, showing the probability for words of a particular type to be borrowed; and the token frequency, which sheds light on the frequency of each type and thus addresses the likelihood that borrowings in each word type will catch on. As can be seen from Table 1, in terms of token frequency, of the 830 types of the 5138 tokens English borrowings imported into *Hoa Hoc Tro*, nouns constitute the largest group at 88.1%, verbs account for 4.2%, adjectives make up 3.5%, and adverbs and prefixes occupy 0.3% each. Prepositions, quantifiers, and interrogatives occur the least with only 8 tokens (0.2%; prepositions) and 2 tokens (0%; quantifiers). Likewise, in terms of type frequency, the table shows that it is most likely that nouns are to be borrowed rather than other word types with 663 occurences accounting for 80% of total borrowings. Verbs constitute 8%, adjectives make up 7%. Other types lag substantially behind, with 0% (prefixes), 1% (prepositions), and 1% (adverbs).

Table 1. Percentage of English borrowings per word type in *Hoa Hoc Tro*

Number	Word Type	Type frequency	Percentage of type frequency	Token frequency	Percentage of token frequency
1	Noun	663	80 %	4530	88.1 %
2	Verb	67	8 %	214	4.2 %
3	Adjective	59	7 %	182	3.5 %
4	Exclamation / interjection	16	2 %	143	2.8 %
5	Pronoun	5	1 %	29	0.6 %
6	Adverb	11	1 %	17	0.3 %
7	Prefix	3	0 %	13	0.3 %
8	Preposition	4	1 %	8	0.2 %
9	Quantifier, interrogative	2	0 %	2	0.0 %
Total		**830**	**100%**	**5138**	**100%**

It is apparent from Table 1 that nouns are borrowed more than other word types. The percentage of borrowed nouns, constituting 88.1% of the total borrowings, is similar to the percentage of nouns found in other studies (e.g. Field, 2002; Haugen, 1950). Various

The most frequent abbreviations are *CD*, *DNA*, *AIDS*, *CPU*, *MP3*, *VIP* and *VCD*. Many of the nouns are borrowed to denote new concepts (e.g., *marketing*, *ballad*, *rock & roll*, and *chatroom*) and are distributed across various domains as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Nouns in semantic fields

Semantic fields	Nouns
Addressing	Miss, Mister
Economics	dollar, marketing, business woman, money, customer, logo, bond, profit, USD, bond exchange, broker, investor, stock, stock holder
Expressions	baby, number one, VIP
Fashion	jeans, shorts, silk, cotton, model, pull over, shop, shopping
Foods & Drinks	chewing gum, fast food, coffee, biscuit, bar, hot dogs, chocolate, cake, sandwich
Lifestyle	picnic, seeing tour, hobby, weekend, party
Medical	CT scanner, virus, AIDS, HIV, stress
Miscellaneous	black board, worker, girl, toilet, topic, volume, forest
Movies	scene, TV show, studio, ticket
Music	album, show, rock, pop, ballad, rock & roll, hard rock, break dance, country, jazz, top ten, hit, best seller, bill board, boyband, girlband, CD, poster
Science & Technology	X-ray, robot, laser, gene, fax, IC (integrated circuit), mini lab, high tech, camera, computer, internet, laptop, website, nickname, email, digital, mobile, phone
Dimension	inch, feet
Social Events	festival, Thanks Giving, Xmas, Halloween
Sport	tennis, football, bowling, golf, fair play, hooligan, penalty, knock out
Transportation	taxi, bus, skytrain

types of structural formations occur, including simple nouns, compounds, and abbreviations (including acronyms). Simple nouns take up 67.3%, compound nouns account for 17.8% and abbreviations cover 14.9% of the total 4530 noun tokens. Compound nouns appear in noun + noun combinations such as *best seller*, *bussiness woman*, and *money maker*.

English verbs comprise 4.2% of the total 5138 borrowings. Due to the isolating characteristic of the Vietnamese language, verbs are all borrowed in their infinitive form (without 'to'), instead of past forms, third person singular, and so on. Verbs appear mainly in music, science and technology and miscellaneous domains and include *cover*,

play back, *photo*, *download*, *click*, *read*, *recognize*, and *chat*. The most frequent verbs are *cover* (25 tokens), *chat* (20 tokens), and *photo* (20 tokens).

The adjective borrowings accounts for 3.5% of the total. The most widely borrowed adjectives include*: big*, *mini*, *maximum*, *classic*, *new*, *romantic*, *modern*, *good*, *cool*, *hottest*, *cute*, *fantastic*, *smart*, *wonderful*, *handsome*, and *rich*.

The proportion of adverbs, pronouns, prefixes, prepositions, and quantifiers is very low compared to that of other word classes. Some of the frequent borrowings of these word classes are *very*, *really*, *hopefully*, *you*, *I*, and *super*.

Apart from the major word classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives), interjections stand at the fourth highest position, used as independent discourse markers in the corpus. Some of the popular interjections are *OK*, *hey*, *wow*, *yeah*, and *bye bye*. For example:

(1) **Hey***, bọn tớ cũng đi Hawaii đây bọn tớ muốn cái lưng của bọn tớ có khái niệm về ánh nắng mặt trời. (iss. 299/1999)*

Lit: Hey, we also go Hawaii here we want back of we have concept about beam sun.

Trans: Hey, we also go to Hawaii, we want our back have a sense of the sun light.

As mentioned earlier, of the 5138 English tokens in the corpus, a large number of nouns is recorded, with 4530 tokens (88.1%), and the remaining 11.9% distributed among other classes such as verbs (4.2%), adjectives (3.5%), exclamations/interjections (2.8%), pronouns (0.6%), adverbs (0.3%), prefixes (0.3%), and prepositions (0,2%). The scale of borrowability of this data is:

Nouns > verbs > adjectives > exclamations/ interjections > pronouns > adverbs > prefixes > prepositions > quantifiers

The quantification of borrowed word classes in this study supports the general trend of borrowing observed in other languages, where nouns are borrowed more frequently. The result of this study is consistent with the findings on borrowing in other languages, and supports the generalisation that certain word classes are more likely to be borrowed than others, regardless of the target language. The occurrence of large numbers of nouns, verbs, adverbs, and so on also reflects the high frequency of such word classes (especially nouns) in a language, word choice of users, and can relate to the syntactic systems of the languages involved.

The Vietnamese nouns and verbs have several important characteristics that affect the way English words are borrowed into Vietnamese, including transnumerality and verb-acting ability for nouns, and no infinitive form for verbs. Firstly, Vietnamese nouns 'do not themselves contain any notion of number and amount' because they have no obligatory marking of plural or singular (Ho, 2003: 56-57). Furthermore, they have 'the property of transnumerality, [they are] invariant in form', and 'the nouns themselves remain the same regardless of whether they are singular or plural'. As a result, most of English nouns are borrowed in singular form. The following examples demonstrate this point:

(2) *Áo thun dài lút tận đầu gối đi kèm với quần **jean** hoặc quần ống suôn thì mới là 'mốt' (iss. 133/96)*

Lit: T-shirt long until knee go with trouser jean or trouser straight so new is 'fashion'

Trans: A long T-shirt with a pair of jeans or straight leg trousers is fashionable.

(3) *Tớ đã phải bỏ tờ OK vì các **poster** của nó quá nhỏ [..] các **fan** ngày càng khó tính (iss. 259/98)*

Lit: I already must put out paper OK because these poster of it too small [..] these fan day more strict.

Trans: I had to abandon *OK* because its posters are too small [..] fans are getting harder to please.

In the above examples, nouns are all in singular forms though most of them have indefinite numerals preceding them, such as *những*, and *các*, which both refer to *many* in (3). In (2), *jeans* is borrowed in singular form which is vague in English since the word *trousers*, *pants* and *jeans* are always in plural form because they have two parts, but in Vietnamese the noun *quần* refers to the general concept of trousers, and is considered as one item. It can be combined with other nouns to define the type of trousers, such as *quần bò* 'jeans', and *quần vải* 'trousers'. These examples demonstrate the adaptation of English nouns into the transnumeral nature of Vietnamese grammar. Secondly, for an isolating language such as Vietnamese, nouns and verbs do not have to undergo morphosyntactic modification and verbs do not express tense (e.g., progress, perfect, and continuous) in themselves. Therefore, a noun can be placed in a verb's position and function as a verb because both nouns and verbs are inflected; there is no morphological impediment to a noun being converted into a verb or vice-versa. In other words, 'the Vietnamese language appears to permit a great deal of freedom in the selection of either nouns or verbs for syntactic combination' Ho (2003: 58). For example:

(4) *hầu như tất cả các sự việc (từ đơn giản đến phức tạp) diễn ra ban ngày đều được 'camera' y chang vào giấc ngủ đêm (iss. 167/1997)*

Lit: … almost all events (from simple to complicate) happen day time both are camera exactly to sleep night

Trans: Almost all events (from simple to complicate) that happen in the day time are recorded and shown exactly in night time sleep.

(5) *Khâu đầu tiên là phải* **marketing** *đã (iss. 248/1998)*

Lit: Part first is must marketing already

Trans: Marketing is the first part

In (4) and (5) *camera* and *marketing* appear in noun form but are placed in the position of the verb and act as Vietnamese verbs. No cases of verbs acting as nouns are found in the corpus.

Turning to English verbs found in the corpus, the data shows that English verbs are borrowed in infinitive (without *to*) form, and there is no morphosyntactic modification recorded. Borrowed verbs are inserted directly and they do not need to undergo a verbalisation process before they become available in the recipient language (Wohlgemuth, 2009: 265). The findings of this study, therefore, do not match with the constraint proposed by Moravcsik (cited from Curnow, 2001: 419) that verbs are usually borrowed as non-verbs. Moravcsik claims that after being imported as non-verbs, the word would then undergo a process of verbalisation before being used as verbs in the borrowing language. Moravcsik states that 'a lexical item whose meaning is verbal can never be included in the set of borrowed properties'. This implies that morphosyntactic modification must be applied when borrowing a verb, that is, a borrowed verb has to be modified to fit in the existing verbal classes of the recipient language. However, the generalisation is not applicable to an isolating language such as Vietnamese where the verb can be directly inserted without any morphosyntactic modification, as in the case of adapted spelling: *phô tô* 'photo', *đi dai* 'design', *pho ghét* 'forget', or with the original spelling, as for *check* and *stop*. In the following example, the English verbs *design* (6) and *cover* (7) are borrowed with their original forms with no modification:

(6) '..*các bạn gái ở trên mạng khắp thế giới sẽ được tặng miễn phí một món quà rất đặc biệt do hắn* **design**..*'. (iss. 299/1999)*

Lit: those friend girl on net around world will be give free one present very special by he design

Trans: …. girlfriends on the internet around the world will be given a free and very special gift that he designs...

*(7) Tuy nhiên nếu một nghệ sĩ hoặc một ban nhạc mà cứ đi **cover** mãi thì ta nên gọi chuyên gia hát lại thì hơn. (291/1999)*

Lit: However, if one artist or one band music that go cover that we should call expert sing repeat better

Trans: However, if an artist or a band always covers songs of others, it is better to call them expert in singing others' songs.

Again, these examples demonstrate that English verbs can be borrowed as verbs and they do not have to undergo a process of verbalisation in Vietnamese language.

Despite the fact that this isolating characteristic of the Vietnamese language allows all word classes to be borrowed without any morphosyntactic modification, the number of nouns is still the highest among the word types borrowed. Hence, grammatical factors are not the reason for the high rate of noun borrowings into the Vietnamese language. Instead, the explanation probably lies in the fact that concepts and objects themselves, which are usually denoted by nouns, are more frequently and easily borrowed from other cultures to fill gaps or to replace existing concepts. Verbs, on the other hand, are not as easily borrowed as nouns because they refer to actions, which are less likely to be new ideas to a culture, so that suitable words already exist. For example, the verb *cover* refers to a very culture-specific action, and it is borrowed. Likewise, *camera* (as a verb) refers to a technologically new action, and so on.

Due to the isolating characteristic of Vietnamese language, other word types such as adverbs and adjectives do not have to undergo morphosyntactic modification when being imported into the language. However, the borrowing rates of these word types in the corpus are low compared with nouns and verbs.

5. Conclusion

It is shown that different syntactic word classes are borrowed at different rates. For instance, borrowing of nouns is the most common whereas borrowing quantifiers is the least common, and no article is found in the corpus. A possible explanation is that nouns, verbs, adjectives, and other word classes exist in both languages with structural equivalence, while articles are not used in Vietnamese. Therefore, borrowing of other word classes (nouns, verbs, and adjectives) rather than articles occurs. Moreover, grammatical items are less likely to be borrowed than content words. In addition, new concepts are normally represented by nouns, which make the number of borrowed nouns increase accordingly. The results also show that English words have adapted into the features of Vietnamese grammar during the borrowing process. Firstly, due to the transnumeral feature of Vietnamese grammar, English nouns are borrowed mostly in singular form and they can act as verbs in some cases, as long as the intended meaning is fulfilled. Secondly, Vietnamese is an isolating language, so verbs are borrowed in their original forms without any morphosyntactic modification. Because most new concepts are denoted by nouns and in Vietnamese nouns can act as verbs via zero-derivation, the number of borrowed nouns accounts for the high percentage of 88.1%. This result supports the view that nouns are the most frequently borrowed forms. However, it also challenges previous generalisations about the borrowing of verbs.

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TỪ MƯỢN TIẾNG ANH VÀ MỨC ĐỘ VAY MƯỢN TRONG TẠP CHÍ TIẾNG VIỆT

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Tóm tắt: Trong bối cảnh toàn cầu hóa, việc tiếp xúc giữa các ngôn ngữ là điều không tránh khỏi. Vay mượn từ vựng là một sản phẩm của quá trình tiếp xúc này khi có sự trao đổi, tương tác giữa hai hoặc nhiều hơn hai ngôn ngữ. Bài viết nghiên cứu tỉ lệ vay mượn từ loại tiếng Anh trong tạp chí Hoa Học Trò dành cho lứa tuổi thanh thiếu niên. Các kết quả cho thấy quy tắc cú pháp của tiếng Việt có ảnh hưởng lớn trong việc vay mượn từ và chuyển loại từ của các từ mượn tiếng Anh.

Từ khóa: tiếp xúc ngôn ngữ, từ mượn, tiếng Anh, mức độ vay mượn

THE VIETNAMESE AGENDA OF ADOPTING ENGLISH AS A MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION

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Abstract: English as a medium of instruction has been recently adopted in Vietnam's educational system. This gives rise to a concern as why a Vietnamese-speaking country decided to endorse EMI programs as one of its critical educational reforms. This paper aims to analyse the literature to explore the various agendas (social, economic, political, and educational) that underlie the EMI expansion. It examines the world literature as a framework of reference for analysing the Vietnamese case. Hopefully, the paper will provide policy-makers and implementers insights into the EMI processes to maximise the benefits and avoid pitfalls.

Keywords: English as a medium of instruction (EMI), agenda, Vietnam, policy

1. Introduction

It is now a truism to state that English is spreading rapidly around the world. English is not limited to communication within English-speaking nations. Speakers of English as a first, second and foreign language have increased from 1.2 billion in 2003 to 1.5 billion in 2006 (Crystal, 2006). In China alone, the number of bilingual speakers (English and Chinese) has increased to 200-500 million in 2009 (Crystal, 2009, as cited in Cheng 2012). With this increasingly important role of English in economic development and international communications, it is common that English is used as a medium of instruction in many non-native English speaking (NNES) contexts where the majority of the population speak a local language (Hamid, Nguyen, & Baldauf Jr, 2013; Kirkpatrick, 2012a; Wilkinson, 2012). Many governments in these contexts, such as Hong Kong and Singapore, have legislated English in their educational systems, with a naïve belief that this is the most effective means of internationalisation and development. Wachter and Maiworm (2008, as cited in Doiz et al., 2012b, p. xvii), for example, note that at over 400 European higher education institutions, there were 2400 English-medium programs in 2007, which represented a 340-percent increase within bachelor and master courses compared with 2002.

Scholars attributed various factors to this widespread use of English, including its linguistic features (Cheng, 2012), globalisation (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2012; Lo Bianco, 2010), national development (Coleman, 2011a), and the power of the people who speak the language (Cheng, 2012; Crystal, 2011). This paper attempts to explore the agendas that NNES countries with a particular emphasis on Asian contexts have for adopting EMI. Following the general discussion of EMI driving forces in the world contexts, it critically analyses the Vietnamese agendas to endorse EMI to illustrate. Hopefully, the paper will be of reference for English language policy makers at various levels.

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2. Theorising EMI developments

This section will specifically and selectively examine some common theories to explain the spread of EMI. They include globalisation (Doiz et al., 2012; Lo Bianco, 2010), development (Coleman, 2011a; Kirkpatrick, 2012b), power (Cheng, 2012; Crystal, 2011), and national identity and language policy (Tollefson & Tsui, 2004; Tsui & Tollefson, 2007b).

2.1. Globalisation and EMI

The phenomenon that globalisation impacts the spread of English and English teaching in many NNES contexts has been well accepted in the literature (Barton, 1994; Block, 2008; Chang, 2006; Dang, Nguyen, & Le, 2013; Doiz et al., 2012; Graddol, 1997; Hamid, 2013). It is generally described as a demand-supply relationship in which globalisation increases the demand of English through the increasing exposure to English materials and communication. English becomes a required skill for a working person in the multi-ethnic professional environment. As a result, English literacy becomes a standardised commodity exported to other non-English speaking markets, which significantly changes local literacy practices (Barton, 1994; Lo Bianco, 2010).

Nonetheless, this demand-supply rule seems insufficient to explain why English is used as a medium of instruction in a context where speakers could use a local language as an easier option (Akyel & Ozek, 2010; Kyeyune, 2010; Manh, 2012; Mohamed, 2013). Lo Bianco (2010) proposes the concept of knowledge power to examine the relationship between globalisation and EMI popularity. First, he states that knowledge in any form (creation, transfer, and generating skill competence) has world-changing power in a reciprocal bond between global market and universities. He argues:

New markets emerged demanding skilled competence….Universities today, both Western and non-Western, are enmeshed in rapidly integrating markets for competence as they supply these markets with skills. Universities also reinforce the existence of these markets and their reliance on universities. These markets, then as now, transcend boundaries of nation and culture, though most are still grounded in national traditions and all are marked by stratifications of power and inequalities of wealth. (Lo Bianco, 2010, p. 201)

Therefore, Lo Bianco believes that knowledge, especially technical skills and philosophical reflection, is "endlessly mutable, applicable, and exchangeable" (p.202) and should not be confined to one national setting where the universities are based. As a result, an international market for competence emerges, which produces a growing need for a shared medium of instruction and standardised literacy. English, therefore, has become a facilitating medium for international education. The demand for English is rising and English has become a "kind of foundational knowledge or basic skill used for globalisation" (Lo Bianco, 2010, p. 203). Unfortunately, as English is still located in some geographical areas and other languages are also the language of scholarship, it brings in contradictions and conflicts to international education. English, consequently, is often seen in a binary choice between "imperial instrument" and "unproblematic asset" (Lo Bianco, 2010, p.203). This situation has exacerbated the inequality or bias in the market. Those who own an English competence, such as bilingual or native speakers, have advantages compared to those who do not. The next section will further elaborate reasons for adopting EMI from the development perspective.

2.2. Development and EMI

English for development is strongly promoted by international development agencies or non-government organisations (NGOs) in developing countries (Coleman, 2010, 2011b; Seargeant & Erling, 2011; Wedell, 2011). Every year, these countries receive a huge flow of foreign investments for diverse social and economic activities. Statistics from UNCTAD (United Nations Conference on Trade and Development) show a nearly five-time increase in inward foreign investments to South-East Asian developing countries from US$ 284.364 billion in 1980 to US$ 1,319.479 billion in 2012[1]. This process creates a demand for local people to learn English to work for foreign companies or to receive international knowledge and technology from development projects. To enhance this development process, some organisations such as the British Council even provide English language courses to local people. It is noted that the new concept of development does not mean economic or social enhancement. It is about "freedom" (Sen, 1999, as cited in H. Coleman, 2010, p.3), which is facilitated by incomes, social and economic arrangements, and political and civil rights. English in relation to development, therefore, is assumed to play various roles in "increasing employability, facilitating international mobility (migration, tourism, studying abroad), unlocking development opportunity and accessing crucial information, and acting as an impartial language" (Coleman, 2011a, p. 18). The following paragraphs will examine these roles in turn.

In the first role of increasing employment opportunities, research reveals a positive correlation between English ability and

employability (Coleman, 2010; Grin, 2001). For example, Grin (2001) conducted a telephone survey with 2,400 respondents in three regions in Switzerland. By controlling education and experience variables, he found that the wage gap for the top level of competence could exceed 30% for individuals. This gap was also found at lower levels of competence. The result was in line with that in previous statistical studies with immigrant workers in America and French men in Quebec Canada (Bloom & Grenier, 1996; Vaillancourt, 1996, as cited in Grin, 2001). It, however, remains doubtful that a replicated study in Asian contexts could obtain a similar result. Grin (2001) himself admitted that the results could change over space and time. Some other case studies (Bolton, 2013; Suárez, 2005) reported foreign investors' preference of English abilities in their investment decision. Nonetheless, it remains inconclusive that English in general, or EMI in particular, has a causal effect with enhanced employability, and it is suggested that the effect of English should be considered in a particular sector like tourism (Coleman, 2010).

Another role of English to facilitate international mobility is obvious in the rising number of international students into English-speaking countries. Kell and Vogl (2012) examine student mobility and indicate that the international higher education market has been rapidly growing. The number has increased from 600,000 international students in 1975 to 2.9 billion in 2006 (Kell & Vogl, 2012), and exceeded 3 million in 2009 (Shields, 2013). Favourite destinations for international students are English-speaking countries the United States, United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand (Shields, 2013). Asia has contributed the most international students, making up approximately 47.7% of total international students in the OECD countries (Kell & Vogl, 2012, p. 2). These statistics reveal a growing lucrative market

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[1] http://unctadstat.unctad.org/TableViewer/tableView.
aspx

for international education, which might be a strong driving force for the establishment of English-taught programs in NNES contexts of Europe (Ball & Lindsay, 2012; Wilkinson, 2012) and Asia (Byun et al., 2011; Chang, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2011; Tsuneyoshi, 2005). As Kirkpatrick (2011, 2012b) points out the rising number of new EMI programs in Asia can be seen as a response to give more choices to students and reduce the loss of funding and human resources via student mobility.

The next role that associates English with development is its accessibility to development opportunities and information. H. Coleman (2010), for instance, cites statistics from previous studies to confirm that the lack of English has deprived local professionals of overseas training programs. In addition, it is well acknowledged that English is the dominant language of scholarship (Kirkpatrick, 2011; Lo Bianco, 2010). The number of English-speaking conferences, English websites, English-written journals and textbooks has surged in recent years. Therefore, a common belief is that English is the better language to obtain knowledge and competence (Lo Bianco, 2010) as well as to disseminate knowledge (Ferguson, Pérez-Llantada, & Plo, 2011; Hamid, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2011). Although little statistical evidence can be found to support the soundness of this belief, it seems to have had significant effects on English replacing other languages as a medium of instruction and publication (Lillis & Curry, 2010).

The last role of English as an impartial language can be found in multilingual societies at conflict such as Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, Afghanistan (Coleman, 2010, 2011b). In these contexts, local people may not reach a consensus on which local language should be selected as the official and instructional language of the country. Therefore, they resort to English to avoid conflicts. This solution,

however, is likely to result in the loss of training opportunities for local people and the death of local languages as in the example of Bangladesh (Shamim, 2011).

To summarise, the development agenda has been closely associated with the spread of EMI. However, it is challenging to generalise that there is a causal relationship between the two. English, in any role, comes with both opportunities and risks for development.

2.3. Power and EMI

Crystal (2011) strongly maintains that power decides the rapid spread of English worldwide. Unlike the concept of knowledge power proposed by Lo Bianco (2010), his concept of power relates to the people who use the language. He states:

> *A language becomes an international or global language for one reason only: the power of the people who use it. In the case of English, we are talking about a combination of power factors that influenced the language over a period of 400 years-political (the British Empire), technological (the Industrial Revolution), economic (especially the US), and cultural (developments such as the telephone, pop music and the internet). All of these aspects developed initially through the medium of English. (Crystal, 2011, p. 30).*

Accordingly, he conceptualises power in historical periods and in the dominant area under each period. This approach provides a multi-layer analysis of the English power relationship. However, it seems problematic to identify the group of people in power as the owners of English. In fact, it is well acknowledged that bilingual speakers of English are taking more influential roles than in the past (Cheng, 2012; Crystal, 2004; Kirkpatrick, 2011). Therefore, the criteria that can define the groups in power (geography,

nativeness, or both) are inconclusive (Maley, 2010; Widdowson, 1994).

2.4. National identity and national language policy

National identity, articulated by national language policy, has been seen as one of the contributing factors for increasing and diverse EMI practices in Asian countries (Tollefson & Tsui, 2004; Tsui & Tollefson, 2007b). While acknowledging that globalisation has brought about the widespread use of English in Asia as a "much sought-after commodity" (Tsui & Tollefson, 2007b, p. 2) with paradoxes, this approach specifically emphasises the role of government and national language policies in promoting EMI. This approach seems to confirm that the effect of globalisation can be two-way between the West and other parts of the world (Block, 2008). Tsui and Tollefson (2007b) point out that the roles of English can be universal, but each nation with its own national identity adopts English in a selective way to promote its identity. Accordingly, they define national identities as "imagined communities" which are "discursively constructed" (Tsui & Tollefson, 2007a, p. 9). Four intertwined elements of national identities include the uniqueness of a nation, historical memories (true, partly true, or legendary), future development and orientation of the nation, and emphasis on origin, continuity, tradition, and timelessness of the nation. These underlying elements differentiate national language policies in response to globalisation.

Also, Tsui and Tollefson (2007b) further investigate the notion of language policies in three aspects: language management, language ideology, and language practices (Spolsky, 2004 as cited in Tsui & Tollefson, 2007a). This appears to be a useful framework to analyse various English education policies across Asian countries. Regarding language

management, governments take interventions to decide their language preference. For example, they regulate that learning English is a national mission (for example in Japan or Malaysia) or a means to learn other subjects (for example in Japan, Malaysia, Cambodia), which results in increased curriculum time and resources. There is also a tendency that English is introduced to younger children at lower education levels. Referring to language ideology and practices, the authors discuss the underlying cultural beliefs about language varieties and communicative practices. It has been observed that Asian learners seem to prefer English, especially British or American varieties, than other languages (Maley, 2010). Another observation is that Western pedagogies can be incompatible with the pedagogies adopted by Asian EFL teachers which are different and "have been interpreted out of context and dismissed as traditional and ineffective" (Tsui & Tollefson, 2007b, p. 9). They argue that further research is needed to illustrate the congruence of language practices and policies.

In summary, this section has reviewed different approaches, each of which offers a different focus or perspective to capture the rapid developments of EMI. However, the thread of the four approaches is that EMI embraces both risks and opportunities, which immensely impacts individuals and organisations in various contexts. Each context with its own social, economic, and ideological features may position itself in the continuum between the two. The next section will specifically analyse the Vietnamese context as an example.

3. Vietnamese agenda

Vietnam, a developing country in South East Asia, started to adopt English as a school subject in the 1950s (Le, 2007). Parallel with

the country's rapid and continuous socio-political reforms over the last 50 years, English has become the most popular foreign language in its educational system, and finally the medium of instruction in some universities in 2008. Vu (2014) concludes that Vietnam has adopted EMI on a mixed agenda at three levels (national, institutional, and personal). The following subsections will eloborate on the agenda in detail.

3.1. The national socio-political agenda

The last thirty years of Vietnam has been transitioning from an inward-looking nation to a more active member of the world community. During the ten years following 1975, the united Vietnam was under the leadership of the CPV government, which strongly promoted socialism and friendships with socialist countries, especially the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (now Russia) and China. The economy was heavily subsidised by the government. The government, responsible for all economic ownerships and planning, was the leading implementer and funding supplier of most economic and social activities. Vietnam was literally a closed economy with little international cooperation (except for its close ties with the Eastern block led by the Soviet Union and China). Therefore, Russian, Chinese and French were more popular than English at that time (Le, 2007; Nguyen, 2009; Wright, 2002).

The year 1986 was a milestone for major political, economic and social changes in Vietnam (Le, 2007; London, 2006; World Bank, 2014; Wright, 2002). The 6th National Assembly of the CPV acknowledged the weaknesses of the existing practices and resolved to comprehensively reform the economy through ten missions, notably: improving socialism (cải tạo xã hội chủ nghĩa) (mission 2), reforming economic management mechanism (Đổi mới cơ chế quản lý kinh

tế) (mission 3), and actively promoting diplomatic activities (mission 7) (Communist Party of Vietnam, 1986). These missions promoted actions that directly changed the national education in general and language education in particular.

Missions 2 and 3 focussed on the development and diversification of economic sectors in terms of ownership, management, and distribution. State-owned and collective enterprises were still subsidised by the government to maintain their dominant role. However, the non-state sector (collective, private, individual) and even the foreign-owned sector were also encouraged to participate in economic and social activities. Their involvement has become increasingly important to the economy. For example, of the three economic sectors in 2012 (GSO, 2014b), the non-state sector was estimated to invest the most in socio-economic development (VND 385,025 billion, making up 38% of total investments). The state sector came second, investing VND 374,300 billion (37.8%). Foreign-owned enterprises contributed VND 229,975 billion (23.3%), an increase of 11 times the 1995 levels. Regarding state revenue contribution, foreign-own enterprises doubled their share from 5.22% in 2000 to 10.99% in 2011 (GSO, 2014a).

Another important change that was promoted at the 6th National Assembly of the CPV was the diversification of international cooperation. The CPV resolution (Communist Party of Vietnam, 1986) stated Vietnam's determination as follows:

> [Vietnam] will develop relationships with **all nations** on the principle of peaceful co-existence. On the principles of equality, independence, sovereignty, and mutual respect, Vietnam is willing to negotiate and solve problems in Vietnam-China relations, to normalise and re-establish diplomatic relations

between the two countries for the benefit of their peoples, for peace in South East Asia and the world. (Mission 7, my translation and emphasis)

This determination could be evidenced in Vietnam's diplomatic achievements in the late 20th and early 21st century, such as membership in ASEAN (the Association of South East Asian Nations) in July 1995, the US removal of the trade embargo against Vietnam in 1994, officially becoming a member of the World Trade Organisation in January 2007. As a result, this period witnessed the influx of foreign investments into Vietnam, which rapidly increased the need to learn English (Kirkpatrick, 2012a; Le, 2007; Pham, 2006; Ton & Pham, 2010; Vang, 2003; Wright, 2002).

In summary, at national level, Vietnam has undergone significant socio-economic changes in the last few decades, which has influenced the expansion of English and its role as a means of economic and social development. The next section will elaborate on how these changes have influenced the educational sector.

3.2. The institutional educational agenda

With the aim to provide human resources to serve the cause of socio-economic development and political stability, educational sector has dramatically has changed its English language education policy. It is evidenced in the rapid spread of English in schools and the institutional efforts to improve teaching quality.

Previously, English was a minor foreign language compared to Russian. When Vietnam initiated the dramatic change towards a centralised market economy that was more open to the western world, a huge flow of foreign investments came in. Industry and tourism developed. English was then an attribute of development; a key to accessing "knowledge about the miracles of science and technology" and "a better standard of living" (Denham, 1992, p. 64); and "an unquestionable asset" (Le, 2007, p. 172) for any Vietnamese person seeking a well-paid job in a foreign company. Diplomatic success in the 1990s created a great demand for English. English courses were widely offered at tertiary institutions, secondary schools, and in evening classes and in-service programs. In 1994, the Prime Minister issued 422/TTg Order to request high-ranking officials under 45 to be trained in English (Le, 2007).

Indeed, the 'English language fever' helped to spread English to most educational levels in Vietnam. In 2000, 98% students at schools in Vietnam opted to study English as a school subject (Vang, 2003, p. 458). In a study of English learning at the tertiary level in Vietnam, Le (2007, p. 167) reported that English (out of four main foreign languages) was the choice of 90% of students. In 2008, the Vietnamese government formally launched a national initiative on foreign language teaching and learning in the educational system from 2008-2020 (Vietnam Government, 2008), which is also called the National Foreign Language Project 2020 (Chi, 2012, September), and English 2020 Initiative (Hung & Dudzik, 2010). The focus of English language education nowadays is to teach English as a means of communication for work and study in a multi-ethnic environment. The project aims to develop English education in both breadth and depth in order to meet the diverse needs of students. By 2020, it is intended that 100% of year 3 students will study the ten-year English program; 10% of vocational students and higher education students (both English major and English non-major) will receive intensive language instruction (Việt Nam, 2008). To achieve these goals, the government has committed to invest VND 9,378 billion over a period of 12 years.

In addition to introducing early exposure to English, the English 2020 Initiative aims to improve the quality of ELT in Vietnam. First, on 28 January 2014, the MOET released a circular on a unified language proficiency framework (KNLNN), which is based on the CEFR's (Common European Proficiency Framework of Reference) six levels of proficiency. The second action promoted in the project is the establishment of EMI courses. It states that "educational institutions are encouraged to develop and implement bilingual programs" (Vietnam Government, 2008). The EMI courses can be established in both high schools and higher education institutions. As a result, multiple EMI programs have been offered in both public and private universities in Vietnam since 2008; for example, VNU's International Standards Programs in 16 training courses in 2008, or the 30 Advanced Programs released by the MOET at several higher education institutions nationwide from 2008 to 2015 (MOET, 2008). English is the language of instruction for almost all content subjects under the programs. The curricula were adapted from the existing programs of various foreign partner universities. Vietnam National University, Hue University, Hanoi University of Technology, Thai Nguyen University, and National University of Economics were the first to implement the Advanced Programs. In private sectors, open universities, such as Hanoi Open University, Dai Nam University, and Tri Viet University also introduced joint programs with their foreign partners to offer EMI courses in Economics, Computer Sciences, and Business Administration.

The argument for the establishment of these EMI programs in Vietnam is that EMI will improve the quality of English learning by providing a direct link between learning English and students' professional development. Consequently, content-based teaching is perceived as an effective way to improve English language education quality (Huong, 2010; Vân, 2008). Vân (2008) argues that:

> *Experience in some Asian countries such as Singapore, the Philippines, Thailand and Malaysia shows that the most effective way to improve ELT quality in universities is to turn them into bilingual environments in which the mother tongue is the means of general communication and the instructional medium of social science subjects, and English is the instructional medium of science and technology. (Van, 2008, p.34) (my translation)*

However, EMI was introduced into educational institutions with a more complicated agenda. Take the case of the International Standard Program (ISP) at Vietnam National University as an example. The overall goals of the EMI program was stated in various documents such as ISP project document (VNU, 2008) and VNU's EMI program temporary regulations (VNU, 2009). The program aimed to develop: i) a skilled work force for the context of internationalisation; ii) capacity building for teaching staff; iii) research quality improvement; iv) transformation of curricula, teaching materials and higher education management; and v) enhanced international cooperation in higher education, research, and technical transfer (VNU, 2009, n.d.). Indeed, the program has incorporated various political, economic and educational agendas. Overall, it aims to prepare a skilled workforce for economic development and internationalisation. Educationally, it aims to transform the rigid academic year-based system into a credit-based system with greater flexibility, to improve the quality of English education.

To sum up, Vietnam's educational sector has eagerly endorsed English, hence EMI,

to meet the socio-economic and educational development demand. EMI seems to be a lift-up solution for educational institutions. The next section will further examine the agendas that individuals attach to EMI.

3.3. The personal agenda

At the personal level, Vu (2014) studied the attitudes of the staff and students involved in EMI programs at a public university in Vietnam in 2012. Data were collected from the questionnaire, interview and class observation. The findings revealed that the personal motives for adopting EMI varied. On the surface, findings from the student and lecturer questionnaires indicated that the majority of the students took the EMI course for learning purposes only because it was the requirement of the program. However, the interview data revealed that they had deeper reasons for embarking on EMI. The students stated that they could more easily access up-to-date textbooks and electronic resources such as documentary channels, online lectures, and articles via English. Moreover, their learning seemed to improve because the lecturers themselves had better conditions for accessing knowledge and preparing for teaching. For example, they could use quality English textbooks and online resources. More importantly, they could be actively engaged in course design and material development. On their side, the lecturers emphasised that the use of English textbooks helped improve understanding and avoided the knowledge loss that tended to occur in translated textbooks. These findings illustrate Lo Bianco's (2010) argument that EMI has been increasingly adopted because English is a powerful language of scholarship, which enables individuals to access and share knowledge.

Interestingly, a financial motive was also evidenced at the individual level. Some students said during interview that they selected the EMI program to be able to access modern facilities, scholarships, and lower tuition fees for English learning. Similarly, the lecturers indicated that they received extra pay for their EMI teaching hours. Another personal motive was to increase international mobility (Coleman, 2010; Kell & Vogl, 2012). Data from the questionnaires and interviews of both students and lecturers overwhelmingly indicated that the EMI program could enhance student mobility. They could have access to more job opportunities, travel overseas, and study abroad. It was notable that EMI was seen as increasing Vietnamese students' outward mobility rather than curbing it as Kirkpatrick's (2011) analysis showed. It seems likely that most of the enrolled students were Vietnamese nationals who could not afford to pay to take a degree overseas. However, with good English skills acquired on the EMI program, they might have more of a chance to gain scholarships for overseas training. This motive appears to be in contrast to the intended internationalisation policy to attract international students to the local programs (Tsuneyoshi, 2005; Wilkinson, 2012).

In summary, the country's changing economic and political priorities in the past few decades have placed new agendas for institutions and individuals. EMI seemed to be a solution that might fit these various objectives. On the positive side, this shows collective support for EMI development in Vietnam. The government provides resources for the institution to enact the change (Kennedy, 2013) in individuals. However, the negative effect was the lack of focused financial investments and effective criteria to evaluate change outcomes. Fullan (2007) points out that an educational change can be approached by focusing on the innovation or the organisation's capacity to implement change (innovativeness) or both. However, these two

approaches must have different timeframes and outcomes. If they are combined, the focus of each implementation should be clearly identified. In the case of EMI implementation in Vietnam, the organisation's enthusiasm to adopt the top-down funded change seemed to overlook the need to access the feasibility conditions and an appropriate timeframe to evaluate the initial change outcomes, which is essential for effective implementation of EMI programs as a whole.

4. Conclusion

This paper has analysed multiple motives for enacting EMI in NNES countries. Among different theories on the rapid spread of EMI are globalisation, development, power, and national identity and language policy. In fact, no single factor can sufficiently explain the complex processes associated with the rapid spread of English. Historical and political factors can encode technological and cultural values in the language, which in turn makes it a desired means of technology transfer, development, and international cooperation (Lo Bianco, 2010). Meanwhile, national and individual responses to English language, which are essential to its promoted status, depend on their socio economic situations (Coleman, 2011b) and the values attached to national identity (Tsui & Tollefson, 2007b). Whatever agenda EMI is based on, it potentially comes with both benefits and risks. Therefore, the success or failure of EMI depends on various contextual factors of the specific educational setting where it is implemented. This is evidenced in the case of Vietnam's EMI development. To conclude, I would like to borrow Crystal's *(2004, p. 22)* saying: "English has achieved a presence and momentum which will be extremely difficult to dislodge.... Whatever the attitude towards the cultures who use it, the value of the language as a functional tool is widely accepted. Even those who are most opposed to it find themselves having to use it."

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MỤC TIÊU CỦA VIỆT NAM
ĐƯA TIẾNG ANH VÀO LÀM NGÔN NGỮ GIẢNG DẠY

Vũ Thị Thanh Nhã

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Tóm tắt: Tiếng Anh gần đây được đưa vào sử dụng làm ngôn ngữ giảng dạy (EMI) trong hệ thống giáo dục của Việt Nam. Một câu hỏi đáng quan tâm là lý do tại sao một nước đa phần sử dụng tiếng mẹ đẻ là tiếng Việt lại quyết định triển khai chương trình học dạy bằng tiếng Anh và coi đó là một trong những giải pháp cải cách giáo dục quan trọng. Bài viết này nhằm phân tích các tư liệu và bài viết nghiên cứu đã có nhằm tìm hiểu những mục đích khác nhau (kinh tế, chính trị, giáo dục và xã hội) gắn liền với việc mở rộng chương trình giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh tại Việt Nam. Hi vọng bài viết sẽ cung cấp cho những nhà hoạch định và thực hiện chính sách hiểu hơn về quá trình EMI nhằm tối ưu hoá lợi ích và tránh những sai lầm có thể xảy ra.

Từ khoá: Tiếng Anh là ngôn ngữ giảng dạy, chương trình, mục tiêu, Việt Nam, chính sách

A SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL PERSPECTIVE ON THE USE OF RHETORICAL DEVICES IN HILLARY CLINTON'S SPEECHES

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Abstract: In this paper, attempts are made to analyze the use of rhetorical devices in Hillary Clinton's speeches. The analytical framework of the study is adapted from So (2005) which synthesizes Tribble's (2002) framework with the SFL's notion of metafunction of language. The data of the research contain ten Hillary Clinton's speeches from 2010 to 2016. Both the quantitative and qualitative methods are adopted to analyze the data. The results show that in certain contextual factors, five rhetorical devices including metonymy, repetition, irony, metaphor, and parallelism are exerted; and two last listed devices are employed the most frequently. The use of five rhetorical devices not only contributes to creative expression of message, but also boosts up persuasive effects on the audience.

Keywords: rhetorical devices, Systemic Functional Linguistics

1. Introduction

For years, the relationship between language and politics has been of great interest to many scholars and researchers. As a typical example, Joseph (2006) states that language is political from top to bottom by exemplifying the numerous ways in which politics and language interact and are ultimately dependent upon one another. Thanks to that connection, it is obvious that language is one of the most effective instruments of persuasion. Accordingly, almost all of the politicians are good at eloquence. Hilary Clinton, whether in the role of the First Lady of the United States, as the Head of Department of State, or as a presidential candidate, has long been famous for her intelligence, strategic position, ambition, and eloquence. The speeches she made have

always created huge influence on the audience. Therefore, this study is aimed to look closely at Hilary Clinton's use of rhetorical devices in the light of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). Undeniably, SFL incorporates many of the more socio-cultural branches developed within linguistics in the second half of the twentieth century, such as pragmatics, sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, and etc. This enables SFL to account for both language structure and language use, which helps the researcher have a complete view of employing rhetorical devices in political speeches.

2. Theoretical background

2.1. Systemic Functional Linguistics

Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL) is a theory of language with the primary source claimed to be the work of Firth and his colleagues

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in London. SFL is, then, wholly developed in the work on the grammar of Chinese by Halliday (1956), and is considered the more comprehensive linguistic approach because of its focus on the function of language, not the structure of language, which distinguishes it from other traditional approaches. In other words, SFL focuses on language choices which language learners employ to convey different meanings. Besides, SFL starts at social context, and looks at how language both acts upon, and is constrained by this social context.

Any analyses of language in use in the light of SFL necessitate the discussion of some key concepts, which include context, context of culture, context of situation, field, mode, tenor and genre.

Context

The notion of context is presented at the beginning of Halliday's account as the most important base to see the functions of language. As Halliday (1985) puts it, context conditions "how language works". Language use must always be seen through the prism of social context. No matter how good language is, it should be appropriate to the context of use. Context can be further divided into context of culture and context of situation.

Context of Culture

According to Halliday & Matthiessen (2014), context of culture is interpreted as the environment of a system of higher-level meanings which contain both language and paralanguage. The relations of situation and culture are central to Halliday's conception of language as an open dynamic system, as a "vast, open-ended system of meaning potential, constantly renewing itself in interaction with its ecosocial environment" (Halliday, 1985).

Context of Situation

Halliday (1985) characterizes situations in terms of field (what is happening, to whom, where and when, why it is happening, and so on), tenor to the social relation existing between the interactants in a speech situation), and mode (the way the language is being used in the speech interaction). These three components offer a system helping illustrate any socio-linguistic occurrence, which makes it possible for the speakers or writers to orient themselves in the context of situation.

Genre

Genre is defined by Thompson (1994) as register plus purpose. The linguistic realisation of context of culture is termed genre while register is the linguistic realisation of context of situation. Therefore, the analysis of genre informs about what the interactants do through language and how they arrange linguistic resources to succeed in accomplishing a certain purpose.

To sum up, in SFL, language is looked from the cultural context perspective, which differentiates SFL from other linguistic theories. In SFL view, language relates to human experience, which fits into social structure. Thus, language is not just a part of 'cognitive mechanism' (Reuter, 2000), but how people use it in social functions in certain culture.

2.2. Rhetorical devices

Rhetorical devices in Traditional Approach vs SFL

In the traditional view, a rhetorical device is defined as a technique that an author or a speaker uses to convey to the listener or reader a meaning with the aim of persuading him or her towards considering a topic from a different perspective, using sentences designed to encourage or provoke a rational argument from an emotional display of a given perspective or action. Simply, a rhetorical device is a use of language that is intended to have an effect on its audience through spoken or written forms. Especially, in traditional grammar, rhetoric is the study of style through grammatical and logical analysis.

In SFL view; however, rhetoric is the study of how effective writing achieves its objectives. The term rhetoric in this new sense offers an analytical lens to investigate and concentrate on how to convey oneself accurately and effectually in connection with the subject of writing or speech and the audience, and to employ methods to identify the relations between texts and contexts (Jost& Olmsted, 2004). In other words, any rhetorical devices must be understood in relation to context, as any linguistic choice is decided by context.

Rhetorical device classification

Many theoreticians including Taylor (1981), Little (1985), Lyons (1995), Thomas et al (2004) and Fahnestock (2011) keep discussing about rhetorical devices. However, the ways these scholars define and classify the different rhetorical devices are almost the same. In this paper, based on the existing classifications, the classification of rhetorical devices analyzed in this study could be summarized in Table 1.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research questions

This paper aims to answer the following two research questions:

1. How are the five major rhetorical devices employed in Hilary Clinton's speeches?
2. How does the use of rhetorical devices contribute to conveying the message of the speaker and creating persuasive effect on the audience?

3.2. Research methods

The method of the study was a combination of both quantitative and qualitative methods for an in depth analysis of the research topic. Although this study concentrated on examining the phenomena of the use of rhetorical devices in speeches qualitatively, the statistic data also informed about the general distribution of the devices in the speeches.

3.3. Data

The data of the present study were ten Hillary Clinton's speeches from 2010 to 2016 in three different roles. Three speeches were delivered when Hillary Clinton was in the role of Secretary of State, three others were made when she was in the role of a member of the Clinton Foundation, and the rest were delivered when she was a presidential candidate. The audience were ministers, CEOs or even just American inhabitants. All of the speeches which were approximately 6000 words, were collected from reliable websites such as http://www.state.gov/.

Furthermore, the speeches are coded with the coding scheme as follows.

> Speech (20YY_Sx): YY: The year of the speech, S: speech, x: the ordinal number of the speech in the same year. For example, 2014_S1 is the code of the first speech that Hillary Clinton delivered in 2014.

Table 1. The adapted classification of five rhetorical devices

Device	Description
Metaphor	Metaphor is a way of comparing two different concepts based on similarities of analogies.
Metonymy	Metonymy is the substitution for another with which it is closely associated.
Repetition	Repetition is a rhetorical device that involves the repetition of the same word, phrase or sentence.
Parallelism	Parallelism is a device that uses words or phrases with a similar structure to express several ideas.
Irony	Irony is a device based on the opposition of meaning to the sense.

3.4. Analytical framework of rhetorical devices in SFL

In this study, the analytical framework is constructed based on Halliday's description of the text – context relationship. The general analytical framework is composed of contextual analysis and content analysis, which is presented in Figure 1.The criteria for identifying and classifying rhetorical devices in the speeches are presented in Table 1 above; and the details of contextual analysis are presented in Table 2.
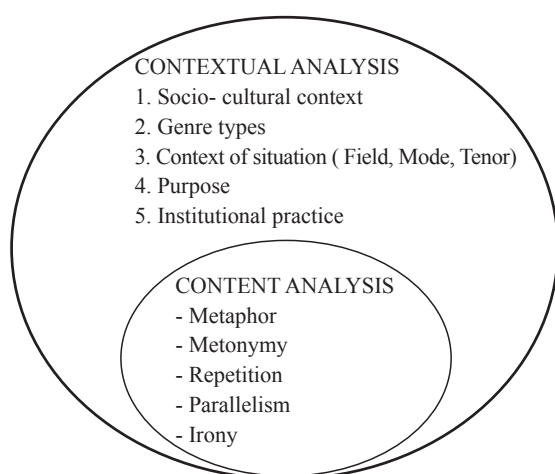
So (2005) did a research on the possibility of using newspaper genres and genre-based pedagogy to teach intermediate ESL learners to write school genres based on the framework of Tribble's one with the notion of metafunctions of language and intertextuality. The author selected two texts on the same issue to analyze and compare. That process involved some stages including analysing the generic conventions and structures of the texts and seeing how they were related to their contexts; finding out their overlaps and distinctions; and then discussing what student writers could draw from the newspaper genres when doing a designated writing task, in terms of content, form and organization. As a result, as So (2005)'s analytical framework included contextual analysis which was applied to examine the relationship between language use and context, it was beneficial to this paper.

CONTEXTUAL ANALYSIS
1. Socio- cultural context
2. Genre types
3. Context of situation (Field, Mode, Tenor)
4. Purpose
5. Institutional practice

CONTENT ANALYSIS
- Metaphor
- Metonymy
- Repetition
- Parallelism
- Irony

Figure 1. The relationship between the contextual analysis and content analysis

Table 2. The contextual analysis is adapted from So, (2005)

Contextual analysis	Probing questions
1. Genre types and subtypes	What is the name of the genre of which the text is an exemplar? Are there any subtypes or subsets in this genre?
2. Context of situation a. Mode b. Tenor c. Field	What is the channel of communication? What roles may be required of the speaker and hearers? Do they have equal status and how is their affect and contact? What subject matter is the text about?
3. Purpose	What are the communicative purposes of the text? How are they achieved? How are they related to the rhetorical functions of the text?
4. Institutional practice	In what institution is this kind of text typically produced? What constraints and obligations does this discourse community impose on speakers and hearers? Do the production and hearing processes influence its structure and language?
5. Sociocultural context	Are there any social, historical or cultural factors that make the text appear the way it is?

3. Findings and discussion

3.1. Findings

Overview of ten speeches

In general, it can be said that there are three common characteristics of Hillary Clinton's speaking styles in the speeches from 2010 to 2016 in three different roles, which are presented as follows.

The first common characteristic is related to the content of the speech. Despite the main topic of each event, Hillary Clinton tended to mention some certain topics. The first topic that Hillary Clinton mentioned was the leadership of the United States. The second topic to be mentioned was her family: her grandfather, her grandmother, her parents, her husband and her daughter in almost all of her speeches, especially after her terms of office. This indicated that her family had a great impact on Hillary Clinton. The third topic to be referred to was the Democrat presidents. Finally, Hillary Clinton also mentioned both topics associated with her name as woman's rights and human's rights and global issues such as ISIS and climate change. It seems that she always knows how to link her strengths to the "hottest" topics.

The second common characteristic is the general structure of the speech. The speech was often sectioned into some constituents, the introduction and thanks, the body and the closing. In the part of the body, the constituents looked changeable depending on the certain context and her roles despite the same popular contents as stated above.

The third common characteristic is the degree of conciseness and unity. Under certain circumstances, the presentation could be more structured or less structured.

Realization of rhetorical devices in the ten chosen speeches

It could be realized from Figure 2a that parallelism was the most frequent device which accounted for 33% of the total amount of analyzed stylistic figures. In the second position, showing a slight less by only 3 % was metaphor. In the third position, metonymy which appeared 59 times took up 20%. While repetition occurred 43 times equal to 14% and then played the fourth position of the most popular rhetorical devices Hillary Clinton employed. Finally, the least percentage of rhetorical devices in Hillary Clinton's speeches was irony with 4%. It emerged only 10 times in the analyzed speeches from 2010 to 2016.
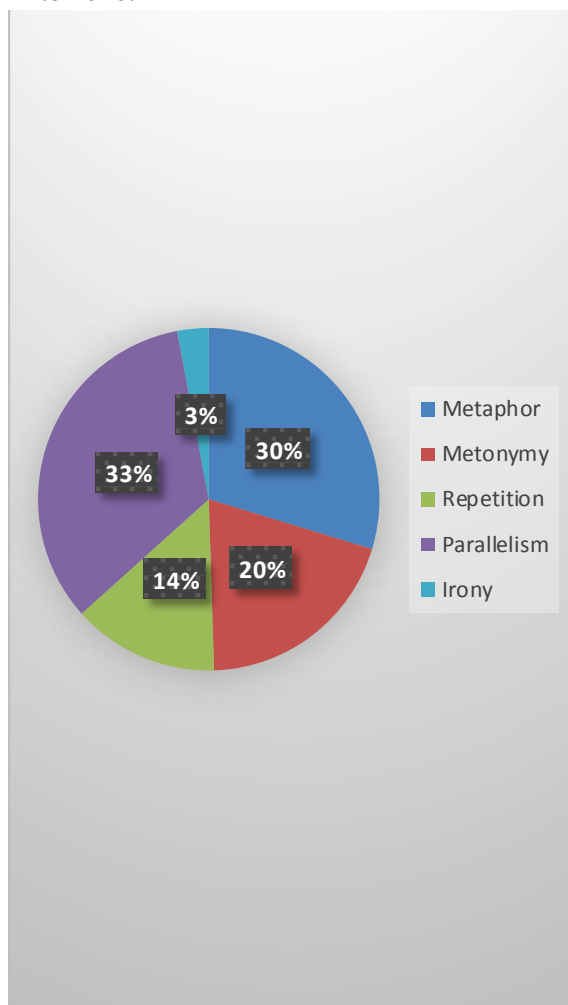

Figure 2a. Analysis of rhetorical devices

1. Genre type and subtypes	Persuasive speech. Subtypes of highly persuasive, persuasive and mildly persuasive.
2. Context of situation a. Mode	Spoken discourse in the mode of conference, forum and campaign speeches
b. Tenor	Hillary Rodham Clinton (speaker) → Audience (hearers). Hillary Clinton always adopts an appropriate tone
c. Field	American foreign policies, human rights, LGBT, women and Hillary's policies
3. Purpose	Acknowledging, debating and persuading audience to agree with her arguments.
4. Institutional practice	Appropriate language and clear structure under constraints imposed by certain institutions. (CFR, EP Group, and etc)
5. Sociocultural context	No noticeable influence to be observed. There only some problems affecting the production of speech such as the Israeli-Palestinian peace talks and discrimination against LGBT.

Figure 2b. Analysis of context

As presented in Figure 2b, in terms of genre and subtypes, the genre of ten speeches was persuasive speech categorized into three subtypes: highly persuasive, persuasive and mildly persuasive. Secondly, the speeches were in three roles as Secretary of State, as member of the Clinton Foundation and as a presidential candidate. The audience came from different social status and occupation as stated in the data information. The fields were various from global issues to topics associated with Hillary Clinton such as human rights and ISIS. Above and beyond, all of the speeches had a general aim of persuading the audience to agree with her ideas.

Frequency of rhetorical devices in three periods

The following line chart demonstrates the frequency of rhetorical devices in speeches which Hillary Clinton made in three roles as Secretary of State, as a member of the Clinton Foundation and as a presidential candidate.
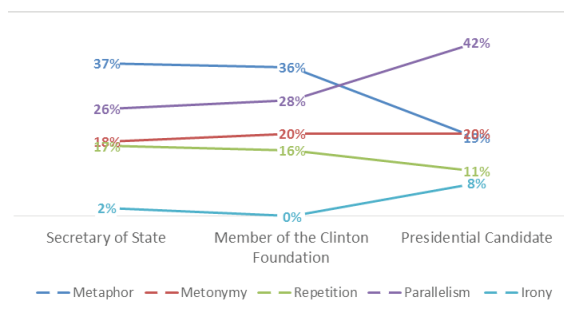
Figure 3. Frequency of rhetorical devices in three periods

Generally, Figure 3 indicated the evident change of using figurative devices in Hillary Clinton's speeches through different roles from 2010 to 2016. As could be seen from the chart, there were upward trends in the percentage of irony and parallelism. To be more detailed, parallelism increased sharply from 26% in 2010 to 42% in 2016. Similarly, irony showed a less growth of 6%. In contrast, the percentage of metaphor and repetition used by Hillary decreased over the period shown. Metaphor significantly went down to just over 19%. Showing a similar trend, repetition fell from 17% to 11%. Besides, the percentage of metonymy stayed stable at around 20% throughout the period.

4. Discussion

The impact of situational context on Hillary Clinton's use of rhetorical devices

It is undeniable that the factor of situational context has a certain effect on the use of rhetorical devices in Hillary Clinton's

speeches. From the analyses of tenor in all ten chosen speeches, it can be said that **tenor** is also one of the most significant factors contributing to the appearance of five major rhetorical devices. It seems to be clear that the social position of the speaker and the audience have influence on the choice of rhetorical devices. When Clinton was Secretary of State and the audience were governmental officials, policy makers, and global thought leaders like in 2010_S1, 2011_S1 and 2012_S1, then the tendency to be observed was that she chose to employ metaphor and parallelism mostly.

Furthermore, **field** also affects the distribution of rhetorical devices. It could be concluded that when the speech was about women like in 2013_S1, 2014_S1 and 2014_S2; and about foreign policies like in 2010_S1, 2012_S1, then metaphor tended to be chosen most; but when the speech was about human rights like in 2011_S1, then parallelism and metaphor were employed frequently.

The impact of purpose on Hillary Clinton's use of rhetorical devices

Purpose is observed to be the second important factor in the use of five rhetorical devices in ten chosen speeches. If the purpose of the speech was either raising awareness, or discussing, or encouraging like in 2010_S1, 2011_ S1, 2012_S1, 2013_S1, 2014_S1,2, it appeared that Hillary Clinton tended to use metaphor and parallelism more than other devices. If the purpose of the speech was to convince the audience to vote for Clinton, there seemed to be an overwhelming use of parallelism and irony.

The impact of genre subtypes on Hillary Clinton's use of rhetorical devices

Genre subtypes are found to be the third impactful cause. It could be drawn out that once the genre subtype was highly persuasive like in 2015_ S1, 2016_S1, 2016_S2 and 2016_S3, then Clinton had tendency to take advantage of parallelism. When the genre subtype was persuasive like in 2010_S1 and 2012_S1, she used both metaphor and parallelism frequently. When the genre was mildly persuasive like in 2013_S1, 2014_S1 and 2014_S2, it seemed that Hillary Clinton preferred to use metaphor more.

In conclusion, the influence of contextual factors on Hillary's use of rhetorical devices could be observed. Though no exact patterns for using figurative devices in Hillary Clinton's speeches could be specified, it was found that, in different situations, with different purposes, in different genres, Hillary flexibly chose to use rhetorical devices differently but all efficiently to achieve her goals.

Contribution of rhetorical devices in Hillary Clinton's speeches

From the analysis of context and content, it can be said that each device owns its distinctive characteristics. The effects of the devices on the conveyance of the intended message and on the purpose of persuading the audience are diverse.

Metaphor

Referring to conveyance of the message, it can be said that metaphor evokes the imagination to show what the speech means. Without doubt, the core of the speech is difficult to express, therefore, the speaker often uses metaphor through specific, detailed, memorable images to clarify it like the image *"hearts are breaking"* in 2014_S2. In this example, Hillary Clinton succeeded in showing deep sadness with that expression. Besides, metaphor is employed to send the meaning by transferring the emotional content that is already well understood. Thus, the audience with different experiences in different contexts can grasp things intuitively. As a result, this explains why the use of metaphor can affect the aim of persuading the audience successfully.

Metaphor draws a connection between the audience and the topic through what they can understand. Additionally, people are easier to be made emotional and convinced by familiar images because they have the sympathy and experience of those things.

Metonymy

It is also claimed that metonymy also plays an important part in making the meaning suggestive, imagery and lively by creating concrete and vivid images in place of generalities. Regarding the effect of metonymy on Hillary Clinton's speeches, metonymy obviously contributes to creative expression, but it seems to be not as strong as metaphor can be.

Eg1: "They are also unlikely to disappear if those who promote or accept them are dismissed **out of hand** rather than invited to share their fears and concerns…"

(2011_S1)

The common interpretation of "out of hand" is that: something in people's hand is their own, and they can even control it, the things out of their hands are what they cannot control. In this example, the abstract concept of control was easily conceptualized by the specific action of holding in hands, so "out of hand" meant "out of control". The audience consequently could find it effortless to get the intended message which the speaker wanted to express. With a familiar comprehensible image, the audience are believed to share their agreement with the speaker.

Repetition

Hillary Clinton succeeded in taking advantage of the possible rhetoric effects of repetition, that is, she managed to arrange her words into the pattern nothing like our ordinary speech. Such a way of using repetition not only is stylistically appealing but also helps convey the message in a much more engaging and notable way. Repetition used by Hillary Clinton in her speeches could contribute to the purpose of focusing the audience on the point

of the main significance. Consequently, it is understandable that repetition brings about persuasive effects on the audience.

Eg2: "So to chart a path forward for women and girls we have to understand **how far** we've come, yet **how far** we still have to go"

(2014_S2)

In the above example, Hillary Clinton wanted to urge her hearers to continue asking for women's equality as she called the campaign for women's equality "the unfinished business". This saying was like a slogan obsessing the audience and reminding them of that progress.

Parallelism

Generally, parallelism was employed by Hillary Clinton to emphasize the key points to the hearers directly. As a result, these parallel structures and powerful rhythm helped to highlight those points in the audience's mind, and thereby, the audience seemed to be persuaded naturally.

Eg3: "**Throughout our history, through hot wars and cold, through economic struggles and the long march to a more perfect union**, Americans have always risen to the challenges we have faced. That is who we are. It is in our DNA. We do believe there are no limits on **what is possible** or **what can be achieved**."

(2010_S1)

In this instance, Hillary Clinton wanted to put stress on the leading role of America. By using this parallelism, Hillary Clinton emphasized what she would do when becoming the president of the US, which was presented throughout the whole speech, and which had also been her ideal living for years.

Irony

In light of the effects of irony, the message is conveyed through pointing out the contradiction between reality and how things appear or what is expected. When a presenter

uses irony, there is disagreement in regards to the behavior of intended characters, the words that they say, or the events that take place. It means that using irony is to apply indirect references instead of direct statements to point out the problematic relationship between the perceived and the truth. In fact, Hillary Clinton did not often use irony till nearly the end of the election campaign.

Eg4: Now, there may be some new voices in the presidential Republican choir, but they're all singing the same old song…A song called "Yesterday."

(2015_S1)

Irony worked in the contradiction: the *"new voices"* sang a song *"Yesterday"*. Through this contradiction, Hillary Clinton pointed out the fact that nothing changed if the Republican got the White House.

The fact that Hillary Clinton employed irony more often when the election came to the last results seemed to be a change in her linguistic style.

Overall, the rhetorical devices of metaphor, metonymy, repetition, parallelism, and irony make a good contribution to the persuasion of the speeches. It is quite difficult to imagine exactly how the speech would look like without the use of these five rhetorical devices: no emphasis, no image, no rhythm, and even no consistency. Without the use of these rhetorical devices, it would be more challenging for the audience to perceive and interpret all the meanings that the presenter expressed. The audience might easily lose their attention and interest in the speeches, and their support for Hillary Clinton might be affected accordingly.

5. Conclusion

Conclusion 1: All of the five kinds of rhetorical devices, namely metaphor, metonymy, repetition, parallelism and irony

appear in Hillary Clinton's speeches. Among total ten presentations with 303 times five devices used to achieve communicative purposes, 89 times are of metaphor, 59 times are of metonymy, 43 times are of repetition, 102 times are of parallelism and 10 times are of irony. Undoubtedly, the most dominant type of rhetorical devices is parallelism which accounts for one third of all figurative devices employed in these.

As observed from the data of this study, the use of these rhetorical devices is looked through the prism of context. Based on the analyses of context, it can be said that employing rhetorical devices is different in each certain context. Factors of context seem to have direct influences on the appearance of stylistic devices. These factors include genre type and subtypes, situational context, purpose, institutional place and sociocultural context. As mentioned previously, all of the speeches belong to the genre of persuasive which is divided into three subtypes; namely, highly persuasive, mildly persuasive and persuasive. However, the type of genre and its subtypes appear to be determined by the roles Hillary Clinton plays. It seems that the higher social position she stands at, the more persuasive her speech is. Therefore, situational context seems to be the deciding factor in shaping Hillary Clinton's linguistic style. In other words, as explained above in the Discussion, the factor of context of situation influences the application of five major stylistic devices. Except from the institutional place, it could not deny the effect of purpose and sociocultural context on the use of five rhetorical devices, which is stated in the previous part of this study.

Conclusion 2: Related to the contribution of five major rhetorical devices, it appears that the messages are expressed in a clearer and more graphic way, and accordingly produce

the persuasive effects on the audience. The conclusion can be similar to other previous researches on the effects of some rhetorical devices such as Lakoff and Johnson (1980). However, this one is a strong affirmation of the effects that rhetorical devices produce. In detail, the application firstly can help to give emphasis on the important ideas in general. For example, the audience can get the main idea immediately through strongly repeated structures. Secondly, the use of rhetorical device brings imagery to Hillary Clinton's speeches. The powerful visual image appears quite frequently, which is considered the effective means of carrying the meaning to the audience. This also causes the transferring process of the core of the speech to become concise. Besides, it can show the connection between literal and figurative meaning of an item. Furthermore, the appearance of rhetorical devices such as metaphor gives the poetic and emotional features to the political speech. Above all, employing rhetorical devices in political speeches, especially ones about political problems leads to the persuasive effects of the speech. It is quite apparent that the use of rhetorical device makes them not dry as everybody used to expect. The arguments are not only attractive, but also informative and forceful. To a certain extent, using rhetorical devices increases the support from the audience and builds up the persuasion of the speech.

6. Implications of the study

These findings can be applied in EFL context in Vietnam in several ways:

Firstly, according to the detailed analysis, regarding to the realization of five rhetorical devices, it can be confirmed that all five rhetorical devices are applied to make the presentation more convincing.

No matter what kind of device is, the presentation becomes much more inspiring, impactful and also beautiful. As a result, this is a valuable lesson about making use of rhetorical devices in speeches, especially in political ones for orators. For teachers, these findings are indeed useful to teach speaking skills, presentation skills. Speaking tasks should be designed to elicit students' practice of varied manifestation modes of rhetorical means in their presentation. For students, it is essential for students to enhance the knowledge of rhetorical devices that is one of the most invaluable parts of the linguistic treasure. Every student can make a presentation but not all knows how to make it effective.

Secondly, these findings can be a source of reference for those who are interested in developing translating and critical thinking skills for language learners. To be more detailed, when teaching translating skills, teachers should ask students to seek for equivalent meaning of rhetorical devices in Vietnamese, compare and contrast them with those means in English, thus give students chances to enrich vocabulary, practice brainstorming and making decision on the most suitable language choices to be made when translating texts from source language to target language.

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NGHIÊN CỨU VIỆC SỬ DỤNG PHƯƠNG TIỆN TU TỪ TRONG CÁC DIỄN THUYẾT CỦA HILLARY CLINTON THEO QUAN ĐIỂM CHỨC NĂNG HỆ THỐNG

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Tóm tắt: Bài viết bàn về việc sử dụng các phương tiện tu từ trong các diễn thuyết của Hillary Clinton theo quan điểm chức năng hệ thống. Tác giả sử dụng khung phân tích của So (2005) tổng hợp từ khung phân tích của Tribble (2002) và khái niệm siêu chức năng của ngôn ngữ học chức năng hệ thống (SFL). Dữ liệu nghiên cứu bao gồm 10 bài phát biểu của Hillary Clinton từ năm 2010 đến năm 2016. Cả hai phương pháp nghiên cứu định lượng và định tính đều được sử dụng để phân tích dữ liệu. Kết quả cho thấy các tác nhân bối cảnh có ảnh hưởng đến việc sử dụng của 5 phương tiện tu từ: ẩn dụ, hoán dụ, phép lặp, phép song hành và phép châm biếm, trong đó, ẩn dụ và phép song hành là được xuất hiện nhiều nhất. Ngoài ra, việc sử dụng 5 phương tiện tu từ trên không chỉ giúp truyền tải thông điệp của các diễn thuyết một cách ấn tượng, mà còn tạo ra những hiệu ứng thuyết phục với người nghe.

Từ khóa: phương tiện tu từ, ngôn ngữ học chức năng hệ thống

A SYNTACTIC ANALYSIS OF THE ENGLISH DISCOURSE MARKER *ONLY* AND ITS VIETNAMESE TRANSLATIONAL EQUIVALENTS

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Abstract: This descriptive and qualitative study, part of a big project, endeavored to explore the syntactic features of the English discourse marker *only* and its Vietnamese translational equivalents. It involved the development of a bilingual corpus, which consisted of 168 English and 168 Vietnamese instances of sentences containing *only*. The interpretive contrastive analysis was employed. The findings reveal that *only* in English often comes in three positions, namely, initial, medial, final, whereas their Vietnamese equivalent usually appears in initial and medial positions. Additionally, there are more similarities than differences in terms of syntactic functions of *only* used in English and Vietnamese.

Keywords: contrastive analysis, discourse marker, English, only, syntactic feature, Vietnamese

1. Introduction

The English language, due to its hegemony throughout the world, has become an international language, a lingua franca, or a world language, so it is both the most common language and pivotal tool in international communication and integration. Moreover, much more demand, as a result of rapid globalization and increasing international trade, has been made for people who can communicate orally in English. Language, however, is the quintessence of cultural background. To understand any languages more deeply and clearly, language learners, therefore, should know not only people, customs, cultures, but also the theory of its language to get a thorough insight into the language.

Language, furthermore, is one of the most effectively communicative means which makes everyone become closer and understand each other better. "Faulty communication causes most problems. It leads to confusion and can cause a good plan to fail" (Junarso, 2009, p. 100) since communication is the exchange and flow of information and idea to a receiver. "Effective communication occurs only if the receiver understands the exact information or idea that the sender intended to transmit" (Cochrane & Pierce, 1988, p. 95). Linguistic meaning, on the other hand, is influenced by and reflects the nature of the relationship between speakers and addresses, the speakers' belief about the addresses' knowledge and state of mind, and the attitude of the speakers.

The word *only*, like many other discourse markers, poses a wide range of meanings that causes a number of problems since it has different functions in a sentence. It raises the concept of syntactic features which cause a number of problems for non-native speakers as seen in the following examples:

(1) a. **Only** Carla is holding a balloon.

  b. Carla is holding **only** a balloon. (Matsuoka, 2011, p. 1)

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In (1a) *only* is employed to premodify a subject and it means "No other person is holding a balloon". Similarly, in (1b) *only* premodifies an object. It is explained "Carla is holding nothing other than a balloon".

The syntactic position is not always relevant to the interpretation of focus items. In the following example:

(2) a. Kazys gave books **only** to girls.

     b. Kazys gave **only** books to girls. (Arkadiev, 2010, p. 14)

In (2a), Kazys did not give books to anyone except the girls, but in (2b) No other things are given to the girls but books. Clearly, the position contributes to the interpretation of *only*, yet it cannot decide differences in reading. In fact, the semantic and pragmatic features will reveal the speaker's idea or thinking more clearly.

The presence of *only* in the sentence, syntactically, may confuse the readers and hearers because the meaning of the whole sentence largely depends on its position in the sentence. Let us observe the sentences as follows:

(3) a. **Only** Nancy admires her sister.

     b. Nancy **only** admires her sister.

     c. Nancy admires **only** her sister.

     d. Nancy admires her **only** sister.

     e. Nancy admires her sister **only**.

Sentences, from the abovementioned instances, can be paraphrased differently and convey different meanings when using only in different positions in a sentence, so it is not easy for English learners to use *only* correctly and properly because *only* expresses a variety of subtly different meanings and its use is subject to constraints which do not apply to other words with similar meanings. This paper, hence, endeavors to study the discourse marker *only* in depth in English and in Vietnamese equivalents in order to explore the syntactic features of *only* in English and its Vietnamese equivalents and their similarities and differences. Two research questions are formed as follows:

1. What are syntactic features of *only* in English and its Vietnamese equivalents?

2. What are their similarities and differences in terms of syntactic features?

2. Methodology

Corpus

A bilingual corpus comprising 168 English and 168 Vietnamese instances of sentences containing *only* sourced from short stories and modern novels were attained from different literature books and the websites on the Internet. Following is table 1 indicating the corpus for investigation.

Table 1. Bilingual corpus

No	Corpus	Sample analysed (English)	Sample analysed (Vietnamese)
1	Holiday in the USA	7	7
2	Longman Advanced Grammar	9	9
3	The Jungle Books	5	5
4	The Man of Property	24	24
5	The Moon and Sixpence	9	9
6	The Old Man and The Sea	18	18
7	The Sun also Rises	6	6
8	The Sorrow of War	3	3
9	The Thorn Birds	7	7
10	The International Story	23	23
11	20th Century English Short Stories	18	18
12	20th Century English Short Stories	10	10
13	British National Corpus	10	10
14	An Introduction to Language	19	19

Research procedure

This contrastive analysis of the discourse maker *only* and the Vietnamese translational equivalents is based on the description of its meanings in terms of syntactic features. As regards the data collection, the selected instances must be English as the source language and Vietnamese as the target language, and contain *only* in English and instances including the actual translational equivalents in Vietnamese. The main sources for collecting data are short stories, modern novels and online text of chat since they may provide with reliable samples written by native writers of English and translated by Vietnamese.

With respect to data analysis, instances containing *only* and its patterns as discourse markers were classified into meanings and functions in terms of syntactic forms. The discourse marker *only* and its patterns, then, were qualitatively described and analyzed in terms of syntactic positions and functions.

Double-check was employed in order to increase the reliability of the contrastive analysis. The researchers had two Vietnamese experts, who were both experienced teachers of English and translators, as double-checkers to randomly check three pieces of instances in English and Vietnamese. The two double-checkers and researchers had to reach to an agreement level of reliability (over 85%).

3. Results and discussion

*3.1. Positions of **only** in the sentences and its Vietnamese equivalents*

The discourse marker *only* can be as a focusing adverb; however, focusing adverbs are not normally used at the beginning of a sentence. The position of *only* is particularly flexible, conveying slightly different meanings

according to where it is placed. There are three main positions for *only*: initial, medial, and final positions, which is extremely rare with any other adverb.

Initial position

The adverb is in the initial position in the clause with or without juncture, occurring before the subject or other obligatory elements of the clause. However, in a limited research, this study mentions only *only,* which modifies not only a noun, a pronoun, but also an adverb of time. Consider the following sentences:

(4) **Only** the poet or the saint can water an asphalt pavement in the confident anticipation   that lilies will reward his labour. (Junarso, 2009, p.46)

Chỉ có nhà thơ hoặc vị thánh mới có thể tưới nước trên con đường tráng nhựa mà dám quả quyết trước là hoa huệ sẽ thưởng công lao động của họ. (Nguyễn Thành Thống, 1987, p.70)

(5) But, he thought, I keep them with precision. **Only** I have no luck any more. But who knows? Maybe today. Every day is a new day. (Hemingway, 1952, p.24)

Nhưng, lão nghĩ, mình giữ chúng chính xác. **Duy chỉ** mình không còn may mắn nữa   thôi. Nhưng biết đâu được? có thể hôm nay. Mỗi ngày là một ngày mới. (Lê Huy Bắc, 1998, p.28)

It is impossible for us to put *only* in other positions in above situations. Clearly, when *only* is placed in the initial position in English and its equivalents in Vietnamese, it has its own meaning, semantic and pragmatic. But unlike the above examples, *only* in (6) is in the initial position in English, while its equivalent in Vietnamese is placed in a different position as follows:

(6) "That's wonderful." he said sadly, "wonderful"

"**Only** he wants me to change the title."
"Yes?" (Cochrane & Pierce, 1988, p.239)

"Thật là tuyệt diệu!" "Anh ta nói buồn bã: "Tuyệt diệu!"

"Ông ta **chỉ** muốn em đổi tên sách"
"Thế à?" (Mai Khắc Hải & Mai Khắc Bích, 1994b, p.250)

Medial position

Only, in this situation, is similarly used as other focusing adverbs. The medial position can be easily identified after the lexical verb and in front of other obligatory element of the clause. For example:

(7) I remember **only** my own grief and fright and the shiny path over father's head…. (Rooth, 1996, p.83)
Tôi **chỉ còn** nhớ nỗi đau khổ và lo sợ và vệt bóng loáng trên đầu bố tôi.

(8) Then he felt the gentle touch on the line and the happy.
"It was **only** his turn," he said. "He'll take it". (Hemingway, 1952, p.34)
Lúc ấy lão cảm thấy sợi dây khẽ giật, lão hớn hở. "Nó **chỉ** lượn một vòng **thôi mà**", lão nói. "Nó sẽ cắn câu." (Lê Huy Bắc, 1998, p.35)

Final position

It is difficult to find out *only* in the final position. Consider the example in (9), *only* in this place is employed to modify an object or complement.

(9) There was just that shadowiness about them which you find in people who lives are part of the social organism, so that they exist in it and by it **only**. (Maugham, 1996, p.22)
Bạn sẽ tìm thấy cũng chính điều mù mờ đó nơi những người mà cuộc sống là một bộ phận của cơ chế xã hội, họ **chỉ** tồn tại được trong đó và nhờ đó **mà thôi**. (Nguyễn Thành Thống, 1987, p. 37)

Table 2. Description of positions of **only** in the sentences and its Vietnamese equivalents

No	Positions of *only* in English	Positions of *only* in Vietnamese
1	Initial position	Initial and Medial position
2	Medial position	Medial position
3	Final position.	Medial position

*3.2. Syntactic functions of **only** in the sentences and its Vietnamese equivalents*

As known that the syntactic categories of words and groups of words are revealed by patterns in sentences. Syntax, basically, studies the structure of well-formed phrases and sentences. In fact, it is important to note that *only* can function differently in a sentence or instance.

Premodifying a noun phrase

In the study corpus, there are many instances of *only* assuming the position of an approximation before a noun phrase. Premodifying a noun or noun phrase seems to be the most frequently used function of *only*.

(11) There were **only** three boats in sight now and they showed very slow and far inshore. (Hemingway, 1952, p.24)
Giờ đây trong tầm mắt, **Chỉ còn lại** ba bóng thuyền, man lún sâu xuống nước và ở mãi tít phía trong bờ. (Lê Huy Bắc, 1998, p.29)

From the above examples, it is easy to recognize that *only* modifies for a noun or a noun phrase, but its functions are different: as a verb in (12), and a noun as in (13). Let us look the following examples:

(12) She could not describe in words the ecstasy; that taste of the Divine love which **only** the souls of the transplanted could endure in its awful and complete intensity. (Spack, 1994, p.58)
Cô không sao mô tả nổi bằng lời cho được niềm mê ly ngất ngây hương vị của tình thương thiêng liêng mà

chỉ có tâm hồn của những người đã được hóa chuyển mới có thể chịu đựng được đầy đủ cường độ ghê gớm. (Spack, 1994, p.61)

(13) The clouds over the land now rose like mountains and the coast was **only** a long green line with the gray blue hills behind it. (Hemingway, 1952,, p.26)

Bây giờ những đám mây trên đất liền đùn lên tựa những quả núi và bờ biển **chỉ còn** là một vệt xanh dài với rặng xanh thẫm đằng sau nó. (Lê Huy Bắc, 1998, p.30)

Besides this, one of the most interesting meanings of *only* the author finds out in this part is its equivalents in Vietnamese "*chỉ trừ; chẳng qua chỉ là…*". Some typical expressions are presented hereafter:

(14) I wish I was a fish, He thought, with everything he has against **only** my will and my intelligence. (Hemingway, p.56)

Ước gì ta là con cá, lão nghĩ, với mọi phẩm chất nó có **chỉ trừ** khát vọng và trí tuệ của ta. (Lê Huy Bắc, 1998, p.50)

(15) This dictum - that Bosinney was chic - caused quite a sensation. It failed to convince that he was good-looking in a way they were prepared to admit, but that anyone could call a man with his pronounced cheekbones, curious eyes, and soft felt hats chic was **only** another instance of Winifred's extravagant way of running after something new. (Glasworthy, 1994, p.150)

Lời tuyên bố chính thức này, coi Bôxini là con người lịch sự đúng là đã làm chấn động dư luận. Nói thế không thuyết phục được ai. nếu bảo chàng "có vẻ tốt về một mặt nào đó" thì thiên hạ sẵn sàng chấp nhận, nhưng bất cứ ai có thể

gọi con người có lưỡng quyền cao, mắt nhìn tò mò, đội mũ phớt mềm, là lịch sự thì **chẳng qua chỉ là** một ví dụ khác về cái tính phóng túng của Uyniphorit thích chạy theo cái mới. (Hoàng Túy & Cảnh Lâm, 1986, p.273)

Premodifying a prepositional phrase

In formal and literary style, negative adverbials can be used at the beginning of a clause, for example: *only by, only in, only with, etc*.

(16) I, of course, am there **only** in the evenings and on weekend. (Spack, 1994, p.117)

Lẽ dĩ nhiên tôi ở đó **chỉ** vào những buổi tối và những ngày cuối tuần. (Spack, 1994, p.119)

(17) But all the experts were agreed that three commodes could have been executed **only** by Thomas Chippendale himself. (Cochrane & Pierce, 1999, p.307)

Nhưng tất cả các chuyên viên giám định đều nhất trí rằng ba bộ tủ ngăn kéo trên có thể **do** chính Thomas Chippendale thực hiện.... (Mai Khắc Hải & Mai Khắc Bích, 1994b, p.336)

Hence, it is clear to us that *only* in the above examples functions as an adverb modifying for the whole sentence. It is noticed that in (16), (17) *only* is used to emphasize the time.

Premodifying an adjectival or an adverbial phrase

As seen from instances from (18) *only* functions as an adverb to modify an adjective. Its meaning in Vietnamese equivalents also changes.

(18) "I think it **only** right" Trudy said in her young way ...." (Cochrane & Pierce, 1988, p.120)

"Em nghĩ **cũng là** điều phải lẽ." Trudy nói bằng cách cung cách trẻ trẻ của cô. (Mai Khắc Hải & Mai Khắc Bích, 1994a, p.141)

(19) He saw the reflected glare of the lights of the city at what must have been around ten o'clock at night. They were **only** perceptible at first as the light is in the sky before the moon rises. (Hemingway, 1952, p.109)

Vào khoảng mười giờ tối, lão trông thấy ánh đèn thành phố hắt xuống nước. Thoạt tiên, **đấy chỉ** là thứ ánh sáng mang mang trên bầu trời như trước lúc mặt trời mọc.
(Lê Huy Bắc, 1998, p.86)

In addition, *only* modifies an adverb or an adverbial phrase as seen in the following examples:

(20) The archaeologist Gordon R.Willey has argued, **only** partly in fun. (Alexander, 1993, p.164)

Nhà khảo cổ học Gordon R.Willey đã lập luận, pha **chút** khôi hài. (Hồ Hải Thụy, Khắc Chu Thuật & Xuân Cao Phổ, 1999, p.350)

(21) The position actually was **only** somewhat less intolerable; but he thought of it as almost comfortable. (Hồ Hải Thụy, Khắc Chu Thuật, & Xuân Cao Phổ, 1999, p.38)

Tư thế ấy thực là cũng **chỉ** bớt được đôi phần, nhưng lão nghĩ là rất thỏa mái. (Lê Huy Bắc, 1998, p.38)

Premodifying a declarative content, or an imperative clause

Only can premodify a declarative, an interrogative, an exclamative or an imperative clause. Following are typical examples:

(22) It doesn't work. May never have been good. It might be **only** that the batteries are flat.... (Cochrane & Pierce, 1999, p.261)

Cái radio hỏng rồi. Có lẽ cũng chẳng ích lợi gì cả. Cũng có thể là **chỉ vì** pin đã cạn. (Mai Khắc Hải & Mai Khắc Bích, 1994b, p.281)

(23) We missed you - we've been searching - It was **only** that Ted saw where you'd walked down the fence.... (Cochrane & Pierce, 1999, p.269)

Anh đã lạc em - bọn anh đang đi tìm - **chỉ có** Ted nhìn thấy em bước xuống phía dưới hàng rào.... (Mai Khắc Hải & Mai Khắc Bích, 1994b, p.294)

Only, nevertheless, is used to premodify an imperative clause when the speaker means to emphasize as indicated in (24).

(24) **Only** disturb me if there's a genuine emergency. (Hồ Hải Thụy, Khắc Chu Thuật, & Xuân Cao Phổ, 1999, p.986)

Chỉ làm phiền tôi nếu có sự cần thiết thật sự. (Hồ Hải Thụy, Khắc Chu Thuật, & Xuân Cao Phổ, 1999, p.986)

In (25) below, *only* also premodifies an imperative clause, but it functions as a conjunction.

(25) The eyes didn't liven, but a faint pink stole into her cheeks. "Yes, Paddy, do that. **Only** make sure he knows not to tell Frank we found out. Perhaps it would ease Frank to think for certain that we don't know" (McCullogh, 1992, p.169).

Mắt Fia vẫn đờ đẫn, nhưng má bà hơi hồng lên rõ rệt. "Phải đấy, Paddy ạ mình viết đi, **nhưng** cần nói trước với cha để Người đừng lộ ra với Frenk là chúng ta biết hết rồi. Cứ để cho Frenk tưởng rằng chúng ta không biết gì hết, có lẽ như vậy nó đỡ khổ tâm hơn." (Phạm Mạnh Hùng, 1980, p.270).

Premodifying a verb, a to-infinitival and a bare infinitival phrase

For most English sentences a crucial part of meaning resides in the verb, the concept expressed by the verb is typically the heart of the propositional content of a sentence.

It is obvious that the pre-verb position of *only* gives more information to the verb. Following are typical illustrations:

(26) I usually **only** have one at lunch. (Spack, 1994, p.91)

Tôi **chỉ** dùng **một** món vào bữa trưa **thôi**. (Spack, 1994, p.94)

(27) It **only** shows, Mr Harraby- Ribston remarked, how people differ. (Cochrane & Pierce, 1999, p.220)

Điều đó **chỉ** cho thấy, ông Harraby Ribston nhận xét, con người ta khác nhau như thế nào. (Mai Khắc Hải & Mai Khắc Bích, 1994b, p.232)

Only appears in front of *to* in these instance in order to modify an infinitive which is a verbal clause, usually beginning with to, and functions in the range of noun clauses as a modifier or complement.

(28) He rested sitting on the un-stepped mast and sail and tried not to think **only** to endure. (Hemingway, 1952, p.37)

Lão ngồi nghĩ trên đống cột buồm, cố không nghĩ ngợi điều gì **ngoại trừ** việc chịu đựng. (Lê Huy Bắc, 1998, p.40)

In contrast, *only* premodifies an infinitive without *to* called bare infinitive. Look at these examples.

(29) She followed me up, and sat on the edge of my bed while I sat at the desk, secretly on to the bottles. I can **only** answer that I mean by it my consciousness of myself. (Alexander, 1993, p.208)

Mẹ tôi chạy theo tôi; bà ngồi ở mép Mẹ tôi chạy theo tôi; bà ngồi ở mép giường trong   khi tôi ngồi ở bàn viết, len lén khóc trên tờ giấy thấm. Tôi **chỉ** có thể trả lời rằng theo tôi đó là sự tự ý thức được chính bản thân mình. (Hồ Hải Thụy, Khắc Chu Thuật & Xuân Cao Phổ, 1999,   p.306)

Premodifying a gerund phrase and a present participle phrase

Only can premodify a gerund phrase or a present participial phrase. The following are a number of typical examples in which *only* premodifies a gerund phrase:

(30) And Trudy was furious with Gwen on these occasions for seeming not

to understand that the breathlessness was all part of her **only** being twenty-two, and excited by the boyfriend. (Cochrane & Pierce, 1999, p.119)

Và...rằng sự hổn hển đó hoàn toàn nằm trong mức tuổi **chỉ mới** hai mươi tuổi và vì kích động bởi bạn trai của cô. (Mai Khắc Hải & Mai Khắc Bích, 1994a, p.139)

In the following example, only premodies a present participial phrase.

(31) You should thank God that your son is **only** leaving now for the front.... (Spack, 1994, p.75)

Ông phải tạ ơi Chúa vì mãi đến ngày nay con ông bà **mới phải** ra mặt trận.... (Spack, 1994, p.76)

Premodifying a past participle phrase

More especially, *only* can also be used as an adverb to modify a past participial phrase.

(32) It was a large oak armchair of a type that he had **only** seen once before in his life. (Maugham, 1996, p.299)

Đó là một chiếc ghế dựa lớn bằng sồi thuộc một mẫu mà ông **chỉ** thấy qua được một lần trước đây trong đời. (Maugham, 1996, p.323)

(33) She took the letter out of her bag. Yes, this was the one, you could feel it had **only** come today and had only been read once. (Cochrane & Pierce, 1988, p.26)

Bà lấy cái thư trong túi xách ra. Đúng là cái này, bạn có thể cảm nhận là nó **chỉ mới** đến hôm nay và chỉ đọc qua có một lần. (Mai Khắc Hải & Mai Khắc Bích, 1994a, p.38)

Only in the following examples conveys rather strange meanings in Vietnamese:

(34) It is said-not broadcast, it is **only** whispered- that Alberta sees visions. (Spack, 1994, p.59)

Người ta nói- không loan truyền rộng rãi **nhưng chỉ** rỉ tai nhau là Alberta

nhìn thấy nhiều ảo mộng. (Spack, 1994, p.61)

(35) "I don't like the neighborhood," said old Jolyon; "a ramshackle lot," Young Jolyon replied; "Yes, we're a ramshacklelot."

The silence was now **only** broken by the sound of the dog Balthasar's scratching. (Glasworthy, 1994, p.66) Lão Jolian nói tiếp:"Cha không thích quang cảnh xung quanh, trông nó tồi tàn, nhếch nhác quá!"

(36) April 1l April Fool's Day. Many people like to play jokes or tricks on this day. The jokes are for fun **only.** (Porter, Minicz & Cross, 1995, p.64)

Mồng một tháng tư là ngày cá tháng tư. Nhiều người thích chọc ghẹo. Những trò đùa này **chỉ** để vui **thôi**. (Porter, Minicz & Cross, 1995, p.65)

The following table summarizes a general description of the positions of *only* in the sentences and of the equivalents in Vietnamese.

Table 3. Syntactic functions of **only** and its Vietnamese equivalents

No	Syntactic functions	Patterns
1	Premodifying a noun phrase	S + V (be) + **only** + N / N Ph
	Chỉ phải.....thôi; chỉ có; chỉ việc; chỉ còn lại; chỉ còn; chỉ trừ; chẳng qua chỉ là	
2	Premodifying a prepositional phrase	**Only** + Prep phrase + Aux + S + V S + V + **only** + prep phrase
	Chỉ khi; chỉ duy; do; chỉ…………mà thôi	
3	Premodifying an adjectival phrase	S + be + **only** + Adj S + V + It/ O + **only** + adj
	Cũng là, chỉ, đấy chỉ;	
4	Premodifying an adverbial phrase	S + V + **only** + Adv
	Pha chút, cũng chỉ;	
5	Premodifying a verb phrase	S + (Adv) + **only** + V
	Chỉ, chỉ để	
6	Premodifying a declarative content clause	S + V/be + **only that** + Clause
	Chỉ vì, chỉ có	
7	Premodifying a gerund phrase	S + V/be +…+ **only** + Gerund
	Chỉ mới, vì chỉ	
8	Premodifying a to-infinitival phrase	S + V + **only** + to -V
	Ngoại trừ; chỉ khi; chỉ	
9	Premodifying a bare infinitival phrase	S + modal verbs + **only** + V
	Chỉ; mà chỉ	
10	Premodifying a past participial phrase	S + Aux + **only** + V_{Past Participle phrase}
	Nhưng chỉ; chỉ còn; chỉ	
11	Premodifying a present participial phrase	S + be + **only** + V_{present participle phrase}
	mới	
12	Premodifying an imperative clause	**Only** + V + Clause
	chỉ, nhưng	
13	Postmodifying a noun phrase	S + V + O/ Comp + **only**
	chỉ	

"Vâng chúng con là một lũ tồi tàn, nhếch nhác." Chàng Jolian tả lời. Giờ đây **chỉ còn** nghe tiếng cào gãi của con chó Bônđơxa. (Hoàng Túy & Cảnh Lâm, 1986, p.123)

Postmodifying a noun phrase

It is evident from the bilingual corpus that *only* is rarely used in the final position.

3.3. Similarities and differences in the syntactic features of **only** in English and Vietnamese

With respect to the syntactic position, *Only* in English has initial, medial, final positions in the clause or in the sentences, while its Vietnamese equivalents are found mainly in the initial and medial positions; the final position is not identified in the bilingual corpus.

As regards the syntactic functions of *Only* in English and Vietnamese, while *only* in English and its equivalents in Vietnamese, as in Table 4, have a number of syntactic features in common, they do have some slight differences.

Table 4. Similarities in the syntactic functions of **only** in English and its Vietnamese equivalents

No	Syntactic functions	Its Vietnamese equivalents
1	Premodifying a noun phrase S + V (be) + **only** + N / N Phr e.g., There were **only** three boats…	…*chỉ còn lại* ba bóng thuyền… …*chỉ có* tâm hồn… …*chỉ trừ* khát vọng … *chẳng qua chỉ là* một ví dụ..
2	Premodifying a prepositional phrase **Only** + Prep phr + Aux + S + V S + V + **only** + prep phr e.g., I am there **only** in the evenings…	…*chỉ khi* ngồi vào lòng… …*chỉ* vài phút *mà thôi*… … *chỉ* vào những buổi tối…
3	- Premodifying an adjectival phrase S + be + **only** + Adj S + V + it/ O + **only** + adj e.g., I think it **only** right.	… *cũng là* điều phải lẽ … …*đấy chỉ là* thứ ánh sáng…
4	Premodifying an adverbial phrase S + V + **only** + Adv e.g., The archaeologist Gordon R.Willey has argued, **only** partly in fun.	…*pha chút* khôi hài… …*cũng chỉ* bớt được đôi phần …
5	Premodifying a verb phrase S + (Adv) + **only** + V e.g., I usually **only** have one at lunch	…*chỉ* dùng một… …*chỉ* cho thấy… …*chỉ để* cho lời nói …
6	Premodifying a declarative content clause S + V/be + **only that** + Clause e.g., It might be **only** that the batteries are flat...	…*chỉ vì* pin đã cạn … …*chỉ có* Ted nhìn thấy em bước…
7	Premodifying a gerund phrase S + V/be +…+ **only** + Gerund e.g., The breathlessness was all part of her **only** being twenty-two….	…*chỉ mới* hai mươi tuổi… …*vì chỉ* có ba chúng ta…
8	Premodifying a to-infinitival phrase S + V + **only** + to –V e.g., He tried not to think **only** to endure…	…*ngoại trừ việc* chịu đựng… …*chỉ khi* nhìn vào đôi tay… … *chỉ để* giữ mạng sống …
9	Premodifying a bare infinitival phrase S + modal verbs + **only** + V e.g., I can **only** answer….	…*chỉ* có thể trả lời … …*mà chỉ* nghe thấy…,
10	Premodifying a past participial phrase S + Aux + **only** + V_{Past Participle phrase} e.g., it had **only** come today….	…*chỉ* thấy qua được một lần… …*chỉ mới* đến… … *nhưng chỉ* rỉ tai nhau… … *chỉ còn* nghe tiếng cào…
11	Premodifying a present participial phrase S + be + **only** + V_{present participle phrase} e.g., Your son is **only** leaving now for the front ….	…*mới phải* ra mặt trận …
12	Premodifying an imperative clause **Only** + V + Clause e.g., **Only** disturb me if there's a genuine emergency.	…*chỉ* làm phiền … …*chỉ* gọi đội cứu hỏa… …*nhưng* cần nói trước..
13	Postmodifying a noun phrase S + V + O/ Comp + **only** e.g., The jokes are for fun **only.**	… *chỉ* chịu trách nhiệm về độ cao… … *chỉ* hướng dẫn bạn… …*chỉ* trên một mặt giấy… …*chỉ* cho vui thôi…

There are, however, not many differences in syntactic functions of *only* in English and its equivalents in Vietnamese as seen in Table 5, *only* in English has thirteen functions, but Vietnamese only has three functions. Here, the prominent point that can be figured out is that its Vietnamese equivalents often premodify a noun phrase, an adjectival phrase and a verb phrase.

Furthermore, Vietnamese EFL learners of English should be exposed to authentic materials in a good language environment to learn *only* more effectively and to use it more properly.

The discourse marker *only*, in another aspect, is often considered as a restrictive word; thus it is often translated into Vietnamese as: *chỉ, chỉ là , chỉ có, duy nhất, độc nhất, duy chỉ*. It is advisable that translators should pay close

Table 5. Differences in the syntactic functions of **only** in English and its Vietnamese equivalents

No	Syntactic functions of *only*	In English	In Vietnamese
1	Premodifying a noun phrase	x	x
2	Premodifying a prepositional phrase	x	
3	Premodifying an adjectival phrase	x	x
4	Premodifying an adverbial phrase	x	
5	Premodifying a verb phrase	x	x
6	Premodifying a to-infinitival phrase	x	
7	Premodifying a bare infinitival phrase	x	
8	Premodifying a gerund phrase	x	
9	Premodifying a declarative content clause	x	
10	Premodifying a past participial phrase	x	
11	Premodifying a present participial phrase	x	
12	Premodifying an imperative clause	x	
13	Postmodifying a noun phrase	x	

4. Conclusion

The discourse marker *only*, syntactically, is as quite complicated as its various positions are. It, therefore, takes much time for ESL/EFL learners to identify and learn how to use it. ESL/EFL teachers should clearly point out to their learners which meanings are affected by syntactic features, for instance, teachers may provide students with various instances containing the word *only* and encourage them to find out its meanings in the given context. Vietnamese EFL teachers should, to help their learners to avoid negative transference, point out the similarities and differences between *only* in English and its equivalents in Vietnamese.

attention the linguistic features of the word *only* and the given context so as to convey the speaker's/writer's full intention.

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PHÂN TÍCH ĐẶC ĐIỂM CÚ PHÁP CỦA HƯ TỪ *ONLY* TRONG TIẾNG ANH VÀ TƯƠNG ĐƯƠNG DỊCH THUẬT CỦA NÓ TRONG TIẾNG VIỆT

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Tóm tắt: Đây là một nghiên cứu định lượng và miêu tả nhằm tìm hiểu đặc điểm cú pháp của hư từ *only* trong tiếng Anh và tương đương dịch thuật của nó trong tiếng Việt. Dữ liệu nghiên cứu là tập sao lục song ngữ bao gồm 168 câu tiếng Anh và 168 câu dịch tiếng Việt tương đương. Phương pháp so sánh đối chiếu được dùng để phân tích dữ liệu. Kết quả cho thấy hư từ *only* trong tiếng Anh thường xuất hiện ở vị trí đầu, giữa và cuối câu, trong khi đó, nó chỉ xuất hiện ở vị trí đầu và giữa câu trong các bản dịch tiếng Việt. Hơn nữa, nghiên cứu này còn tìm thấy có nhiều điểm tương đồng hơn điểm dị biệt về chức năng cú pháp của hư từ *only* trong tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt.

Từ khóa: so sánh đối chiếu, hư từ *only*, tiếng Anh, tiếng Việt, đặc điểm cú pháp

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* Tác giả giữ nguyên tiêu đề của tác phẩm như đã được xuất bản

PREPARATORY WORK FOR PERFORMANCE-BASED ASSESSMENT IN A LINGUISTICS COURSE AT HAI PHONG UNIVERSITY

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Abstract: The article discusses the significant contributors to a teacher's preparation for performance-based assessment (PBA) toward learners' success in achieving both the deep knowledge of a linguistics subject and the 21-century skills for English majors at Haiphong University. Through the literature review and document analysis, the pre-implementation process is approached in four major steps that the author adapts from the perspectives proposed by Brown (2003), VanTassel-Baska (2013) and Espinosa (2015): (1) identifying learning outcomes, (2) building the rubric, (3) designing PBA tasks, and (4) supporting the learners. The learners' socio-psychological identity is identified and the nature of the linguistics subjects is depicted in order to enable smooth assistance. The research mainly employs McTighe's (2014) framework and Bloom taxonomy to determine the learning outcomes. Also, another McTighe's (2014) framework is used as the basis to develop the rubric. Through the discussed points, this original research will dedicate to EFL Vietnamese learners' success in PBA through a sophisticated threshold with deep awareness of enhancing learners' learning of not only the knowledge but also the 21st-century skills for their future career. Furthermore, it is expected to fill in the gap in the ELT teachers in the regional community as a source of reference.

Keywords: performance-based assessment, linguistics course, learning outcomes, authentic tasks, rubrics

1. Introduction

> "Before anything else, preparation is the key to success."
> Alexandra Graham Bell

Assessment has become a cutting-edge topic since 1990s, attracting a vast majority of researchers' and educators' concern to identify, classify and justify it. It has ranged from standardized assessment to alternative assessment, and has been approached from divergent perspectives such as assessment of learning, assessment for learning and assessment as learning (Brown, 2003). Many scholars disseminate the increasing significance of assessment for learning and assessment as learning, including performance-based assessment (PBA) in the circle of teaching, learning and assessment (Stiggins, 2002; Brown, 2003; Lai 2001; Đoàn, 2014; Lê, 2014; Espinosa, 2015; Dương, 2016). Regarding the education scenario of Vietnam, Vietnamese Ministry of Education (MOET) has set one of the primary realizations of the objective "holistically innovating the teaching and learning of foreign languages in Vietnam's national education system" as "innovating the methods implemented for assessment and evaluation in foreign language training" (the project "Teaching and Learning Foreign

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Languages in Vietnam's National Education System, period 2008-2020" signed on 30/9/2008). Browsing the tertiary education system in the developed countries and that in Vietnam, Đoàn (2014: 263) depicts that the former has shifted to alternative assessment which functions as a contributor to student learning while a great number of Vietnamese universities still heavily depend on assessment of learning due to various stated and unstated reasons. Haiphong University is of no exception. English majors at Haiphong University really aspire some kinds of assessment which can evaluate their higher-order thinking skills, such as analysis, synthesis, interpretation and evaluation more accurately and enhance more individual confidence than traditional testing owing to their local background and for their future career skills. In my opinion, a careful preparation can be one of the most important factors which can ensure the triumph of PBA implementation in classroom. However, no documentation on the preparation for the process has been found in the academy so far, especially in the field of linguistics subjects taught at university in Vietnam. This article aims at building a threshold toward the success of PBA implementation in classroom by the PBA pre-implementation steps for EFL tertiary learners in a linguistics course at Haiphong University to enhance learner accomplishment in PBA in class and in the future career and to contribute to the research field of PBA in language education.

2. Literature review

2.1. Performance-based assessment: concepts and controversies

The term alternative assessment has made its advent since the late twentieth century, existing by the standardized testing system

(Dương, 2016: 53). PBA as one form of alternative assessment is utilized to assess the learner capacity in both knowledge and skills. Rudner and Boston (1994) state that PBA is a kind of testing that requires learners to create an answer or a product that demonstrates his/her knowledge or skills, which typically involves oral production, written production, open-ended responses, integrated performance, group performance and other interactive tasks. Echoing that view, O'Malley and Valdez (1996) consider PBA an alternative assessment that requires learners to construct a response, create a product, or demonstrate application of knowledge in authentic contexts. PBA comes into realizations in three such forms (McTighe & Ferrara, 1998) as products, performances, or process-oriented assessments. In short, PBA is a kind of alternative assessment measuring learners' capacities in managing authentic tasks through performance of knowledge and skills.

By comparison, while the traditional standardized testing plays as a valuable information channel to educators, administrators and parents in such a way that it provides them with a sum of knowledge students have gained, PBA directly helps teachers and students reflect the effectiveness of their teaching and learning in their daily class, from which further development can be traced. Also, standardized assessment gives no feedback to learners, especially the low scorers, to explain why they get such a result. Furthermore, standardized testing only takes place at a certain moment when unexpected incidents can affect learners' scoring, and it contains distractors which can be considered traps for low-proficiency learners (Abedi, 2010). To be fair, this assessment tool, if done properly, can have some constructive effects, but PBA seems to have more priority in this function. The positive washback of PBA on teaching and learning can be shown clearly when teachers can immediately collect information on learners' learning process and

product to serve their pedagogical purpose of promoting both learners' and teachers' progress. PBA can test a wider range of competences other than just linguistic competence, like critical thinking and problem solving, as well as add support to the inferences teachers make based on the test scores as learners are asked to perform similar types of tasks to those that they encounter outside of the testing context (Fastré et al., 2010). In other words, PBA allows teachers to look at the learner capacity via contextual performance (ValTassel Baska, 2013) and use the received information for diagnostic and instructional purposes (Abedi, 2010). In addition, PBA equips learners with more learning experience and strategies (Brualdi, 1998). In order to perform, learners have to prepare by investigating the content, searching model performances and getting experiences from the models and even their peers. With PBA, learners become more confident and motivated for it focuses on progress and achievement (Stiggins, 2001). The conspicuous impact of PBA is learners can be exposed to both others' performances and teachers' direct constructive remarks to improve their amount and quality of knowledge and the skills they have acquired from which a pathway for their future learning can be traced more effectively. Especially, PBA not only helps teachers build up their learner capacity, but offers them the self-reflection (Espinosa, 2015). Observing the performance of learners who come from different backgrounds and own different innate capacities can enable teachers to realize their own strengths and weaknesses.

There exists a paradox that although PBA is considered a trendy assessment form, it is not favored by many teachers (Brualdi, 1998; Chew & Lee, 2012). Firstly, the teachers feel they have insufficient knowledge to measure their students' performance (Airasian, 1991). For example, not only is the knowledge from the course book presented but ample

information can occur in the performance, some of which can be out of the teachers' control. Secondly, some teachers can ever experience the unsuccessful execution or the inconclusive results of PBA (Stiggins, 1994; Lai, 2011) because conducting PBA in classrooms requires a set of criteria such as students' knowledge, students' manner, and students' problem-solving skill, whereas traditional standardized tests measure the result conclusively, for instance just true or false. It is also a time-consuming assessment tool (Espinosa, 2015) in design, administration and assessment. To make the matter worse, the reliability and validity of PBA are questioned when scores and grades can change across the times and across the teachers (Espinosa, 2015). Furthermore, there are irrelevant constructs like gender, ethnicity, race, linguistic background, and socioeconomic status which should be cared when PBA is conducted (Lam, 1995).

By way of conclusion, PBA can be defined as an assessment tool which can measure students' products through their demonstration of application of knowledge and skill in the authentic setting. Despite its stated demerits, teachers are highly recommended to implement it in their class for the sake of their learners' professional development. To reduce its possible downsides like the variables in assessing results or the cumbersome nature of managing the tool, teachers should consider certain factors prior to PBA application in their class.

2.2. Researchers' suggestions to the implementation of PBA in classroom

Researchers have figured out necessary "shoulds" to be considered when assessment in general and PBA in particular is utilized in the class. First and foremost, the overall principles of assessment can be stated as follows:

(1) Assessment should serve learning,

(2) Multiple measures provide a richer picture,

(3) Assessment should align with goals,

(4) Assessment should measure with matter, and

(5) Assessment should be fair.

McTighe (2014: 2)

The first principle can be briefly understood that assessment should inform and upgrade learner learning. The second conveys the idea that teachers should vary assessment forms; therefore, learners have more opportunities to express their capacity in learning, from which a holistic result can be achieved. Especially, assessment forms ought to meet the set goal of the course. For example, the goal of a language course is learners' fluency in speaking should be reached by an oral assessment rather than a written one. In addition, assessment cannot cover all the aspects of learner exposure but teachers should focus on the most important point. Last but not least, learners should be given equal access to learning opportunities, while teachers should be trained to have an appropriate attitude and skill to manage the assessment.

PBA, as a type of assessment, should be assured with the same five above-mentioned features. To be more specific, Brown (2003), Van Tessal Baskha (2013) and Espinosa (2015) have made further recommendations. Initially, the goal of the performance should be stated. This echoes with number (3) from McTighe's view (2014: 2). In other words, it is the leaning outcomes which should be set prior to teaching. The next step will be specifying the performance criteria, which can be actualized in a reliable checklist or a rubric. PBA is stated to be challenging for many examiners and to be unsatisfying to many performers simply because differing examiners working on

the same performance may release differing scores. Hence, a list of detailed criteria can minimize the variety among the examiners and, concurrently, provide the performers with some explanations leading to their gains. Particularly, the specified marking scheme delivered before the performance can act as a guide for the performers toward their achievement. Then, teachers should be conscious of pedagogical rules. For instance, the tasks assigned to learners should go from the easy level to the more complicated one. Instructions should be given comprehensively before their autonomous activities. Teachers should keep in mind that sufficient and comprehensible input can promise an effective output. Furthermore, the assessment objective should consist of not only contents but skills such as higher order thinking skill and problem solving skill. As it is well-known in the contemporary life, learners' accumulation of skills are increasingly gained educators' interest because contents are almost ubiquitous at the click of a finger while skills need to be trained and practised appropriately in a certain environment. Skills to think critically or to solve the problem promptly are vital in a person's life but they can hardly be sharpened without a good trainer. It is also important that teachers should have a right attitude toward treating performances as opportunities to give positive feedback to learners and provide it systematically. Learners need to be informed their strengths and weaknesses in details after their show, from which they can intensify the gains while diminishing the downsides. Lastly, encouraging self-assessments and peer-assessments judiciously is recommended. This contributes to boosting learner autonomy in their study through self-reflection and learning from the others' jobs.

In brief, some first considerations before utilizing PBA can be actualized

as teachers' identifying the learning outcomes, creating the rubric, designing PBA tasks and selecting the pedagogical methodology for students to perform the tasks and reach the learning outcomes successfully. It is highly recommended that those who favor PBA should keep in mind that their conduct of the tool will serve learner progress toward fulfilling the 21st century learning outcomes.

2.3. Linguistics course significance and linguistics course assessment

Linguistics subjects are integral components in any professional language programmes, and their role has long been backed up firmly by Saussure (1973), Lyon, 1981), Cantón (1990). It is argued that linguistics is the science of language. Grasping firm knowledge of theoretical linguistics does benefit language teachers and any other language students since linguistic knowledge of grammar, phonetics and phonology, semantics, and the like assists their understanding and utilizing language professionally. Linguistics has a paramount importance for language learners by equipping them with not only language but also practical and intellectual skills, naming teamwork skill, critical thinking and analytical skill, written and oral communication, logical reasoning, creative and innovation, and information literacy. However, an insight into the database shows no research details about the application of PBA to assess students in linguistics courses, except for application of PBA in language assessment in general.

Traditionally, at Haiphong University a linguistics course, semantics taken as an example, is considered mainly to provide knowledge and certainly some skills of investigating materials and applying the knowledge to solve theoretical tasks.

Most summative assessment is applied to measure learners' achievement, while formative assessment has not been conducted professionally. Nonetheless, the pedagogical view today has changed (Kelly, 2016), when additional skills are urgently required. Learners need to be exposed to authentic tasks and are equipped with skills to handle them. Presently, there are two trends toward the assessment of a linguistics course: summative assessment in the middle of and at the end of the course and formative assessment, especially PBA, throughout the course. There exists a situation that not all teachers conduct PBA with a sophisticated framework which may lead to little effectiveness of learner learning. For example, the learners performed and were assessed but no detailed feedback was provided from the teacher and other audience; therefore, their strengths and weaknesses were not obviously pointed out to serve their future development. Furthermore, when a group of learners performed, other learners heavily depended on them and became passive without effective participation. Consequently, despite acquiring the knowledge and skills of the whole course, the performers tended to be only good at the part they were accountable for.

In conclusion, the crucial role of linguistics courses for language majors and the current situation of assessing them voice a need for the thorough preparation prior to the implementation of PBA at Haiphong University.

3. Preparatory work

3.1. Identifying the learning outcomes

Overall, the 21st century learners are expected to have the 21st century learning

outcomes. The Partnership for 21st century skills (McTighe, 2014) has portrayed the new generation with

(1) Learning and innovation skills (creativity and innovation, critical thinking and problem solving, etc.),

(2) Information, Media and Technology Skills,

(3) Life and Career Skills (initiative and self-direction, among others), and

(4) Core Subjects and 21st Century Themes (global awareness, financial literacy, etc.).

To be specific, the first set includes Creativity and Innovation, Critical Thinking and Problem Solving, and Communication and Collaboration. The second set contains Information Literacy, Media Literacy, and ICT (Information, Communications and Technology) Literacy. The third kit requires learners to have Flexibility and Adaptability, Initiative and Self-Direction, Social and Cross-Cultural Skills, Productivity and Accountability, and Leadership and Responsibility. It is apparent that the previously-mentioned knowledge and skills should be shaped by teachers in specific courses, and the content of the subject is just a component in the set, whereas a variety of skills are required. The integration of four factors cannot reach immediately but gradually in a course and in the curriculum; they should be obviously stated and gradually acquired.

Unlike four skills in language learning and teaching, theoretical linguistic subjects are expected to equip learners with content so that for a long time in Vietnam, language learners have mainly approached the knowledge written in the book, with teachers' dominance in class. Compared to Bloom's taxonomy of learning, at that time, learners' major learning process goes through remembering and understanding the concepts, applying them to do theoretical exercises. Analyzing the materials is also done but not frequently. The levels of evaluating and creating seem not to be the focus. Later on, when the learner-centred class becomes prevalent, educators have to raise their awareness that learners need not only knowledge but skills for their potential working world. Learning outcomes of a linguistic course still surely consist of the content acquisition, surrounded by a set of skills, especially application, evaluation and creation. Among her set of learners' learning outcomes, Kelly (2016) mentions learners' outcomes as: "attaining an in-depth knowledge of linguistics…; examine critically, synthesize and evaluate knowledge in the various sub-areas of linguistics…; develop the capacity to participate in learning and problem solving activities individually and collaboratively in groups; and demonstrate excellent interpersonal and decision-making skills through their participation in small group problem solving activities."

With regard to the educational setting at the Foreign Language Department of Haiphong University, the number of classes is small and each teacher is an expert in one or two courses; therefore; he/she usually functions as the agent to set the learning outcomes. After that, the product is discussed in a group of experts for elaboration. This is assuredly conducted before the selection of contents, methodology and assessment forms. Aside from that, like many other local universities in Vietnam, Confucianism still dominates learners' behavior in class where learners often follow teachers' models and instructions.

In a normal language curriculum, a linguistics course is provided on the premise of learners' high proficiency of four language skills; however, at Haiphong University the percentage of learners owning low English

proficiency background is really high, many learners still need to improve their language performance in communication, including intelligible pronunciation and presentation skills. Those are the means to transfer messages to the listeners. More important than that, learners need to show the evidence of their clear understanding of contents, practical application to solve real-world problems, effective analysis, evaluation of the material and creation of their own product.

With the researcher's experience from the real context and the updating of the 21st century learning outcomes, the goal of a linguistics course at Haiphong University can be stated as follows:

At the end of the course, leaners are able to:

(1) develop their autonomous investigation of the material content with an in-depth knowledge of linguistics,

(2) apply the knowledge to solve linguistic exercises and bridge to other language subjects or real-life situations,

(3) utilize problem-solving skills, higher order-thinking skills, time management skill, collaborating skill, IT skills to prepare, present the performance as well as feedback the questions from the audience,

(4) evaluate the materials provided by teachers and from other sources to serve the focus of the performance,

(5) show their positive attitude toward their performance and their peers,

(6) assess their performance and their peers' performance, and

(7) create their attractive performance.

3.2. Building the rubric

By definition, a rubric (or a criteria sheet, a grading schemes, or a scoring guide) is a criteria-based tool that is used in conjunction with open-ended performance tasks, having no single correct answer and revealing the performance expectations (Mueller, 2016; McTighe, 2014).

In PBA, a rubric plays a pivotal role for the reason that it keeps everyone informed of an open set of criteria. The society, school administrators, parents and teachers all know the knowledge and the skills students are expected to perform and all can have ideas about them as an effective collaboration to produce the work efficacy of the next generation. In addition, a transparent criteria sheet can ensure the fairness in assessment when comparison is likely to occur and teachers' assessment criteria is not a hidden face to learners. The access to a well-developed, objective and validated scoring sheet of a performance-based task is the initial factor to reach a reliable and valid score (Abedi, 2010). Therefore, a teacher needs to exploit or can build an appropriate assessment rubric or a checklist. This can be done through the teachers' experience, the available references sources, consultation with colleagues, and discussion with learners. Especially, intervening learners in building the rubric can encourage their autonomy by giving their right in deciding their own learning goals and their learning strategy to the achievements. Learners' contribution to the rubric can be served for themselves or as an experience for the learners in the later courses. As a result, a consensus can be reached to shape the rubrics.

A yielding rubric should:

(1) clearly define criteria for judging learner performance;

(2) promote more consistent evaluation of learner performance;

(3) help clarify instructional goals and serve as teaching targets;

(4) provide specific feedback to learners and teachers;

(5) help learners focus on the important dimensions of a product or performance;

(6) support criterion-based assessment

(McTighe, 2014: 45)

Two widely-known types of rubrics are analytic and holistic (McTighe, 2014; Mueller, 2016). The former which spells out levels of performance and each criterion is assessed separately, is opposed to the latter which provides a single score for the whole performance. The analytic rubric is said to be more complicated and time-consuming but its constructive impact is highly favoured by its advocates. Its specific criteria, weighting, and descriptors allow all the participants and the observers to get the detailed feedback of the strengths and weaknesses of learners' performance.

The analytic rubric for learners in a linguistics course at Haiphong University should be adapted from the framework suggested by McTighe (2014) and Mueller (2016). Both of them show at least two indicators, calling Criteria and Scale. The criteria are established basing on learner needs, learning outcomes as well as the SMART formula (specific, measurable, attainable, reliable and time-bound). Scale composes Poor, Average, Good and Excellent. A Descriptor can be integrated in the rubric to specify the criteria (Mueller, 2016). Descriptors enable a more concise and consistent judgment from any assessor. The practical process of reaching the following rubric is a convergence of my own experiences with my learners' performances, my former students' contribution of their experience and expectation and the formal seminar in my linguistics division.

Sheet 1. A detail rubric of PBA in a linguistics course at Haiphong University

Scale / Criteria	Weighting	Poor	Average	Good	Excellent
Language proficiency	1	Obvious problems with pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar which cause difficulties in audience's understanding Occasional fluency	A few problems with pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar which cause a few difficulties in audience's understanding Occasionally unnatural interruptions	Intelligible pronunciation with some minor problems, appropriate vocabulary, and grammar which may cause few difficulties in audience's understanding Few interruption	Confident and natural pronunciation Appropriate and accurate range of vocabulary and grammar All audience comprehension Fluent and expressive speech
Cultural convention for oral presentation	1	Inappropriate cultural physical expressions and audience addressing	Appropriate cultural physical expressions and audience addressing, with some noticeable mistakes	Appropriate cultural physical expressions and audience addressing, with few mistakes	All appropriate and attractive cultural physical expressions and audience addressing
Organization	1	Insufficient presentation parts Uneven role of presenters Crumbling discourse	Sufficient presentation parts Uneven role of presenters Some crumbling discourse	Sufficient presentation parts Even role of presenters Cohesive discourse	Sufficient and Attractive presentation parts Appropriate role of presenters Smooth discourse

Content	3	No/Weak term definition No/Weak illustration Inaccurate information Insufficient information	Appropriate term definition but weak illustration or vice versa Some inaccurate information Some insufficient information	Appropriate term definition but Appropriate illustration or vice versa Accurate information Sufficient information	Appropriate term definition but appropriate, detailed and comprehensive illustration Accurate information Sufficient information
Problem-solving skill	1	No/Slow reaction to occurred problems from presenters themselves and from the audience (technical problem, audience question, etc.)	Appropriate but slow or occasionally unsatisfactory reaction to occurred problems from presenters themselves and from the audience	Appropriate and satisfactory reaction to occurred problems from presenters themselves and from the audience	Appropriate and highly persuasive reaction to occurred problems from presenters themselves and from the audience
Time management	1	Uneven time distribution to each member/presentation part Over 10% overtime or under-time allotment	Generally appropriate time distribution From 5% to 10% overtime or under-time allotment	Generally appropriate time distribution Under 5% overtime or under-time allotment	Totally appropriate time distribution
Visual aids	1	No/Weak computer literacy Inappropriate visual/audio aids	Average computer literacy, sometimes in need of help Some inappropriate visual/audio aids	Good computer literacy, rarely in need of help Few inappropriate visual/audio aids	Good computer literacy, All and attractive appropriate visual/audio aids Creative exploitation of visual/audio aids
Critical thinking	1	No/Weak ability to analyse or evaluate material or audience' questions/opinion No/Weak ability to argue for or against an issue	Average ability to analyse or evaluate material or audience' questions/opinion with some misunderstanding Average ability to argue for or against an issue with some weak points	Satisfactory ability to analyse or evaluate material or audience' questions/opinion with little misunderstanding Satisfactory ability to argue for or against an issue with some strong points	Highly persuasive ability to analyse or evaluate material or audience' questions/opinion with little misunderstanding Highly persuasive ability to argue for or against an issue with strong points

The rubric is integrated with the scoring sheet having eight criteria with weighing, four ranks and space for the assessor's comment. The criteria are explained by their descriptors, ranging from language to the skills, while the four ranks from *poor* to *excellent*. Beside the column of criteria, the weighing column can meet the demand of a traditional mark-10 system of Vietnam. Almost all items get 1 point except "Content" accounting for 3 points because the rubric is used to measure a content course. In the past, most of the weighing is for contents but the perspective should be changed to adapt the learner needs. Moreover, discrete points are suggested to minimize the diversity in assessing. It would take the assessor more time and energy but it promises rich values in the assessment process for all the relevant participants.

Sheet 2. The scoring sheet for PBA in a linguistics course at Haiphong University

Scale / Criteria	Weighting	Poor	Average	Good	Excellent
Language proficiency (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, fluency)	1	(0-0.4)	(0.4-0.6)	(0.7-0.85)	(0.9-1)
Cultural convention for oral presentation (greetings, gestures, stance and eye contact, manner, question answering).	1	(0-0.4)	(0.4-0.6)	(0.7-0.85)	(0.9-1)
Organization (3-part presentation, cohesion, even role in the group, smooth step transference)	1	(0-0.4)	(0.4-0.6)	(0.7-0.85)	(0.9-1)
Content (Term definition, explanation, detail, accuracy, activity, evaluation, creativity)	3	(0-1)	(1.5-2)	(2.5-2.75)	(2.75-3)
Problem-solving skill(reaction to the problem, response to audience's questions)	1	(0-0.4)	(0.4-0.6)	(0.7-0.85)	(0.9-1)
Time management (for separate parts, for each member, for the whole presentation)	1	(0-0.4)	(0.4-0.6)	(0.7-0.85)	(0.9-1)
Visual aids (ability to exploit IT for presentation aids with clarity, impression, appropriateness, relevance)	1	(0-0.4)	(0.4-0.6)	(0.7-0.85)	(0.9-1)
Critical thinking (ability to analyze arguments, making inferences using inductive or deductive reasoning, judging or evaluating, and making decisions or solving problems)	1	(0-0.4)	(0.4-0.6)	(0.7-0.85)	(0.9-1)

3.3. Designing the performance-based tasks

PBA belongs to authentic assessment which measures an authentic task. Therefore, prior to the implementation of PBA, it is compulsory for teachers to create performance-based tasks to their learners.

In the first place, an awareness of the concept and characteristics of a performance task should be made clear. By definition, a performance task is the task that requires learners to perform their knowledge, skills and proficiency in the learning context (McTighe, [20]). Research provides seven characteristics of performance tasks, which are:

(1) demand thoughtful application of knowledge and skills, not just recall;

(2) yield tangible products and performances that serve as evidence of learning;

(3) establish authentic contexts for performance;

(4) can integrate two or more subjects as well as 21st century skills (e.g., critical thinking, technology use, teamwork);

(5) do not have a "single, best" answer or one, "right way" to accomplish the task;

(6) evaluate performance with established criteria and rubrics; and

(7) may be used as rich learning activities and/or assessments.

(McTighe, 2014: 10)

Then, the process of designing a performance-based task will follow McTighe's framework (2014). It undergoes eleven steps, beginning with identifying learning goals and culminating in delivering the task for learners. Regarding our specific courses, learning goals or learning outcomes have been specified above. The second step is to consider key traits implied by the goals, which refer to the criteria used to measure the learning outcomes. The next step is to

consider some frameworks of understanding such as Six Facets of Understanding, followed by Generating initial task ideas, and Checking for validity and alignment. The sixth phase will focus on the authentic situation to see whether the task links to the real world. Till now, teachers can develop the rubric, modify it for the specific learners. After that, the designers should self-assess the task, consulting colleagues and experts, using a rubric. Learners can play a role of evaluating the rubric before it is ready for use. When the quality control of the assessment rubric has completed, teachers can explain the criteria and their exploitation before the formal launching commences. The revision after the rubric functions has a significant role in improving its quality. Hereby, it is necessary to explain the frameworks of understanding naming Six Facets of Understanding. Understanding can be shown through explanation, interpretation, application, perspective, self-knowledge and empathy. The perspective facet is demonstrated by the ability of analyzing, arguing, criticizing or comparing. Empathy refers to the openness or beliefs, while self-knowledge means being able to realize, reflect and self-assess.

At Haiphong University, before a linguistics course commences, the preparation of an instructional manual to the course follows the framework by McTighe (2014). To cut it short, firstly, the learning outcomes are determined as shown in the previous part of this research. From the learning outcomes, the performance-based task will be set in such a way that it creates the opportunities for learners to fully demonstrate their ability, i.e, knowledge and skills, in the authentic learning context with a concise and reliable assessment rubric. For example in the semantics course, learners are divided into groups and they randomly pick up two topics they have to be in charge, one of which for the first round or the first half of the course

whereas the remaining is for the second after they have received detailed feedback from the first show. With regard to the rubric, it will be delayed till the next part which discusses the building of a rubric. Consequently, we have the course instruction sheet which consists of five major elements, beginning with the course outline, which lists the major contents of the course distributed in 15 weeks. At my university, the formal semester takes place within 15 weeks. Another important part is the course book and references, followed by learners' duty and task, teacher's duty, assessment form and assessment criteria. Although, performance-based tasks can vary their forms as products, performances, or process-oriented assessments (McTighe & Ferrara, 1998) and can be transformed via the written or spoken channel, groups' oral presentation, which majorly belongs to the second type, is selected for learners because it can most satisfy their needs, best display the learning outcomes, and closely relate to the attributes future employers expect. A big hindrance of typical Vietnamese learners, including their Confucian learning environment and their background, has made my learners introvert and shy to speak in public. A task demands oral presentation will create them the chance to interact in English in the authentic situation. It can reveal learners' language skills, technology skills, presentation skills beside their content comprehension. Group-work will elaborate the collaboration spirit. Learners also have more chances to be exposed and exploit IT. According to NACE (National Association of Colleges and Employers) (McTighe 2014), among the 21st- century skills future bosses seek from their employees, leadership and ability to work in team account for 77.8% each. Ranked the second is problem-solving skill (70.8%), followed by analytical skill (68%), verbal communication skill (67%),

and computer skill (62.8%). Opponents can argue that NACE gives the data for American employees which does not work in the Vietnamese context. However, proponents will render the concept of "global citizen" to refute that view. If we interview the Vietnamese employers whether they need those skills from their laborers, the answer will surely be "yes". Those criteria match almost all working situations. Therefore, our Vietnamese teachers when training learners have to remember that they are preparing for the next Vietnamese working generation who have strong qualities to integrate into the global working context. In brief, when compared to the given framework for designing a performance-based task, oral group presentation can meet the most demand both in short term and long term, especially when mastering English should be shown by the capacity to orally communicate with others in English.

While assigning the task to learners, teachers need to instruct how the task should be performed and what criteria learners should pay attention to. For the first idea, learners are required to read the assigned points in the course book, work in group, find the other resources, consult teachers when in need, prepare slideshow, allot two thirds time of one formal lesson in order to leave time for the class follow-up activities like discussion, debate, self-reflection, peer-reflection and teacher comment. The organization of the presentation requires an opening before developing and closing. Within the opening activity, the presenter is asked to lead to audience to the topic smoothly and compellingly. The development will discuss the content of the presentation such as definition and classification. The closing should include some designed tasks to bridge the knowledge gained in the content to solve the exercises in this subject, other subjects

or the real-life problem. All group members must evidentially show their role in the presentation. An application of the linguistics theory to solve the real life problem must be shown. For example, an understanding of meaning transference in the course Semantics can be applied to encode and decode a real-life conversation. The knowledge of aspects of connected speech in the course Phonetics and Phonology can be used to explain problems in listening to the native speakers and improve the Vietnamese EFL learners in listening and speaking. Also, an analysis of sentence structures in the course Grammar will effectively serve writing or translation. A G.R.A.S.P.S. structure (McTighe, 2014) can help learners raise their awareness of what they are going to do. That means learners can set their GOAL of the presentation, their ROLE in that context, their AUDIENCE, their SITUATION, their PRODUCT/ PERFORMANCE and their STANDARD and CRITERIA for success. To clarify this, the goal of the presentation aligns with the learning outcomes set in the previous part of this study. The learner role will be the performer and also the self-assessor. Two inherent types of audience in the normal classroom situation are the teacher and the performer's classmates, which require the performer wisely address the content and channel of presentation. Then, the performer must keep in mind whether their products meet the criteria of the rubrics which have been agreed and public.

In short, prior to while-PBA, authentic tasks for the performance should be well designed with reference of McTighe's framework (2014). The instruction of the task belongs to the teacher's role while giving the learners an opportunity to design and perform the task can maximize their ability which evidentially presents Bloom's taxonomy of learning and their autonomy.

3.4. Supporting the learners

3.4.1. Being conscious of the leaners' socio-cultural identity

In the light of the learner-centered approach, teachers need to understand their learners' identity, consisting of their habitual behavior in class and their learning experience.

Firstly, with regards general learners' classroom reaction, I render two Vietnamese scholars' finding as follows. Trinh (2005) states that the underlining philosophy of the teaching culture in Vietnam is Confucianism in which the teacher-learners relationship is shaped in a fixed mound with learners' heavy dependence both teachers both inside and outside class. Echoing, Le (2000) calls the English classroom a "cultural island" where the teacher plays many different roles such as *the knowledge provider, the feedback giver, the evaluator* and *the high-pass-rate guarantor*, whereas the learners are expected to be *good listeners* and *imitators*. The learning outcome is learners can understand, remember the transferred knowledge and apply it to deal with pedagogical exercises. This passive learning style, despite its gradual erosion in the modern educational modes, still has its strongly negative impact on a number of learners at all the levels of education in Vietnam in contradiction to the fact that the more mature learners grow, the more independent they become. To be more specific with EFL learners, Vietnam's pre-university English education focuses on grammar, reading, and some writing. Listening, speaking as well as social skills are largely excluded from the practice. English is taught as a subject, not as a means of communication or a means to another task. The English class hours for them are restricted to three hours per week and they almost have no time for performing any authentic task themselves. At the end of

the course, their completion is marked by the completion of multiple-choice question exam. A little bit more complicated task for the students who want to pass the university entrance examination to a language institution is writing a 100-word-length composition of a familiar given topic. That teaching and assessment form can answer the parents what their children have gotten from school and answer school administrators what teachers have provided to their learners. Nonetheless, the WHAT here does not satisfy the employers in the society. Haiphong University EFL learners are of no exception, with the typical learning behavior of Vietnamese leaners. To make the matter worse, most of them come from the rural part of the city or other neighbor provinces and have a modest English score for the entrance university examination. Their autonomous learning skill is limited. So is their presentation skill. In fact, having undergone 4 semesters to be trained in 4 English skills, they still need more teachers' assistance to understand the contents, to express it out persuasively and to acquire important skills. To a plenty of traditional teachers, the best approach to linguistics subjects is teacher lecturing and student note-taking for two principal reasons, including the perplexing nature of the subjects and guarantee of the summative assessment result. Nonetheless, such philosophy is being criticized for not meeting the social demand in the future job market if the learners are served merely the course content, excluding academic skills shown through their performance; and such assessment is of learning, not for learning.

Consequently, PBA, a type of assessment-for-learning or assessment-as-learning, will make the amendment by re-roling learners from passive agents in the past model to active ones, from listeners to speakers (or performers), and emphasizing their high

integration and accountability in their study and preparing them for a better future with not only knowledge but skills as well.

3.4.2. Supporting the learners

In the innovative education form, learners are the centre and teachers have to give them opportunities to develop their full capacity. There are 3 major aspects the teacher will care before the learners' performance takes place, then assessment is applied to measure the success of their performance.

In the first place, materials can be adapted as we know that the content of linguistics materials is hard to read, and not all the contents of the book will be discussed within a 15-week course. "Good teachers are always adapting materials" (Maley 1998:248). The idea of 'flexi materials' which suggests designing materials with greater flexibility also seems to accept that it is the teachers who need to decide what materials are best for their learners, as they are more aware of the needs, interests and the context of their learners than anyone else. For those who are at a limited level of language, the contents which are too theoretical or abstract can be eliminated, giving the way to the more practical ones. For example, in the chapter "Sentence meaning" in Semantics, a thorough discussion of semantic function of participants according to Halliday's point of view takes so much time but it just contributes very little to their current learning.

The next action toward the learners' triumph is a clear instruction. Whether the learners follow the right track or not depends on this stage. This is carried out with the course instruction sheet which has been mentioned in the above part of **Designing authentic tasks**. The learners should be well-informed of their role in class. The crucial role is the performer in accordance with the assessor in both self-assessment and peer-assessment. In order to give a relatively fair assessment, the teachers

should make sure the learners understand their learning outcomes and assessment criteria. Two sheets are delivered from the first lesson with sheet 2 will be copied into the number of the learners in the class. Learners are given time to discuss the descriptors and raise questions or make any contribution. The first performance will be considered a trial where the learners play their roles the first time and teachers give thorough comments. In addition, study sites for both linguistics knowledge and the 21st century skills should be introduced. An emphasis on the improvement of skills needs to be done because with good skills, the learners can have the right key to open to the wanted door.

Last but not least, creating motivation to students is extremely compulsory in language achievement. It is affirmed by a plethora of language researchers that motivation functions as the most important contributor to the overall accomplishment of language acquisition (Al-Ghamdi, (2014). Motivation is strongly affected by attitude (Gardner, 2010). He goes further to state that motivation to learn a second language is influenced by group related, context related attitude, integrativeness and attitudes towards the learning situations respectively. The task done by group presentation can satisfy the condition of group related where learners can share and improve their learning experience. Specific tasks will be put in the specific context for context-related attitude. The teachers' capacity of bridging the necessity of the knowledge and skills to the solution to real-life problems will also inspire the learners. Besides, motivation is also created when the learners can have the right to decide what and they want to learn and to be assessed. That means that the teachers should enhance learner autonomy. They will certainly be accountable for their final product. The teachers should highlight the one-third class-hour discussion, where

the presenters show their understanding to the knowledge and their ability to solve the problem occurring in the presentation. Some special gifts or generous comments/ marks should be given to those who have made an impressive effort. The learners also need an additional opportunity to better their previous work. Teacher's giving them this can be considered another form of motivation which can pave the way to their success.

4. Conclusion and recommendations

4.1. Conclusions

In conclusion, PBA, or a kind of constructive assessment tool to boost leaners' capacity through authentic tasks, is increasingly being encouraged to be used in classroom context because it can train and assess the learners' knowledge of a subject and skill in that subject which can be extendedly transferred to other subjects or other authentic tasks in real-life. It provides all the education-related agents such as parents, teachers and students with a kit of transparent assessment criteria. A more valuable impact of PBA is it builds up leaners' capacity throughout constructive feedbacks, which benefit all learners, especially those who are in low proficiency. For such reasons, PBA should be exploited smartly in English linguistics courses at Haiphong University. Toward a reliable and valid PBA results for learners, teachers need to have an effective preparation with four steps from naming the learning outcomes, creating the rubrics, designing the authentic tasks and assisting the learners toward their accomplishment. For low-proficient EFL learners in a local learning context like Haiphong University in Vietnam, the needs of sharpening real-life skills are of the crucial important aside from accumulating the linguistics knowledge. An appropriate form of assessment will dedicate to that

goal. As suggested and also applied, PBA will really help when the teachers can raise their students' awareness of their learning outcomes and intervene them in determining their own learning outcomes. From the goals, students should be informed of the assessment criteria, which will help them feel confident to make the road to meet such obvious demands. Teachers need a firm knowledge of PBA assessment regarding designing authentic tasks and presentation rubric, but they must adapt it to their own context and made an endeavor to keep the assessment result fair.

4.2. Recommendations

Limitations cannot be avoided in this research, which need to be delimited by the author herself as well as the readers. For example, a contrastive analysis of the results of two groups of language learners, one of whom exploits PBA whilst the other follows the traditional assessment, will be conducted to evidentially support the application of PBA. Or, the learners' and teachers' beliefs and practices of PBA in a language classroom can be another interesting research field. Research on various aspects related to assessing a language course or linguistics course can dedicate to the development of the ELT community in the Vietnamese context.

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CÔNG TÁC CHUẨN BỊ TRƯỚC KHI ĐÁNH GIÁ CHẤT LƯỢNG HOẠT ĐỘNG CỦA SINH VIÊN TRONG KHÓA HỌC NGÔN NGỮ TẠI ĐẠI HỌC HẢI PHÒNG

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Tóm tắt: Bài báo trình bày các khâu quan trọng giúp giáo viên Đại học Hải Phòng chuẩn bị để đánh giá sinh viên thực hiện nhiệm vụ học tập (đánh giá chất lượng hoạt động) trong một khóa học ngôn ngữ nhằm giúp sinh viên đạt được cả kiến thức chuyên sâu và các kỹ năng thế kỷ 21. Qua việc phân tích và tổng hợp các tài liệu chuyên ngành, cụ thể là áp dụng đường hướng của Brown (2003), VanTassel-Baska (2013) và Espinosa (2015), cùng sự đúc rút kinh nghiệm nghề nghiệp của bản thân, tác giả đưa ra 4 bước chính của giai đoạn chuẩn bị: (1) xác định chuẩn đầu ra, (2) xây dựng phiếu đánh giá, (3) thiết kế nhiệm vụ để đánh giá thực, và (4) trợ giúp người học. Nghiên cứu chủ yếu sử dụng mô hình của McTighe's (2014) và tháp Bloom để xác định chuẩn đầu ra. Một mô hình khác của McTighe's (2014) được sử dụng để xây dựng phiếu đánh giá. Tác giả mong muốn kết quả nghiên cứu có thể giúp một số giáo viên tiếng Anh tại Việt Nam nâng cao năng lực học tập của sinh viên cả về kiến thức và kỹ năng phục vụ nghề nghiệp tương lai. Nghiên cứu cũng hi vọng đóng góp thêm một nguồn tài liệu tham khảo cho cộng đồng giáo viên trong khu vực.

Từ khóa: đánh giá chất lượng hoạt động, khóa học lý thuyết tiếng, chuẩn đầu ra, nhiệm vụ thực, phiếu đánh giá

INCREASING MOTIVATION THROUGH TASK-BASED LEARNING IN ASEAN STUDIES COURSE

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Abstract: It is widely observed that students with low levels of motivation and engagement are one of the challenges for teachers in leading classes, especially in the major subject class. Lack of motivation among students not only has undesirable outcomes on students' academic performance but also negatively affects the teaching process. This research was conducted in order to increase students' motivation and engagement through a task-based learning environment in ASEAN Studies class in the department of International Studies, Hue University of Foreign Languages. The quantitative analysis used the data from a questionnaire to examine the impact of the task-based approach on students' level of motivation and engagement in ASEAN Studies class within 15 weeks. The study was conducted from September 3, 2016 through December 5, 2016 with 29 participating students in the second year at the Department of International Studies, Hue University of Foreign Languages. The findings indicated that students had the tendency to gain more motivation to participate in the class activities when tasks were used. Students' attitudes towards different tasks were also documented. Suggestions for teachers to make better use of this approach in teaching major subjects are discussed as well.

Keywords: task-based learning, task, motivation, international studies major, teaching

1. Problem statement

Teachers, for a long time, have been struggling to overcome the problem of low participation among students, especially in major subject class. It is not difficult to observe behaviors such as sleeping, engaging in digital gadgets, asking inappropriate questions, giving irrelevant answers, etc. among students with low levels of motivation. These attitudes are due to the fact that students are indifferent towards learning and participation (Aboudan, 2011). It is pointed out that when students find material and activities in class uninteresting, they are likely to get bored (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, as cited in Aboudan, 2011). When boredom dominates, students are not stimulated to participate in the lesson (Caldwell, Darling, Payne, & Dowdy, 1999, as cited in Aboudan, 2011). In the long term, the problem of low participation leads to serious impacts on students' academic performance and teaching process. Therefore, teacher researchers find a huge motivation to seek for a solution to this matter.

Task-based Learning (TBL) has been recommended to be utilized in order to increase the motivation among learners in English language classes as it contributes to create a favorable environment for arousing students' interest in the class material and motivation to participate in

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class activities (Ellis, 2003). In a task-based learning, students are given a task to solve. In this way, students can gain knowledge on the major subjects easily without concentrating on linguistic features during task implementation (Willis, 1996).

Inspired by its positive effects on the teaching and learning process, the teacher researcher makes use of the Task-based learning approach to promote motivation in the ASEAN Studies class during 15 weeks. This research was carried out in order to examine the impact of the task-based learning approach on the level of participation among students.

2. Theoretical framework

This section provides a review of the literature on the fundamental concepts in motivating students to learn major subjects: motivation and task-based learning.

2.1. Motivation

In the research of Deci and Ryan (1985), motivation is classified into two different categories: intrinsic and extrinsic. While extrinsic motivation is linked with external factors such as rewards, intrinsic motivation refers to the internal incentive to fulfill learners' satisfaction, (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Lepper & Malone, 1987). This paper focuses on ways to heighten intrinsic motivation among learners in study major subject of ASEAN Studies.

Seven factors are pointed out to promote intrinsic motivation. In the first category of individual factors which refer to students' personal efforts, challenge, curiosity, control and fantasy are deciding motives. Gareau and Guo (2009) also agree that these individual factors are essential factors to engage students in class. Being engaged in class instructions, learners tend to go

beyond the requirement of the instruction to show their knowledge, skills, competence and satisfaction (Gareau & Guo, 2009). In the second category of interpersonal factors, three interpersonal factors such as competition, cooperation, and recognition play a significant role in cooperative learning when students are working with others in a team (Lepper and Malone, 1987). This conclusion is reaffirmed in the Self-Determination Theory developed by Deci & Ryan (1985). Accordingly, learners' behaviors are initiated to fulfill three psychological needs, namely competence, autonomy, and relatedness. This means that students are motivated to participate when they feel they can interact efficiently in the environment, they can control the course of activities, and they feel a sense of belonging to the group.

In an effort to stimulate intrinsic motivation, Ellis (2003) suggests that the task-based learning is a new approach which tremendously benefits learners in all majors. Teachers who make use of tasks hold a belief that as long as students find motivations in their learning experience, students can find a way to complete any given tasks or achieve the desired goals (Brophy, 2005).

2.2. Tasks-based Learning

In the last years, task-based learning has been a vital instrument in language teaching in promoting communication and social interaction. In this model, language is acquired by having learners solve a problem or do a task without much concentrating on linguistic aspects. Language comes to learners along the solving-problem process since the language item used to complete tasks is similar as it is in daily life beyond the class (Willis, 1996). Hence, it is argued that task-based

learning is an important approach for students to connect their knowledge to other tasks with communicative language (Ellis, 2003).

Tasks play a significant role in this learning and teaching model. Despite several suggested definitions of a task, this research adopts the definition by Willis (1996). According to Willis (1996), a task is "an activity where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome" (p. 23). Specifically, a task is a class activity to use a target language to achieve a goal (Ellis, 2003). This also means the output of this learning experience is both language acquisition and specialized knowledge in the major subjects. This point inspires the teacher researcher to apply the model of Tasks-based learning in language teaching into teaching major subject in ASEAN Studies class.
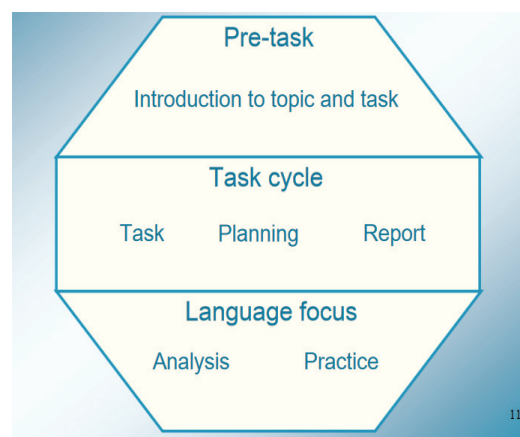

Figure 1. The TBL Framework
(Source: Jane Willis, a Framework for Task-based learning, Longman ELT)

According to Willis (1996), a task consists of three stages: pre-task, task-cycle, and language focus. In the pre-task stage, students are given a topic and provided with necessary vocabulary by the teacher. In the task cycle, students work in pairs or in a small group to find the solution to a common question before making a presentation to the class. In the final stage, teacher will examine and analyze the specific language that students use in their report or their feedbacks about others' performance.

Pre-task
Teachers introduce the topic, provide useful vocabulary, and familiarize students with tasks instruction. Learners read the texts to understand the tasks

TASK CYCLE

TASK	PLANNING	REPORT
Students work in pairs or small groups to implement the task. Students might feel free to try all methods they can think of. Teacher supervises the students from a distance, promote students to communicate with one another instead of correcting their language.	Students make a preparation to present in front of class (orally or writing) on the way they complete the task, make a decision or achieve in the end. As students give a report in public, teachers will stand by their side to provide any language support if necessary.	A few groups might spend time to exchange their findings or reports. Teacher plays the role of a chairperson to provide feedbacks on students' reports.

LANGUAGE FOCUS

LANGUAGE ANALYSIS	PRACTICE
Students can have a reflection on the vocabulary they used in their report. They can update some new words, phrases they have learned in the field.	Teachers analyze the language usage by students in their report.

Another inspiring point is that any topic in any fields can be elaborated into any kind of tasks with the aim of promoting language usage. This generation can be done by adopting the typology for TBL framework which lists six tasks and their possible learning outcome (Willis, 1996:149).

provided by teacher and to determine the learning outcomes which are finally achieved.

The research fundamentally offers a new approach to effectively use tasks in teaching a major subject in International Studies major. The research attempted to answer two questions:

No.	Task Types	Skills involved	Task's outcomes
1	Listing	Brainstorming, fact-finding	Completed list or draft mind map
2	Ordering & Sorting	Sequencing, ranking, categorizing, classifying	Set out information sorted according to specific criteria
3	Comparing	Matching, finding similarities & differences	Identification of similarities & differences
4	Problem solving	Analyzing real problem, analyzing hypothesis situation, reasoning, decision-making	Finding solutions to problems, which can be then evaluated
5	Sharing personal experience	Narrating, describing, exploring and explaining attitude, reaction, opinions	Exchanging opinions & attitudes
6	Creative tasks		End product - can be appreciated by wide audience

A wide range of literature has been found on the effect of task-based learning in the field of teaching English as a foreign language (ELT). Researchers have demonstrated that TBL contribute to enhancing students' motivation. Nevertheless, there is limited knowledge on the application of this model in teaching major subjects in International Studies. Therefore, this research aimed to utilize the task-based approach to engage students in learning academic subjects like ASEAN Studies.

3. Research objectives and questions

The objective of the study is to investigate the impacts of tasks on motivating students to engage more in ASEAN Studies class. Specifically, the research investigates learners' attitudes to the advantages or disadvantages of particular tasks in Task- Based Learning

1. To what extent do tasks motivate non-English majors to engage and participate in the class?
2. What are students' attitudes towards the use of particular tasks in task-based learning in ASEAN Studies Course?

4. Research methodology

4.1. Procedure

The tools utilized were a Questionnaire on intrinsic motivation to investigate students' perception of the impacts of tasks used in ASEAN Studies Class. This tool was used to document evidence of how tasks enhance students' motivation and engagement. Data was collected during 15-week period from September 5, 2016 through December 5, 2016. The questionnaire created on a Google form was documented online. The final

results were saved on a Google spreadsheet. There are ten questions with various choices for responses in the questionnaire. In the first part, students were provided with multiple-choice questions to explore whether the utility of tasks motivate them to engage in the class. In the second section on particular tasks, students were requested to come up with their own responses to explain their preference on a certain tasks that they had worked in ASEAN Studies class (see Appendix A). A task-based lesson which was generated based on Willis' (1996) framework for TBL on a topic of ASEAN Studies was also developed (see Appendix B).

4.2. Participants

29 students in International Studies major at the Department of International Studies, Hue University of Foreign Languages participated in this study. Their age range is 21. Most students had learned English as a required subject for six years in high school and in the first three years in university. The class met once a week for ninety minutes.

5. Research findings and discussion

Figure 2 shows students' responses to the question, "How likely are teachers to provide class activities that are related to your interests?" According to Figure 2, 44.8% of students believe that the tasks provided in ASEAN class are very likely related to their interests, 31% of students feel that the tasks are most likely related to their interest, 24.1% of the students feel the tasks are somewhat likely related to their interest. It is a positive sign that no students perceive the tasks are not related to their interest.
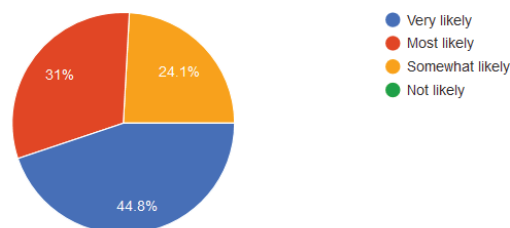

Figure 2. Students' responses to the question "How likely are teachers to provide class activities that are related to your interests?"

Figure 3 shows the respondents' responses to the question "How likely are you to engage in classroom activities when tasks are used?" According to Figure 3, 75.9% of students are more engaged in the lesson with the utility of different kinds of tasks. On the other hand, 24.1% students are demotivated to participate in the class activities. It is a favorable conclusion that no students asserted that tasks make no difference in their engagement in classroom activities.

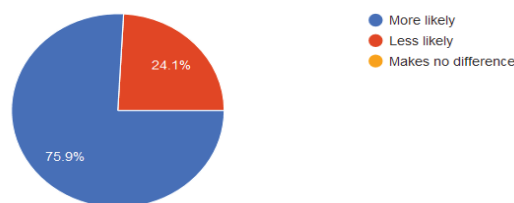Figure 3. Students' responses to the question "How likely are you to engage in classroom activities when tasks are used?"

Figure 4 presents students' evaluation on the factors that make them interested in tasks. 58.6% of students do not feel fears when giving wrong answers in front of peers or expressing unpopular answers. Likewise, 58.6% students feel confident because they can show their abilities in front of class through

several tasks. 55.2% of students are excited to join in a competition with other teams. 51.7% of students rated for the facts that they are excited to join in a various learning atmosphere. 48.3% students are motivated as they collaborate and communicate with other team members to achieve a common goal. 44.8% students consider the task as a challenge and want to overcome it. 31% of respondents claimed that the instruction is interesting and worthy of attention. Only 20.7% of students are encouraged that the tasks are do-able and they can fulfill it.

Obviously, among the four factors in intrinsic motivation mentioned in the theoretical framework - attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction, confidence is the most recognized incentive that students perceive in using tasks in ASEAN Studies class. Besides the confidence factors, satisfaction is also important motives for students to engage themselves in class activities. Attention comes next in their importance to students. Few students consider relevance much important to them in their learning experience. However, interpersonal factors are claimed to be more important than three other individual factors, except confidence factor. Particularly, recognition is fundamentally leading factors among the three, with competition and cooperation are rated equally important in students' perception.

Notes. The checkboxes for students are provided in full as follows:

1. Students consider the task as a challenge and feel excited to overcome it
2. Students perceive the instruction is interesting and worthy of attention
3. Student feel the tasks/questions are do-able and they can fulfill it
4. Student feel excited about being in the various learning atmosphere
5. Students are motivated to join in a competition with other groups
6. Students communicate and collaborate with other team members to work for a common goal during activities
7. Student do not fear giving wrong answers in front of peers or expressing unpopular opinions
8. Learners feel confident because they can show their capability in front of class

The data in Figure 5 demonstrates learners' preference to the different tasks used in ASEAN Studies class. Data indicates that there are obvious differences among learners' choices of their favorite tasks. Problem solving (including solving a real problem and decision-making) is ranked the highest with 44.8% choosing this task as their favorable one while the results for other tasks were on lower profile. Creative tasks and comparing
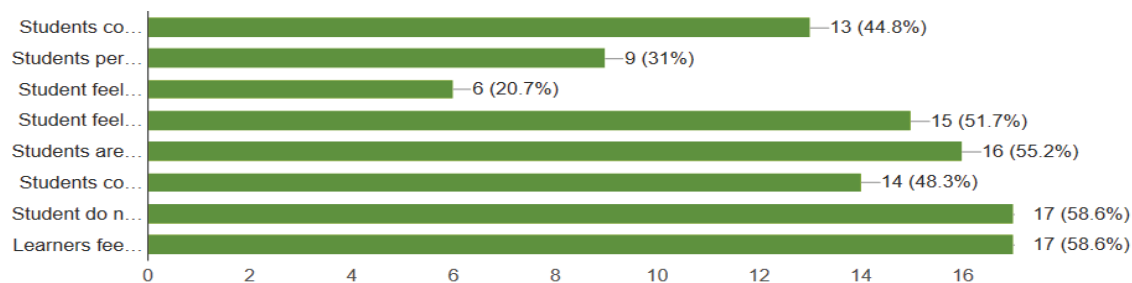

Figure 4. Students' responses to the question "Check the reasons that make you NOT bored with the ASEAN Studies class. Check all that apply."

was both chosen by 41.4% of students while listing, and sharing stories was voted by 37.9% and 31% respectively. Very few students (10.3%) favored ordering tasks in the class activities. To grasp a better understanding of the impacts of each task on learners, the questions from 5-10 were given in the Questionnaire and reported in Figures 6, 7, 9, 12, 17 & 18.

learners so they do not feel bored. On the other hand, more students prefer fact-finding since it helps students improve skimming and scanning in reading skills, and understand the topic in a profound way; it is easy to find the information in the articles without much thinking; and it stimulates learner to read the articles at home to have a better preparation.
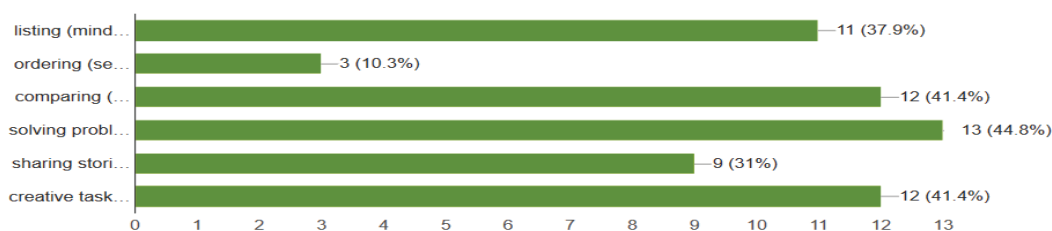

Figure 5. Students' reponse to the question "What task do you enjoy using in ASEAN Studies class? Check all that apply."

Notes. The checkboxes for students are provided in full as follows:
1. Listing (mindmap, fact-finding)
2. Ordering (sequencing, classifying)
3. Comparing (matching, finding similarities and differences)
4. Solving problem (solving a real problem, decision-making)
5. Sharing stories (describing, explaining reaction & attitudes)
6. Creative tasks (brainstorming, fact-finding, comparing, problem solving)

Figure 6 outlines learners' perception on listing tasks. Specifically, among the two tasks – mind-map and fact-finding, while 51.7% of respondents enjoyed finding facts in the reading articles while 48.3% of students prefer developing a mind-map. Learners also stressed the importance of each tasks for them. Mind-map was rated useful as it is visual, lively, logical, and easy to understand the topic; and it promotes critical thinking among
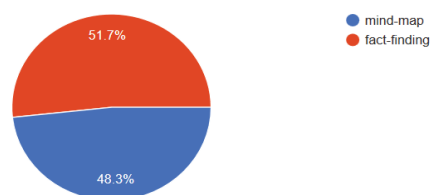
Figure 6. Students' response to the question "In terms of listing task, which task interests you?"

In terms of ordering tasks, only a minority of students (20.7%) have a positive attitude of sequencing task (see Figure 7). These students claim that this task helps students remember the timeline of events which occurred in ASEAN history; thus they can understand and remember well ASEAN's achievement and failure at a particular period of time. A majority of students (79.3%) of respondents emphasized the importance of this classifying task as a tool to deeply understand and well remember the lesson by realizing the different facets of ASEAN's achievements, and promote

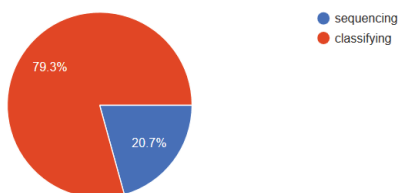her/his critical thinking as well as decisiveness (Figure 8).

Figure 7. Students' response to the question "In terms of ordering task, which task interests you?"

Figure 8. Students classifying the given information on ASEAN's achievement into three categories – political, economic, and socio-cultural achievements

The distribution of students' attitudes towards comparing tasks (including matching, and finding similarities and differences) can be found in Figure 9. It is presented that these two tasks were favored by students, with 37.9% of students chose matching, and 62.1% of respondents went for finding differences and similarities. The former is reported to be easier to fulfill than the latter because students can guess the answers. Besides, matching task enables them to realize the connection between main ideas and supporting ideas (e.g. events), so they can improve analysis skill when they approach a problem. For some students, matching makes learning atmosphere more exciting and learners become more active (Figures 10 & 11). With regards of finding similarities and differences, one of the students claimed that "In my opinion, I really like finding similarities and differences more. Because I have to read all carefully to find out

the similarities and differences so I can remember a lot of information and knowledge". Besides, students like this task because it helps them understand the nature of the problem by comparing and contrasting two issues; therefore, students find it easier to remember the main knowledge of related to the topic. Students are stimulated to explore the topic more after completing this task. An additional reason is that this task is quite challenging to students, so they have to read articles carefully to find the answer, so they can remember the related knowledge.
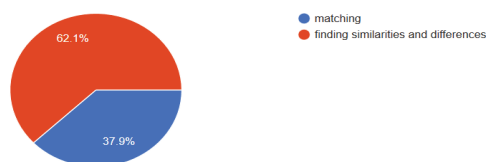

Figure 9. Students' response to the question "In terms of comparing task, which task interests you?"

Figures 10 & 11. Students working to match the viewpoints on the Permanent Court of Arbitrary (PCA)'s ruling on South China Sea with correct ASEAN member states

The component of problem solving tasks includes analyzing real or hypothetical situations, reasoning and decision making. In this survey, only analytical and decision-making tasks were adopted. As shown in Figure 12, a vast majority of students of 65.5% were fond of analyzing a real problem task while 34.5% enjoyed decision-making. In the former task, students are likely to utilize their critical thinking to pick up the details of the problem, so they tend to understand the issue deeper and remember the problem well. Learners are also interested in analyzing the problem as this task enables them to realize related issues surrounding the focal topic which they often ignore.
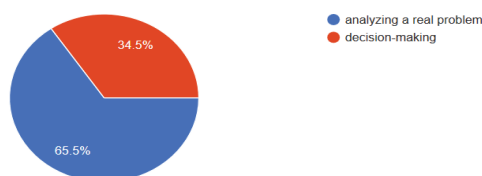
Figure 12. "In terms of problem solving task, which task interests you?"

Figures 13, 14, 15 & 16. Students taking the role of Representatives of ASEAN member states at ASEAN Summit

Besides, students felt motivated in this task as they are allowed to express their own ideas about the problem. One student mentioned that when she played the role of the Minister of an ASEAN state to join in ASEAN Summit, she had to put herself into the shoes of the leaders to make a decision, in this way, she could show her ability and knowledge in the field of economics, education, or security (Figures 13, 14, 15 & 16).

Concerning decision-making task, students claimed that they were motivated to think quickly to seek for optimal answer, so they became more decisive in their study. Some students find this task useful because it requires creativity from learners since they have to think seriously about the problem before making a decision on the possible solution, so this is the best way for them to have a closer look at the problem. For others, decision-making task was preferable because it provides them opportunities to express their own knowledge about the problem and show their abilities of problem-solving without a fear of making mistakes (Figure 12).

In the TBL framework, sharing personal experience task involves narrating, describing, exploring & explaining attitudes and expressing opinions and reactions. However, the task of sharing personal experience was not documented in this survey. This is a limitation in applying Willis's TBL framework into ASEAN Studies class. This can be explained by the fact that studying regional events in ASEAN is far from personal experiences. Therefore, teachers found it difficult to create a task to encourage students to share their personal experiences which should be related to the discussion topic such as refugee crisis, ASEAN relations with the superpowers, etc. in ASEAN class.

Figure 17 illustrates students' attitude towards personal experience sharing task in ASEAN Studies class. 72.4% students prefer explaining their attitude to describing their experience which was chosen by 27.6%. Those who were fond of the former believe that this task allows them to understand their feeling through the related activity, therefore, understand more the discussed problem. Besides, others felt excited to listen to their peers' sharing about their reflection about the same activity they joined in, especially when their reflections were creative and interesting. In this way, the problem became clearer to them and easier to understand. Apparently, giving explanation about their attitude and reaction in a class activity to understand a topic is more interesting to students than simply giving a description of their experience.
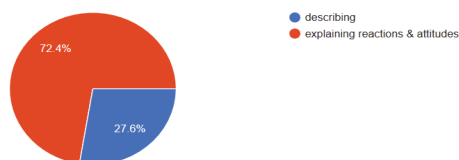
Figure 17. Students' reponse to the question "In terms of sharing personal experience task, which task interests you?"

Figure 18 illustrates learner's viewpoint on different tasks used in a creative task. It can be seen from students have a more favorable attitude towards problem-solving (55.2%) and brainstorming (44.8%) than comparing (31%) and fact-finding (24.1%). A majority of students agreed that being allowed to give their own solution and decision to a problem made them more creative, excited and engaging in the class. A large number of students prefer brainstorming tasks because it has no rules and students can gain independence to come up with their own answer in a comfortable learning atmosphere. They also felt motivated as brainstorming required them to think critically about the problem and deepen their understanding of the problem.
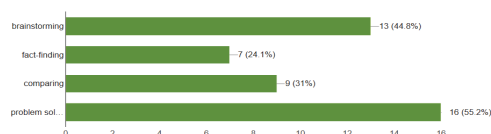

Figure 18. Students' response to the question "In terms of creative task, which task interests you? Check all that apply."

Figures 19 & 20. Students identifying state territories in ASEAN and presenting their culture to the class

6. Conclusion

The study provides students' evaluation of the TBL on students in learning a major subject like ASEAN Studies. The finding highlights that TBL is useful in increasing students' motivation and engagement in ASEAN Studies class. Among the factors that increase students' motivation which are mentioned in the Literature Review, except the factor of confidence, the three interpersonal elements (recognition, competition and cooperation) are more important than personal factors (fantasy, challenge, curiosity, and control). This point is important in a way that it encourages teachers to organize group work to solve different tasks in their class.

Among several skills that are suggested by Willis (1996), students in ASEAN Studies class are interested in particular skills which are reflected as below. The result might be useful to provide teachers with suggestions on suitable tasks to fit students' interest.

1. task of ordering – classifying –79.3% (Figure 7),
2. task of sharing personal experience – explain attitude and reaction – 72.4% (Figure 17)
3. task of problem-solving – analyzing a real situation – 65.5% (Figure 12),
4. task of comparing – finding the differences and similarities – 62.1% (Figure 9),
5. creative task – problem-solving – 55.2% (Figure 18),
6. task of listing - fact-finding – 51.7% (Figure 6).

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THÚC ĐẨY SỰ THAM GIA CỦA SINH VIÊN TRONG GIẢNG DẠY MÔN NGHIÊN CỨU ASEAN BẰNG PHƯƠNG PHÁP HỌC TẬP DỰA TRÊN NHIỆM VỤ

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Tóm tắt: Một trong những khó khăn mà đa phần các giảng viên đều phải đối mặt trong việc giảng dạy các môn chuyên ngành Quốc tế học là người học thường thụ động và lười tham gia vào bài học. Điều này không chỉ tác động tiêu cực đến kết quả học tập của sinh viên mà còn ảnh hưởng đến quá trình dạy học các môn chuyên ngành của giáo viên. Nghiên cứu này được thực hiện nhằm xem xét tính hiệu quả của phương pháp học tập dựa trên nhiệm vụ trong việc thúc đẩy động lực học tập bên trong cho sinh viên, từ đó họ sẽ tích cực tham gia vào bài giảng trong môn ASEAN học tại Khoa Quốc tế học, Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Huế. Dữ liệu được thu thập từ bảng hỏi để đánh giá nhận thức của người học về tác động của phương pháp dạy học này đến động lực học tập của họ. Nghiên cứu được tiến hành với 29 sinh viên năm thứ 4 tại Khoa Quốc tế học, Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Huế trong 15 tuần dạy học, từ 3/9/2016 đến 12/12/2016. Nghiên cứu chỉ ra rằng người học đã có thêm nhiều động lực để tham gia vào bài học khi giáo viên đưa ra các nhiệm vụ để sinh viên giải quyết. Dựa trên kết quả thu được từ thái độ của sinh viên đối với từng nhiệm vụ khác nhau trong các lớp học ASEAN học, bài nghiên cứu sẽ cung cấp nhiều gợi ý cho các giáo viên để có thể phát huy hơn nữa phương pháp này nhằm thúc đẩy động lực cho người học.

Từ khóa: phương pháp học tập dựa trên nhiệm vụ, nhiệm vụ, động lực, giảng dạy môn chuyên ngành Quốc tế học

APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE
"Increasing Motivation in ASEAN Studies Class"

Please check your response to the following statements. Write any additional comments in the notes section. This survey is anonymous. Please do not put your name on it.

1. How likely are teachers to provide class activities that are related to your interests?

☐Very likely   ☐Most likely   ☐Somewhat likely   ☐Not likely

2. How likely are you to engage in classroom activities when tasks are used?

☐More likely   ☐Less likely   ☐Makes no difference

3. Check the reasons that make you NOT bored with the ASEAN Studies class. Check all that apply.

☐ Students consider the task as a challenge and feel excited to overcome it

☐Students perceive the instruction is interesting and worthy of attention

☐Student feel the tasks/questions are do-able and they can fulfill it

☐Student feel excited about being in the various learning atmosphere

☐Students are motivated to join in a competition with other groups

☐Students communicate and collaborate with other team members to work for a common goal during activities

☐Student do not fear giving wrong answers in front of peers or expressing unpopular opinions.

☐Learners feel confident because they can show their capability in front of class

4. What task do you enjoy using in ASEAN Studies class? Check all that apply.

☐listing (mind-map, fact-finding)

☐ordering (sequencing, classifying)

☐comparing (matching, finding similarities and differences)

☐solving problem (analyzing a real problem, decision-making)

☐sharing stories (describing, explaining reactions & attitudes)

☐creative task (brainstorm, fact-finding, comparing, problem solving)

5a. In terms of listing task, which task do you prefer? Check all that apply.

☐ mind-map   ☐ fact-finding

5b. Why is this task is preferable to you?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………
……..……………………………………………..…………………………………………

6a. In terms of ordering task, which task do you prefer? Check all that apply.

☐ sequencing   ☐ classifying

6b. Why is this task is preferable to you?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………
……..…………………………………………………………………………………………

…

7a. In terms of comparing task, which task do you prefer? Check all that apply.

☐ matching   ☐ finding similarities and differences

7b. Why is this task is preferable to you?

……

…..………………………………………………………………………………………………………

8a. In terms of problem solving task, which task do you prefer? Check all that apply.

☐ analyzing a real problem   ☐ decision-making

8b. Why is this task is preferable to you?

……

…..………………………………………………………………………………………………………

9a. In terms of sharing personal experience task, which task do you prefer? Check all that apply.

☐ describing   ☐ explaining reactions & attitudes

9b. Why is this task is preferable to you?

……

…..………………………………………………………………………………………………………

10a. In terms of creative task, which task do you prefer? Check all that apply.

☐ brainstorming   ☐ fact-finding ☐ comparing   ☐ problem solving

10b. Why is this task is preferable to you?

……

…..………………………………………………………………………………………………………

Thanks for your responses to this questionnaire!

APPENDIX B

A Task-Based Lesson in ASEAN Studies Course

Topic: Achievement of ASEAN

Level: 4-year university student   Time: 90 minutes

Objectives: By the end of the class, students can grasp a good understanding of ASEAN's achievement in all areas in the last 40 years since its establishment.

Preparation: cue cards of significant events in ASEAN

Stages	Aim	Procedure	Interaction
Pre-task	Ss are introduced to the context before ASEAN was established (Activity 1)	Ss join the buffalo-farmer game.	Individual
		T gives Ss questions to brainstorm the connection between the game and relations in Southeast Asia region then.	
		Ss give individual reflective answer about	
		Ss give individual reflective answer on the relation between the buffalo and farmer; and make a connection to the relations among regional states then.	

Task Cycle Task 1	Ss classify the given events	Ss read the article before class and categorizing the ASEAN significant events into corresponding dimension of cooperation	Group
Planning	Ss match events with corresponding dimension.	Ss discuss and put each event into its correct category of dimension of cooperation in ASEAN. T may facilitate the discussion process.	Group
Report	Ss tell the answer to the class	Ss report to class. Other Ss listen and note the differences from their own group's answer. T provides feedbacks.	Whole Class
Task 2	Ss give a presentation	Ss give a presentation on the significance of the events on ASEAN cooperation.	Group
Planning	Ss find facts in the reading articles to support main idea	Ss give a presentation on the significance of the events on ASEAN cooperation.	Group
Report	Ss present in front of class	Ss give presentation on the significance of the events to ASEAN and why the dimension of cooperation is indicative of ASEAN's achievement. T provides feedbacks.	Whole class
Language Focus Analysis1	Ss analyze words to describe events (declaration, etc.)	Ss choose key events and related words. T may give feedback.	Group
Analysis 2	Ss analyze words to describe area of cooperation	Ss may develop synonyms to express the idea on the contribution of ASEAN to the field. T may give feedback.	Group
Practice 1	Ss practice writing skills	Using the synonyms, Ss develop a topic sentence on the contribution of ASEAN to a particular area to replace the model sentence that T gave them in the Activity 1.	Group

SOME SUGGESTIONS ON HOW TO IDENTIFY AND CLASSIFY BEHAVIORAL PROCESSES IN ENGLISH AND VIETNAMESE

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Abstract: Unlike material processes which possess rather distinctive features both semantically and lexicogrammatically, behavioral processes do not possess features that characterize themselves as a distinctive grammatical category. Due to their semantic ambiguity, they often cause a lot of troubles for identification and classification. Great efforts have been made to shed light on this matter in both English and Vietnamese (Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Eggins, 1994; Martin et. al., 1997; Hoang Van Van, 2012), but there still remain problems that need more clarification. In this paper, we will make an attempt to explore in some depth the causes of the troubles and offer some suggestions on how those troubles should be shot. The data for study is 200 behavioural clauses in English and Vietnamese collected from short stories and novels. The analysis is based on Halliday (1994)'s systemic functional grammar framework. The study suggests that in order to be able to identify and classify appropriately a behavioral process (verb), it must be placed in relation to other components of the clause, and both semantic (meaning) and lexicogrammatical (structure) criteria should be taken into consideration.

Keywords: functional grammar, troubleshooting, behavioral clause

1. Introduction

Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) state that "The transitivity system construes the world of experience into a manageable set of PROCESS TYPES. Each process type provides its own model or schema for construing a particular domain of experiment as a figure of particular kind". Functional grammar theory categorizes experience in terms of process types which are realized by verbal groups. Particularly, this structure is fundamentally determined by the constraints imposed by the main lexical verb, and it is this element that is primarily analyzed in order to identify a particular process. In addition, the method of analyzing clauses for their process type relies on two criteria: semantic and syntactic. The semantic and syntactic criteria that distinguish between processes are detailed in Halliday's work (1994). Nevertheless, there is a conflict in employing these two criteria to analyze and categorize behavioral clauses. Halliday (1994) points out: "Behavioral processes are the least distinct of all the six process types because

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they have no clearly defined characteristics of their own; rather, they are partly like the material and partly like the mental". In this paper, we address and interpret the source of troubleshooting in analyzing and categorizing these ambiguous behavioral clauses in English and Vietnamese. We suppose here that the problems face the analyst may be due to the conflict between the semantic and syntactic streams of information. We examine carefully selected data in order to figure out why the problem occurs when analyzing and categorizing these ambiguous behavioral clauses in English and Vietnamese. Furthermore, we discuss whether semantic criteria will always be the favored interpretation over syntactic structure. It is hoped that these findings will help understand more why indeterminacy occurs as well as set a more standard form of behavioral clauses analysis.

1.1. Theoretical background

According to Halliday (1994: xiv) "A Functional Grammar is one that construes all the units of a language-its clauses, phrases and so-on as organic configurations of functions." Thus, his aim is to develop a grammar system as instrument for people's communication, for social purposes. Halliday states that there are three types of meaning within grammatical structures namely: Experiential meaning, Interpersonal meaning and Textual meaning. Among them, experiential meaning has to do with the ways language represents our experience of the world and the inner world of our thoughts and feelings. In other words, we have turned our experience of actions, happenings, feelings, beliefs, situations, states, behaviors and so on, into meaning and into wording. It construes the world into a manageable set of Process types and of Participants. Process refers to a semantic verb (doing, happening, feeling,

sensing, saying, behaving, and existing) and anything that it expresses like event, relation, physical, mental or emotional state when sorted in the semantic system of the clause is classified into material, relational, mental, verbal, behavioral, and existential processes and Participants are labeled such as Actor, Goal; Senser, Phenomenon; Carrier, Behaver and so on.

1.2. Some previous studies

Many researchers are keen on analyzing functional grammar and the transitivity system in literary discourses. Martin et al. (1997) offer a wide range of grammatical analyses provided by Halliday. It helps students to understand Halliday's ideas and to apply them in the analysis of English texts. Bloor and Bloor (1995) present a short account to the analysis of English for those starting out with functional grammar. Bloor and Bloor introduce this particular model to the readers to analyze real samples of English. Eggins (1994) introduces the principles and techniques of the functional approach to language in order that readers may begin to analyze and explain how meanings are made in everyday linguistic interactions.

O'Donnell et al. (2009) conducted an online survey where they asked practitioners to select the process type of 32 clauses, most of the instances offering some difficulties. They explore three kinds of clines, namely *Behavioral-verbal* cline, *Behavioral-mental* cline, *Behavioral-*material cline. There is a gradual shift of coding from behavioral to the other category. Besides, they point out the confusion deriving from the choices of conceptual or syntactic criteria. The root of different choices among coders is the path they follow in analyzing behavioral clauses. One is based on conceptual criteria

and the other relies on syntactic criteria.

Gwilliams and Fontaine (2015) devote their effort to finding out some indeterminacy in process type classification. They conduct a survey on experienced SFL users for their classification of 20 clauses. They find out that there is inconsistency of analysis and the main area of disagreement between analysts was the selection of Material vs. Verbal processes.

Hoang Van Van (2012) adopts Halliday's functional grammar's framework to describe the experiential grammar of the Vietnamese clause. He recognized six process types in Vietnamese: material, behavioural, mental, verbal, relational, and existential. And in his description of behavioral clauses in Vietnamese, Hoang Van Van (Ibid.) notes some troubles (indeterminacy) that need to be shot. He suggests classifying ambiguous behavioural clauses in Vietnamese into para-material (clauses that lie on the borderline between material and behavioural processes), para-verbal (clauses that lie on the borderline between behavioural and verbal processes), and para-mental (clauses that lie on the borderline between behavioural and mental processes). Although Hoang Van Van does not go into detail to show how the troubles should be shot, his description, however, has thrown some light on how solving the problem of ambiguity, providing some basis for making a comparison between behavioural clauses in English and Vietnamese using systemic functional grammar as the theoretical framework.

2. Method

2.1. Data collection

200 behavioral clauses in 16 short stories and novels in English and Vietnamese in the 19th and 20th centuries are collected. These clauses are considered behavioral clauses based on Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), Martin et al. (1997), Bloor and Bloor (1995), Eggins (1994) and Hoang Van Van (2012). The selection of behavioral clauses starts with behavioral process type. We make a decision to carry out the research in stories and novels but not in other genres since stories and novels reflect the reality through different lens of writers and behavioral processes are commonly used in narrative texts. Therefore, they are rich in examples of behavioral clauses and we can explore more problematic cases of behavioral clauses via verbal channel.

2.2. Data analysis

A language is a complex system composed of multiple levels. In this paper, the collected data are examined at simple clause level in the light of functional grammar elaborated by Halliday (1994) since functional analysis is concerned with the aspect of grammar which confines to clauses, examples of the whole texts don't seem necessary. In addition, this study follows functional-structural approach and employs processes (verbs) as the core of the clauses and whenever there is a conflict in analyzing and categorizing process types due to the confusion of semantic and syntactic choice, we are in favor of semantic. It is obvious that "*function*" is what language is doing for the speaker and *'Structure''* is how language is organized by the speaker and formed by the language and it is impossible to have one without the other. However, in light of functional grammar, we give priority to function or meaning. After identifying and collecting all the clauses, we analyze and categorize these clauses in English and Vietnamese in terms of unambiguous and

ambiguous cases. Then we interpret the similar and distinctive characteristics of unambiguous and ambiguous cases in terms of the sources of troubleshooting in English and Vietnamese and offer some solutions to the ambiguous cases.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Unambiguous cases

According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), Behavioral processes are processes of psychological and physiological process, like *breathing, coughing, smiling, dreaming, chatting, watching, etc*. This helps us sort out verbs that can be labeled as behavioral processes.

Consider the following two clauses:

(1) The five miners **sighed**, **bowed**, and, **trembling** with the struggle.   [6]

(2) She **sobbed** violently on his shoulder, whilst he held her still, waiting.   [5]

These two clauses belong to Behavioral processes that they both describe human's behaviors. In addition, each clause has *a Behaver* which performs or does an action.

There are also two sub-types of behavioral process in Vietnamese namely psychological and physiological behavioral Processes.

Psychological behavioral processes

Let us consider further examples of psychological behavioral process in Vietnamese:

(3) Chí Phèo bỗng nằm dài không nhúc nhích **rên** khe khẽ như gần chết. [9]

(4) Lão ngẩn mặt ra một chút, rồi bỗng nhiên **thở dài**.   [8]

(5) Cụ bá **cười nhạt**.   [9]

In examples (3), (4), (5), the behavioral clauses are constructed employing the behavioral processes in the form of "intransitive verbs" "rên" ("moan"), "thở dài" ("sigh") and "cười nhạt" ("sneer"). In particular, "rên" ("moan"), "thở dài" ("sigh")

and "cười nhạt" ("sneer") are the most common psychological signals of man.

Physiological behavioral processes

(6)

Mồm hắn	*ngáp ngáp*
Behaver	Process: Physiological behavioral

[9]

(7)

Hắn	bỗng nhiên	*rùng mình.*
Behaver	Circ: Manner	Process: Physiological-behavioral

[9]

The verb "*ngáp ngáp*" and "*rùng mình*" in (6) and (7) are clearly labeled as physiological behavioral processes when we consider the semantic features of the processes *"ngáp ngáp"* and "*rùng mình*" themselves. Their subjects *"Mồm hắn"* and "Hắn" would be portrayed as Behaver. A number of physiological behavioral processes are found in our selected data; for examples:

(8) Thỉnh thoảng y lại **hít** mạnh vào một cái và đưa tay lên quệt mép.   [8]

(9) Lão **nuốt** nước dãi, **rít** đến "sịt" một cái qua những kẽ răng thưa, hơi **há** mồm ra, khoe những chiếc răng khểnh, như suốt đời chưa bao giờ ăn cả.   [8]

The above discussed behavioral clauses don't lie on the borderline between material, mental and verbal. So they have clearly defined characteristics of their own. We don't have difficulties analyzing them and therefore, they are considered as umambiguous or distinctive cases.

3.2. Ambiguous cases

Webster (2014: 4) offers a useful discussion of indeterminacy in language and how SFL has developed to deal with it. As he explains, "very different perspective

is reflected in descriptions of language as a social-semiotic system, which focus on its role in defining human experience, and enacting the social relations essential to our shared sense of humanity". This perspective allows us to accept "irregularity and asymmetry in language" as inherent to the language system. In this paper, we are interested in the causes of troubleshooting in analyzing behavioral processes. Fawcett (2010) states that one source of difficulties stems from the ambiguous verbs. When verbs have an ambiguous form and can be analyzed by a number of different processes depending upon the textual environment. For example, the verb *got* can realize (1) a Relational process by assigning an attribute: *Ivy got worried,* or a possession *Ivy got a new climbing rope*; (2) Material as in the directional *Ivy got to the shop in time* or the influential *Ivy got him to eat it*. Interestingly, in examining and analyzing selected behavioral clauses, we also find out the inconsistency arising from process itself in different context. An interpretation for shooting the troubles in analyzing behavioral clauses will be discussed at process and clause level.

3.2.1. At process level

A simple clause may have either one or more than one lexical verb. In this part, we just focus on the challenges in analyzing single verb clauses. The difficulty in analyzing these clauses is that it will sometimes be unclear what functions are being represented by the speaker. Although some verbs are easier to identify and label, there are some ambiguous ones to analyze and classify due to their wide semantic distribution. In other words, the issue is that a single verb may meet the criteria of more than one category. Let us consider the following examples.

It is obvious that they are single lexical

(9)

Her hands	trembled	slightly at her work
Behaver	*Process: behavioral*	*Circumstance: manner*

[1]

(10)

Daisy and Gatsby	Danced
Behaver	*Process: Material-behavioral*

[3]

verb clauses but the verb "tremble" in (9) is clearly labeled as behavioral process while the verb *danced* in (10) is unclearly identified as it is on the borderline of material processes and behavioral processes. This kind of verb can be labeled as *Material-behavioral processes* (cf. Hoang Van Van (2012)'s notion of para-material process). This is where we encounter our first troubleshooting in working out with the specific process type.

We also find a conscious difficulty in analyzing and classifying the following example.

(11) Colonel Dent and Mr. Eshton *argue* on politics.   [1]

When we just consider the semantic features of the process *"argue"* itself. It belongs to Verbal processes. Its subject *"Colonel Dent and Mr. Eshton"* would be assigned the role of Sayer and the adjunct "on politics" would be labeled as Verbiage. Seen from the point of view of semantics, however, it seems to be a misinterpretation. It is suggested that "argue" be *Verbal – behavioral* processes, and accordingly *"Colonel Dent and Mr. Eshton"* be Behaver (cf. Hoang Van Van (2012)'s notion of para-verbal process). So with this view, it is safe to say that *Verbal – behavioral* processes share the characteristics of verbal and behavioral processes, they also represent process of *saying, telling, and stating*. It should be analyzed as follows.

Colonel Dent and Mr. Eshton	argue	on politics
Behaver	*Process: Verbal-behavioral*	*Participant (Verbiage)*

It is very difficult for us to find out the clear border between behavioral processes and mental processes because there are complexities that we have not explored yet. We focus on discussing some differences between them in this part. Halliday (1994), Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) note that one significant difference between them is in their unmarked present tense. In mental processes, the unmarked present tense is the simple present but in behavioral processes, the unmarked present tense is the present continuous. Last but not least, semantically mental processes encode meanings of thinking and feeling while behavioral processes are processes of behaving or performing an action. The blending *Mental-behavioral* processes inherit some characteristics of these two processes, as in the following examples:

(12)

She	laughed	with thrilling scorn
Behaver	*Process: mental – behavioral*	*Circumstance*

[3]

In Vietnamese, we also encounter the same troubles that should be shot in analyzing and classifying Vietnamese behavioral clauses as in the following examples.

(13)

Xuân	*nhồm nhoàm*	*nhai*	*mía*
Xuan	smearing	chew	sugar cane
Behaver	*Circumstance: Manner*	*Process: Material-behavioral*	*Participant*

'Xuan noisily chews sugar cane'   [14]

(14)

Hắn	*chửi*	*ngay tất cả làng Vũ Đại*	
He	insult	all village Vu Dai	
Behaver	*Process: Verbal – behavioral*	*Participant (Receiver)*	

'He insults all people in Vu Dai village'   [9]

The three subtypes of behavioral processes, namely *Material-behavioral, Verbal – behavioral* and *Mental – behavioral* processes, are carefully analyzed above. These three subtypes are also found in Vietnamese. The next section covers the main issues of troubleshooting in analyzing Behavioral clauses at clause level in English. At this level, we take the semantics of clause as central to our analysis and categorization.

3.2.2. At clause level

3.2.2.1. A clause with "dumb" processs

Relational or behavioral clauses

In this section, these processes are called "dumb" since the meanings of these processes don't make any contributions to the meaning of the clause. In other words, they are significant at syntactical ground but useless at semantic ground. The meaning of the whole clause can be understood with these processes and they become "dumb" in meanings. Each of the selected clauses in this paper has trouble in analyzing owing to the

disagreement between syntactic and semantic choice. That causes indeterminacy in clause analysis based on experiential meaning. Let us consider the following examples.

(15a) She was still sort of crying.   [7]

(15b) She was crying a bit.

It is clear that participants, a significant aspect of transitivity, are the same entity but they are different in analyzing based on experiential meaning. "She" in (15a) is labeled as *'Carrier'* while "She" in (15b) is labeled as *'Behaver'*. Besides, the nature of the process types is completely different. In comparing the Relational clause (15a) and the Behavioral clause (15b) above, a number of distinctions can be found, that is, they are built on distinctive syntactic grounds despite their similarity in meaning. In addition, while they are both clause types construing human behavior *'crying'*, they have different participants and processes. Relational clause (15a) and Behavioral clause (15b) can be analyzed as follows.

behavioral clauses? And do we base semantic or syntactic criteria? It is obvious that (15a) is a kind of relational clause if we base ourselves on syntactic grounds (structural approach) but it is behavioral one if we analyze it based on semantic ground (functional approach). This example is a typical case of distinction that can be made upon syntactic differences with clause structure. As far as we know, structure of language is significant and in many cases, it is impossible to separate function from structure. As we stated above, we follow functional-structural approach in favor of the idea that meaning base is the most important. In this light of view, relational clause (15a) is considered as behavioral clause in my study.

In Vietnamese, these cases are not found in our selected data. We haven't seen any ambiguity between Relational and Behavioral interpretation of the clause but we find the evidence to show that there

(15a)

She	was	still sort of crying
Carrier	Process: Relational/Attributive	Attribute

(15b)

She	was crying	a bit
Behaver	Process: Behavioral	Circumstance: Manner

Relational clause (15a) includes a *"Carrier"* expressed by a pronoun *'She'* and an *'Attribute'* expressed by a nominal group *"sort of crying"*. In contrast, Behavioral clause (15b) has only one participant and its behavioral process in which "She" is not labeled as *'Carrier"* but *'Behaver'* and *'crying'* play their function as a process. It is questionable what causes the inconsistency in analyzing and categorizing

are many ambiguous clauses that lie on the border line of Material and Behavioral. This issue will be discussed in the next section.

Material or behavioral clauses

Let us consider the following example pairs

(16a) I gave him this very cold stare.   [8]

(16b) I stared at him coldly.

(17a) He gave me a stare of newly-awakened surprise.   [2]

(17b) He stared at me surprisingly.

Here at syntactic ground, the grammar in (16a) is completely different from (16b) particularly the choices of process realized in each sentence but at the semantic level, sentence (16a) is synonymous with (16b). It is clear that the semantics of the verb "gave" is not the problem and it commonly subsumes material processes. The difficulty here is due to the combination of the participant. Conceptually, semantic space of "gave"' covers material processes (i.e. I gave him my notebook) but at the level of semantics of clause we have to determine whether (16a) and (17a) are material or behavioral processes. In these cases, with the view of semantics of clause, considering clauses as making and exchanging messages, it is suggested that (16a) and (17a) be Behavioral processes.

Traditionally, transitivity is a concept that is associated with the verb. Halliday (1994) does base his view of transitivity on verbs but he extends it beyond to include the participants. In developing his theory of Functional grammar, Halliday (1994) broadened the traditional notion of transitivity to shift the focus away from entirely being marked on the verb. For Halliday (1994), transitivity is instead a notion to be applied to the whole clause and I do agree with him about this point. Once again whenever troubleshooting arises due to the various identification of one process type, the analyst is forced to make a decision to favor either the formal grammatical or semantic interpretation; for example,

(18) Then a slow, sly grin *came over* his face.   [4]

(19) A strange sort of grin *went over* Gerald's face, over the horror.   [5]

(20) A quivering little shudder, re-echoing from her sobbing, *went down* her limbs.   [4]

(21) She got into bed and *lay shuddering* with cold.   [4]

Halliday (1994) notes that verbs such as "go" and "go over" might be classed as Material processes and "A grin" or "A quivering little shudder" are both labeled as Actor. Material processes construe figures of "doing and happening". They express the notion that some entity "does" something. So we try to ask about such processes in this way: what did a grin do? Or what did a quivering little shudder do? The answers seem nonsense. For this reason, they are not Material. In our structural –functional approach view, these above examples are prototypical behavioral clauses.

Likewise, some Vietnamese clauses are either material or behavioral in terms of grammatical or semantic categories. For example,

(22) Chị Tiên **nở một nụ cười** *trên môi* thắm.   [12]
    Ms. Tien bloom a   smile   on lips   vermilion.
    'Ms. Tien smiles a smile on her vermilion lips.'

(23) Chúng tôi nhắm mắt, nhắm mũi lại **lăn ra cười.**   [13]
    We   close eyes close nose again roll out   laugh
    'we laugh out loud'

Actually, the verb "nở" itself is the common verb in material process, but in the expression "*nở nụ cười*", *it contains the meaning of behavior "smile" and it should be analyzed as a behavioral process. Here are some more examples.

(24) Cặp vợ chồng Văn Minh **đưa mắt nhìn** nhau rất chán nản. [14]
    The couple   Van Minh   give eyes look each other   very   depressing
    'Van Minh couple looks at each other depressingly'

(25) *Văn Minh* **đưa mắt nhìn** *Xuân Tóc Đỏ*.   [14]
    Van Minh   give eyes look Xuan Toc Do
    'Van Minh looks at Xuan Toc Do'

Below is an example of process "smile" which is nominalized and labeled as a behavior in Vietnamese.

(26) *Nụ cười* đong đưa, tung tẩy trên khóe mắt. [10]

    Smile swing toss freely on corner eyes

    'An attractive smile comes over the corner of her eyes'

At process level, this is understandable that the verb "đong đưa" is a prototypical one for material processes and we interpret (26) as a material clause. There is however one potential problem in this example which needs to be addressed, that is, "*Nụ cười*" (smile) is nominalized and labeled as an actor while "*Nụ cười*" is non-human doer. It cannot do this kind of action "*đong đưa*". When we take the priority of semantic clause it should be treated as behavioral clause.

Consider the following example

(27) Xuân *rơm rớm* nước mắt [14]

    Xuan moist-REDUP tears

    'Xuan's eyes are *moist with tears*'

"Rơm rớm" is a case of reduplication (REDUP) of "*rớm*" in Vietnamese. It is quite reasonable to describe "rơm rớm" in (27) as a "doing-word" since it means fluid discharges or leak slowly. It subsumes material processes at its process level. But we cannot focus exclusively on the meaning of verb itself and leave out meaning of the whole structure of the clause where it appears. In this case "rơm rớm nước mắt" (moist with tears) should be analyzed as Behavioral at the semantic level of the clause.

Indeed, as discussed above. Whenever there is indeterminacy in analyzing and classifying Behavioral clauses due to the conflict of semantic of process and clause, we do give priority to semantic clause and put it in the central place in this study.

3.2.2.2. Clauses with two processes

Processes are the core of the clause from the experiential perspective. The process is typically realized by a verb group in the clause. Generally, there is only one lexical verb in a simple clause but in many cases, more than one lexical verb can be found in a simple clause in our selected data as in:

(28) All of a sudden I ***started to cry***. [7]

(29) She ***began to cry*** again. [4]

"Started to cry" and "began to cry" in the above examples contain two separate lexical verbs. And there is often an argument about the choice of these two verbs to classify which category the clauses seem to fall into. To shoot this trouble, we follow Halliday (1994) and Martin et al. (1997), seeing these verbal group complexes as single process and treating "the second verbal group as the relevant one for process type". Therefore, "started to cry" and "began to cry" are Behavioral processes.

In Vietnamese, some similar cases are found in our selected data.

Chân tay bà đã ***bắt đầu run rẩy***. [15]

*Họ **bắt đầu kể lể** những tốn kém đã đem đến cho gia đình Hận.* [14]

Unlike the above kind of verb group, in the data of this study, we face with some clause complexes where there are two clauses and two separated processes accordingly as show in

(30) ||| He paused; // gazed at me ||| [1]

(31) ||| She narrowed her eyes // and shivered ||| [3]

(32) ||| She lifted her head // and sighed ||| [4]

Before we analyze further, here's a little intrusion on the analytical convention to be used for clause complexes. It is essential that clause complexes be indicated differently from ranking clauses. Ranking clauses are marked off by || … ||. A clause complex, on the other hand, is marked off this way: |||...|||. We will use this convention

throughout this study. How do we analyze and classify these clauses. According to Martin et al. (1997), these clauses should be treated as clause complexes in which one participant is omitted. In the words, the elliptical participant is unavailable as analyzed below.

nature of participants will thus vary according to the process type. The others two "Behavers" are omitted. In this case our suggested interpretation is that (33) should be treated as clause complexes with three processes.

(32) ||| Các chị **phải núp** khuôn mặt hình trái xoan dưới nhánh cỏ, //chỉ dám **đưa mắt**

He	paused;	gazed	at me
Actor	*Process: Material*	*Process: Behavioral*	*Circumstance*

She	narrowed	her eyes	and shivered
Actor	*Process: Material*	*Goal*	*Process: Behavioral*

She	lifted	her head	and sighed
Actor	*Process: Material*	*Goal*	*Process: Behavioral*

There is an ellipsis of the "Behaver" in the above examples. These three examples are cases of clause complexes with the absence of the participants. They include two processes: Material and Behavioral. This view is also supported by Martin et al. (1997).

Every clause of Vietnamese includes the "does what" elements. These are realized by verbal groups representing different types of processes: doings, happenings, feelings, behavings and beings. For example,

(33) ||| Điệp và Xuân lại **giật mình**// **nhìn nhau** và // **dò xem**// Lan muốn gì. ||| [11]

Diep and Xuan again startle look each other and observLan want what

'Diep and Xuan startled again, looked at each other and tried to find out what Lan wants.'

(34) ||| Cứ mỗi khi Lan **cựa,** //hoặc **rên**||| [11]

Whenever Lan stir or sigh.

'Whenever Lan stirred or sighed'

In example (33) there are three lexical verb groups *"giật mình"* (startle) *"nhìn"* (look at) and *"dò xem"* (find out) labeled as Behavioral processes but there is only one "Behaver" *"Điệp và Xuân"*. Most typically a process goes with its own type of participant and the

lên nhìn trộm ||| [13]

Sisters have to hide face oval under branch grass only dare give eyes up peep

'They have to hide their oval faces under grass, only dare to peep'

(33) |||cô **e lệ** //**nép** vào bên //**nhường lối** cho tôi //hay **nở** một *nụ cười trên* đôi *môi* thắm|| [12]

She shy nestle cede way for me or bloom a smile over lips vermilion

'She is shy and nestles to make way for me or smiles a smile on her vermilion lips.'

We did not assess whether our group was made of consistently semantic interpreters and syntactic interpreters; however, this result does support a split between the two approaches to clausal analysis

3.2.2.3. Clause complexing and circumstantial transitivity in behavioral clauses

The last case of difficulty to be considered is the patterns of agnation between circumstance types in clause and the logico-semantic types of relation in the clause complex. Halliday (1994) states that "the patterns of agnation involving the process type typically involve grammatical metaphor". For example, the Circumstance of Means in the clause:

(34a) He looks at me **with a smile.**

(34a) is agnate with an elliptical clause link to *she looks at me* in a clause complex:

(34b) ||| He looks //and ***smiles at me***. |||

The phrase "with a smile" is labeled as Circumstance with the domain of a clause whilst the elliptical clause "smiles at me" expands the clause, building up a clause complex. At semantic clause level they are synonymous but they are distinctive in terms of syntactical layer. The circumstantial prepositional phrase "with a smile" and the elliptical clause "smiles at me" are fairly synonymous but only the latter has the grammatical potential of a clause to open up a clause complex. In this study, we consider (34b) as a clause complex with Behavioral process "smiles" and an elliptical Behaver. There are many examples of circumstances serving within the domain of the clause with suggested agnate clauses within the domain of the clause complex.

(35) He looked round, half furtively, ***with a sort of cunning grin***.   [4]

(36) His mouth opened ***with a strange, ecstatic grin***.   [4]

Let's compare these above examples with this clause "she cuts this tree with an axe". Here "with an axe" is labeled as Circumstance of Manner-Means. But is this a case of "with a sort of cunning grin" in (35)? Halliday (1994) states that there are five sources of difficulty in identifying circumstance elements, that is, *(i) prepositional phrase as participant*; *(ii) preposition attached to verb; (iii) preposition phrase (as Qualifier) inside nominal group; (iv) preposition phrase as Modal or Conjunctive Adjunct and (v) abstract and metaphorical expressions of circumstance*. "With a sort of cunning grin" is a case of (i) causing indeterminacy in analyzing and labeling it. In this study, our suggestion is that these examples be treated as clause complexes with two processes.

In comparison with Vietnamese, there are no cases of agnation in our collected data since no prepositional phrases functioned as Circumstance with the domain of simple clause are found.

3.3. Interpretation of similarities and differences in terms of the sources of troubles in English and Vietnamese

The analysis of collected data revealed some similarities and distinctive differences between English and Vietnamese behavioral clauses as illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1. Similarities and differences in terms of the sources of troubleshooting
in English and Vietnamese

				English	*Vietnamese*
Unambiguous cases		*Behavioral processes*		+	+
Ambiguous cases	*At process (verb) Level*	*Material-behavioral processes*		+	+
		Verbal- behavioral processes		+	+
		Mental-behavioral processes		+	+
	At clause level	Clauses "Dumb" process	Relational or Behavioral	+	−
			Material or Behavioral	+	+
		Clauses with two processes	Verbal group complexes	+	+
			Clause complexes	+	+
		Clauses with circumstantial transitivity		+	−

Behavioral clauses with behavioral processes are clearly recognized and interpreted in English and Vietnamese. In addition, through our contrastive analysis of the sources of troubleshooting in classifying and labeling behavioral clauses in English and Vietnamese, at clause level both languages share the same common features. On the borderline between processes, *Material-behavioral, Verbal-behavioral Mental-behavioral* processes are found in both English and Vietnamese.

However, at clause level, there are some common and distinctive features in English and Vietnamese. Firstly, the problem arises at this level when the type of process and clause conflicts. To settle this conflict, we are in favor of semantic treatment. In other words, as the conflict between the process type and clause type occurs, we suggest making a decision to favor semantic clause interpretation. This helps analysts have firm framework and evidence to determine the clause type and function. In this study, we have trouble interpreting *Relational* or *Behavioral* and *Material* or *Behavioral* in English. But *Relational* or *Behavioral* clause confusion is not available in Vietnamese. Secondly, clauses with one participant and more than one lexical verb are found in English and Vietnamese. At sub-type level, verbal group complexes and clause complexes are present in both English and Vietnamese. Finally, clauses with circumstantial transitivity occur most frequently in the English data but it are not found in the Vietnamese data. It can be inferred from this that Vietnamese writers tend to use clause complexes rather than prepositional phrases functioning as Circumstance with the domain of simple clause.

4. Conclusion

We aim at investigating shooting the troubles in analyzing and classifying behavioral clauses. In doing so, we provide explanation of sources of indeterminacy to address the problem in the light of structural-functional approach. In analysing 200 behavioural clauses from 16 English and Vietnamese novels and short stories, we find out the two situations that appear to contribute

to the problem of analysis and category. First, at process level, interpreting behavioral clauses with behavioral processes does not present any problem in analyzing and labeling unambiguous behavioral clauses. However, interpreting verbs fitting more than one category of a process and on the borderline between processes is very challenging. The three subtypes of behavioral processes, namely *Material-behavioral, Verbal-behavioral* and *Mental-behavioral* processes are found. Second, our main discussion is about the situations where the semantic and syntactic interpretation of the behavioral clauses is in conflict and the options are split on which two processes should be selected. This case is overwhelmingly driven by ambiguity of "dumb" process especially between material and behavioral clauses both in English and Vietnamese. In this study, when the semantic and syntactic conflict occurs, we tend to take semantic as priority of semantic since we are under the light of functional grammar regarding language as "a resource for making meaning" and as a vehicle for communication between people in social and cultural contexts. Finally, a contrastive analysis of the sources of troubles for shooting, classifying and labeling behavioral clauses in English and Vietnamese is carried out. These findings suggest that when we analyze and classify the clauses, we should not focus on the process itself as an island of information, but rather put it on the broader scale – the clause.

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MỘT SỐ GIẢI PHÁP CHO VIỆC XÁC ĐỊNH VÀ PHÂN LOẠI CÁC QUÁ TRÌNH HÀNH VI TRONG TIẾNG ANH VÀ TIẾNG VIỆT

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Tóm tắt: Không giống các quá trình vật chất có các đặc điểm khu biệt ở cả hai bình diện ngữ nghĩa là ngữ pháp - từ vựng, các quá trình hành vi không có các đặc điểm đặc trưng như một phạm trù ngữ pháp khu biệt. Do sự mơ hồ về ngữ nghĩa nên chúng thường gây ra rất nhiều khó khăn cho việc xác định và phân loại. Đã có nhiều cố gắng nhằm làm sáng tỏ vấn đề này trong cả tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt (ví dụ, Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Eggins, 1994, Martin và cộng sự, 1997; Hoàng Văn Vân, 2012), nhưng vẫn còn tồn tại một số vấn đề cần phải làm rõ hơn. Trong bài báo này, chúng tôi sẽ cố gắng nghiên cứu sâu các nguyên nhân của những khó khăn này và sẽ đề xuất một số gợi ý để xử lí những khó khăn đó. Dữ liệu nghiên cứu là 200 cú hành vi trong tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt được thu thập từ các truyện ngắn và tiểu thuyết. Trên cơ sở khung lí thuyết ngữ pháp chức năng của Halliday (1994), nghiên cứu cho thấy rằng để có thể xác định và phân loại một cách thoả đáng một quá trình (động từ) hành vi, cần thiết phải đặt nó trong mối quan hệ với các thành phần khác trong cú và cả hai tiêu chí ngữ nghĩa (ý nghĩa) và ngữ pháp - từ vựng (cấu trúc) đều phải được xem xét.

Từ khóa: ngữ pháp chức năng, chức năng ngữ pháp, cú hành vi

VIETNAM - FRANCE HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEMS AND UNIVERSITY - UNIVERSITY COOPERATION IN JOINT TRAINING PROGRAMS

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Abstract: France is said to be the nation which brought the modern higher education to Vietnam with the establishment of the University of Indochina in 1906, the first modern university in Vietnam. France is also the country which trained the first professors and managers in the first half of the 20th century. The cooperation between the two countries chiefly that in joint training programs has continuously developed despite all ups and downs in the relation of the two countries. This paper, therefore, looks at these two systems respectively. On the basis of their respective characteristics, challenges and achievements, it points out some similarities and differences between them and some influences that the French higher education (HE) may have on the Vietnamese HE system as well as the role played by joint training programs in Vietnamese - French university- university cooperation.

Keywords: current situation, higher education system, cooperation, joint training programs, French University Center (PUF)

1. Introduction

The trend of internationalization has become stronger and stronger in the Vietnamese higher education in which more prominent are international joint training programs, the establishment of foreign satellite campuses or foreign universities in Vietnam. Thanks to their supremacy in producing highly qualified human resources, training technology transfer, international joint training programs have quickly developed and attracted the consideration from the government as well as common people. One of Vietnam's big partners of international joint training programs is France. Over the last years, a number of Vietnam - France joint training programs

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according to the French model have been conducted in Vietnam, but France - Vietnam cooperation in higher education has been of much longer history. Due to history, France is the nation which brought the modern higher education to Vietnam with the establishment of the University of Indochina in 1906, the first modern university in Vietnam. France is also the country which trained the first professors and managers in the first half of the 20th century. The cooperation in higher education between the two countries chiefly the cooperation in joint training programs has continuously developed despite all ups and downs in the relation of the two countries. The question is how to develop more effectively the cooperation in higher education chiefly in international joint training programs for the benefit of the two nations. This paper, therefore, presents: (i). the current situations of the French and

Vietnamese higher education respectively, (ii). French education in Vietnam, (iii). university - university cooperation in joint training programs and then points out some suggestions and recommendations for further cooperation.

2. French higher education system

2.1. Current situation

French higher education system awards the following degrees recognized by the Bologna Process: Bachelor's degree (3 years), Master's (2 years), and doctorate (3 years). French universities have also adopted the ECTS credit system (for example, a Bachelor's degree is composed of 180 credits). However, the traditional curriculum based on the end of semester examinations still remains in place in most universities. This double standard has added complexity to a system which also remains quite rigid. It is difficult to change a major during undergraduate studies without losing a semester or even a whole year. Students usually have few course selection options once they enroll in a particular diploma . In other words, France has a complicated system of higher education. However, it might be right to say that the French HE system consists of two main types of institutions: (i). universities and (ii). Grandes Ecoles.

(i). Universities: France has 82 state universities, five Catholic universities and a number of private institutes, which are under the theoretical control of the local education authority, and are run by a board presided over by an elected president. The presidents of universities are elected by the board for a period of 4 years and can hold the position for two terms. The board consists of elected representatives of the teaching staff (about 50% of members), of administrative staff and students, plus external members representing local interests .

It should be noted that French universities are in the process of reorganizing themselves into massive local federations of existing universities and institutes of higher education, known as higher education and research centers with an aim to save money, by merging some of the administrative structures currently duplicated in each university or institution and to make French universities more "visible" on the international stage so as boost the ranking of French universities in international higher education community.

- Catholic universities offer the same range of degree courses as state universities, and students can freely move between the two systems.

- Private universities and other private institutions: It seems that there are no private universities except the Catholic ones. There are other private institutions – schools which include some of the grandes écoles and a great number of private establishments offering business degrees, technical qualifications and other courses. To offer a degree, a school must have its courses recognized by the Ministry, in the same way as public universities .

French universities are ranked among the most efficient institutions of higher education in any developed countries in terms of the ratio between investment per student, quality and the results obtained although they are considerably underfunded.

(ii). Grandes Ecoles are higher education institutions which focus on a single subject area, such as engineering or business, have a moderate size, and are often quite selective in their admission of students. They provide a cosseted higher education to the nation's future elites, leaders of industry, top military brass, top politicians, engineers, physicists and others. Grandes Ecoles are very well funded, have small classes and top teaching staff and some of them are very famous all over the world

2.2. French higher education's superior characteristics

Nguyen Trong Do (2011) is right to say that the French higher education has three main superior characteristics as follows:

(i). Democratic: The history of the French education is said to be the history of democratizing higher education. Thanks to the reforms in the two decades 1980 – 1990, French universities have become even more democratic through the students' participation and role in the process of university management.

(ii). Enlightening: Being greatly influenced by churches, French universities have gradually become institutions of enlightening, playing an extremely important role in the social progress. The respect for truth, teacher – students relation, academic freedom, relative independence from the state have become great traditions of the French higher education. They are the very important conditions for formulating up a contingent of intellectuals that France can be proud of.

(iii). Public good: Up till now, most French universities are public universities. It is based on the value or belief that considers education as activities of public good, different from market values. It is well known that after the students' movement in May, 1968 all French universities are open to all "bacheliers" – those who have passed their "baccalaureats" (except scientific and medical training programs). Since higher education is funded by the state, the fees are low; the tuition ranges from 150 Euros/year to 700 Euros/year depending on the university and the different levels of education: Bachelor, Master, and Doctorate respectively .

It is commonly stated that low expenses have ensured the equity of education for everyone, and thus making French universities more attractive for foreign students. That is exemplified by the number of foreign students in French universities: over 263,000 in 2006 occupying 11.7%, ranking as 4th country after America and Australia in attracting foreign students.

2.3. French higher education's achievements

Being an old system, the French higher education is one of the HE systems that has recorded greatest achievements in the world. These achievements can be illustrated by its quantity (the number of universities, students, teaching staff, training scope and modern infrastructure…) and quality (excellent professors/scientists/ Nobel Laureates, achievements in science, technology, engineering, culture and art…). In the age of globalization, French universities' achievements have had a profound international influence (Nguyen Van Do, 1996).

(i). In terms of quantity, it can be said that France is one of the countries that has the biggest and most developed higher education. At present, French universities and higher institutions accept hundred thousands of students a year not only from France but also from hundreds of foreign countries. These figures have unceasingly increased over the years. For example, in 1950 the number of students was only 136,744 compared to 2,338,100 in 2017, and also in 1950, the teaching staff was just 5,799 in comparison with 91,000 in 2017. That is of special significance because France is a country that has the oldest population in Europe (Nguyen Van Do, 1996).

(i). In terms of quality, the French higher education has produced hundreds of leading scientists in the fields of sciences, art, politics, economics, among whom dozens are great men of the humankind. In the 20th century, this higher education produced 57 Nobel Laureates, not to mention those French of other origins or those who were

trained in France and a number of Fields winners . Prof. Ngo Bao Chau bearing both Vietnamese and French nationalities who received the Fields award was also trained and then worked in France.

In the field of social sciences, one cannot help but mention a series of theories, doctrines and trends of thoughts originating from France with excellent representatives like Rousseau, Jean-Paul Sartres, Derrida, but first and foremost, one should mention Descartes with his rationalism – the origin of Western education.

The high quality of the French higher education is also partially reflected in the university ranking table in 2017 including: Ecole Normale Superieur, Paris (66), Ecole Polytechnique (116), University Pierre et Marie Curie (121), University of Paris Sud (179) and Ecole Normal Superieure de Lyon (201)....

2.4. Challenges for French higher education

Nguyen Trong Do, et.al (ibid) holds that the French higher education is facing big challenges relating to educational methodology, finance and management, and international competition.

(i). Educational methodology:

Relating to the French educational philosophy of enlightenment, students are trained to discover the general, fundamental knowledge. This methodology focuses on communication rather than criticism, considering theory more important than practice. In this modern world, the American methodology focusing on practice seems to be more appropriate as it produces human resources that can easily meet the requirements of the labor markets.

(ii). Finance and management:

The literature shows that French universities are not highly competitive as other universities in other countries. Due to very low tuitions, French universities are always struggling with the financial shortage thus leading to backward physical facilities. The French education is now facing the dilemma problem: pressure from the market mechanism, first and foremost, whether to impose higher tuition fees so as to upgrade physical facilities and improve quality or to maintain the existing mechanism to ensure the equity of education.

The French HE management has not been considerably changed since 1968. Mrs.Valerie Pecresse, French Minister of Higher Education also emphasized the autonomy of each university. The management staff of each university should reduce from 60 to 20-30 people. The university presidents should be entitled to spend money in their way including high pays so as to attract or to keep excellent professors.

(iii). Internationalization:

In order to integrate into the European and world HE community, France has to reform its universities. Together with applying Bologna Process (L-M-D), French universities have to change their programs in such a way that their credits can be easily transferred and accepted in other countries in the world.

It goes without saying that over the last decades, globalization has become the main trend of the humankind and the English language has become more predominant. In reality, English has become lingua franca of the Internet age and it is even truer in the field of higher education. Today, most scientific conferences/workshops are conducted in English; scientific works are also published in English. In addition, in countries like Korea, the percentage of training programs conducted in English is considered as an important factor for receiving financial support from the government. The predominance of English also means the decrease of the role of the

French language. Nowadays, even some training programs of French universities are conducted in English. Accepting this reality means that the French higher education has to accept the competition with a lot of disadvantages: French professors have to be good at English so that they can teach international programs and have their research results published in English journals.

What is more, complying with the Bologna Process, accepting the ECTS system and at the same time keeping the traditional curriculum based on end of semester examinations have made the French higher education even more complicated and to some extent, even more difficult for its internationalization.

In short, the French higher education is of an age-old tradition and famous for its quality. That is a higher education of enlightening, full of humanistic characteristics. It has produced a lot of great men and thus has played an important role in the world higher education community. Although it may have some challenges to overcome, they are not as serious as those the Vietnamese higher education has to face.

3. Vietnamese higher education system

3.1. Current situation

The Vietnamese HE system certainly has some differences with the French HE system in terms of its history of development, its high quality and diversity as well as its attractiveness to foreign students. Unlike the French higher education, the modern Vietnamese higher education came into being much later than the French higher education and it was the result of the West – East cultural exchange, chiefly under the French domination. The modern

Vietnamese higher education first appeared with the establishment of the University of Indochina by the French in 1906. Since then, the Vietnamese HE system has seen a lot of changes for further development. At present, the number of HE institutions has increased and the training quality has gradually improved. From a system consisting of only narrowly specialized universities with only Bachelor and Ph.D degrees following the former Soviet model, now it has a number of multi-disciplinary/ comprehensive universities offering Associate, Bachelor, Master and PhD programs.

The Vietnamese HE system consists of the following 7 types of universities not to mention colleges and continuing education schools/institutions:

(i). Specialized universities each of which focuses on a certain single area of study, such as economics, banking, law, technology, agriculture, forestry, fishery …;

(ii). Multi-disciplinary (comprehensive) universities including three newly established regional universities in some of Vietnam's largest cities;

(iii). National universities, one in Hanoi established in 1993 and one in Ho Chi Minh City established in 1995;

(iv). Regional universities: Hue, Da Nang and Thai Nguyen;

(v). Open universities: two open universities established in 1994, one in Hanoi and one in Ho Chi Minh City;

(vi). Foreign universities and;

(vii). Vietnamese – foreign universities.

At present, there are 644 higher education institutions out of which about 100 are non-public in comparison with 376 in 2009 .

Vietnamese higher education is organized into public and non-public (people-founded/private). Public institutions receive funding for infrastructure, facilities and operational expenditures. Private institutions are funded

by social, professional, and economic organizations or individuals for infrastructure, facilities and operational expenditures. The government supports public institutions to ensure that they always play the key role in the national education system. In addition, there are institutions with foreign invested capital: (i). 100% foreign invested institutions and (ii) joint venture institutions (Higher Education Law, 2012).

Colleges normally offer three-year programs and award Associate diplomas to those who graduate. About two-thirds of Vietnam's colleges specialize in training teachers for lower levels of the education system. Colleges are small and the students in these colleges make up a small part of the total enrolled in public higher education.

In terms of management, it is worth noting that universities and colleges are not only managed by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) but also by various ministries and provincial people's committees: by MOET (over 100/644, by other ministries such as the Ministry of Public Security (11 universities/academies/colleges), the Ministry of Defence (25) and by provincial people's committees. At present, 40/63 provinces and cities have universities accounting for 65%, 60/63 provinces have colleges making up 95%. Most of Vietnam's college-level institutions are managed by provincial people's committees (Nguyen Van Nha & Vu Ngoc Tu, 2015).

Unlike the French HE system, the Vietnamese HE system does not have "grandes écoles". Vietnamese universities are also run by a board presided by a president, but the board consists of representatives of all academic departments and some representatives of some functional departments; no representative of students. The presidents are appointed by the minister of the Ministry of Education and

Training except that the presidents and vice presidents of the two national universities who are appointed by the Prime Minister.

3.2. Vietnamese higher education's achievements

Vietnamese higher education over the last decades has achieved encouraging results. According to MOET, over 20 years of reform, it has remarkably developed its scope, diversified university types and training modes; begun to adjust the structure of the system, improved training programs and training process; mobilized more resources from the society. The quality of some training areas has been gradually enhanced. The HE system has produced qualified human resources to meet the requirements of the socio-economic development and industrialization and modernization of the country, to ensure national security and defence and speed up the process of international integration. University and college management has also been improved. More importantly, it has narrowed the gap between Vietnamese higher education and world HE community and has confirmed its further development.

The establishment of the two national universities, three regional universities, some Vietnamese - foreign universities and several 100% foreign-owned universities is also considered as an encouraging result of the higher education reform. The idea behind all this is to build a higher education that is multi-tiered and that includes higher education institutions operating under different ownership models (public, private and mixed). These universities are said to be Vietnam's first research-oriented universities which are more autonomous than other Vietnamese universities and they are the first universities to hire administrators and 50-80% foreign lecturers. However, as higher education is one of the three

key areas (renovation in mechanism and policy and renovation in administration and building a strong and transparent State machinery) in which to create a breakthrough to change the socio-economic situation and vigorously develop human resources, the Vietnamese HE reform must continue to be carried forward (Vu Ngoc Tu, 2012).

3.3. Challenges facing Vietnamese higher education reform

Although the Vietnamese higher education has recorded encouraging results over the last decades, it has to be still continued to be reformed as "without urgent and fundamental reform to higher education system, Vietnam will fail to achieve its enormous potential" and there is a "close relationship between development and higher education" (Vallely, 2008).

There are more challenges that face the Vietnamese higher education compared to those that face the French higher education. Hayden (2005), MOET's World Bank consultant, groups these challenges into four categories: finance, management (governance), quality and equity of access. However, there are other challenges that should be mentioned. Vu Ngoc Tu (2004), and Nguyen Van Nha & Vu Ngoc Tu (2015) point out 10 main challenges as follows:

(i). The biggest challenge is to ensure that the system of education and training responds to the emerging demands of a growing economy, that is, to satisfy the requirements for human resources of the country's industrialization and modernization and people's learning requirements. Moreover, the training scope has not yet met the requirements of industrialization and modernization; there is imbalance between supply and demand;

(ii). Inappropriate structure of the higher education system is manifested by separating the network of higher education institutions from research academies thus reducing investment efficiency and the quality of training and research. Moreover, research is not paid due attention to, teaching is not yet closely linked with research and services for social life;

(iii). Financial resources are limited, mainly relying on the State budget. In addition, the centrally determined structure of funding proves to be inefficient and counter-productive. Most of the HE institutions in Vietnam are inactive in finding other financial resources. Hayden (2005) states that the level of funding for Vietnam's higher education is small: only 0.41% of GDP in 2002 out of a total of 4.22% for all levels of education. In terms of expenditure on higher education, Vietnam compares poorly to the rest of the region and the rest of the world (average is 1.22%);

(iv). Training quality, content and methods should be improved as training quality and efficiency are still low. That is confirmed by Vallely (2008) who states that Vietnam does not have even a single university of recognized quality. Learning is not closely combined with practice, and therefore, human resources produced are not highly qualified. Training programs are inflexible focusing on theory rather than practice and slow in integration; learning and teaching methods are outdated, the training process is closed and inflexible. In general, HE institutions have limited research capacity; faculty qualifications are generally low and vary significantly across types of institutions and regions. Although Vietnam's HE system has recently introduced internal quality measures, it still lacks external quality measures. Teaching methods are backward, the level of articulation and global integration is low. The progress of renovation is slow because of the slow-changing mindset of teachers and their heavy teaching load (World Bank, 2007);

(v). Teaching and administrative staff have not yet been able to meet the requirements of HE reform both in terms of quality and quantity. At present, there are only 77,000 HE teachers/lecturers out of which only 9,126 have Ph.D. degrees and 36,347 have Master degrees; and 300,000 management personnel for the whole education system from general education to higher education (MOET, August 2012). There is a serious lack of research experts, and HE policy makers. Moreover, many lecturers do not pay due attention to research;

(vi). Management is characterized by a very high level of centralization. MOET has significant power over higher education and determines matters as varied as student enrolment, academic assessment, budget decisions, and infrastructure and facility maintenance. There is a severe lack of close links between higher education institutions and scientific research, businesses, industries and employers. The existing mechanism and policies have not yet created self-accountability, responsibility of HE institutions for personnel, revenue-expenditure balance, and quality of training products;

(vii). Competition is not created for HE development. HE institutions' development plans are not clear, just short-term rather than long-.term and HE institutions are not rationally distributed over the whole country thus reducing investment efficiency;

(viii). Higher education reform has not been able to keep pace with economic reform and requirements for integration; HE management cannot keep pace with HE socialization;

(ix). Vietnam higher education has always affirmed the equity of access very much in line with "admission to higher education should be based on the merit, capacity, efforts, perseverance and devotion and can take place in a lifelong scheme, at any time, with due

recognition of previous acquired skills" (UNESCO, 1998). However, at present, certain groups (women, ethnic minorities, the less privileged, those from particular regional areas) are not represented in higher education proportionately to their numbers in the population. The reason for this is that poverty in Vietnam has a geographical aspect, the poorer regions tend to have fewer HE institutions, and people just cannot pay for their higher education and this consequently results in a lower level of enrolment.

(x). Curricula "as the bulk of Vietnamese curricula do not meet the needs of about 60% young laborers who graduate from training establishments need to be retrained for at least 6-12 months after being recruited" (Nuffic Neso/Vietnam).

(xi). International competition: Vietnam's open door policy has made the Vietnamese higher education an integral part of the world HE community thus leading to the competition between Vietnamese and foreign universities not to mention foreign universities in Vietnam. According to recent statistics of Vietnam Ministry of Education and Training, the number of Vietnamese students studying overseas has been increasing to over 60,000.

Although there are many challenges that face the Vietnamese higher education reform, they have to be surpassed. Only by successfully overcoming those challenges, can the Vietnamese higher education achieve its main objective: to produce highly qualified human resources for Vietnam's socio-economic development.

As has been pointed out in the previous sections, there are some differences and similarities between the Vietnamese and French HE systems which can be summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Similarities and differences between Vietnamese and French higher education systems

Comparison	Vietnamese HE	French HE
Similarities		
Budget	Mainly relying on State budget	Mainly relying on State budget
Competition	Low	Low
Management	High level of concentration	High level of concentration
Educational methodology	Theory more important than practice	Theory more important than practice
Differences		
System	Still being planned	Planned and developed
	Without churches' influences	Mostly influenced by churches
Structure	Inappropriate	Appropriate
Universities	Many narrowly specialized	All comprehensive except Grandes Ecole
Staff	Teaching and administrative staff: poor quality	Teaching and administrative staff: high quality
Training and research quality	Poor	High (many Nobel Laureates)
Curricula/training contents	Inappropriate	Appropriate and modern
Teaching/learning method	Backward	Modern
Equity of access	Guaranteed	Not guaranteed
Entrance to university	Highly competitive	Open to all
Tradition/history	Short	Age-old
Attractiveness to foreign students	Little	Much

4. French higher education in Vietnam

4.1. French – Vietnamese higher education

After occupying Vietnam, the French faced with the greatest difficulty in the language barrier. To overcome this difficulty, the French set up an institution to train interpreters and that was considered as the first French vocational school/institution in Vietnam. Along with training interpreters, the French government opened some more training areas in administration, justice and finance.

The French – Vietnamese higher education (Enseignement Franco- Indigene) was introduced to Vietnam with some modifications and adjustments of the French training mechanism and organization to suit the Indochinese conditions. It consisted of two types of institutions: (i). Ecole Superieure – vocational schools/institutions and (ii). universities.

In early 20th century, the French – Vietnamese higher education became more stable with the French government's permission to open more vocational institutions like Medicine – Pharmacy, Pedagogy, Law… All these schools/institutions were in Hanoi and belonged to the University of Indochina. The University of Indochina at that time consisted of School of Indochinese Medicine, School of Public Administration, School of Indochinese Veterinary, School of Law and Administration, School of Pedagogy, School of Agriculture and

Forestry, School of Indochinese Commerce, School of Letters (it then merged with the School of Law and Administration), School of Applied Science, School of Indochinese Art. The training programs lasted for 3 years but from 1926 they changed to 5 years. After that, more programs were formulated: Architecture, Lacquer Painting and Ciselure (Nguyen Van Do, 1996).

In short, we can say that the French higher education system still has had some influences on the Vietnamese HE system. However, there are a number of differences between the two higher education systems. One striking difference - student recruitment - should be re-emphasized. While French universities are open to all high school students – those who have passed their "baccalaureat", except the scientific and medical programs, the entrance to Vietnamese universities can be highly competitive (Table 1).

4.2. French higher education in Vietnam at present

As was mentioned earlier, in the context that higher education has become a market, France has made more and more concrete plans to reform its high education to make it suitable to the world as well as Vietnamese development. Along with scholarships awarded to Vietnamese staff and students for further study in France, the French government has paid more and more attention to conducting French training programs in Vietnam in which the most predominant may be:

(i). French language programs with an aim to support Vietnamese training programs by offering subjects in French. In Vietnam, with the support from AUF, the number of subjects conducted in French or by French or Vietnamese lecturers has considerably increased. Out of 15,000 Vietnamese learners of French, 22% are students in programs conducted in French like Construction and Urban Planning, Biotechnology, Food Processing, Economics and Management, Geography and Tourism, Medicine, Informatics, New Technology, Chemistry and Environment (Nguyen Trong Do, et.al, 2011)..

(ii). Joint training programs in Vietnam according to the French standards with degrees awarded by French universities: The typical program of this type is the Excellent Engineer Training Program (PFIEV) that has been offered in Vietnam over the last 10 years. This is a complete engineering training program according French model and standards and at the same time suitable to the Vietnamese conditions with the academic support from 8 leading universities in the field of training engineers: INSA Lyon, INPG, ENPC, ECP, ENSMA, ENSEEIHT< ENST, Lycee LOUISDE GRAND). This program has been highly appreciated by both the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and the French Embassy in Vietnam.

(iii). 100% French programs with degrees awarded by French universities have been conducted since 1992. The first MBA of this type was offered in French and English by the French-Vietnamese Center for Management Education (CFVG) and Hanoi National Economics University, Vietnam. The CFVG degree is also signed by the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training as well as the Vietnamese Department of Industry and Commerce and internationally recognized.

According to Nguyen Trong Do, et.al (ibid), there are 22 training institutions which offer 57 joint programs with French universities: 16 undergraduate, 39 Master and 2 PhD. The most attractive training areas seem to be Economics with 16 Master programs and 12 undergraduate programs followed by Science – Technology with 1 undergraduate, 12 Master and 1 PhD programs, the medicine with 3 Master and 1 graduate program… Programs in economics are most selected because they meet the requirements for development of Vietnam and at the same time they do not require a lot of investment in physical facilities, equipment or laboratories.

4.3. French University Center (PUF) in Vietnam National University, Hanoi (VNU)

With Vietnam's open door policy and reforms, and with its position gradually confirmed

in the region and with Vietnam entering WTO, Vietnam and France want to intensify their cooperation in training and research. Besides offering joint programs in Vietnam, the two governments' scholarship policy over the last 10 years has enabled 3,500 Vietnamese students to study in France. Experiences in France – Vietnam cooperation in higher education have shown that joint programs should be grouped into one place so as to utilize all existing resources. In that connection, the signing of the agreement on setting up two French university centers (Poles Universitaires Francais) was of great significance. The main aim of these centers is to turn the bilateral cooperation between France and Vietnam in higher education to a new model thus contributing to further development of the Vietnamese higher education; to be more concretely, to set up and develop training programs of international standards in Vietnam and gradually transfer French training technology to Vietnam.

It can be said that since its establishment PUF has gradually achieved its aim and objectives set at the beginning and attained encouraging achievements. Some of the main achievements are as follows.

(a). Management

In terms of the management, it is right to say that the French university management according to the French university model has been gradually transferred to Vietnamese participating universities.

(b). Training

So far, PUF has conducted 7 joint training programs on the basis of the L-M-D model (3 years for Bachelor, 2 years for Master and 3 years for Doctorate) very much in line with Bologna Process. All these programs have been conducted smoothly and effectively: the input quality has unceasingly improved; their prestige has been admitted by the society. Student recruitment, teaching and learning methods, testing and training management, graduation approval have been carried out according to the regulations of the French universities and in accordance with the real situations of the Vietnamese education.

(c). Research

As far as research is concerned, priority has been given to research on areas relating to training programs, conducting new PhD programs, organizing conferences/workshops and other activities.

So far, PUF has organized different scientific workshops on: (i) the method of organizing graduate training programs, setting up research groups in the School of Law, (ii) high-level research projects in the University of Social Sciences and Humanity… However, one has to confess that scientific research activities have not been up to the expectation.

(d). Improving teaching staff

The Vietnamese lecturers have received lecture notes, materials and training technology from their French colleagues by various means: study tour, workshops, class observation, teaching assistance, coaching, seminars…) so as to conduct PUF's joint training programs and at the same time apply them to other training programs in their universities.

(e). Collaborating with enterprises

With its prestige in conducting high quality training programs, PUF has invited experts from enterprises and research institutes to participate in teaching and accept students for internships, for example: France Orange Telecom, Accor, Sunway Hotel, IRD, Big C just to name a few.

It might be right to say that since its establishment PUF has proved not only its effective operation but also its sustainability for training technology transfer. PUF has become an important factor in the French higher education in Vietnam, thus contributing to raising the status of the French higher education in Vietnam through its high quality joint training programs and research projects.

5. Suggestions and recommendations

From what has been presented above, the Vietnam - France cooperation in higher education has recorded encouraging achievements benefiting both systems and countries. In that connection, Vietnamese

higher education should continue to strengthen cooperation with its French counterpart. The common forms of cooperation which have proved effective can be: (i). joint training programs and joint research projects, (ii). co-organisation of scientific conferences/ workshops, (iv). student and staff exchanges, and (v). exchange of information and materials… The Vietnamese higher education should focus its cooperation on the areas that France is strong at and that meet the requirements for qualified human resources training and development. These areas could be: Economics and Management, Science – Technology, Medicine and Pharmacy, Construction and Urban Planning, Biotechnology, Food Processing, Geography and Tourism, Informatics, New Technology, Chemistry and Environment, Excellent Engineer Training Program (PFIEV). Relating to joint training levels, it should promote all the joint Bachelor's, Master, and Doctoral programs with the language of instruction being English. What is more, with the two governments' support, the PUF model should be multiplied and applied in other universities.

6. Conclusion

Internationalization and globalization might be one of the solutions for the Vietnamese higher education to create a breakthrough in improving its training and research quality thus keeping up with the regional and world higher education community. In other words, for the Vietnamese higher education to realize its most important mission: to produce highly qualified human resources for Vietnam's socio-economic development, Vietnamese universities have to speed up their cooperation and links with foreign universities in the world in general and in France in particular. It has been proved that the most known common forms of cooperation between Vietnamese and French universities such as collaborative research on

areas of common interest, co-organization of international workshops/conferences, staff and student exchange, exchange of information and materials and scholarship programs, the cooperation in joint training programs have been effectively carried out.

It has been proved that the Vietnamese higher education, to some extent, has been influenced by the French higher education; therefore, it crystallizes the fine characteristics of the ancient Vietnamese education and the modern Western education. The Vietnam – France cooperation in higher education can be said to start from the establishment of the University of Indochina in 1906. This cooperation has continuously developed despite all ups and downs in the relation between the two countries thus contributing to Vietnam's highly qualified human resources development as well as Vietnam's socio-economic development and therefore, it should be continued to be consolidated and further developed.

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HỆ THỐNG GIÁO DỤC ĐẠI HỌC VIỆT – PHÁP VÀ HỢP TÁC ĐÀO TẠO LIÊN KẾT GIỮA CÁC ĐẠI HỌC

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Tóm tắt: Pháp được coi là quốc gia đưa giáo dục đại học hiện đại đến Việt Nam với sự thành lập Đại học Đông Dương năm 1906, trường đại học hiện đại đầu tiên ở Việt Nam. Pháp cũng là đất nước đã đào tạo ra thế hệ giáo sư và nhà quản lý đầu tiên vào nửa đầu thế kỷ XX. Hợp tác giữa hai nước cơ bản thông qua các chương trình đào tạo liên kết và đã liên tục phát triển bất chấp những thăng trầm trong quan hệ giữa hai nước. Vì lẽ đó, bài viết này xem xét từng hệ thống trong hai hệ thống giáo dục đại học này. Trên cơ sở những đặc điểm, thách thức và thành tựu riêng của chúng, bài viết chỉ ra những điểm tương đồng và khác biệt giữa hai hệ thống và những ảnh hưởng của giáo dục đại học Pháp đối với giáo dục đại học Việt Nam cũng như vai trò của các chương trình đào tạo liên kết trong hợp tác giữa các đại học ở Việt Nam và Pháp.

Từ khoá: hiện trạng, hệ thống giáo dục đại học, hợp tác, chương trình đào tạo liên kết, Trung tâm Đại học Pháp (PUF)

VOICES AGAINST SOCIO-POLITICAL INEQUALITY IN CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

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Abstract: This paper reviews critical discourse analysis (CDA) research in the fields of media, politics, racism and sexism discourse with voices raised against socio-political inequality, which is also one of the fundamental goals CDA has been attempting to attain. Literature review shows that CDA research describing and criticizing socio-political inequality through language use is enormous and so is its impact on individuals and groups as members of our conflicting society. CD analysts, using emancipatory discourse, can contest the maintenance and reproduction of domination and subordination patterns in society through language practices by raising people's awareness of the asymmetrical relation of power.

Keywords: CDA, socio-political inequality, media discourse, political discourse, racism, sexism

1. Introduction

The fight for social equality is inarguably one of the most humanitarian and noblest causes carried out by human beings since the coming into existence of social classes. It is the creation and defence of group's as well as individual's authority and interest that perpetuate the power struggle, which takes place in various forms from the tangible battles with cannonballs to the more subtle arenas in political debates. It seems paradoxical that the more civilized and developed a society is, the more fierce its members' effort to balance the power. In the modern society where the sound of fire guns and bombs has calmed down in some parts of the world, the voices against injustice in the ideological and cultural forums have not in the least. Voices raised against social inequality in language use have brought about a perspective of viewing and analyzing

language: Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), "particularly associated with the work of the British socio-linguist Norman Fairclough and has become particularly influential in Europe and Australia" (Trask, 2007:61). CDA has been defined in various ways revealing the approach, methods, goals, and fields of research by such pre-eminent authors as Fairclough (1992), Janks & Ivanič, (1992), Tannen, (1994; 2003), Coulthard (1995; 1996), Schäffner (1996), Kendall & Tannen, (1997), Wodak (1997), Baranov (1998), Cameron (1998), Thomas & Wareing (1999), Wodak (2000), Widdowson (2000), Wodak & Reisigl (2001), Van Dijk (2001), Talbot, Atkinson & Atkinson (2003), Litosseliti (2006), among many others. Van Dijk (2001:352)'s description of CDA is assuredly considered as capturing the essence of CDA in which "CDA is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context. Critical discourse

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analysts take explicit position, and thus want to understand, expose, and ultimately resist social inequality". Holding aloft the banner of socio-political equality are critical discourse analysts whose contribution to social balance is undeniable.

2. CDA goals

As a whole, the resistance against socio-political injustice in language use undertaken by CD analysts is the supreme target of CDA, which can comprise the following specific sub-goals:

- "Make people more socio-politically aware of the way language is used to manipulate them" (Widdowson, 2000: 9);
- "Understand, expose, and ultimately resist social inequality" (Van Dijk 2001: 352);
- "Act upon the world in order to transform it and thereby help create a world where people are not discriminated against because of sex, creed, age or social class" (Caldas-Coulthard 1996, cited in Widdowson 2000: 155);
- "Understand social issues, inequalities, and ideologies, by exposing the subtle role of discourse in maintaining them (the "hidden agenda" of discourse)" (Litosseliti 2006: 3);
- "Illuminate the specific mechanisms through which dominance/subordination – elements which structure society as a whole – are produced in daily life" (Räthzel, cited in Wodak 1997: 57);
- "Develop more effective means against persecution" (Räthzel, cited in Wodak 1997: 57);
- Deconstruct and reconstruct images of the other (Räthzel, cited in Wodak 1997: 78);
- "Describe and explain, and if necessary criticize (changing) social and

discursive practices, based on solid research" (Schäffner 1996: 5);

Van Dijk (2001: 355) poses two basic questions for CDA research:

1. How do (more) powerful groups control public discourse?
2. How does such discourse control mind and action of (less) powerful groups and what the social consequences of such control, such as social inequality?

In order to find answers to these two basic questions, CD analysts often ask themselves the following questions in analyzing a specific text: 'Why was this text constructed at all?' 'To whom is it addressed, and why?' 'Does the writer or speaker have concealed purposes, and, if so, what are they?' 'What hidden assumptions and biases underlie the text?' (Trask, 2007:61). In view of the sub-goals specified and the questions asked to achieve the goals, whether or not the goal of "making people more socio-politically aware of the way language is used to manipulate them" is seen as fairly summarizing the goals of CDA depends on how the attributive "socio-politically" and the broadened meaning of "aware" is perceived. The term "society" may inherently encompass all the other components as sexism, racism, ethno-centrism, anti-semitism, nationalism, etc., which in turn integrate themselves into politics. Language itself forms part of society; language use including its syntactic and pragmatic discursive features may well be considered as indispensable cells of social life. Though provoking controversy at different levels regarding the extent to which it acts upon human beings, the impact of language on their mind and action is generally acknowledged. Language awareness naturally entails changing language practices, which are "closely tied with changes in social relationships and with changing social

identities" (Fairclough, 1992: 4). Therefore, in a way, Widdowson's remark can be said to have solidified the goals of CDA. In this paper, our aim is basically to explore how far CDA has contributed to the global movement of criticizing power imbalance, the ultimate goal as pointed out by Van Dijk, Räthzel, and Widdowson, specifically in the fields of media, politics, racism and sexism discourse.

3. The Criticality of CDA

CDA is critical in that it views discourse as a form of social practice and criticizes the way discourse reproduces socio-political inequality, power abuse or domination. That is the reason why CDA is considered part of critical linguistics and critical language awareness. Critical linguistics is a linguistic approach acknowledging the rhetorical potential of texts in influencing social beliefs, values and expectations. Critical language awareness is the educational policy of teaching people to be alert to socio-political issues, which can be critical in some aspects including linguistic matters (Trask, 2007). Perspectives which can be more or less critical can be found in other linguistic fields and approaches such as pragmatics, conversation analysis, narrative analysis, rhetoric, stylistics, sociolinguistics, ethnography, or media analysis, among others (Van Dijk, 2001), i.e, the critical element in the analysis is not exclusive to CDA.

4. Fundamental issues and typical terms in CDA

The fundamental issues in CDA rooted in the typical terms centering on CDA research are *power, power abuse, dominance, and ideology.*

Fundamental and central to the discussions in most critical studies is the notion of *power*, more specifically the social power of groups or institutions, defined in terms of control. Groups or institutions are considered to have power if they can control the acts and minds of other groups. This controlling ability 'presupposes a *power base* of privileged access to scarce social resources, such as force, money, status, fame, knowledge, information, culture, or indeed various forms of public discourse and communication' (Van Dijk, 2001:354-355). In that line of thought, *power abuse* is the violation of "laws, rules and principles of democracy, equality and justice" by those people who have more power (Van Dijk, 1993:255).

Dominance is defined as "the exercise of social power elites, institutions or groups, that results in social inequality, including political, cultural, class, ethnic, racial and gender inequality" (Van Dijk, 1993:249-50).

Ideology in CDA is the set of beliefs underlying an utterance or discourse. Ideologies can be conscious, subconscious or unconscious in the form of ideas, beliefs, goals, expectations, and motivations, etc. which can be held by an individual or shared by a group or society. Every example of language in use has 'an ideological dimension'… 'An utterance that describes an event in the world has to choose one of the many possible lexico-grammatical ways in which that event can be encoded' (Trask, 2007: 113). In other words, no instance of language use is neutral in ideology.

5. Language and ideology/power relationship

Power, power abuse, dominance, and ideologies are encoded in different linguistic forms, often at the lexico-grammatical levels, which might include the optional use of either active or passive voice, focusing on one topic rather than another, foregrounding one perspective rather than another, choosing particular naming or address patterns rather than others, selecting a level for formality, register, politeness, and so on. Trash (2007)

affirmed that choices of lexico-grammatical devices encode ideological dimensions. One single and the same real-world event of socio-political life can be linguistically encoded in different ways revealing different ideologies. In the following headlines, different ideologies are encoded by different linguistic forms, such as the implicit assignment of blame and the shifting of emphasis. Hidden in the ways various lexico-grammatical devices are utilized to construct the headlines of the same event (the shooting of the police at the demonstrators in a demonstration) are different ideologies which can manipulate the readers' views of the event by either (implicitly) exalting or defaming the agents or the victims involving the event.

- *Police shoot demonstrators* (active voice, explicit assignment of blame on the agents, implicitly revealing the reporter's stance against the police and the ruling Party and in favour of the demonstrators/the opponent Party)
- *Demonstrators are shot* (passive voice, avoiding ascribing responsibility for the action of shooting to the implicit agents, implicitly revealing the reporter's stance in favour of the police and the ruling Party and against the demonstrators/the opponent Party)
- *Shooting at demo* (neither the agents nor victims of the action mentioned, implicitly revealing the reporter's sitting-on-the-fence's stance)
- *Demo ends in violence/ 2 dead at demo* (neither the agents nor the victims of the action mentioned with emphasis on the result of the action, implicitly revealing the reporter's sitting-on-the-fence's stance)
- *Police make arrests as 2 die in demo riot* (active voice, explicit assignment of blame on the agents, however, the agents' responsibility is shifted to

another less violent action of arresting with the agents' the more violent action of shooting causing death is kept hidden). (Trask, 2007: 61).

So why does CDA depict as its principal objective the task of deciphering the interrelationship between ideology/power and discourse and to regain social equality? The explanation can be partially traced back to the struggle for survival, of which gaining power and balancing human relationships are perhaps the most crucial activities. However, the power games in our society are so subtle that sometimes even the players are not always aware of their existence and they tend to take myriads of power exertion instances for granted. Power manipulation may be disguised in various intangible apparels so much so that even the most conscious people may stand a chance of not recognizing its impact. In terms of language communication, the multi-layer of discourse interactions implies numerous aspects of power abuse very likely to be invisible to participants who by no or little means are capable of fully sensing its influence on their participation. This embraces every feature of discourse as genres, topics and speech acts, etc. and also the channels of communication from the media to everyday settings and the various subtypes of discourse (courtroom, bureaucratic, medical, educational and scholarly). A university professor may use his or her power to force students into taking what he/she says as an uncontroversial truth. A student, on the other hand, due to his/her lack of knowledge in the specific field, finds himself/herself vulnerable to his/her supervisor or tutor's remark (Wodak, 1987). Both of them are broadening the gap of inequality in discourse without realizing that they are doing so. Nevertheless, CDA's function in raising people's awareness in language encounters is not at all an easy job in that it aims at ameliorating social reality

without breaking its discourse conventions, which are what construct and stabilize social structure. Furthermore, power abuse varies according to ethnic communities and the knowledge level of the citizens of a specific society. In a way, we are all being manipulated by language use. People in societies where awareness of equality has long been established may be more sensitive to imbalance in power than those being the citizens of nations where power distribution inequilibrium is taken as a matter of fact and part of social norms. What is more, the impoverishment in some underdeveloped or developing countries have pushed their people into ignoring big issues as political power to give priority to more practical everyday concerns as finding food and clothes. Some people are inclined to reluctance in touching the problem especially among people of different social groups. Essed (1991: 67) exemplified the phenomenal tendency in one of his studies: "It has been shown repeatedly that Black informants are reticent about discussing their experiences of White racism with a White interviewer." To approach the matter from political perspectives, injustice, unfortunately and ridiculously predominates in western countries where political leaders at all times promulgate the slogan of freedom, equality and humanity. Power dominance in political discourse has been analyzed in several researches such as by Baranov (1998) and many other authors (see Chilton et al. 1998). The paradox with CDA is that it seems not to be publicly and extensively mentioned or rather not allowed to flourish in social systems in countries where its role is more significant in the fight for the liberty of speech, which is restricted and to some extent, persecuted. All of these may be the explanations for CDA's goals as expressed by Widdowson and other CD analysts. It is no exaggeration in the least to say that to

enhance individual awareness of the socio-political injustice in power is to prepare for a futuristic society of more equality, democracy and civilization. All what the human race has done so far can be assumed to fundamentally serve that everlasting purpose.

6. CDA voices against socio-political inequalities

CD analysts have carried out research largely in the field of sexism (gender inequality) and racism, media discourse and politics discourse. Other fields of research include: Ethnocentrism, Antisemitism (ideologies against the Jewish, Arabian, Assyrian, & Phoenician), and Nationalism. In this paper, CDA works are summarized in the most typical fields of CDA: media and politics discourse; racism and sexism, the fields of CDA research which aim at fighting for equality in human socio-political life.

6.1. CDA voices against socio-political inequalities in media and political discourse

In the discourses of the media, politicians, leaders of political Parties, the spoke-person of a ruling or opponent Party's use of language may potentially exalt their values of ideology and implicitly defame their opponents' by referring to themselves as 'we' *the civilized* world, the '*free democracies*', '*the West*', '*the free world*', in contrast with 'the other' Eastern countries, where the terrorists may come from (Trash, 2007). The metonymic processes of referring underlying this bipolarization or dichotomy may manipulate people's view of the world as a world of binary division, as Chilton (1998) suggested, 'whereby one element (the USA) stands for another entity – a supposed collectivity labelled "free democracies", whose real world reference however, is not determinate', but excludes or classifies negatively the 'others' (Caldas-

Coulthard, 2003: 272). The dominant values of the ideology providing criteria for evaluation of forms of behaviour in the press are presented in Chibnall (1977:21-22) as follows.

Positive legitimating values	Negative legitimating values
Legality	Illegality
Extremism	Moderation
Compromise	Dogmatism
Cooperation	Confrontation
Order	Chaos
Peacefulness	Violence
Intolerance	Tolerance
Constructiveness	Destructiveness
Openness	Secrecy
Corruption	Honesty
Realism	Ideology
Rationality	Irrationality
Bias	Impartiality
Fairness	Unfairness
Firmness	Weakness
Industriousness	Idleness
Freedom of choice	Monopoly/uniformity
Equality	Inequality

When Western countries construct their images using the positive legitimating values, they at the same time potentially depict the others, the Eastern countries as having the negative values, which are inherently associated with wrongdoings and problems. Raising people's awareness about this bipolarization or dichotomy tendency in the language of the media, CD analysts have contributed to reshaping existing acquiescence to such unfounded and unfair bipolarization.

6.2. CDA voices against socio-political inequalities in racism and sexism

Power relations are not only reflected in physical settings but also in verbal struggles. Individuals or groups' language production reflects their ideologies in the power struggles in which language is used or even abused as a weapon protecting their privileges oppressing the less powerful others (Räthzel, 1997). 'It is through discursive interaction that meanings are produced and transmitted, that institutional roles are constructed and power relations developed and maintained' Wodak (2000:185). CDA has contributed to the global movement of criticizing power imbalance, especially in the fields of racism and sexism in language use. CD analysts suggest that people are who they are (partly) because of the way they use language (Cameron, 1998). In the interface between language awareness and language use, language awareness naturally entails changing language practices, which are 'closely tied with changes in social relationships and with changing social identities' (Fairclough, 1992:4). Racism and sexism as hidden in language use are not just individual opinions about and prejudices against others but rather "social structures of oppression" (Räthzel, 1997:59).

An overview of recent research in racism and sexism might offer an estimate of how far CDA has been into achieving the goals set up. Racism and sexism are issues that interest not only researchers of the fields but also laymen whose everyday life is inevitably under the impact of these social ideologies. There have been numerous analytical researches into racist and sexist ideologies, e.g. Räthzel (1994; 1997). In 1994, Räthzel carried out a survey investigating her students' ideological association of the 4 terms: German women, Turkish women, German men, and Turkish men. The findings were very interesting revealing many crucial issues in DA such as collectivity and individuality, interrelation of gender and ethnicity, patriarchy and class relations, constructions of the other as rebellious self-subordination, the homogenous other and the complex self, deconstruction and reconstruction of the other's images (Trash, 2007). In her studies, Räthzel found out that

the ways of subordination of the two groups of women within the family and in relation towards men are opposed to each other. German women are seen as subordinating themselves actively, while Turkish women are depicted as being the victims of men, of their nature and of ideologies. What counts as important in all of these studies is that they render not only valuable findings but also suggest some extremely implications regarding the awareness and response of individuals as participants of the social power games. Räthzel (1997: 78), in her conclusion to the German and Turkish survey, suggested "in order to transform power relations it is not enough for individuals to reposition themselves as agents of social change and deconstruct their images of the other; however, in not doing this, the attempt to get rid of racism and sexism might merely reproduce them in a more subtle way". Research into racism and sexism has been continuously done to illuminate the real mechanism of language use in the two socio-political fields.

6.2.1. Racism in Language

Racism as one of the most sensitive social issues has attracted the interest of quite a few CDA researchers. The term racism itself has become familiarized with everybody no matter what their genetic origins are and has expanded its omnipresent status in this ever-increasing intercultural world as today when people are more and more aware of racism and its impact on the construction and reconstruction of human perspectives on judging other people. Its appearance in discourse has increased in significance as discourse analysts more and more recognize its profound influence on social life, exceptionally in association with politics where it is used as a weapon to defend or to fight for social rights. The term "race" can be traced down to biological differences but "race" in discourse is inclined to refer to ideology and social structure rather than

ethnic origins. Racist ideology inherently exists in society like a hierarchical web interconnecting complicated people from different social groups. It has become a widely acknowledged belief that whites hold a contemptuous attitude towards blacks, colored and yellows; rich yellows look down upon their poorer folks; city-dwelling blacks despise their countryside fellows. Naturally, some people are more susceptible to racist ideology than others and some groups are racist than others. CD analysts do not only describe but also try to explain to illuminate the conditions for the emergence and existence of racism to eradicate it.

Among the many authors who have greatly contributed to CDA as regards discourse racist analysis, Van Dijk can be appreciated as the most influential both in the depth and the diversity of his research. His studies range from panoramic overview on CDA to specific survey data about ethnic attitudes and the way majorities talk to ethnic minority groups. His findings in the projects are absolutely discerning in terms of humanitarian values. The black women in one of his studies "experience accusations of theft, laziness, or dishonesty, are addressed impolitely or patronizingly, or are made sexual propositions in situations where white women would not be harassed" (Van Dijk 1984, 77). In another study, he examines the way in which politicians speak about race and ethnic relations, immigrants, refugees, and other minorities as well as how they contribute – through media coverage of their discourse – to the ethnic consensus in white-dominated society. His analysis of fragments of parliamentary debates about ethnic affairs in Europe and North America shows that "politicians participate in more subtle forms of elite racism when they present immigration and minority relations as essentially problematic, if not threatening, while defining

refuges, immigrants, or minorities as a main cause of many societal problems" (Van Dijk (1997: 31).

Van Dijk's advocates, following his initiative studies, have raised their voices against social inequality in various forums from a wide range of perspectives and questions. Talbot et al. (2003) e.g. discussed racism in the choice of topics, lexis and sentence structure in the media. They showed that in the reporting of civil disturbances in Brixton, the actions of the police were often placed syntactically in a non-prominent position in the sentence, or by keeping the agency implicit.

Racism in politics in a sense can be said to be the most influential on society, which might be illustrated in the pre-1989 period Soviet Union where opposite concepts as "*our socialist people's power versus their bourgeois democracy, our unity versus their pluralism*" (Baranov 1998: 131-132) prevailed their propaganda imprints in public political discourse typically transmitted by the media. Thomas (1999) points out the unmarkedness of "us" and the markedness of "them" in British and American press. In one of his investigations, of the five people referred to in the extracts taken from newspapers, the ethnicity of only two is mentioned, that of the "black secretary" and that of the "black inmate" whereas the white ethnicity of the others is left unmarked implicitly indicating their norm and that the minority black group is labeled emphasizing their difference from the mainstream in a context where it is irrelevant.

Research into racism in language education has touched on such aspects of educational life as the use of English as the medium of instruction in schools or the use of language as a requirement for job employment. Bunyi (2001) advances the argument that the use of English as the medium of instruction in Kenyan educational system has prevented children from different socioeconomic backgrounds enjoying equal educational opportunities. She also argues that educational practice and the differential educational treatment of children in Kenya contributes to the reproduction of unequal power relations in Kenyan society. Roberts et. al (1992) raised the issue of language and discrimination in the multi-ethnic workplaces and traced the inequality in employment policies in the UK down to the inequality in admission policies in the UK vocational courses. The authors found out that one single most important criterion for the selection of a course was a certain level of English proficiency and as places available in the work market became scarcer, both course providers and employers raised the levels of English proficiency required. This, according to the authors, has illustrated a well-known paradox that "applicants must already have acquired the skills and resources which qualify them for the opportunities to acquire these skills and resources" (Robert et al, 1992: 328). This paradox has widened the discrimination in the UK educational system.

In summary, CDA has made great contribution to the field of racism with numerous analyses from various approaches shedding light on many issues in different fields from racism in the press, racism in politics, racism in language education, etc.

6.2.2. Sexism in Language

In collaboration with racism studies in the fight against social injustice are researches into sexism in language, which are equally diversifying in the questions analyzed. Sexist CDA research encompasses various settings such as in politics, in courtrooms, in advertisements, in the family, in the classroom, etc., and various topics such as women's images and stereotypes in every day conversations or as depicted in the press; deconstructing and reconstructing women's images and stereotypes; and women's struggles and negotiations for connection with men.

Deconstructing and reconstructing women's images and stereotypes has been the focus of sexist CDA studies. On the whole, contrary to common stereotypes, women in CDA studies used language in a way as to maintain or reinforce rather than destroy their relationships with men. In defiance of common stereotyped assumptions about women's tendency towards talkativeness, West and Zimmerman (1975, 1983, 1985) found out that in intersexual conversations, men's interrupting women occurred far more frequently than women's interrupting men. Kendal and Tannen (1997: 83) reported "in groups, men tend to get and keep the floor more often than women, talk more often and for longer, interrupt more, and make different kinds of contributions, using language strategies that challenge, create and maintain status distinctions (i.e. they create and maintain asymmetrical alignments between themselves and interlocutors). Women, according to this research, "tend to get and keep the floor less frequently and for less time, interrupt less, and use language strategies that are more supportive and that minimize status distinctions". Leto Defransicso (1998) and Tannen (2003) investigated how the power struggle takes place in the family in the process of negotiations for power and negotiations for connection. Leto Defransicso (1998) studied the discursive inequality in the family. Observations of the 7 couples in one of his surveys led him to the conclusion that the men were relatively silent and that their behaviors silenced the women. The no-response was the most common turn-taking violation, particularly for the men whereas the women worked harder to maintain interaction than the men. In the same vein of research, Krupnick (1985) studied male and female students' practices of turn-taking strategies in the classroom. In her studies, female students do not talk as much as their male peers and

are interrupted far more frequently than men are in mixed-sex conversations. One explanation offered by Krupnick is women's extreme vulnerability to interruption. Once interrupted, female students had the tendency to stay out of the conversations for the rest of the class time.

The differentiation between the language including the use of pictures and images describing men and women is also found in advertisements (Nair, 1992; Arima, 2003; Cheng & Schweitzer, 1996). Men and women are portrayed in advertisements according to the socially constructed stereotypes of femininity and masculinity (Goffman, 1979), in which women have been associated with nature, carnality, instinct and passion whereas men are associated with culture, reason, control and spirituality (Stevens and Ostberg, 2012). The crucial point raised by CD analysts is that there has been little or no effort by advertising agents in changing these stereotypes to bring about a reversal of men's and women's roles in the media commercials.

Caldas-Coulthard (1995) criticized how men and women are differently described in the press. While male speakers' nominations are modified by their professional designations in public institutions, women are nominated in terms of their marital status, family relations or age. Women's professional statuses are rarely added, and if any, with shorter qualifying or modifying linguistic elements.

Efforts in the fight against socio-political injustice have been continuously made in CDA research and more aspects of social life have been the objects of CDA studies in the field of sexism in language.

7. Conclusion

Raising people's awareness of language manipulation is what CDA has effortlessly been doing in the process of constructing a

more equal society. Research describing and criticizing inequality through language is enormous and so is its impact on individuals and groups as members of our conflicting society. CDA's efforts and achievements in the fight again social inequality have supported the claim that social relations are not fixed but can be changed according to human wills and through human language practices (Krauss & Chiu, 1997; Butler, 2007). Humans can contribute either to reproducing or to reshaping existing social relations. Language practices are capable of maintaining and reproducing patterns of domination and subordination in society, but CD analysts, using emancipatory discourse, can fight against this manipulation by raising people's awareness of the asymmetrical relation of power (Janks and Ivanič, 1992), which is also one of the fundamental goals CDA has been attempting to attain.

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TIẾNG NÓI CHỐNG LẠI BẤT CÔNG XÃ HỘI TRONG PHÂN TÍCH DIỄN NGÔN PHÊ PHÁN

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Tóm tắt: Bài báo thảo luận các nghiên cứu thuộc đường hướng phân tích diễn ngôn phê phán trong lĩnh vực diễn ngôn báo chí, diễn ngôn chính trị, diễn ngôn hàm chứa phân biệt chủng tộc và kỳ thị giới tính nhằm lên tiếng chống lại những bất công về chính trị - xã hội. Khảo cứu các nghiên cứu thuộc đường hướng phân tích diễn ngôn phê phán cho thấy số lượng các nghiên cứu thuộc đường hướng này là vô cùng to lớn và có tác động mạnh mẽ đến mọi tầng lớp trong xã hội có những xung đột về quyền lực. Chúng ta có thể đấu tranh chống lại việc sử dụng ngôn ngữ để duy trì và tái tạo sự thống trị và lệ thuộc bằng cách nâng cao nhận thức của mọi người về sự bất bình đẳng trong mối quan hệ quyền lực sử dụng diễn ngôn khai phóng. Đây cũng là một trong những mục tiêu căn bản mà phân tích diễn ngôn phê phán hướng tới.

Từ khóa: phân tích diễn ngôn phê phán, bất bình đẳng về chính trị - xã hội, diễn ngôn báo chí, diễn ngôn chính trị, diễn ngôn phân biệt chủng tộc, diễn ngôn kỳ thị giới tính

IN SEARCH OF EFFECTIVE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF EFL TEACHERS IN VIETNAM

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Abstract: Professional development (PD) plays an important role in maintaining and improving teachers' qualities and competences, but how to make a PD program effective in relation to needs in multiple contexts has still been a matter of much concern by administrators, researchers, and teachers alike. This paper therefore aims to deal with this issue with a view to assisting EFL teachers to develop their PD in an effective way. At first, the paper points out necessity of PD and some weaknesses in PD plans from EFL environments in Vietnam and uses them as rationale for discussion in the following parts. Then it starts xthe discussion by defining the concepts of PD and effective PD by different scholars that reflect the current trend of individualized and school-based PD, and presenting scientific evidence about characteristics of effective PD programs in the literature. From this scientific foundation, the paper finally makes suggestions about how an effective PD program for EFL teachers and by EFL teachers should be designed and implemented in the Vietnamese context with sufficient attention to contextual factors.

Keywords: effective professional development plan, needs, PD tools, characteristics, EFL in-service teacher, research-based, school-based

1. Introduction

The fact that English has been one of the most popular languages in the world is taken for granted. In the Vietnamese context, the English language has become the first foreign language in schools and universities (Le, 2002). Recently, the government has released a number of policies to improve quality of English instruction at all levels, and priority is given to language teacher profession. As a result, many professional development (PD) programs to improve competences of subject matter and methodology of in-service EFL teachers by Ministry of Education and Training (MoET) have been operated to meet the ever-increasing demands of EFL instruction in Vietnam.

In the Decision on the approval of the National Foreign Languages 2020 Project, in dealing with PD-related tasks, the government focuses on establishing Management Board from Central Government; organizing the implementation of examination, re-planning; constructing training and re-training plans; and setting up continuation training (Nguyen, 2008). This shows the government's determination to improve the quality of teaching and learning EFL, in which professional development and PD programs are among the foci.

Nguyen (2013a, 2013b), who is from the NFL2020 Project, when reviewing the instruction of EFL at secondary schools reported from a survey that 87% of lower secondary school teachers and about 92% of upper secondary school teachers were under-qualified to teach English, and that they

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would be exposed to such domains as ELT methodology, knowledge of language learners, professional attitudes and values, and practice and context of language teaching (Nguyen, 2013a). In a recent survey on most-wanted qualities of English teachers by 339 students at English centers from nine cities in South Vietnam, 12 qualities of English teachers are supposed to influence students' learning, the first six qualities include English competence, ability to apply teaching principles, ability to manage the class, personal attributes, ability to meet students' learning needs, and ability to use effective assessment (Tran, 2015). These studies significantly revealed issues in improving EFL teachers' qualities.

Reality also shows that, even though some positive results have been found, a number of issues in the field of professional development revealed through recent PD programs in Vietnam need to be dealt with. First and foremost, in terms of PD management, human resource managers in the field of language teacher education and development should be considered in universities (Tran, 2009). These managers, who are expected to prepare and provide best conditions for teachers to fully improve and develop their occupation, should have profound knowledge of teacher career advancement and thorough understanding of inter-related issues concerning teacher professional development. Secondly, language teachers at secondary schools were not given adequate training in TEFL so as to catch up with modern teaching methodology (Pham, 2001). One possible cause is that there was a missing link between training and the reality where trainee teachers would be expected to work (Le, 2002). Thirdly, regarding the recent professional development programs, many administrators said that these programs were mostly prescribed from above, short-term and unsystematic, and they did not include follow-up activities (Hong Hanh, 2016). Finally, in

several schools, teachers were only familiar with class observation as an essential PD activity, and sadly enough, many teachers did not conduct this activity in an organized and effective way (Truong, 2013). Most of these teachers also stated that they needed more insights into such PD tools as reflective teaching, action research, mentoring, peer coaching, teaching journal, PD portfolios, and developing individual PD plan.

From the overview of PD necessity and reality in Vietnam, it is necessary, therefore, to reexamine the concept of effective professional development and what a PD program should be like from the current research studies, and how it should be implemented in EFL settings like Vietnam.

2. What is professional development?

Before exploring what effective professional development is, we should take a look at some definitions of professional development nowadays in the literature. Different views of PD may lead to different implementation of PD strategies.

Traditionally, teacher development is viewed as special and short-term events, including one-shot workshops, presentations, or graduate courses that teachers follow during their career to update their knowledge (Birman et al., 2000). This viewpoint makes professional development restricted to purely the activities that are designed and offered by educational institutions, and PD is therefore prescriptive, short-term, segmental, and incoherent in terms of teachers' needs and previous or current knowledge.

To many scholars, teacher development is a term used in the literature to describe a process of continual intellectual, experimental, and attitudinal growth on the part of teachers. PD is defined as an on-going learning process in which teachers engage voluntarily to

learn how to best adjust their teaching to the needs of their students (Guskey, 2000; Diaz-Maggioli, 2003). Diaz-Maggioli (2003, p.1) defined professional development as follows:

"Professional development is not a one-shot, one-size-fits-all event, but rather an evolving process of professional self-disclosure, reflection, and growth that yields the best results when sustained over time in communities of practice and when focused on job-imbedded responsibilities."

Day (1999, p.4) gives us a broader definition about professional development:

"Teacher professional development consists of all natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group, or school and […] through this, to the quality of education in the classroom. It is the process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purposes of teaching: and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues…"

Day's definition shows that professional development is a complex, constant, and long-term process which aims at both intellectual and emotional change on the part of the teachers to maintain or raise the quality of education in classroom. It may be conducted alone or in collaboration with others, and it includes events that happen outside the intention of teachers and institutions but lead to an improvement in teachers' knowledge, skills and practice. Day's viewpoint (1999) on PD, together with those of Guskey (2000), and Diaz-Maggioli (2003) reflects current beliefs of most scholars in the field, especially through approaches to research studies, which also lays a scientific foundation of this paper.

3. Effective Professional Development

In dealing with effective professional development for language teachers, Richardson (2003, p. 402) stated that it should be:

"statewide, long term with follow-up; encourage collegiality; foster agreement among participants on goals and visions; have a supportive administration; have access to adequate funds for materials, outside speakers, substitute teachers, and so on; encourage and develop agreement among participants; acknowledge participants existing beliefs and practices; and make use of outside facilitator/staff developers."

Desimone (2011) suggested five features of effective PD that need to be considered: (a) *content focus*: activities that are focused on subject matter content and how students learn that content; (b) *active learning*: opportunities for teachers to observe, receive feedback, analyze student work, or make presentations, as opposed to passively listening to lectures; (c) *coherence*: content, goals, and activities that are consistent with the school curriculum and goals, teacher knowledge and beliefs, the needs of students, and school, district, and state reforms and policies; (d) *sustained duration*: PD activities that are ongoing throughout the school year and include 20 hours or more of contact time; and (e) *collective participation*: groups of teachers from the same grade, subject, or school participate in PD activities together to build an interactive learning community.

In his recent effort of analyzing 13 different lists of the characteristics of effective professional development from different disciplines, all published within the last decade, Guskey (2003) discovered that they were derived in very different ways, used different criteria to determine "effectiveness", and that these characteristics are multiple and rather complex. In most of the lists,

however, the frequently cited characteristics include enhancement of teachers' content and pedagogical knowledge, provision of sufficient time and other resources as essential to effective PD, promotion of collegiality and collaborative exchange, inclusion of evaluation procedures, school- or site-based consideration, and emphasis on student performance (Guskey, 2003).

In general, when dealing with *effective professional development*, most experts in the field advocate moving away from an in-service training model where teachers are expected to learn a clearly defined body of skills through one-shot workshops or courses taught away from the school premises to models that are grounded in *classroom practice* and other aspects of school change, involve the formation of professional learning communities, employ different modes of input delivery, sustain over time and in a coherent manner, promote teachers' change and growth, and gear teachers' practices towards students learning. The following twelve research-based characteristics compiled from the literature by the author and presented in terms of content and form, are supposed to reflect the current trend of effective PD in the literature and be closely related to the reality of professional development of EFL teachers in Vietnam.

Content

Content and pedagogy: Teachers' content and pedagogical knowledge should be continuously enhanced. Teachers should be helped to understand more deeply the content they teach and the ways students learn that content appear to be a vital dimension of effective professional development (Birman, 2000; Nguyen, 2013a). A PD activity shows to be effective in improving teachers' knowledge and skills if it forms a *coherent* part of a wider set of opportunities for teacher learning and

development, builds on previous knowledge, supports national and provincial standards and assessment, and is consistent with teacher goals (Birman, 2000).

***Situating needs in multiple contexts*:** Professional development should address teachers' needs, and be situated in multiple contexts, both in schools and offsite, integrating teachers' and schools' needs as well as national demands to transfer recent international innovations in the field (Borko, Jacobs, & Koellner, 2010). The design of an effective professional development program should be grounded not only in a conception of how individual teachers learn, but also in a conception of how schools as organizations affect, and are affected by, teachers' learning (King & Newman, 2001). Collective participation, i.e. teachers from the same school, department, or grade level joining a professional development program, shows to be useful in terms of discussing concepts, skills and problems in the same context, sharing common issues related to curriculum instruction, dealing with students' needs across classes and grade levels, and contributing to a shared professional culture (Birman et al., 2000).

***Focusing on student learning*:** Effective professional development has to show improvements in student learning outcomes. These outcomes should be broadly defined to include a variety of indicators of student achievement, such as assessment results, portfolio evaluations, marks or grades, or scores from standardized examinations. Affective outcomes such as students' attitudes, attendance rates, dropout statistics, and participation in school activities should also be considered (Guskey, 2003). If a professional development program exerts a direct influence on students' behaviours, this will encourage teachers to view the program positively (Daloglu, 2004).

***Addressing teacher change*:** Effective professional development should lead to teacher change in cognition, beliefs, attitude, and practice (Ermeling, 2010; Gersten et al., 1997, cited in Avalos, 2011). Besides, professional development program for language teachers helped teachers to grow professionally in terms of how to develop effective language teaching materials, curriculum related issues, teacher collaboration, self-confidence as a learner (Daloglu, 2004). In addition, action research showed to affect areas of teacher recognition such as norms and values, connection between phenomena, and methods (Ponte et al. 2004).

Form

***Duration*:** Professional development requires considerable time, and that time must be well-organized, carefully structured, purposefully directed, and focused on content or pedagogy or both (Birman et al., 2000). The length of one full academic year shows to be appropriate since this length of time will help teachers have a chance to learn, implement, relearn, reimplement, forming a cycle of experimentation especially in getting feedback on what teachers have learned and produced (Daloglu, 2004).

***Collaboration and school-based PD communities*:** Collegiality and collaborative exchange should be promoted to make professional development effective. Teachers and educators at all levels value opportunities to work together, reflect on their practices, exchange ideas, and share strategies. They may try out new ideas in classrooms and monitor the success of their efforts (Englert & Tarrant, 1995). Professional development may be better when *teachers* and *researchers* collaborate to examine and reflect on practice, both are involved in co-constructing formal and practical knowledge (Bos, 1995).

Professional development needs to be focused on building up PD communities within schools for teachers to interact for their current as well as life-long teaching activities (Rueda, 1998; Matsumura and Steinberg, 2002).

***Self-regulation*:** Professional development will be effective if the learning processes of the teachers working within collaborative communities are also focused on. If teachers are supported to self-regulate their learning about teaching, then they will be able to help students to control such self-regulated learning activities, interpreting tasks to define learning goals, selecting, adapting, or even inventing strategic approaches to achieve desired outcomes, reflecting on progress and self-assessing performance, and revising learning approaches adaptively (Butler & Winne, 1995). Teachers should therefore be encouraged to design self-regulated activities in their collaborative professional development plan for effective professional development (Butler & Winne, 1995).

Technology-mediated input delivery and PD activities: Teachers should be trained and encouraged to make use of technology for their professional development, since many new PD models are incorporating various technology-related components, including digital libraries, web-based virtual learning environments and online and electronic conferencing features. These technologies are supposed to overcome time and place constraints and provide the means to reach large numbers of individual teachers at costs lower than those associated with the physical presence of professional development personnel (Rennie, 2001). Hybrid PD models that feature both online communication (either asynchronous or synchronous) and face-to-face components are gaining in popularity (Borko et al., 2010). Online collaboration for PD showed to help teachers in one institution with experiences such as envisioning

professional development, gaining and enhancing skills, sharing and exchanging, and socializing (Kabilan et al. 2011).

In designing a PD program, such issues as how it was delivered, the nature of the activities that were pursued, types of PD tools practiced, duration of the activities, should be considered (Kimberly et al. 2007). Careful adaptation to specific content, process, and context elements showed to be of great importance.

Volunteer basis: Effective professional development should be implemented on a volunteer basis (Bobrowsky, Marx, & Fishman, 2001, cited in Kimberly et al, 2007). Volunteers differ from non-volunteers in terms of their motivation to learn, their commitment to change, and their willingness to be risk takers (Loughran & Gunstone, 1997, cited in Kimberly et al, 2007).

PD management unit: In making professional development effective, there should be a unit in the national or provincial institutions in charge of this domain (Tran, 2009). Those responsible for planning and implementing professional development must learn how to critically assess and evaluate the effectiveness of what they do. In addition, there should be discussions about the specific goals of professional development, what evidence best reflects the achievement of these goals, and how that evidence can be gathered in meaningful and scientifically defensible ways must become the starting points for all planning activities (Guskey, 2000)

Follow-up: Teachers at all levels need just-in-time, job-imbedded assistance as they struggle to adapt new curricula and new instructional practices gained from workshops to their unique classroom contexts. All of the studies that showed positive improvements in student learning included significant amounts of structured and sustained follow-up after the main professional development activities (Guskey & Yoon, 2009).

Leadership and school support: To make PD activities more school-based, pedagogical leadership in supporting teachers' development such as the importance of principals' provision of pedagogical leadership on a larger scale also needs consideration when planning and implementing these programs (Daloglu, 2004). The support provided by the school such as reducing teaching timetable or secretarial support encouraged teachers to devote their time and energy to a professional development program.

4. Suggestions for effective PD in the Vietnamese context

The following suggestions are generally based on the characteristics of effective professional development mentioned above with reference to contextual factors in Vietnam and aim to assist PD planners, educators and language teachers to build up a professional development program that works for EFL teachers all through the country.

(1) Section of PD management of EFL teachers should be nationally or provincially headed by personnel who used to be experienced language teachers and researchers and who grasp current approaches to PD so as to ensure the right and proper direction of professional development policies and PD plans. In a similar way, a professional development plan for EFL teachers should be constructed collaboratively with the participation of foreign and local experts, researchers, provincial administrators, and school teachers in the field. Also, there should be constant co-operations between provincial departments of education and training and local universities/colleges of foreign languages for PD program development and implementation, and syllabus design and modification. More importantly, establishing professional development communities

on different scales for continuous PD of EFL teachers should be a focus in national, provincial or institutional policies or plans.

(2) A professional development program should include such components as context establishment, purpose and scope of the program, identification of specific needs and expectations, structure of the program, implementation and evaluation of the program.

(3) A professional development program should be situated in terms of versatility and practicality, so that the program is sensitive to variety of contexts in Vietnam, especially school-based settings, where management boards make efforts to establish school culture, and where teachers are allowed to deal with their own needs, focus on their students' learning, be exposed to innovative approaches, and have time to participate in and reflect upon their instructional activities in an effective and organized way.

(4) There should be a combination of different formats of input delivery, employing various tools for effective professional development, and organizing time on an on-going basis. Delivery format has to be decided before planning a PD program: either online or face-to-face, or hybrid. Classroom activities have to be considered so as to develop teachers' PD capacity in an optimal way. There should be a progression from individual teachers, groups of teachers, institutions, to groups of institutions moving from awareness, to reflection on teaching, reflective teaching, and action research. Time needed for each professional development program should range from 4-6 weeks, to one semester or school year, and content of PD should be properly tailored to suit the time length.

(5) Regarding procedure of implementing a PD program, there should be a number of coherent steps, which are as follows:

- A survey should be conducted to gain topics for the program from target EFL teachers' and administrators' needs.

- After the survey, a body of trainers, foreign and local, national and regional, should sit together to develop a PD program, dealing with themes for PD, mode of input transfer, classroom activities, trainers, duration and timetable, type of participants, and related resource preparation.

- In the initial step of the PD program, trainers should deal with local topics theoretically, give examples from research studies, and invite teachers to share their experiences from their classroom instruction.

- After this initial step, trainers may focus on national and international ELT issues by both transferring input and assisting teachers to understand the issues through activities and examples. At this stage, teacher collaboration activities as well as self-regulated plans from teachers are encouraged. They are also asked to reflect upon what they have done and achieved after each step to make sure the program is smoothly implemented.

- Teachers' PD activities related to assigned themes of a PD program or of the whole program such as reflections, journals, portfolios, have to be dealt with at the end of a program so that teachers' growth and change can be practically followed and their professional competence effectively evaluated.

- Follow-up plans should be encouraged to develop and share so that all individual participants may have common actions for further implementation. These follow-up plans should be organized with close examination of and support from provincial and local institutions.

- A formal evaluation of the professional development program should be

conducted at the end of the program so as to gain teachers' feedback on positive and negative points of the program.

(6) Individual language teachers should be willing to build up their own PD plans that are based on national or provincial PD programs as well as their personal PD objectives in reference to the characteristics of effective PD mentioned above, in order to make professional development self-directed, on-going, and beneficial.

In conclusion, this paper focuses on characteristics of professional development in general and a PD program in particular, almost all of which are research-based and supposed to be related to reality of professional development of language teachers in EFL contexts like Vietnam. More significantly, some suggestions are presented with a view to making PD and PD programs in the future better, more school-based and effective.

It would be more convincing if all of these scientific characteristics were supported by empirical evidence revealed through local and national contexts in Vietnam. However, as Corcoran (2001) pointed out, school staff members often paid lip service to the use of research in classrooms and were more interested in designs that drew on research about practices. It is therefore significant to discuss the characteristics of effective PD viewed and suggested by researchers in the world and use them as starting points in planning and implementing effective professional development programs for language teachers with consideration of the contextual factors of Vietnam.

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PHÁT TRIỂN NGHIỆP VỤ HIỆU QUẢ
ĐỐI VỚI GIÁO VIÊN TIẾNG ANH TẠI VIỆT NAM

Trương Viên

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Tóm tắt: Phát triển nghiệp vụ (PTNV) đóng một vai trò quan trọng trong việc duy trì và nâng cao phẩm chất và năng lực của người giáo viên, nhưng làm thế nào để cho một chương trình phát triển nghiệp vụ có hiệu quả so với những nhu cầu trong một bối cảnh đa dạng cho đến nay vẫn là một vấn đề được nhiều nhà quản lý, nhà nghiên cứu, và giáo viên quan tâm. Bài nghiên cứu này bàn đến vấn đề PTNV với mong muốn trợ giúp giáo viên tiếng Anh phát triển nghiệp vụ của mình một cách hiệu quả. Đầu tiên, bài nghiên cứu chỉ ra sự cần thiết của việc PTNV, những điểm yếu trong các chương trình PTNV đối với giáo viên tiếng Anh phổ thông tại Việt Nam và coi đây là lý do cho việc thảo luận ở những phần kế tiếp. Tiếp đến, bài nghiên cứu bắt đầu việc thảo luận bằng cách định nghĩa những khái niệm PTNV và PTNV hiệu quả bởi các học giả khác nhau theo các khuynh hướng hiện nay, và trình bày các bằng chứng khoa học về những đặc điểm của các chương trình PTNV hiệu quả thông qua các nghiên cứu trên thế giới và trong nước đối với lĩnh vực chuyên môn này. Trên cơ sở các đặc điểm khoa học đã nêu, bài nghiên cứu đưa ra những đề xuất về nội dung và cách thức thiết kế và tiến hành một chương trình PTNV hiệu quả đối với giáo viên tiếng Anh phổ thông tại Việt Nam, trong đó chú ý đến các yếu tố ngữ cảnh.

Từ khóa: chương trình phát triển nghiệp vụ, hiệu quả, nhu cầu, công cụ PTNV, đặc điểm, giáo viên tiếng Anh

DISCUSSION

LANGUAGE BORROWING: THEORY AND REALITY

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Abstract: The paper discusses the concept of language borrowing from different viewpoints and considers approaches to that linguistic phenomenon, from traditional to modern ones concerning borrowings at different levels in a language system, including phonetic, lexical and syntactic levels. These offer practical implications to research on the issue of borrowing in the Vietnamese language at present.

Keywords: language contact, language borrowing, loan words

1. Introduction

World-reputable linguists claim that languages and dialects do not exist in vacuum; rather, they often have contact with other languages and dialects. Such contact or exposure results in 'borrowed language' or language borrowing, which has long been a recurrent topic of discussions from various approaches by diferent authors, particularly after the two classic works of Uriel Weinrich (1953) and Einar Haugen (1953).

In Vietnam, although there have been some studies on the phenomenon of borrowed words in Vietnamese from other languages such as Chinese, French, etc., like the works of Nguyen Tai Can, Phan Ngoc, Vuong Toan, amongst others, a number of aspects and issues remain untouched, even in the recent fairly elaborate theoretical work of Nguyen Van Khang (2007).

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2. The concepts of 'borrowing' / 'loans'

As far as studies on the phenomenon of borrowing and loan words are concerned, the recent few decades have witnessed increasing focus on theoretical aspects with more comprehensive insights in comparison with the two classic works of Weinrich (1953) and Haugen (1953).

When researching borrowing phenomenon, most linguists tend to use the term 'borrowing' or 'loan' (Russian: *Заимствование*). In the particularly frequent field of **lexical borrowing,** the term 'loan word' or 'borrowed word' (Russian: *заимствованное слово*) sees the highest use in contrast with the term 'foreign word' (Russian: *иностранное слово*). Although these terms have become so popular for a long time, not a few scholars argue that they are not accurate because nothing is returned from the 'borrowing' language to the 'lending' language. In this line, several attempts have been made to suggest other terms so as to add higher accuracy to various

aspects of 'borrowing' phenomenon, for example, *importation, adoption, adaptation, integration*, etc.

Despite differences in concepts and terminology, current researchers seem to prefer the definition of Thomason and Kaufman (1988:37) to the others 20 years earlier, which states, "Borrowing is a kind of blending or incorporation foreign features to the language of an indigenous group by the speakers of that language; although this native language was maintained, it experienced certain modifications due to those additional features". This definition is believed to be better than that of Haughen (1950: 212): "Borrowing is a 'reproduction' in one language of the patterns found earlier in another language".

Concerning the denotation and connotation of the concept of 'borrowing' as well as approaches to borrowing, recent decades witness the following major emerging trends:

(i) The first trend considers 'borrowing' in a broader context, in which 'borrowing' is just one type of cross-linguistic influences or of contact-induced change. Language contact includes many different phenomena such as borrowing, convergence and relexification. The most common 'products' of these phenomena are, *inter alia,* code-switching, pidgins, creoles, and mixed language.

(ii) The second trend considers 'borrowing' a 'multidisciplinary' issue, i.e. each discipline would approach borrowed words from a particular view such as linguistics, anthropology, sociology, psychology and ethnography. In linguistics, besides traditional fields which have long been interested in the phenomena of borrowing such as historical linguistics, comparative linguistics, there are now interdisciplinary

research works such as socio-linguistics, psychological linguistics and 'cognitive linguistics'. However, the most notable emergence is 'contact linguistics'. With this new direction, the phenomenon of borrowing will be considered from a theory, from an approach that has many newer, broader and deeper features than traditional ones.

(iii) The third trend argues that traditional researchers rely more on diachronic linguistics and tend to investigate the development of language and language relations, the distinction between the borrowed and native characteristics in a particular language. However, later research pays more attention to the synchronic aspects of borrowing, focusing on the distinction between borrowing phenomena and other language phenomena such as 'interference', 'transference', 'convergence' and especially 'code-switching'. There have been meticulous studies to find out the distinctive features between the two phenomena: borrowing and code-switching (see overview of Romaine 1995). Another noteworthy effort is in building lexical borrowing universals like the 'World Loanword Database' of 41 languages (Haspelmath & Tadmor 2009).

(iv) The fourth trend agrees that research on borrowing phenomena does not merely deal with the results of borrowing, but it needs to be deepened from another perspective, which has not received adequate attention so far. It is the need to find out the answers to such questions as: What are the linguistic and non-linguistic processes underlying borrowing phenomena? How do these processes manage their functions?

(v) The fifth trend supposes that traditional studies of borrowing phenomena have a tendency to explain language change due to internal factors. However, later research has shifted to external factors. The work which triggered this contact-induced change of a language is the book of the two authors Thomason and Kaufman (1988).

(vi) The influence of language contact can be 'reciprocal' / 'two-way' (mutual) or just 'one-way' (non-mutual). For example, Chinese exerted very profound influence on the development of Japanese, Korean, and Vietnamese, but the opposite seems negligible. When merely uni-directional, such influence is likely to give rise to 'linguistic hegemony' as evidenced in the languages of the ruling empires in their colonies like Latin, Chinese, Persian/Iranian, Portuguese, Spanish, English, French, etc.

(vii) Borrowing can leave profound and multifaceted impacts not only on the lexicon, but also on the phonology, morphology and syntax of the borrowing language. Such impacts may extend as deep as the 'organic layer' (stratum).

(viii) To establish a necessary distinction between the language that borrows (e.g. new words) and the language that lends (those words), it is important to use the following pairs of common terms:

+ Source language and Donor language
+ Recipient language and Target language
+ Borrowing language and Replica language

3. Different approaches to the study of borrowing

It is significant to note that borrowing phenomenon in general or loan words in particular should be approached from different views of various branches of linguistics as well as from interdisciplinary stance.

From traditional perspective of historical linguistics and comparative linguistics, there are three common issues of interest to study the phenomenon of borrowing: history of language, language relations and language change. For example, English loan words will be reviewed in the process of English language history, from Old English to Middle English and Modern English. In that process, English has borrowed from many prominent languages such as Latin, French and Norse (the language of the Vikings, Scandinave, which was believed to originate from Proto German). From the 9th century onward, English borrowed many French and Norse words, the point of time considered to be the end of Old English and the beginning of Middle English.

From the perspective of sociolinguistics, studies of borrowing phenomena concentrate on influential factors which are socio-linguistic in nature (see Nguyen Van Khang 2007). It is worth noticing the notion of Weinrich, Herzgod and Labob (1968) on the so-called 'embedding problem' and 'constraints problem' related to social correlate. Some other issues are also noted, namely:

+ 'actuation problem' and 'transition problem', which refer to language characteristics: How do lending languages find way into borrowing languages? When do they change their functions?

+ 'evaluation problem' concerning the subjective evaluation of different researchers.

Also noteworthy is the notion of 'social status' of the lending and borrowing languages. 'Borrowing' typically reflects the social status of the relations between the two languages. Consequently, two terms emerged: 'Superstratum' is used for the language with higher social status and 'Substratum' for the language with lower social status.

As mentioned above, with the emergence of subfields or the movement of 'contact linguistics' (see Winford 2003), borrowing phenomena are considered from an approach which has many new features. In the history of research on this phenomenon, the basic problems are discussed from language exposure perspective. Since the time of Uriel Weinrich (1953) and Einar Haugen (1953), for more than 60 years, there have been many different opinions on borrowing (see Thomason & Kaufman 1988, Trask 2000, Van Coetsem 2000 Aikhenvald 2002, Heine and Kuteva 2005). Among them, more notable are the followings:

+ Borrowing is usually associated with situations of maintenance, whereas interference is often associated with acquiring a second language and language shift.

+ Borrowing is a type of characteristic transference from one language to another.

+ Borrowing is an incorporation of foreign features into the native language.

+ During the process of borrowing, some pairs of terms should be distinguished: 'importation' vs. 'substitution'; 'adoption' vs. 'adaptation'; 'adaptation' vs. 'integration'; 'adoption' vs. 'imitation'.

We can be more objective with the viewpoint of 'contact language' when it is estimated that approximately 60-70% of Vietnamese vocabulary were borrowed from Chinese in different historical periods. Similarly, when looking into English, in 1000 English words today, the average proportions are as follows (from Roberts, 1965):

- Pure English: 32%
- Original French: 45%
- Original Latin: 17%
- Original German: 04%
- From other languages (like Scandinave): 02% and according to the general estimate of many scholars, the number of English loan words may be more, 60%- 70% or 65%-75%!

4. Borrowing at different linguistic levels

Borrowing occurs not only at lexeme level (although it happens most popularly) but also from phoneme, morphology, syntax levels:

4.1. Phonetics

Languages usually borrow phonemes, phonemic distribution context, or phonetic rules from other languages. For example, in Latvian and Finnish, the first syllable stress was borrowed from Baltic region languages. Diffusion phenomena of phonetic change from [k] to [c] or from [ts] to [s] was borrowed from a number of languages.

4.2. Morphology

It is very interesting that English has borrowed affixes from many other languages. Studies by the Russian scholar Volodarskaya E. (2001) show the following results:

- Pure Anglo-Saxon: 11.7%, including prefixes *be-, for-, mid-, mis-, step-, twi-, un-*, etc.
- Original French: 16%, including prefixes *counter, de-, demi-, en-, in-, inter, re-, sur-*, etc.
- Original Latin: 45%, including prefixes *ante-, bi-, co-, dis-, extra-, micro-, multi-, non-, post-, pro-, semi-, sub-, super -, trans-, vice-*, etc.
- Original Greek: 26.7%, including prefixes *a-, anti-, auto-, di-, hyper-, mono-, neo-, pan-, poly-, proto-, pseudo-, tri-*, etc.

4.3. Syntax

It is obvious that the borrowing language was influenced by a certain structural model or a certain word order or one type of sentence structure of the lending language (for example subordinate clause is associated with the main clause by conjunction). It can be seen in various meticulous studies, for example, 'Grammatical Borrowing in Cross-Linguistic Perspective' by Matras and Sakel (2007).

5. Conclusion

Borrowing is a common phenomenon across languages in the world, which occurs most frequently and apparently at lexical level. It also occurs at phonetic, morphological and syntactic levels to different degrees. It is important to understand the causes and impacts of language borrowing so as to properly treat borrowing in general and loan words, or 'foreign words' in particular. On the one hand, this will help preserve the purity of the national language, and on the other, make use of the positive impacts of borrowed linguistic features to enrich the national language.

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VỀ VẤN ĐỀ VAY MƯỢN NGÔN NGỮ: LÍ THUYẾT VÀ THỰC TIỄN

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Tóm tắt: Bài báo thảo luận về khái niệm vay mượn ngôn ngữ theo nhiều quan điểm khác nhau, xem xét các cách tiếp cận đối với hiện tượng ngôn ngữ này từ truyền thống đến hiện đại ở nhiều cấp độ vay mượn trong hệ thống ngôn ngữ như ngữ âm, từ vựng và ngữ pháp. Điều này có ý nghĩa quan trọng đối với việc nghiên cứu vấn đề vay mượn trong tiếng Việt hiện nay.

Từ khóa: tiếp xúc ngôn ngữ, vay mượn ngôn ngữ, từ vay mượn

THỂ LỆ GỬI BÀI

1. **Tạp chí Nghiên cứu Nước ngoài** là ấn phẩm khoa học chính thức của Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội, kế thừa và phát triển *Chuyên san Nghiên cứu Nước ngoài* của Tạp chí Khoa học, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội. Tạp chí xuất bản định kỳ 06 số/năm (gồm 04 số tiếng Việt/năm và 02 số tiếng Anh/năm), công bố các công trình nghiên cứu có nội dung khoa học mới, chưa đăng và chưa được gửi đăng ở bất kỳ tạp chí nào, thuộc các lĩnh vực: *ngôn ngữ học, giáo dục ngoại ngữ/ngôn ngữ, quốc tế học hoặc các ngành khoa học xã hội và nhân văn có liên quan.*

2. Bài báo có thể viết bằng tiếng Việt hoặc tiếng Anh (***tối thiểu*** 10 trang đối với bài nghiên cứu và 5 trang đối với bài thông tin-trao đổi) được soạn trên máy vi tính, khổ giấy A4, cách lề trái 2,5cm, lề phải 2,5cm, trên 3,6cm, dưới 4,3cm, font chữ Times New Roman, cỡ chữ 11, cách dòng Single.

3. Tất cả các bài báo phải có tóm tắt (không quá 200 từ) và từ khóa (không quá 5 từ) bằng cả tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt. Tên bài báo bằng chữ hoa in đậm.

4. Bài báo phải được trình bày theo thứ tự sau: Tên bài báo, (Các) Tác giả, Tên cơ quan của (các) tác giả, Tóm tắt, Từ khóa, Nội dung của bài báo, Lời cảm ơn (nếu có), Tài liệu tham khảo, Phụ lục (nếu có). Tác giả liên hệ phải được chỉ rõ cùng với địa chỉ cơ quan, e-mail, số điện thoại trên trang nhất của bản thảo.

5. Tài liệu tham khảo phải được chỉ rõ trong bài báo. Ở cuối bài, tài liệu tham khảo được sắp xếp riêng theo từng ngôn ngữ, trong đó tiếng Việt đầu tiên, ví dụ như Việt, Ả Rập, Trung, Anh, Pháp, Đức, Nhật, Hàn, Nga, Thái, theo thứ tự bảng chữ cái của tên tác giả Việt Nam hoặc của họ tác giả nước ngoài và được trình bày như sau:

+ Đối với các tài liệu là sách:

Nguyễn Thiện Giáp (2008). *Giáo trình Ngôn ngữ học*. Hà Nội: Nxb Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội.

Saussure, Ferdinand de (1959). *Course in General Linguistics*. Edited by Charles Bally and Albert Sechehaye in collaboration with Albert Reidlinger, translated by Wade Baskin. New York: Philosophical Library.

+ Đối với các tài liệu là bài báo, báo cáo hội nghị hội thảo:

Trần Thị Cúc, Đỗ Thị Thanh Hà (2015). Patterns of Code-Mixing of English in Hoa Hoc Tro Magazine in Vietnam. *VNU Journal of Science: Foreign Studies*, Vol. 31, No. 4, 11-24.

Lâm Quang Đông (2015). Quá trình tư duy ở người lớn học ngoại ngữ: một trường hợp điển cứu. Kỷ yếu Hội thảo quốc tế *Đổi mới việc dạy-học & nghiên cứu Hàn Quốc học tại Việt Nam*. Hà Nội, ngày 10 tháng 4 năm 2015, tr. 172-191.

+ Đối với các tài liệu truy cập trên mạng:

Baker, Mark C. (1989) 'Object Sharing and Projection in Serial Verb Constructions', *Linguistic Inquiry*, Vol. 20, No.4 (Autumn, 1989), pp. 513-553, Cambridge: The MIT Press. Available through <http://www.jstor.org/stable/ 4178644>, Accessed 14/03/2012 06:49

An Ngọc (2013). *Nghề biên-phiên dịch thiếu chuẩn mực nghề nghiệp*, Truy cập lúc 10:30 ngày 29/11/2015 tại http://www.vietnamplus.vn/nghe-bienphien-dich-thieu-chuan-muc-nghe-nghiep/234990.vnp.

6. Bản thảo xin gửi đến địa chỉ email của Tòa soạn (xem dưới đây). Tòa soạn không trả lại bản thảo nếu bài không được đăng.

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1. As a natural development from its predecessor *VNU Journal of Science: Foreign Studies*, **VNU Journal of Foreign Studies** continues to be an official, independent peer-reviewed publication of the University of Languages and International Studies (ULIS) under Vietnam National University (VNU). *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies* publishes bimonthly in 4 Vietnamese editions and 2 English editions p.a. with research articles in *linguistics, language/foreign language teaching, international studies, and related social sciences and humanities*. Only papers which have not been previously or elsewhere published can be accepted.

2. Manuscripts should be typed in Vietnamese or English (*at least* 10 pages for research article and 5 pages for discussion article), using A4 size, left margin 2.5cm, right margin 2.5cm, top margin 3.6cm, bottom margin 4.3cm, Times New Roman font at 11 with Single spacing.

3. All manuscripts must contain abstract (200 words maximum) and at most five (5) keywords in both Vietnamese and English. Article title should be bold and capitalized.

4. Manuscripts should be prepared according to the following order: Article title, Author(s), Workplace(s), Abstract, Keywords, Main text, Acknowledgements (if any), References, Appendix (if any). The corresponding author should be marked, with his/her postal address, e-mail, telephone provided on the first page of the manuscript.

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Saussure, Ferdinand de (1959). *Course in General Linguistics.* Edited by Charles Bally and Albert Sechehaye in collaboration with Albert Reidlinger, translated by Wade Baskin. New York: Philosophical Library.

+ *Journal articles or conference papers:*

Trần Thị Cúc, Đỗ Thị Thanh Hà (2015). Patterns of Code-Mixing of English in Hoa Hoc Tro Magazine in Vietnam. *VNU Journal of Science: Foreign Studies*, Vol. 31, No. 4, 11-24.

Lâm Quang Đông (2015). Quá trình tư duy ở người lớn học ngoại ngữ: một trường hợp điển cứu. Kỷ yếu Hội thảo quốc tế *Đổi mới việc dạy-học & nghiên cứu Hàn Quốc học tại Việt Nam*. Hà Nội, ngày 10 tháng 4 năm 2015, tr. 172-191.

+ *Online materials:*

Baker, Mark C. (1989) 'Object Sharing and Projection in Serial Verb Constructions', *Linguistic Inquiry*, Vol. 20, No.4 (Autumn, 1989), pp. 513-553, Cambridge: The MIT Press. Available through <http://www.jstor.org/stable/ 4178644>, Accessed 14/03/2012 06:49

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