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MỤC LỤC

THE ENGLISH DEPARTMENT: 60 YEARS ON

Founded originally as a department of the Faculty of Foreign Languages of Hanoi University of Education in 1958, the English Department (ED) of the University of Languages and International Studies (ULIS) is now one of the oldest in Vietnam. It is the name all of us cherish. It embraces three faculties: the Faculty of English Language Teacher Education, the Faculty of Linguistics and Cultures of English-speaking Countries, and the Faculty of English.

It started out with three professors and a group of nine students. Its founder, the late Dang Chan Lieu was responsible for running the Department and was instrumental in laying the foundation for ELT in North Vietnam. Over the years it has grown into one famous for academic excellence, interdisciplinary learning and innovations in English language teaching (ELT) and research.

A major development happened in 2009. Vietnam National University, Hanoi (VNU) began its restructuring efforts aiming to bring all ELT into the fold of the University of Languages and International Studies (ULIS) in order to enhance the quality of ELT across VNU. It was a success story in terms of inclusion by all measures. All teachers of English were welcomed into the fold, and most had the feeling of coming home. The number totalled about 330 in all - the size of a medium university in Vietnam. It became clear to VNU and ULIS leaderships that putting them in one organization would not work. In the end, three faculties came into being: the Faculty of English Language Teacher Education, the Faculty of Linguistics and Cultures of English-speaking Countries, and the Faculty of English. Teachers teach across the faculties, and work together on research projects.

The Department's mission is to prepare students for a lifetime of intellectual ends and contributions to society through ELT and research in the fields of English language education, linguistics, intercultural communication, culture and society. The Department:

- Challenges its students to achieve their full intellectual potential through high academic standards;
- Encourages a close working relationship between faculty and students;
- Encourages scholarship, research and creative work of the faculty so that they can excel in teaching and research;
- Requires students to study a field in depth, chosen from a range of disciplines;
- Helps students to develop knowledge, values, and skills necessary for their future life and work in the 21st century, such as complex problem solving, critical thinking, creativity, sharing, communication, and teamwork.

It has evolved from a single entity focusing on English philology into one with wide-ranging interests in modern English language, English language education, linguistics, the study of discourse, culture and society, and intercultural communication. The Department is keen on developing its teaching and research capacity and on offering a dynamic learning environment for prospective students. It takes quality seriously with the mantra: Quality First.

The Department is fostering an innovative and can-do spirit which helps transform itself into an acknowledged center of excellence able to cater for the needs of a diverse student population.

ED offers a wide range of courses from BA to MA and PhD programs. Its MA and PhD programs were launched in early 1990s. In 2001, the fast-track BA program in ELT started and in 2003, its sister program fast-track BA in Translation was offered. The double-degree and double-major programs are its innovative programs launched in 2009. Its graduates may pursue a career in teaching, research, or use their expertise in other related areas such as business, science and technology, and management.

Throughout its 60-year-long history, the English Department has played a defining role in foreign language education, linguistics, international studies, and related fields in Vietnam through its pursuit of academic excellence, and commitment to innovation and creativity. It has become a powerhouse in English language education in Vietnam. It has produced thousands of qualified teachers and translators /interpreters. Its graduates work in all sectors of the national economy. It has been entrusted with the projects of national significance such as Developing a Strategy for Foreign Language Teaching in Vietnam, the designing of a National Curriculum for English Language Teacher Training in Vietnam, writing of school textbooks from grade six to grade twelve, and developing Vietnamese Standardized Test of English Proficiency (VSTEP), to name just a few. Its staff have conducted hundreds of research projects of very high standards, which were applied to the improvement of ELT quality.

For its performance and academic excellence, the English Department has been a nationally-recognized force and as a result, a number of state honors and citations have been conferred on the Department. In 2005, it was awarded the Order of Labor, first class. A large number of its staff have been blessed with such honors as Title of Merited Teacher, Title of People's Teacher, Badge for the Cause of Education, Citations by the Prime Minister or the Minister of Education and Training, or the President of Vietnam National University, Hanoi.

As we reflect on the journey we have travelled, 60 years is one of those milestones that represents a clearly defined success in the life of the Department, and we are constantly looking at the road ahead. It is exciting, full of promises for those who give it their all.

Prof. Nguyen Hoa

English Department,

President of Science and Education Council

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RESEARCH

MY PROFESSIONAL JOURNEY: AN AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL NARRATIVE

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Abstract: This paper underscores the dynamic and complex dimensions of my being and becoming an applied linguist. It employs autobiography as an approach to my engagement in self-reflexivity on the professional re-construction of myself. The purpose behind this self-reflective account is to encourage an access to localized ways of knowing, being, and becoming in the world. That access is much needed in language education research in the era in which epistemological understandings are in flux. The paper concludes by discussing how I re-construe my own professional experiences.

Keywords: autobiographical narrative, professional journey, professional growth, learning English, teaching English, applied linguistics

1. Introduction

I am invited to write an article for the *Special Issue* of the *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies* run by the VNU University of Languages and International Studies (ULIS) to mark the 60th anniversary of the university's English Department. I think it could be best to tell the story of my learning and professional trajectory, which is full of twists and turns, for the purpose of exploring, connecting, sharing and learning. As Barkhuizen, Benson, and Chik (2014, p. 37) have asserted, "Language learning histories (LLHs) are retrospective accounts of past learning. They are the written stories of language learning experiences." They can be as extensive as all the life span of a person's learning experience or they can be limited to smaller units like school year, semester or classes. In this autobiographical narrative, my case is related to the former, i.e., my life-long learning experiences. As I have spent forty-five years of my life studying and working at ULIS, I hope that my professional story can shed some light on the 60-year-long history of the English Department. The paper begins by contextualizing autobiography as a research method in applied linguistics in general and in second language teacher education in particular. It next presents the professional trajectories I have experienced from an English language learner to an English language teacher, an English language teacher educator, and then an applied linguist. The paper concludes with

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the discussion of how I re-construe my own professional experiences.

2. Contextualization

In the field of English language education, there are diverse realities that describe English-language teachers. Each reality comes from a collection of experiences and paths that determine the practice of individual teachers. One of these realities is the one portrayed in the teacher's autobiographical narrative, which is understood as a subjective interpretation of one own's life. In other words, although teachers share their occupation, they are far from sharing life stories. Every teacher may be considered a unique world, with a particular voice portraying their own life stories and experiences. As a result, the use of autobiography as a research method has become increasingly recognized in social sciences and applied linguistics research over the past couple of decades (Barkhuizen, et al., 2014; Pavlenko, 2007; Coffey, 2014). Coffey (2014, p. 1) describes autobiography as "the telling and documenting of one's own life". According to Pavlenko (2007, p. 164-165), "autobiographic narratives offer three major contributions to research on SLA [Second Language Acquisition] and bilingualism. First of all, they offer insights into people's private worlds, inaccessible to experimental methodologies, and thus provide the insider's view of the processes of language learning, attrition, and use. Secondly, they highlight new connections between various learning processes and phenomena, and, in doing so, point to new directions for future research. Thirdly, autobiographic narratives constitute a valuable information source for historic and diachronic sociolinguistic research in contexts where other sources are scarce (Nekvapil, 2003)." In a similar vein, Barkhuizen, et al. (2014) note, "self-narratives, or the stories people tell about themselves, help us to understand the ways in which individuals situate themselves and their activities in the world." (p. 2). In the field of teacher education research, the interest in autobiographical narratives is grounded in the belief that "in telling their stories of experience teachers necessarily reflect on those experiences and thus make meaning of them; that is, they gain an understanding of their teaching knowledge and practice" (Barkhuizen & Wette, 2008, p. 374). Ellis (1997) argues that "teachers of second and foreign languages, it might be argued, do not exist as a collective, but are highly differentiated in terms of their background knowledge, their personal goals, who they teach and the conditions under which they teach" (p. 246). Therefore, knowing that we are preparing ourselves to become English language teachers, we must understand how our personal histories may impact our jobs.

Accordingly, autographical narratives have become a source of inspiration to many scholars and researchers in the field of second language teacher education and applied linguistics. Borg (2013) encourages the use of autobiographical narratives to explore teachers' own experiences in classrooms and schools. Casanave and Schecter's (1997) book, for example, is a collection of stories and reflections written by language educators from diverse backgrounds and working contexts. Each contribution is a personal narrative, and the book overall presents a study of personal issues in language education. Canagarajah (2012) presents his story of professionalization as a periphery professional in TESOL through means of an analytic autoethnography (Anderson, 2006). Canagarajah explains that in an autobiographical approach,

writing functions not only as a means of disseminating knowledge and experience, it is a central activity for generating, recording, and analyzing data. In writing his narrative he engages explicitly with the situatedness of his experiences, acknowledging that "knowledge is based on one's location and identities" (2012, p. 260) and that "narratives represent *knowledge from the bottom up* … [which is] open to further interpretation" (Canagarajah, 1996, p. 327, original emphasis). In sum, an autographical narrative is a communicative space where the writer-teacher takes up personal issues of being, becoming, and belonging in contextual and relational analyses of their situated experiences.

The purpose behind this autographical narrative is to self-reflect on how the role of my background, my knowledge and the conditions in which I have been working has historically and diachronically played in my professional life. It entails processes through which I have reflected on and reconstructed my own professional life and professional identity. Throughout the process of writing my own narrative, I was often reminded of the shifting sands of time and space. Thus, my own biographical account can be a source of reference to other English-language-teaching (ELT) professionals and applied linguists working from both inside Vietnam and outside Vietnam for insightful analysis of how I exercises agency and shape myself as an ELT teacher, teacher educator and applied linguist.

Reflecting on my experiences as a language learner, language teacher, and an applied linguist through my autographical narrative I have managed to identify valuable strengths from my lived experiences, which have helped me to gain better understandings of who I am as an applied linguist and of my professional landscape.

3. Becoming an English language learner

In November 1974, I, at the age of 19, was admitted into the Hanoi College of Foreign Language Teachers (now VNU University of Languages and International Studies) through the national entrance examination. Neither the College nor English was my choice. It was arranged by unknown people. Born and raised in a poverty-stricken rural area, I thought the College had a beautiful campus with high-rise buildings. Having set foot on the campus, I was shocked seeing a few long thatch-roofed houses with walls being made of clay surrounded by green paddy fields. Soon, I realized that those cottage houses were the faculty residence and student dormitories. In addition, there were a couple of brick two- and four-storey buildings, the former seating the College's Administration and the library while the latter housing the classrooms.

At that time, Russian and Chinese were two dominant foreign languages taught at secondary and tertiary levels of education. English was considered to be the language spoken in capitalist countries and as a result it did not have any social status. While I was arranged to take the teacher training programme, very few upper secondary schools taught English. Consequently, I had quite a vague idea of my future career though this fact did not bother me much (probably because of then societal milieu). I also realized that the College English language lecturers were equally low in the social and economic ladder as compared with their Russian or French language peers.

It was the first time in my life I had learned English and I found English so difficult to learn, particularly its pronunciation. During the first semester of the first year at the College, every time the teacher asked me to read aloud English words, most of the

classmates laughed at me because of my 'funny' pronunciation. The English sounds seemed to be too challenging to me. Honestly speaking, I was so frustrated with my learning that I from time to time thought of quitting. However, all the lecturers from the English Department were so helpful and enthusiastic. Besides the classroom hours, they, in the evening, visited the students frequently at the thatched dormitory lit by kerosene lamps, providing tutorials to the students. What impressed me was that everybody worked so hard both individually and in groups albeit without clearly-defined reasons of learning English. And everybody was making progress to varying degrees, which was reflected in their progress test scores. This encouraged me a great deal and I talked to myself that if I worked harder, I could learn better. I practiced the English pronunciation day and night, reading aloud single sounds or words repeatedly. My throat became hoarse. I got up as early as possible every morning, lying in bed and practicing English sounds. Despite my great effort, progress was invisible. I felt so shy and humiliated every time I was called to read English in the classroom. It was not until the beginning of the second year of the training programme when improvement in my English pronunciation was surfaced. Having completed the second year of the training programme, I began to find myself feeling tremendous affection toward English, and I had a completely different sense of myself as a language learner. This motivated me to work harder and move to the ever higher level of academic performance as reflected in the better marks I was given in the forms-focused progress and achievement tests.

Like all other students of my time, I was taught English with a Grammar-Translation Method. During the first two years, the 'textbook' were written by Vietnamese authors, all being the College's senior lecturers. Each lesson was composed of pronunciation drill exercises, a text and forms-focused exercises. For the last three years of the training program, the textbooks used were all written by Soviet linguists with a focus on classic English literature and forms-focused exercises. While being called 'textbooks', they were actually stenciled copies of the original version with pages of each individual lesson pinned together and distributed to the students on the weekly basis. More often than not, students did not have the 'textbook' until the lesson had been taught. There was no such a thing as skill-based teaching and nobody had ever known of Communicative Language Teaching. A dictionary was a dreamed luxury not only to students but to the majority of lecturers as well. Actually, the first bilingual English-Vietnamese dictionary was not available on bookshop shelves in Northern Vietnam until 1980.

The grammar-and-literature biased pedagogy did little to encourage oral and written discourse in English. Listen-and-repeat and reading aloud were two main classroom activities. My classmates and I listened and repeated sounds and words after the teacher because there was not any tape-recorder at that time. In terms of speaking, we never went beyond a short single sentence as the teachers tended to ask each individual student to make up their own sentence with a particular grammatical structure or a word or a lexical phrase. Regarding writing, we were often asked to write either dictations or an essay but the primary focus in writing was on grammaticality. The academic style of writing and citation styles were never taught. Unsurprisingly, I did not know anything about topic sentences, supporting sentences, coherence or cohesion. If our writing was grammatically correct, we got good marks. My

writing skills in Vietnamese were so helpful to me in writing English 'essays' because I was one of the best students at Vietnamese literature at secondary school. This explained the great difficulty I had in writing the course assignment following my admission to the Master's Degree programme in TESOL in 1996. While my lexical and grammatical knowledge was not so bad, my ability to speak and to understand spoken English was limited. This is because I, like all other students, had to learn and memorize a large vocabulary size and abstract grammatical rules for examinations.

When I became the fourth-year student, I was, for the first time, taught a subject called Teaching Methods. The text was entitled "*A Conscious-Practical Approach to Foreign Language Teaching*", written by G. V. Rogova, who was on the faculty of Moscow State University. The author divided her manual of 17 chapters into three parts covering (i) aims, content and principles of foreign language teaching; (ii) approaches to the teaching of various language skills including translation; and (iii) curriculum and structure of the school system. The book was underpinned by the assumed homogeneity in classroom materials and methods, as might be expected from the centralized political system.

Unquestionably, both my peers and myself had trouble learning English as a major due to inadequate resources or pedagogy. However, everybody was engaged in learning the target language. It was our desire to become effective users of the target language that explained why we performed well academically despite limited quality learning opportunities.

4. Becoming an ELT teacher

Although being an EFL teacher was not what I really wanted, I at last made it professionally. I became a full-time EFL teacher at the English Department in October 1979 and worked there until 1998 when I was assigned to take an administrative position in the College. The reason for being staffed at the English Department was my high scores in the graduation form-centred examinations rather than my pedagogical competence. I did not like the teaching position at the Department at all but I had no choice because it was almost impossible to be given a job as an English language teacher in high schools at that time. Many of my classmates who were sent to high schools in the remote rural or mountainous areas were assigned to teach physical education or to run errant in the school because nobody was learning English. The centrally-planned economy did not care about actual labour needs.

During my first years of teaching, I had no idea of the nuts and bolts of teaching English, and I taught my students the way I had been taught by my teachers at the College. To use the modern jargon, my teaching was shaped by 'the apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975). It was kind of "intuitive and imitative" or "folkways of teaching" (Lortie, 1975). Luckily, by the time I became an EFL teachers, the Communicative Approach to English language teaching had been introduced into Vietnam via teachers who had been offered scholarship by the Australian Government to study TESOL in Australian universities. These western-trained lecturers were assigned with a dual role as both professional group leaders and mentors within the Department. While everybody was talking about the Communicative Approach, not many members of the Department knew what it was exactly like. In addition, the limited resources did not allow anyone to use it even though they were knowledgeable about it. Put it bluntly, the Communicative Approach was largely rhetorical. My classroom teaching

remained to be 'hit and miss' and based upon a lot of instincts. Some were good instincts; others were not. Honestly, I did not realize that I felt into the trap of teaching like I had been taught. I know now that I should not have taught like this; I should not have been this kind of teacher, but at that time I did not have any other experiences and knowledge to do otherwise. Although I was not sure whether my students learned anything from my teaching, I certainly underwent a steep learning curve over the course of the first few years of teaching. I learned how to plan a lesson, how to explain the complicated and abstract grammar rules in a more accessible manner to my students. Particularly, I learned of the importance of good rapport in motivating the students.

Within the College and nation-wide, scholarship and intellectual advancement were almost at a standstill. No seminars and workshops were available while the library had few English-language titles donated by the Soviet Union. Every week, besides teaching, teachers in the Department had one group meeting during which the group leaders and mentors, who returned from their MA TESOL programme in Australia, guided everybody to discuss how to teach the adapted version of the western commercial textbooks like the *Kernel Lesson* series (Neill, 1971), or *Mainline English* series (Watson & Quinn, 1975), which were brought home from overseas by group leaders and mentors themselves, who also did the adaptation. It was kind of Lesson Study though nobody knew of this term then. I managed to learn a lot professionally from this experience. Through these activities I realized that each teacher had her or his own styles, which were totally different from each other. This had a great impact on my own teaching practice and professional awareness.

In December 1995, I got a scholarship to take a three-month course on language teaching and test-item writing at the then University of Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate (now Cambridge ESOL) in the UK. As the product of the Grammar-Translation Method, I found myself unable to speak English intelligibly and to understand spoken English in Cambridge. I asked one of my professors for help and she advised me to go to the University Library to borrow tapes and a tape-recorder and practise listening and improving pronunciation simultaneously. I followed her advice, working intensively after the class hours. During the weekend, I visited different interesting places there, taking advantage of every opportunity I was offered to practice conversing with the people I happened to come across with. After a month, I, to my excitement, made good progress, which impressed my professors positively. In addition to pronunciation, listening and speaking, I managed to read some basic books about English teaching methodology to complete my home assignments. The two books that were so helpful to me were Widdowson's (1990) *Aspects of Language Teaching* and Larsen-Freeman's (1986) *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*. I found the latter more useful because the book not only introduced different teaching techniques but the principles underlying each technique as well. Although this was a short, intensive course, I benefited much from the way professors provided us with hands-on experience in writing and validating test items as well as interpreting test scores and the fundamentals of English language teaching. I left Cambridge (UK) with some professional expertise and somehow the Cambridge accent.

In July 1996, I was fortunate to be offered a scholarship to complete my graduate training in TESOL for the Master Degree at Saint Michael's College, which

is located in Vermont of the United States of America. It was the first time I had had the opportunity to study the theoretical and practical aspects of TESOL systematically. I was particularly interested in the Second Language Acquisition Theories Course, especially Vygotsky's sociocultural theory and its implications for language teaching. As I was fully aware that this might be my once-in-a-lifetime opportunity to develop my professional competence, I made full use of the library and the classroom discussions to expand my professional vision. The trouble was I did not know the difference between reading academic texts and reading fiction, so I had to struggle with the required readings of the professional literature. Luckily the courses on Academic writing helped me to develop my scholarly writing and reading skills. The beauty of the Master's Degree Course at Saint Michael's was that we had to complete it within three summers instead of full-year attendance. This gave me ample opportunities to experiment different things I learnt from the course in my real classrooms. Also, it was this activity that brought me to Action Research as a tool for my professional growth. Through that independent study process, I realized the limitations of the western-initiated notions of Communicative Approach and Communicative Competence when applied to my Vietnamese context. Regretably, I was not confident enough to publish these empirical findings. However, I managed to publish it latter under the title "*Language Pedagogy and Vietnamese Contexts*". I gradually came to be aware of the need to localize teaching, and this awareness has always accompanied me on my professional journey both as a teacher, teacher educator and researcher. After three summers, I became more confident in teaching with a Master's degree in TESOL under my belt.

5. From an ELT teacher to an applied linguist

In December 1999, immediately after I had completed my graduate study and returned to Vietnam, I was invited to be a plenary speaker together with Professor Alastair Pennycook, Professor James W. Tollefson, and Professor Diana Larsen-Freeman at the first-ever international conference on ELT in Vietnam co-organized by the Asian Institute of Technology (AIT) in Thailand and the Center for British Teachers (CfBT) in Hanoi. I was reluctant to accept the invitation because I had no experience attending a big international professional conference and I had no idea what was expected of a plenary speaker. However, with the organizer's encouragement, I managed to use the knowledge I had gained from the Saint Michael's graduate course as well as my understanding of the need to contextualize western-based theoretical knowledge, particularly the empirical evidence of the limitations of the Communicative Approach to language teaching as mentioned earlier. My presentation left a good impression on the conference participants and the organizers. This initial success ignited a spark on my imagined horizon. My first attempt at publication came in the wake of the conference, placing the first milestone on my academic journey.

Unfortunately, the administrative work took up much of my time, wisdom and energy. While I managed to spend little time keeping abreast of the on-going developments in the field by reading the internet resources, I was unable to do scholarly work wholeheartedly. As my passion for professional development remained intact, I took time to do independent reading of journal articles that I could

access, and carried out investigations into my own classes with the graduate students. I developed a better understanding of the methodological issues, the learners, the politics of ELT, and the situated challenges in teaching and learning English in diverse contexts within Vietnam. From time to time, during the summer holiday, when I was involved in in-service teacher training, I chatted with the teacher participants to find out about their beliefs about teaching as well as their working conditions. The information I gained helped me to uncover one important fact that formal training was of little help to teachers' instructional practice, which was largely driven by their mental lives.

I then decided to do my doctoral study with the University of Waikato in New Zealand at the age of 53. Having examined my research proposal, the academic committee allowed me to choose either full or partial campus residency to complete my study. I preferred the latter option to cut down on the expenses, but this means that I had to wear two hats simultaneously: as a full-time administrator at my university and as a 'full-time' doctoral student at the University of Waikato. During this period (2007-2011), I had a couple of times thought of quitting because of physical exhaustion. I was like a battery, becoming empty while in Vietnam, but being fully recharged everytime I was back to the University of Waikato, working with my supervisors. I became self-determined again to get myself back on track. Honestly, what prompted me to go on and complete my doctoral journey was the deep sense of moral obligation to complete what I had been obliged to do in return for the moral and material support from my wife, my children and my supervisors. Finally, the day when I had the viva came and it was a success.

During the process of completing my thesis on teachers' beliefs I found that unlike most of the studies on the same topic conducted elsewhere, there was no divergence between teachers' beliefs and their actual practice. By analyzing the interview and stimulated recall data, I realized that most high school EFL teachers in Vietnam did not have access to the global community discourses, and their teaching was therefore determined completely by their distributed cognition shaped by their unquestioned experience working in a highly centralized educational system within which teachers did not have the power to exercise their agency.

In 2015, I retired from the administrative work to concentrate on my academic activities. Ever since I have been my own boss, enjoying the full freedom to pursue my professional interest. I am engaged in teaching, doing research and publishing my research on international journals, examining overseas doctoral dissertations and giving presentations at international professional conferences. I also work as a reviewer and a commissioned book reviewer for some top international journals in TESOL and applied linguistics. It takes up some of my time, but I find it beneficial professionally. On the one hand, I understand that an invitation to work as a reviewer for internationally prestigious journals is a recognition of my expertise. On the other hand, I can learn much not only from the submitted manuscripts or published books but also from the comments by other reviewers. All these valuable opportunities stimulate me to rethink of my personal professionalism. I have a better sense of who I am as a teacher, teacher trainer and researcher. In effect, those experiences are really enlightening to me as they raise my awareness of the complexity of language learning and teacher learning as well as that of doing research in the absence of a healthy academic and research culture. I share

Richards's (2012, p. 52) view that "Becoming an English language teachers mean becoming part of a worldwide community of professionals with shared goals, values, discourse, and practices." By engaging in reflective activity and research, I not only continue to develop my knowledge and skills as a language teacher, teacher educator, and researcher, but also come to be aware of who I am in the communities of practice.

I have come to realize that one of the major accounts for the failure of English language education in several contexts is the narrow view of second language learning as just a mental processing activity with a focus on input, interaction, and feedback, thereby viewing learners as asocial beings. This view of learning leads to a reductionist view of teaching according to which teaching is reduced to method. I have learned from my professional experience that effective teaching is not the product of a particular method; rather it is the product of the teacher's imagination and creativity in making the lesson socially constructed. That imagination and creativity are resulted from the teacher's solid knowledge base which is constantly expanded with the teacher's practical experience and sensitivity. This constitutes a great challenge, if not the greatest challenge, to English language teacher education.

6. Conclusion

Barkhuizen (2011) uses the term 'narrative knowledging' to refer to a cognitive activity of making sense of and reshaping experience. By narrating my own professional experience, I investigated my own practice in an attempt to understand better that experience, thereby generating knowledge.

Writing this autobiographical narrative provides me with a moment to step back and dig deeper into my feelings and gain understanding of why I was doing things I had done and feeling the way I had felt. It is also an opportunity for me to think of how to encourage professional maturity and nurture personal interests. It is a practice of mindfulness. The analysis of my own autobiographical narrative revitalizes my lived experiences.

My experience in learning English as a foreign language in the input-poor, low-resource and instructed context instances that the trumpet for 'the younger, the better' is mythical and ideological. The claim that it is impossible to become fluent in a foreign language after puberty is nothing more than a terrible misrepresentation of a scientific outcome motivated by neoliberal ideology. I am convinced that it is possible to become an effective user of a foreign language at any age, and small imperfections of grammar or accent often just add to the charm. It is thus immoral to blame failures in foreign language learning on age. Language learning is basically emotion-driven.

For almost 40 years in the teaching career, my attitude to, and passion for teaching English, educating teachers and doing scholarly work have changed positively. Although I liked neither English nor the job of teaching English at first, I have come to love my job and I have no regrets whatsoever. I am better aware of the fact that being a teacher, I am always a learner, and my learners and the teachers I have worked with are my wonderful teachers. I have learned no less from them than from the professional literature. It is the lessons I have learned from them that has taught me what works and what does not work in the diverse English-language learning contexts within and beyond Vietnam. These practical, contextually-situated lessons, when enlightened with my theoretical knowledge, have helped me to become what I am today as an applied linguist. My research is guided by my praxis that has been shaped by those lessons that language teaching and

learning and socially constituted and that the goal of research in applied linguistics is not to find consistency, to prove, to disprove, or to predict. Rather, the goals are to interpret, understand and gain insights into specific contexts as exemplified between the researcher and the researched, often in the form of dialogue. In other words, educational research is socially constructed, too.

My greatest professional desire is that one day all Vietnamese ELT professionals will be supported to find themselves working in a healthy academic and research culture towards concerted efforts in opening spaces for English language learning and teaching that are driven by imagination, identity, aesthetics, youth culture, heritage, and other dimensions of life for a revised ecology of English language education specific to Vietnam rather than aping what is promoted in the Anglo-European-American discourses. Gone is the day of grand narratives in applied linguistics. Contextually-situated success stories cannot always be transferable to other contexts. More importantly, what is in vogue may not be the truth.

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HỒI KÝ TỰ THUẬT VỀ CON ĐƯỜNG CHUYÊN MÔN CỦA TÔI

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Tóm tắt: Bài báo này nêu bật những khía cạnh biến động và phức hợp trong con đường chuyên môn của tôi từ một giáo viên tiếng Anh trở thành học giả trong lĩnh vực ngôn ngữ học ứng dụng của tôi. Sử dụng phương pháp hồi ký tự thuật, bài báo kể lại quá trình tự phản tỉnh và tái kiến tạo bản ngã. Mục đích của bài tự phản tỉnh này là nhằm khích lệ cách tiếp cận những phương thức thực tiễn về tri kiến, hiện hữu và biến đổi trong đời thực. Phương thức tiếp cận này rất cần thiết trong nghiên cứu giáo dục ngoại ngữ ở thời đại mà những quan điểm về tri thức luận biến đổi không ngừng. Bài báo kết luận bằng những điều phản tỉnh về quá trình cảm thức lại những trải nghiệm trong con đường phát triển chuyên môn của tôi.

Từ khóa: hồi ký tự thuật, con đường chuyên môn, phát triển chuyên môn, học tiếng Anh, giảng dạy tiếng Anh, ngôn ngữ học ứng dụng

THE USE OF HEDGING DEVICES IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS ACADEMIC DISCOURSE: THE CASE OF *READING IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE* AND *ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING* RESEARCH ARTICLES

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Abstract: Hedging enables academic writers to mitigate claims and minimize the impositions that may be found in such claims (Hyland, 1996). Although the literature has had vast research on hedging in research articles, not much has been known about the difference or similarity among journals in one field in the use of hedging devices. Using the document analysis method, the present study aims to make a comparative analysis of hedging in two linguistics research journals, namely *Reading in a Foreign Language* (RFL) and *English Language Teaching* (ELT), in order to investigate what hedging forms and functions are most frequently used in RFL and ELT, and how hedging forms and functions are distributed in the Introduction, Results, Discussions and Conclusions sections in the two journals. Based on the data analyzed, it was found that RFL and ELT research article writers tend to have the same preference for the use of different hedging forms for different equivalent purposes and functions. This similar hedging pattern is believed to be of value to those who are trained as academic writers in the field of linguistics.

Keywords: hedging, hedging devices, rhetorical sections, academic writing

1. Introduction

Recent years have witnessed an extensive number of investigations into the hedging phenomenon and the use of hedging devices in academic discourse. According to Hyland (1996), hedging devices have proved to be an indispensable part in academic writing by constituting "an essential element of argumentation in presenting new claims for ratification" (p. 452). Generally, "hedging is the expression of tentativeness and possibility and it is central to academic writing where the need to present unproven propositions with caution and precision is essential" (Hyland, 1996, p. 433).

Hedges are linguistically defined as rhetorical devices which are mostly presented by verbal and adverbial expressions (e.g., *can, perhaps, suggest, possibly*) concerning degrees of probability and serving to bridge between the propositional information in the text and the writer's factual interpretation (Salager-Meyer, 1997). ***The right strength***

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and reasonableness conveyed in a claim can be considered the most significant motivation for the use of hedging devices in academic discourse. "The art of the matter" – hedging (Swales & Feak, 1994, p. 77) – enables academic writers to avoid claiming "more than is reasonable or defensible" (Swales & Feak, 1994, p. 86) and to mitigate claims as well as minimize the impositions that may be found in such claims (Hyland, 1996, p. 434). In other words, hedging enables academic writers to show their certainty or uncertainty towards their statements, to show the amount of confidence they put on their claim, and to start a dialogue with their readers by leaving some room for the readers to judge the truth value of the assertion.

This phenomenon was first introduced by Lakoff (1972) in a paper entitled "Hedges: A study in meaning criteria and the logic of fuzzy concepts" (Hua, 2006). Since then, the term "*hedge or hedging*" has been developed in the Politeness theory (e.g. Brown and Levinson, 1987; Coates, 1987), "associated with conveying purposive vagueness" (e.g. Dubois, 1987; Channell, 1994), and treated as a form of metadiscourse (e.g. Crismore, Markkaned, and Steffesen, 1993) (Hyland, 1996, p. 433).

In the field of academic writing, studies on the use of hedging devices have been expanded to a wide range of research fields and disciplines. Hua (2006) compares the use of scientific English hedging by Chinese writers and native English writers, in an attempt to investigate whether Chinese writers of English research articles "meet international standard in their use of hedging in their RAs" (p. 58) through an analysis of ten published research articles in English (five by English writers and five by Chinese writers) in the field of material science. By using the hedging categories (approximators – related to truth-conditional semantics, and shields – related to non-truth conditional pragmatics) proposed by Zhang (1998), Hua finds that although there is some similarity in the ranking of the frequencies of hedging forms, "the difference between the two groups are even more revealing" (p. 60). Chinese writers do not hedge their RAs as frequently as English writers on the whole and prefer approximators over shields, that is, they "tend to be more direct and authoritative in tone and to make strong modals than English writers" (p. 61). However, what seems to be missing in Hua (2006) is a wider categorization of English hedging forms and deeper discussions of writer cultural standing as well as each hedging category's functions which may have a critical saying in the differences between two groups of writers.

Also recognizing the effects of culture and linguistic variations on hedging use, Vassileva (2001) focuses on the differences between hedges and boosters – boosters "termed as `solidarity' (the case when the author claims shared knowledge with the audience) and `belief' (when the author states unequivocally that he/she is absolutely convinced of what he/she is saying)" (p. 86). By analyzing 180 pages of linguistics research articles (60 for each of English, Bulgarian, and Bulgarian English), Vassileva finds that all of the writers in the three languages employ hedging and that "they use approximately the same linguistic means of expressing boosting and hedging" (p. 98). Differences are also observed with a higher degree of commitment in Bulgarian and Bulgarian English than English as "English writers are much more tentative in putting forward claims and in rejecting or confirming others' opinion, thus avoiding the so-called `Face-Threatening Acts' " (p. 87). The "self-assertion strategy" is considered to be a possible explanation to the more frequent

use of boosters – showing more commitment – by Bulgarian and Bulgarian English. Based on these findings, Vassileva suggests that Bulgarian writers should "master the English standards of academic writing in order to be able to incorporate themselves fully in the English-speaking academic discourse community" and "native speakers of English as members of the constantly expanding academic discourse community should be made aware of the existence of other, different cultures, and rhetorics, and learn to be tolerant of their specificities" (p. 100).

Mojica (2005), motivated by Vassileva (2001), has also centered on the need of distinguishing between hedges and boosters. In brief, while hedging devices are almost likely to be used to "help negotiate the perspective from which the conclusion can be accepted", boosting devices may be employed as "way of impressing with his/her knowledge of the topic being discussed" in cases of such phrases as "*I think / It is my belief that / I believe…*" to "show the authors' commitment to their propositions" (Mojica, 2005, p. 516). From this distinction, Mojica, after an analysis of five English engineering (71 pages) and four English linguistics (68 pages) research articles written by Filipino professors at De La Salle University-Manila, has found that although there seems to be little difference in the distributions of hedges among two groups, the linguistics group tends to use more varied types of hedging than the engineering one; linguistics and engineering articles show the writers' tendency to hedge most in the Introduction section, followed by the Discussion, and least in the concluding part; and the linguistics group tend to use more hedges and the engineering group tends to use more boosters (p. 518-522).

The concern that arises from the two extensive investigations of Vassileva (2001) and Mojica (2005) appears to be that it is, probably, their distinction between hedges and boosters that differentiates themselves from Hyland (1996) and Swales & Feak (1994) in terms of hedging definition. Words like "*definitely, certainly*" are best examples of boosting, but "*I/We believe, It is a well-known fact that*" may not be. On the one hand, Vassileva (2001, p. 84) agrees with Hyland's (1996) definition of hedging as a device which "helps negotiate the perspective from which conclusions can be accepted"; on the other hand, Vassileva treats personal attribution (e.g. *I believe*) not as a hedging device but a booster while, according to Hyland (1996), such a device could also be considered as hedging, and, in addition to weakening criticism, may also be used to soften claims in the way that "by specifying a personal source, the writer leaves the claim open to the reader's judgement" (p. 448). Swales & Feak (1994) also consider the phrase "*It is a well-known fact that*" as a way of expressing writer distance from a claim by introducing common knowledge. Therefore, Vassileva (2001) and Mojica (2005) just take into account the definition of hedging as **"content-oriented".** It should also be notable that, as Vassileva (2001) admits, "the taxonomy of hedges and boosters adopted in this research is a somewhat loose one" (p. 86), that is, one form may function as both a hedge or a booster. Together with different cultures in academic writing (in this case three language variations), a so-called booster may not necessarily be a booster itself in the view of a writer.

Varttala's (1999) study on the use of hedging in medicine research articles has been one of important ones in the field of ESP (English for Specific Purposes). A collection of 15 medical articles from Scientific American (SA) and 15 specialist research articles from The New England Journal of Medicine

(NEJM) were analyzed based on "a selection of lexical items that the readers of scientific texts are most likely to interpret as hedges" (p. 182), namely modal auxiliaries (e.g. *may*), main verbs (*argue, believe*), adverbs (*possibly, perhaps*), adjectives (*potential, probable*) and nouns (*hypothesis, idea, notion*). Although it would have been better if she had extended her taxonomy of hedging, the focus on five lexical classes might apparently help her construct a more insightful understanding as "it can be claimed that lexical items are among the phenomena that the readers of scientific texts most readily associate with hedging" and "the choice falls predominantly upon lexical hedging elements" (p. 183). According to the analysis, modal auxiliaries and lexical verbs are the most frequently used, followed by modal adjectives, adverbs, and nouns, and the most devices are found to occur in the Discussion and Introduction sections of the research articles. Varttala argues that such findings not only support previous studies but also provide evidence against the assumption that "hedges are not used or needed in the rhetoric of scientific popularization", because "hedges, expressions linked to conceptual fuzziness, can be used very effectively in peer communication between medical specialists as a textual tool for precision and, simultaneously, as an interpersonal negative politeness strategy" (p. 190). Perhaps, it is for this attempt that Varttala's (1999) study distinguishes itself from early studies on hedging in ESP, despite a limited taxonomy of hedging forms studied.

Generally, although the literature has had vast research on hedging in research articles, not much has been known about whether different journals in one field differ from each other in the use of hedging devices. For this reason, the present study aims to make a comparative analysis of hedging in two applied linguistics research journals, namely *Reading in a Foreign Language* (RFL) and *English Language Teaching* (ELT), in order to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the similarities and differences in hedging forms and functions used in RFL and ELT?

2. What are the similarities and differences in hedging forms and functions distributed in the Introduction, Results, Discussions and Conclusions sections in RFL and ELT?

The Method section is not included in the study because, as Salager-Meyer (1997) suggests, "the frequency of occurrence and types of hedges are not evenly distributed throughout different sections of academic papers", and, especially, "hedges appear least in the almost purely factual (i.e. unhedged) Methods section, the least discursive and commentative section of academic papers where confirmatory statements are the rule".

2. Framework of study

In the Politeness model proposed by Brown & Levinson (1987), hedging is considered a strategy through which negative and positive politeness in natural conversation is realized. Brown & Levinson define a "hedge" as "a particle, word, or phrase that modifies the degree of membership of a predicate or noun phrase in a set; it says of that membership that it is partial, or true only in certain respects, or that it is more true and complete than perhaps might be expected" (p. 145). Researchers have argued that the politeness view has not been an adequate explanation for the use of hedging in academic discourse and have called for a more insightful means of analyzing the interpersonal use of hedges in academic settings (Hyland, 1996).

The functional model of hedging proposed by Hyland (1996) has been thought to be the result of controversy on the Politeness

model and of the observation that "hedging in scientific research writing represents a little-studied area of pragmatic competence and we still know little about how it functions and is typically realized in specific academic domains" (p. 434). One of the most important points of Hyland's study is his recognition of "the fact that hedging represents a writer's attitude within a particular context" and "a need for an explanatory framework which accounts for its pervasiveness in academic discourse by situating hedging in its socio-pragmatic contexts" (p. 434). Hyland argues that although the assumption that "hedges are part of a wider system of politeness" is "clearly suggestive and central to any discussion of hedging", treating hedging as politeness puts more stress on the instrumental than on the normative, "thereby underplaying the importance of authority and conformity in academic discourse community, and at the same time neglects the multi-functional character of hedges in gaining acceptance for claims."

In academic discourse, Hyland supposes that "no matter how clearly, convincingly, and appropriately reader-centred material may be expressed", "readers can always refute a claim" (p. 436), that is, readers may be persuaded to judge a claim acceptable or may decide to reject it. In this way, by signalling the writer's anticipation of the opposition to a proposition, hedging "anticipates a need to justify claims because the writer is dependent on their ratification by the reader". Based on this opposition, Hyland proposes a model of hedging in the context of academic discourse as shown in Figure 1.

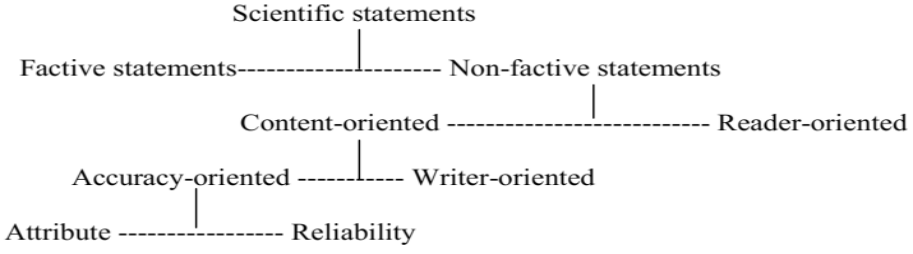

Figure 1. Categorization of Scientific Hedges (Hyland, 1996, p. 438)

Salager-Meyer (1997) may have made a rather more concrete classification of hedging devices in scientific English, including seven categories: (1) **Modal auxiliary verbs; (**2) **Modal lexical verbs; (**3) **Adjectival, nominal** and **adverbial modal phrases;** (4) **Approximators of degree, quantity, frequency and time (**5) **Introductory phrases; (**6) **If clauses;** and **(7) Compound hedges**.

Swales and Feak (1994) discuss ways of qualifying or moderating the strength of a claim by being "**confidently uncertain**" in making claims (Skelton, 1988, in Swales & Feak, 1994, p. 86). Accordingly, useful hedging devices include (1) **Probability expressions** (e.g. *may, likely, possibility*), (2) **Distance expressions** (e.g. *seem, appear, based on, according to, in the view of, on the limited data available*), (3) **Generalization qualifications** (e.g. *tend, most, many people think that, a majority of, with the exception of, apart from*), (4) **Weaker verbs** (e.g. *suggest, contribute to, indicate, question, assume*), and (5) **Combined qualifications** (e.g. *may reduce certain types of injury in some circumstances*). It may be argued that although Swales and

Feak's classification has touched upon the fundamental characteristics and components of hedging devices in academic papers, it would clearly appear to be not so adequate as Hyland's (1996) and Salger-Meyer's (1997) frameworks in terms of both hedging forms and functions.

For the purpose of convenience in categorizing hedging forms and functions, this study's framework is adopted from Hyland (1996), Salager-Meyer (1997), and Swales & Feak (1994). Of course, there would, perhaps, be no framework that could completely cover such a broad area of hedging, but, at least, such a combination, presumably, might help construct a comprehensive set of both hedging forms and functions.

- Attribute:

Downtoners: *in some ways, quite, partially, barely, roughly, essentially, slightly*

Approximators: *generally, approximately, around, often, somewhat, somehow, usually, significantly, relatively, most, , a majority of, in many cases*

Qualification: *viewed in this way, from a practical point of view, based on, according to, in the view of, many people think that*

- Reliability:

Modal auxiliary verbs: *may, might, can, could, would, should*

Modal adjectives, nouns, and adverbs: *possible, possibility, probably*

Content disjuncts: *presumably, apparently, virtually, practically*

Limited knowledge: *It is not known whether, poorly understood*

- Writer-oriented:

Impersonal expressions and Compound hedges: *be assumed to*, *It might be speculated, It would indicate, This probably indicates that, It seems reasonable to assume that, It would seem somewhat unlikely that, The present work indicates/demonstrates that*

Modal lexical verbs (and some corresponding nouns and adjectives): *indicate, assume, predict, propose, appear, seem, imply, suggest, believe, estimate, tend, think, argue, speculate*

Impersonal reference to research methods, conditions, and models: *under these conditions, the prediction of this model, despite the limitations of this method, on the limited data available*

- Reader-oriented:

Personal attribution: *I believe, to our knowledge, It is our view that, we feel/believe that*

Offering a claim as one possibility among many: *one of*

Hypothetical conditions: *if we assume that, if true, if anything*

Rhetorical questions: *Why do such temporal changes occur? Could such a putative interaction have a physiological significance?*

3. Methodology

The study was conducted through a quantitative analysis of five articles from the RFL Journal (53 pages, 12277 words) and five articles from ELT Journal (49 pages, 11835 words), all of which were published during the period from 2000-2010. It should be noted that the number of pages includes all parts of an article while the number of words only includes three sections (Introduction, Results, Discussions and Conclusions) that are investigated in this study. Also, the first and foremost criterion for an article to be chosen for analysis is that there must be a clear-cut boundary among rhetorical sections. Because there are articles in which the Discussions sections are combined with the

Results, it would be impossible in such cases to determine to which section, Results or Discussions, one hedging form belongs.

The procedure of coding data was conducted in two steps. First, when a hedging form was identified, the sentence or phrase containing that form was then transferred to a collection table. In this way, the context where a hedge occurs is maintained. In the next step, hedges were coded according to the framework of the study for each journal. In this way, the author was able not only to capture the frequency distributions of hedges in general, but also know exactly what particular hedging lexical item is more frequently used.

4. Results

4.1. Distribution of hedging forms

Table 1 shows the total number of hedging forms which were employed in three RFL and five ELT research articles, and, more specifically, the total number of each form.

Table 1. Frequency of hedging forms in sampled RFL and ELT research articles

Hedging forms	**RFL**		**ELT**	
	frequency	**%**	**frequency**	**%**
Modal auxiliary verbs	88	33.1	116	48
Approximators	43	16.2	35	14.5
Modal lexical verbs (nouns, adjectives)	45	17	34	14.2
Modal adjectives, adverbs, and nouns	37	14	29	12
Qualifications	2	0.8	9	3.7
Downtoners	12	4.5	5	2.1
Impersonal passive & compound hedging	4	1.5	5	2.1
Impersonal reference to method/conditions	4	1.5	3	1.2
Hypothetical conditions	18	6.8	3	1.2
Rhetorical questions	1	0.4	2	0.8
Content disjunct	1	0.4	0	0
Limited knowledge	2	0.8	0	0
Possibility among many	8	3	0	0
Total	265	100%	241	100%

As can be seen, there appear to be considerable similarities between the two journals in terms of hedging forms employed. First of all, there is only a very slight difference of around 20 forms out of the total between RFL and ELT; in terms of hedges per 1000 words, the results seem to be quite supportive, 21.6 and 20.4 for RFL and ELT respectively. Second, the highest numbers of forms in both groups mainly fall into approximators with 16.2% (RFL) and 14.5% (ELT), modal auxiliary verbs (33.1% and 48% respectively), modal adjectives, adverbs and nouns (14% and 12% respectively) and modal lexical verbs (17% and 14.2% respectively). The result would appear to be no surprise because it significantly supports the findings of early studies (Hua, 2006; Mojica, 2005, Vassileva, 2001; Varttala, 1999). The following examples are taken from the sampled articles:

(1) *This, plus the visual evidence of the graph in Figure 6, suggests that even at Level 2 of the OBL, it is possible to write simplified prose…*

(2) *Anxiety in L1 also seems to support this interpretation…*

(3) *The majority of the students' writing consisted of sentence fragments…*

(4) *Age, it would appear, is likely to affect task preferences…*

Moreover, the two groups also share the finding that there is a relatively large difference between these forms and the rest. In RFL, for example, qualifications, content disjuncts, limited knowledge, and rhetorical questions cannot exceed 1% of the total; especially, in ELT, there are even no content disjuncts and limited knowledge found. The use of hypothetical conditions (*if*) and downtoners seems to be not much preferred, around 6% or lower. These similarities would apparently suggest that there seems to be a tendency in the use of hedging forms in EFL and ELT journals in particular and in applied linguistics journals in general.

In order to seek more evidence for this argument, a statistical tool, Spearman Rank-order Correlation Coefficient r_s, is used to determine whether or not the correlation between the two journal groups in terms of hedging form ranking is reliable. Table 2 illustrates the procedure:

Table 2. Calculation of the Spearman Rank-order correlation coefficient

Forms	**Ranking 1 RFL**	**Ranking 2 ELT**	**Difference D**	**D^2**	
Modal auxiliary verbs	1	1	0	0	
Modal lexical verbs (nouns, adjectives)	2	3	-1	1	
Approximators	3	2	1	1	
Modal adjectives, adverbs, and nouns	4	4	0	0	
Hypothetical conditions	5	7	-2	4	
Downtoners	6	6	0	0	
Possibility among many	7	9	-2	4	
Impersonal passive & compound hedging	8	6	2	4	
Impersonal reference to method/conditions	8	7	1	1	
Qualifications	9	5	4	16	
Limited knowledge	9	9	0	0	
Content disjunct	10	9	1	1	
Rhetorical questions	10	8	2	4	
N= 13			Total	36	r_s=0.90

The computing procedure provides us with the r_s positive value of 0.90 which indicates, according to statistics principles of decision making for Spearman test, that there is a very high positive correlation between the two rankings. This result of the test allows us to confirm that, at least based on the data analyzed, linguistics research article writers in both journals of RFL and ELT tend to prefer certain types of hedging forms.

4.2. Distribution of hedging functions

According to Hyland (1996), hedges are often employed to serve four fundamental functions: attribute which refers to how far results approximate to an idealized state, reliability which refers to the writer's assessment of certainty, writer-oriented which refers to the diminishing of the writer's presence in the text, and reader-oriented which refers to the writer's invitation towards readers to participate in a dialogue. The following table presents the distribution of the four functions in the two journal groups.

Table 3. Frequency of hedging functions in sampled RFL and ELT research articles

Functions	RFL		ELT	
	frequency	%	frequency	%
Attribute	57	21.5	49	20.3
Reliability	128	48.3	145	60.2
Writer-oriented	53	20	42	17.4
Reader-oriented	27	10.2	5	2.1
Total	265	100%	241	100%

As shown in Table 3, hedges used to function as reliability appear to occur most frequently in both RFL and ELT, accounting for more or less than 50% of the total. Interestingly, this hedging function is followed by attribute, writer-oriented, and reader-oriented in both groups. By using the same Spearman Rank-order correlation test, it is found that the r_s value reaches 1, which indicates that the data from eight samples reveal a perfect positive correlation which means that both groups of RFL and ELT writers have a tendency to put more stress on assessing the certainty of the propositional truth and the precision of knowledge claimed. However, it does not necessarily mean that they "devalue" the roles of other functions. One possible explanation may be drawn from Table 4 which reveals the distribution of hedging functions across three sections of research articles.

Table 4. Frequency of hedging functions across rhetorical sections

Functions	Introduction		Results		Discussions and Conclusions	
	RFL	ELT	RFL	ELT	RFL	ELT
Attribute	17	5	18	27	22	17
Reliability	24	27	22	27	82	91
Writer-oriented	4	9	23	8	26	25
Reader-oriented	9	2	0	0	18	3

The first thing that can be inferred from Table 4 is that in both journal groups attribute and reliability turn out to occur with relatively high frequency in all three rhetorical sections while writer-oriented and reader-oriented appear to most frequently in the Discussions and Conclusions. It would be unreasonable for one to argue that the reason for such a distribution is that the Discussions and Conclusions section in an article is usually longer than others, as among eight samples from the two journals there are some in which the Introduction and Results are longer than the Discussions and Conclusions. If so, it could be assumed that the possible explanation lies in the purpose of the writer in each rhetorical section. As Salager-Meyer (1997) suggests, it is in the discursive and speculative Discussions and Conclusions section that "authors put forward controversial ideas or interpretations and hence most feel the need of protecting themselves from

counter argument or other forms of attack." In other words, it seems that it is in this section that a wider range of hedging forms should be used to serve more self-protection strategies, among which shielding oneself and getting ready to "sit down for professional dialogue" are significantly effective strategies together with attribute and reliability.

4.3. Distribution of hedging forms across rhetorical sections

This part of the study makes an attempt to analyze how hedging devices are distributed across different sections of RFL and ELT research articles and figure out whether there is a significant difference between RFL and ELT in terms of rhetorical distribution.

Table 5. Frequency of hedging forms across rhetorical sections

Forms	**RFL**			**ELT**		
	Introd.	**Results**	**D & C**	**Introd.**	**Results**	**D & C**
Downtoners	1	3	8	0	2	3
Approximators	14	15	14	0	24	11
Qualifications	2	0	0	5	1	3
Modal auxiliary verbs	17	9	62	23	17	76
Modal adjectives, adverbs, and nouns	7	11	19	4	10	15
Content disjunct	0	1	0	0	0	0
Limited knowledge	0	1	1	0	0	0
Impersonal passive & compound hedging	0	1	3	1	0	4
Modal lexical verbs (nouns, adjectives)	4	21	20	8	8	18
Impersonal reference to method/condition	0	1	3	0	0	3
Possibility among many	4	0	4	0	0	0
Hypothetical conditions	4	0	14	1	0	2
Rhetorical questions	1	0	0	1	0	1
Total	54	63	148	43	62	136

The results in Table 5 show that in both types of journals hedging forms appear to be differently distributed with the highest frequency in the Discusion and Conclusion (D&C) section, followed by the Results and the Introduction. It would be interesting enough to see that both journal groups have the same specific hedging forms which might have largely contributed to the difference, except for the Results section. In both RFL and ELT, for example, modal auxiliary verbs have the highest frequency in the Introduction and D&C while modal lexical items and approximators appear to occur most often in RFL Results and ELT Results respectively. One more noticeable thing is that almost every specific hedging form is found to appear more often in the D&C than itself in the Introduction and the Results. More importantly, one specific hedging form is also employed with a more varied set of lexical items. The downtoners in RFL, for instance, possesses seven variations in the D&C (*at least, to some extent, in some respect, part of the reason, roughly, sometimes,* and *somewhat*), but only one variation in the Introduction (*partly*) and three in the results (*essentially, somehow, at least*). The situation turns out to be somehow the same in ELT with, for example, nine variations of modal lexical items (*appear, assume, believe, imply, indicate, seem, suggestion, suggest,* and *tend*) in the D&C, but only four in both the Introduction (*feel, indicate, suggest, and tend*) and the Results (*indicate, suggest, tend, and speculate*).

Up to this point, it would be essential to determine whether the distribution ranks of hedging forms in the RFL Introduction, Results, and D&C have close relations with those of hedging forms in the three ELT sections respectively. Once again, the Spearman Rank-order Correlation test is applied one time for each section, that is, the ranks of forms in the RFL Introduction are supposed to go with those in the ELT Introduction, and the procedure would be similar to the other two sections.

The computed r_s positive values are 0.90 for the Introduction, 0.95 for the Results, and 0.93 for the D&C. According to statistics principles of decision making for Spearman test, the values suggest that there is a very high positive correlation between the two rankings in all three sections, that is, there could be an argument that the use of different hedging forms across three rhetorical sections tends to be similar in two groups of journals.

5. Discussion and conclusion

The results analyzed in the previous part have provided evidence for the answers to the two research questions of this study. For research question 1 – *What hedging forms and functions are most frequently used in RFL and ELT?* – four hedging forms including Approximators, Modal auxiliary verbs, Modal lexical verbs, and Modal lexical items (nouns, adverbs, and adjectives) are found to occur most often in two journal groups. It seems that such forms as Content disjuncts, Reference to study methods/conditions, and Rhetorical questions are not much preferred by both groups of writers. In the case of Hypothetical conditions, this hedging appears to occur mainly in the Introduction section where the writer recognizes the need to convince the reader that work remains to be done in their area of inquiry, thus the need to "establish a niche" (Salager-Meyer, 1997), that is, to suggest that the niche they wish to establish does indeed exist. In terms of hedging functions, it could be assumed that both groups of writers tend to use hedges of the purpose of "hedging" the precision and certainty of knowledge and proposition truth.

The fact that very few rhetorical questions are used as a hedging strategy seems to reflect what Swales & Feak (1994) suggest an academic writer should follow to maintain a formal academic writing style – an indirect question rather than a direct question (p. 72). Of course, Swales & Feak also point out that "in some cases, direct questions may be possible" (p. 73). As Hyland (1996, p. 449) states, by using rhetorical questions, the writer expects to draw the reader's attention to a deductive process in which the audience is rhetorically treated as capable of "making the same logical inferences". Also, this kind of hedging may somehow help direct the reader to the core content of the claim or argument which has just been made or is going to be made by the writer. Swales and Feak (1994), however, still stress that "Keep in mind, however, that you should limit your use of these in academic writing" (p. 74).

For research question 2 – *How are hedging forms and functions distributed in the Introduction, Results, Discussions and Conclusions sections in RFL and ELT?* – the results show that more hedging forms are employed in the Discussions and Conclusions than in the other two sections of both groups of journal articles. This conclusion can also be applied to hedging functions.

In general, based on the data analyzed, it could be concluded that RFL and ELT research articles writers tend to have the same preference for the use of different hedging forms for different equivalent purposes and functions. The best possible explanation could be that the writers all work in the same

research discipline – linguistics, and therefore they might share "a common sense" of the hedging feature in academic discourse.

Here, it should be made clear that the present study does not aim to compare and contrast the uses of specific hedging items like "*can, may, often, usually*". What it attempts to do is to make an investigation into the use of hedging devices at a "macro" level. It would be rather "strained" and "forced" to compare such specific items because, presumably, the writers themselves may not assure that they will use a very definite set of specific items. Such an investigation may not reflect a whole picture of the discourse genre studied.

Strauss (2004) discussing cultural standing of expressing opinions considers hedges as an indicator, in connection to other indicators, of cultural standing which is defined as "the location of a view on a continuum that ranges from highly controversial to completely taken for granted in the relevant opinion community" (p. 161). By using hedges, the speaker sees the view as debatable rather than controversial. Thus, the use of hedging devices by RFL and ELT writers in the study partially allows them to set their own professional stance in an academic world.

Hyland (1996) admits that "while hedging is found to be important in a variety of domains, the circumstances recognized as appropriate for its use and the functions it is seen to fulfill often differ markedly" (p. 452). That means some devices may seem to be obviously hedges, but it may actually be not in the view of the writer. Thus, it appears sometimes to be not easy for an analyst, in some certain cases, to decide to what category a hedging device might belong because hedging devices are "polypragmatic" and may often convey a range of different meanings at the same time.

Moreover, it is not known whether the similarities found in this study could be still correct when more articles are chosen for analysis and could be applied to other areas of applied linguistics. All these arguments, in brief, suggest that the limit of this study serve as a call for further extensive research.

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NGHIÊN CỨU VIỆC SỬ DỤNG CÔNG CỤ RÀO ĐÓN TRONG DIỄN NGÔN HỌC THUẬT THUỘC LĨNH VỰC NGÔN NGỮ HỌC ỨNG DỤNG: TRƯỜNG HỢP CÁC BÀI NGHIÊN CỨU TRONG TẠP CHÍ *READING IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE* VÀ *ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING*

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Tóm tắt: Trong viết học thuật, việc rào đón giúp người viết có thể giảm tính áp đặt trong các kết luận hay nhận định được đưa ra (Hyland, 1996). Mặc dù đã có nhiều nghiên cứu về ngôn ngữ rào đón được sử dụng trong các bài học thuật, vẫn chưa có nhiều nghiên cứu về sự giống nhau và khác nhau giữa các tạp chí trong cùng một lĩnh vực liên quan đến việc sử dụng các công cụ rào đón. Bằng cách sử dụng phương pháp phân tích ngôn liệu, nghiên cứu này so sánh đối chiếu việc rào đón trong hai tạp chí ngôn ngữ học *Reading in a Foreign Language* (RFL) và *English Language Teaching* (ELT) để tìm ra những dạng thức và chức năng nào của công cụ rào đón được sử dụng thường xuyên nhất trong RFL và ELT, cũng như tìm hiểu sự phân bổ của các dạng thức và chức năng trong các phần khác nhau của một bài nghiên cứu. Dựa trên dữ liệu được phân tích, kết quả cho thấy các tác giả thuộc hai tạp chí này có xu hướng lựa chọn chung đối với những dạng thức rào đón, phù hợp với mục đích và chức năng của từng nhóm dạng thức. Chúng tôi tin rằng xu hướng chung này sẽ có giá trị đối với những ai đang trong quá trình phát triển kỹ năng viết học thuật trong lĩnh vực ngôn ngữ học.

Từ khóa: rào đón, ngôn ngữ rào đón, các phần trong bài nghiên cứu học thuật, viết học thuật

EXPLORING THE COMPATIBILITY BETWEEN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER COMPETENCY FRAMEWORK AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION CURRICULUM OF THE UNIVERSITY OF LANGUAGES AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES – VIETNAM NATIONAL UNIVERSITY, HANOI

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Abtract: Quality assurance is always a key issue in any education system. Among many approaches to enhance national education quality, the practice of designing and implementing competency frameworks for quality language teaching has been adopted in countries across the world. The recent passage of the English Teacher Competency Framework (ETCF) in Vietnam in 2012 reflects the government's efforts in defining, promoting, and maintaining education quality. This thereby urges language teacher training programs in the country to meet the national teacher standards. But how can the outcomes of a program be formed and mapped to the national system of teacher standards? Is English Language Teacher Education Program (ELTE) introduced in 2012 at the University of Languages and International Studies – Vietnam National University, Hanoi (ULIS – VNU) aligned with the standards in the national ETCF published in December, 2012 by the Ministry of Education and Training? To answer this important question, a study has been conducted to investigate the level of alignment between the ELTE curriculum and the ETCF. By means of document analysis in which course syllabi are examined side by side with the competencies of the framework, the researcher has reached firm conclusions that there are still mismatches and gaps between the curriculum and the ETCF. Several competencies in the ETCF have not been properly addressed in the curriculum while some courses deal with competencies that are not exactly meant in the ETCF. The author then has proposed suggestions for curriculum designers to bring the courses and ETCF standards together to ensure full compatibility between them.

Keywords: English Language Teacher Education Curriculum (ELTE Curriculum), teacher standards, domain (D), compatibility, English Teacher Competency Framework (ETCF)

1. Introduction

Vietnam has a long history of English teaching and teacher training. The demand for foreign languages is stronger than ever before as the nation engages regionally and internationally and English is often used as an official or working language. In the early 21st century, more than ever, students need high quality education, soft skills,

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technology, and the ability to use foreign languages to communicate effectively in a multilingual, multicultural region and world, to connect and contribute to educational and economic advancement of their countries. The connection between English and a nation's economic growth is apparent. Vietnam is not an exception of this current trend.

As one of the leading institutions in foreign language teacher education, ULIS - VNU with its more than 60-year history in the making bears responsibility to provide high quality professional training for both pre-service and in-service teachers throughout Vietnam.

2. ELTE Curriculum in ULIS – VNU

ELTE Program is one of the key programs at ULIS – VNU. While the university has more than 60 years in the making, the program has at least 60 years of development. The ELTE Program was initially prepared and implemented in 1958. The first intake graduated around four years later. This program aimed at providing the theoretical knowledge of teaching methodology as mandated by the Ministry of Education and Training, which was transmitted in a traditional didactic manner.

As time went by and together with the development of English into the main working language in international transactions, the need for teaching this language grows. Quality teachers of English are on greater demand throughout the country. Quality assurance is always one of the key points that the program administrators have been striving for. The program has undergone a good number of assessment and review efforts. The latest was in 2012 when huge changes were adopted to make the curriculum more coherent, practical and updated. The objectives were rewritten to address the development in graduates the appropriate attitudes, knowledge, and skills necessary for their future profession. Essential supplementary skills such as study skills (presentation skills, self-study skills, research skills, critical and creative thinking skills, etc.), soft skills (team work, problem-solving skills, etc.) were also added to the programme.

The new programme thus focuses more on the application in local context of modern English language teaching and learning paradigms such as communicative language teaching (CLT), learner-centeredness and learner autonomy, to reflect the needs of its learner population. The revised program offers a wider range of courses in English teaching and learning methdology, psychology, and research methodology. It aims to help learners develop the capacity for engaging in critical enquiry into various aspects of the study, and the teaching of language. It is composed of both required courses and elective courses providing the learners with options for a broad education in foreign language education, professional developement, and an in-depth inquiry into particular areas of interest so as to gain and develop expertise and experience.

The 2012 program also saw the introduction of expected learning outcomes which students must achieve as a requirement for their graduation. In terms of language proficiency, students are expected to reach C1 – the fifth level on the 6-levelled scale of Common European Framework of Language References (CEFR). Regarding teaching, they were initially taught basing on the outcomes set by the course designers because at that time ETCF was little known among the teachers. As a matter of fact, there has been no comparison between ETCF and specialized methodology courses from the beginning of the programme.

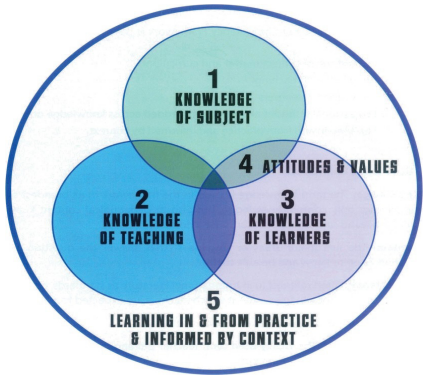
In 2015, another attempt was taken to readjust the programme with the first priority given to language proficiency courses. Students need more practice hours in order to develop their language proficiency, thus more credits were added to the English courses.

In terms of programme structure, it contains three blocks of knowledge which correspondingly address three areas of competency: language proficiency, language as a system and culture, and teaching methodology. English proficiency courses have primary purposes of developing student competencies in using the language. Language courses such as English Linguistics, cross-cultural communications, etc., go toward providing students with in-depth understanding of English as a language system and at the same time enhancing knowledge about cultures of English language speaking countries. The third block of knowledge is teaching knowledge which consists of four compulsory courses, namely, An Introduction to English Language Teaching Methodology, English Language Teaching Techniques and Practices, English Language Testing and Assessment, Teaching Practice or Practicum, which are mainly responsible for developing teaching competencies.

At the time of the development, these courses, especially those in the third block, are said to be mainly dependent on the feedback of the stakeholders and expertise of the course designers. There was no framework at that time to regulate the benchmarks that student teachers must reach upon their graduation.

3. An overview of ETCF

Vietnam's English Teacher Competency Framework, which is created by Dr. Diana Dudzik – a senior English Language fellow scholar from the United States, is a product of National Foreign Language 2020 Project (Project 2020). The framework consists of five domains which work to address the question of what Vietnamese teachers of English need to know and be able to do in the 21st century.



AN OVERVIEW OF ENGLISH TEACHER COMPETENCY FRAMEWORK
(For Pre-service English Language Teacher Education Programs)

DOMAIN 1 - KNOWLEDGE OF LANGUAGE, LANGUAGE ACQUISITION, CONTENT & CURRICULUM

Competency 1.1a: Language Proficiency

Competency 1.1b: Knowledge of CEFR

Competency 1.2: Language as a System

Competency 1.3: Second Language Acquisition Theories

Competency 1.4: Target Language Cultures

Competency 1.5a: Literary Content in the Target Language

Competency 1.5b: Academic Content in the Target Language

Competency 1.6: Language Curriculum and Syllabus Design

DOMAIN 2 - KNOWLEDGE OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

Competency 2.1: Language Teaching Methodology

Competency 2.2: Planning Lessons, Activities, and Assignments

Competency 2.3a: Building Supportive, Meaningful Learning Environment

Competency 2.3b: Implementing & Managing Language Classroom Activities

Competency 2.4: Assessing Language Learning

Competency 2.5: Using & Adapting Textbooks, Authentic Materials, & Other Resources

Competency 2.6: Using Technology Effectively to Enhance Language Teaching & Learning

DOMAIN 3 - KNOWLEDGE OF LANGUAGE LEARNERS

Competency 3.1: Understanding Learners' Development to Motivate & Engage Students

Competency 3.2: Understanding Learners' Language & Using it to Inform Instruction

Competency 3.3: Reflecting on Cultural Values & Prior Language Learning

Competency 3.4: Creativity, Critical Thinking & Innovation in Language Learning

DOMAIN 4 - PROFESSIONAL VALUES & PROCESSES IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Competency 4.1: Demonstrating Professionalism in Language Teaching

Competency 4.2: Practicing & Applying Cooperation, Collaboration & Teamwork

Competency 4.3: Engaging in Professional Development and Pursuing Life-long Learning

Competency 4.4: Contributing to the Language Teaching Profession

Competency 4.5: Modeling Ethical Language Teaching & Testing Behavior

DOMAIN 5 - CONNECTIONS TO PRACTICE & CONTEXT OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

Competency 5.1: Connecting Learning beyond the Language Classroom

Competency 5.2: Reflecting on & Researching Language Learning & Teaching

Competency 5.3: Understanding Roles, Uses & Issues of English in Southeast Asia

Competency 5.4: Incorporating Awareness of Global Role of English

(Vietnam's English Language Teacher Competency Framework: User's Guide)

Upon approval by the Ministry of Education and Training in December, 2012, the Framework becomes the nation's first subject-specific teacher standards with the vision of building *"the profession of English teaching beyond the level of technicians or teaching machines to practicing teachers with adaptive expertise"*. According to Dr. Diana Dudzik, this is the *"golden principle"* in teacher training, especially when the trend toward regional and international engagement has never been strong as such; Vietnamese teachers should not work as a teaching machine, but professionals with adaptive skills in order to be effectively operational in different teaching contexts in and outside their country. The framework also implicitly employs an "apprenticeship of observation" (Dudzik, 2012), which means teacher development needs to be conducted in a way that allows teachers to observe other teachers' teaching processes and activities, and practice the behaviors they are expected to conduct in their future jobs. Thus teacher development programs need to give teacher students the opportunity to experience the values, processes and activities in their training, and enable them to incorporate these practices in their work in the future.

The development of the framework is based upon general teacher education research

(as cited in Dudzik, 2012). This research indicates three major knowledge domains (Domains 1-3) to address the question "What do teachers need to know and be able to do?" Each domain consists of various competencies and each competency is realized into various indicators. The three domains are embedded with a number of professional values and attitudes (Domain 4) and are located within a larger sphere (Domain 5) that reflects a "situative" (local) perspective of effective teacher learning that takes place within the contexts and practice of teaching. The center of the framework is the vision of the ETCF. That vision answers the question "What kind of teachers does Vietnam need in the early 21st century?"

With the above vision, the framework is intended for multi-purposes among which evaluating teacher training program is the most important. According to Dr. Nguyen Vinh Hien – Ex-Deputy Minister, Ministry of Education and Training in Viet Nam, *"Teacher trainers and training providers should use ETCF carefully and wisely to evaluate and improve training curriculum"* (2012, p. 5). There is an increasing need to utilize ETCF in evaluating ELTE curriculum in order to see the level of alignment between these two documents.

The study entitled "Vietnam English Teacher Competency Framework: Implementation Considerations" by Vu Mai Trang & John O'Rourke (2013) confirms that integrating the teacher competency framework into existing teacher training programs to see the level of correlation between them can be relevant as most universities in Vietnam including those delivering teacher education have been restructuring their curricula following outcome-based approaches.

As a teacher training institution, ULIS – VNU needs to put their curriculum and the framework together to examine whether the outcomes the training program sets for its learners are compatible with the standards that ETCF set for the English teachers of Vietnam. This side-by-side examination may reveal mismatches, which generate certain future implications for revision of courses or national teacher standards. If mismatches occur, which should be changed, the curriculum or the framework's standards? Which sounds more rational? After all, whatever changes need to be made, compatibility needs to be ensured between ETCF and the ELTE curriculum. Full alignment is a must for the effective implementation of a teacher training program on a national scale.

This study proves to be a very significant preparation for the renovation of the whole curriculum which has been scheduled in 2018 by ULIS – VNU since it provides the kind of information that asks the curriculum developer to make changes such as removing or adding other subjects, adjusting the contents of a particular one, reformulating the learning outcomes of a course. Meanwhile, the information also informs ETCF designers to revisit the framework to make improvements. The same procedures of aligning ETCF's standards can be applied to other language teacher education programs as well.

4. The research

4.1. Research method and research questions

The study was conducted using the method of document analysis through which the outcomes of each course in the ELTE curriculum are compared with the standards of ETCF. Only required courses belonging to the three blocks, namely, proficiency, linguistics and culture, and teaching methodology are studied to the exclusion of some others such as philosophy courses, physical education, etc. since these are

just foundation courses which provide general knowledge and skills and thus having indirect relation with specialized knowledge and skills for teaching. Electives are not included either even though they are there in the curriculum. Not 100% of the students learning them, thus there is no guarantee that 100% of the students can achieve the outcomes.

Due to the scale of this study, the examination only focuses on one distinctive component of a course: the expected learning outcomes. The results will show similarities or differences, overlaps or gaps if any and these will have certain implications for future revision of the curriculum and the framework.

Those questions that need to be addressed in this study are as follows:

Question 1: What domain or domains of ETCF are addressed in ELTE curriculum?

Question 2: What are the major competencies of ETCF that are addressed in ELTE curriculum?

Question 3: What is in the outcomes of the curriculum that is not yet linked to a competency of ETCF?

The relationship between the courses and the ETCF's standards is manifested at different levels: explicit and implicit. Competencies that are explicitly matched are those that are clearly stated in the syllabus, whereas competencies that are not directly aligned with the syllabus, but are developed through the learners carrying out an activity are termed implicit compatibility which is then marked by square brackets.

4.2. Data analysis

4.2.1. The compatibility between the English proficiency courses and the standards of ETCF

Table 1. The compatibility between the English proficiency courses and the standards of ETCF

D	Semester 1 - B1		Semester 2 - B2-		Semester 3 - B2+		Semester 4 - C1	
	SOCIAL (1A)	ACADEMIC (1B)	SOCIAL (2A)	ACADEMIC (2B)	SOCIAL (3A)	ACADEMIC (3B)	SOCIAL (4A)	ACADEMIC (4B)
1	1.1a [1.1b] [1.2] [1.4]	1.1a [1.1b] [1.2] [1.4] 1.5b	1.1a [1.1b] [1.2] [1.4]	1.1a [1.1b] [1.2] [1.4] 1.5b	1.1a [1.1b] [1.2] [1.4]	1.1a [1.1b] [1.2] [1.4] 1.5b	1.1a [1.1b] [1.2] [1.4]	1.1a [1.1b] [1.2] [1.4] 1.5b
2	[2.1] [2.2] [2.3a] [2.3b] [2.4] [2.5] [2.6]	[2.1] [2.2] [2.3a] [2.3b] [2.4] [2.5] [2.6]	[2.1] [2.2] [2.3a] [2.3b] [2.4] [2.5] [2.6]	[2.1] [2.2] [2.3a] [2.3b] [2.4] [2.5] [2.6]	[2.1] [2.2] [2.3a] [2.3b] [2.4] [2.5] [2.6]	[2.1] [2.2] [2.3a] [2.3b] [2.4] [2.5] [2.6]	[2.1] [2.2] [2.3a] [2.3b] [2.4] [2.5] [2.6]	[2.1] [2.2] [2.3a] [2.3b] [2.4] [2.5] [2.6]
3	[3.1] [3.2] 3.4	[3.1] [3.2] 3.4	[3.1] [3.2] 3.4	[3.1] [3.2] 3.4	[3.1] [3.2] 3.4	[3.1] [3.2] 3.4	[3.1] [3.2] 3.4	[3.1] [3.2] 3.4
4	[4.1] 4.2 [4.3]	[4.1] 4.2 [4.3]	[4.1] 4.2 [4.3]	[4.1] 4.2 [4.3]	[4.1] 4.2 [4.3]	[4.1] 4.2 [4.3]	[4.1] 4.2 [4.3]	[4.1] 4.2 [4.3]
5	[5.1]	[5.1]	[5.1]	[5.1]	[5.1]	[5.1]	[5.1]	[5.1]

Major competencies that are addressed in the above courses are English proficiency in two streams: social and academic (1.1a) and essential supplementary skills such as creativity, critical thinking (3.4), collaboration and teamwork (4.2). Other competencies concerning methodology or linguistics are all implicitly distributed in the courses. The delivery of the proficiency courses also reflects the fact that the new apprentice teachers are learning their trade by observing their instructors although these observations are not explicitly carried out.

4.2.2. The compatibility between the English linguistic and cultural courses and the standards of ETCF

Table 2. The compatibility between the linguistic - cultural courses and the standards of ETCF

D	Linguistics	English-American Studies	Intercultural Communications
1	[1.1a] 1.2 [1.3]	[1.1a] 1.4	[1.1a] 1.4
2			
3	3.4	3.4	3.4
4	4.3	4.3	4.3
5	[5.2]	5.1 [5.2]	5.1 [5.2]

These courses mainly focus on addressing linguistic elements of the target language (1.2) and target-language cultural understanding (1.4). Like proficiency ones, they also incorporate development of essential skills in service of students' life-long learning (3.4; 4.3). Experiential learning is promoted through a variety of means such as technology, authentic materials and interactions with target-language communities (5.1). Being theoretical in nature, these three courses can establish a good foundation on which students' continuous reflection and research in language and culture (5.2) are based.

4.2.3. The compatibility between the English Language Teaching (ELT) courses and the standards of ETCF

The specialized methodology courses together with teaching practicum are bound to build up fundamental teaching capacity in teacher candidates. They cover more competencies of ETCF than any other courses. Theses or graduation papers accomplished at the end of the program demonstrate that students have mastered a certain area of knowledge and attained competency 5.2. Even though language proficiency is not the focus in methodology courses, students' language can be maintained or somewhat upgraded since the courses generally use English as the medium of instructions.

Table 3. The compatibility between the ELT courses and the standards of ETCF

D	An Introduction to English Language Teaching Methodology	English Language Teaching Techniques & Practices	English Language Testing & Assessment	Practicum	Thesis
1	[1.1a] [1.1b] 1.2 1.3	[1.1a] 1.2	[1.1a]	[1.1a] [1.6]	[1.1a]
2	2.1	2.1 2.2 2.3	2.4	2.1 2.2 2.3 2.4 [2.5] [2.6]	2.1
3	3.1 3.2 3.3 3.4	3.1 3.2 3.4	3.4	3.1 3.2 3.3 3.4	3.4
4	4.1 4.2 4.3 4.4	4.1 4.2	4.5	4.1 4.2 4.3 4.4 4.5	4.1 4.3 4.4
5	5.1 [5.2]	5.1 [5.2]	[5.2]	5.1 5.2	5.2

4.3. Findings

Through examining the compatibility between ETCF and the ELTE curriculum, the author has reached important findings as follows:

Firstly, it is found out that one competency of ETCF is developed in more than one course and one course develops more than one competency. For example, competency 3.4 that develops learners' creativity, critical thinking and innovation is repeated in a number of courses and course of teaching practicum can help enhance several competencies at the same time. This overlapping is not negative in any way; instead, it creates an effect of reinforcement for a particular area of knowledge or skill. Though present in a number of courses, the competencies are not randomly distributed, but coherently placed in order of development from introduction, reinforcement to mastery. This is positive in the sense that it helps strengthen students' competencies and ensure achievement of the course outcomes.

Question 1: What domain or domains of ETCF are addressed in the ELTE curriculum?

Secondly, the ELTE program addresses most of the competencies in the five domains of ETCF and at different levels of explicitness. Some competencies are implicitly mapped with the outcomes of a course, while with another they are explicitly correlated. For example, domain 2 which is about English language methodology is implicitly distributed in courses of proficiency, but expressively taught in ELT options.

Question 2: What are the major competencies that are addressed in the ELTE curriculum?

Major competencies being addressed include language proficiency, linguistic knowledge and culture, and teaching methodology – three most fundamental aspects that make up teaching capacity of a language teacher. Among these three components, English proficiency is by far the most intensive of all with greatest amount of time devoted to its delivery. Consensus is that achieving required benchmark C1 according to CEFR is not an easy matter; students need adequate time and sufficient resources for this task. Besides, a body of knowledge about the linguistic elements of the target language system including phonology, morphology, syntax, pragmatics and semantics is also emphasized in the curriculum. In order to learn and communicate in the target language, it is essential that students should understand the target-language cultures. ELTE curriculum reserves a relevant amount of credits to reinforce students' understanding of target cultural practices and perspectives. Methodology courses which aim at providing students with specialized knowledge, skills and attributes for their future profession take up a substantial portion of the program. Competencies such as teaching language skills and elements, class management, lesson planning, creating supportive and meaningful learning environment, etc., are all included in the program. A large number of attributes or qualities that make up a good teacher such as creativity, innovation, critical thinking, cooperation, professionalism, and pursuing life-long learning also receive considerable attention in the curriculum.

Question 3: What is in the outcomes of the curriculum that is not yet linked to a competency of ETCF?

Despite the high correlation between the ELTE curriculum and ETCF, gaps or mismatches do exist between them. Some important competencies in ETCF have not been adequately covered in the curriculum and vice versa, some course outcomes do not match with any indicators in the framework.

Confusion arises over the issue of application of CEFR or Vietnam's foreign language competency framework (VNFLCF) to the benchmarking of the proficiency courses. VNFLCF was promulgated in December, 2014 by MOET to specify the six language proficiency levels for Vietnamese people, thus this framework is situated and more plausible to the local context while CEFR is universally applied. ETCF is exclusively designed for Vietnamese people, thus the question persists with which frame should be at work in Vietnam currently, CEFR or VNFLCF. So far, when it comes to CEFR, the knowledge about this framework (competency 1.1b) is not always the focal point of any course, or not always taught explicitly and systematically, but just a supplementary part of an orientation session at the beginning of the proficiency courses.

Competency 1.5a (Literary content in the target language) is not mapped to any core course. The possibility is that students will have to select one in elective series for the accomplishment of this competence.

Some other significant competencies in the framework concerning language teaching

methodology have not been officially covered in the core curriculum, namely 1.3 (Second language acquisition theories), 1.6 (Language curriculum and syllabus design), 2.5 (Textbook adaptation and material development), 2.6 (ICT in language teaching). If these competencies are to be covered in the electives which are optional in nature, the chance is that not all students can acquire these competencies.

In the curriculum, English methodological course emphasizes the importance of potential teachers being aware of the contextual characteristics of their teaching situations in Vietnam, weighing the strengths and limitations and adopting suitable approaches and methods to their class. This is methodologically relevant in terms of situated teaching and learning. However, in the era of regional and international integration when developing language skills gears towards regional and international mobility and employability of working people, we should look beyond the boundary. ETCF has done a great job by going further to require teacher candidates to understand roles, uses and issues of English in Southeast Asia (competency 5.3) as well as incorporating awareness of global role of English (competency 5.4). Thus rather than merely restricting Vietnamese teachers to the local context, the framework brings them to wider landscapes where English is seen as an international language.

Another discrepancy can be seen between the outcomes of the testing-assessment course and competency 4.5 in ETCF. The framework stipulates that students understand the ethical issues related to language testing and can model ethical language testing behavior that is fair to all students, but ethical standard is not yet a content to be touched upon in the course, not to mention the modeling of this professional quality.

Mismatch is detected in the way competencies are grouped together in both ETCF and the curriculum. ETCF follows a different system of classifying competencies from the courses in the ELTE program. While the ELTE curriculum contains three distinctive blocks of knowledge, proficiency, linguistics and culture, methodology, the framework covers 5 domains with competencies interwoven between language, culture and methodology. This creates a lot of difficulties for the work of comparing, contrasting and mapping.

5. Implications for curriculum development and framework improvement

As said earlier, the framework is not intended to be a mandate that involves strict compliance, but rather a guide to ensure educational quality assurance on current practices of curriculum planning, course designing and teacher professional development. The document is more of a supportive nature than prescriptive one. It represents a common language to be used in communications among actors involving in language teacher training. Choosing to speak the same language is a matter of choice. However, educational quality or teacher standard is a matter of non-negotiable. Education cannot develop without standard teachers.

Mapping curriculum to the standards of ETCF is only the first step in the process of ensuring a standard teacher development program. The next phase of work is to integrate the standards into the existing curriculum and a specific course. The ultimate purpose of this process is to bring the ETCF and the ELTE curriculum to a point where they can meet and marry well with each other and the product of this marriage is teachers who have standard competencies in order to teach well in their classroom. Does this process face any obstacles? It has been shown from Vietnam's experience that curriculum planning, reviewing, or changing involves a number of factors and actors including circumstance, top-down policies, regulations and stakeholders. The findings of this study are just a result of in-depth examination and the author's practical experience cultivated after

many years working in the field of curriculum and syllabus design. The findings are seen from personal angle to give curriculum planners something to start with in aligning courses with national teacher standards. This is only one source of information. A comprehensive review and revision of the institutional curriculum should also be based on other sources of data such as experts' opinions, stakeholders' feedback as well as alumni's surveys.

Viewing from the findings, the integration can begin almost at any point of time of teaching and does not require a big change in the existing curriculum or courses. This is because gaps are just a few and teachers' educators do not need to cover the entire ETCF document at the same time. Which sections of ETCF to be integrated depends on which contents of the curriculum are being taught at the time. Even gradual integration can be done while the existing program is running, which is another advantage that adds value to the integration. The integration is mostly related to the contents of courses, thus involving only teachers or course designers. This has nothing to do with policy and decision-making or administrative elements.

Another implication is concerned with the elected courses. As the findings indicate, some ETCF's standards are not addressed in the compulsory courses; the possibility is that they are distributed in the optional ones. The introduction of these electives may give students greater freedom in choosing what to learn, but letting students decide which option to choose or which standard should be achieved within their capacity may result in the fact that some outcomes in the curriculum and the framework are left unaccomplished. It is common that students rush to select the subject that gives them greater chance of passing or getting high marks rather than paying attention to considering which standard is necessary for them or helping them to become a good teacher. To limit the problem, curriculum planners should map out the route which includes the required and the elected which are highly recommended for the students in achieving the desired results. Awareness-raising activities should also be held to increase the popularity of the framework among educators and teachers.

The final implication is for the parallel structure between ETCF and ELTE curriculum in terms of classification of domains. There is no right or wrong structure in terms of arrangement of competencies into domains. However, in order to make the framework well match with its target, similar pattern of division should be adopted. Which document should be subjected to change? This question invites multiple replies, but one thing is obvious. There should be consensus between the authors of the framework and the curriculum designers.

6. Conclusion

Applying the English Language Teacher Competency Framework to the development and evaluation of the English Language Teacher Training Program proves to be one of the significant steps in assuring educational quality in general and teacher standards in particular. A teacher development programme that has clear outcomes mapped with the national teacher standards is absolutely beneficial to all actors involved in teacher training sector: schools can take pride in their curriculum; teachers are aware of the destination they are supposed to bring their students to and students at the same time know where and which direction they should go. For the teacher competency framework to work its way into the institution's training system, teachers and educators as well as course/curriculum designers engaged in the application should be provided with optimal conditions so that they are able to actively integrate the standards, readily make changes to improve the curriculum and courses.

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NGHIÊN CỨU SỰ TƯƠNG THÍCH GIỮA KHUNG NĂNG LỰC GIÁO VIÊN TIẾNG ANH VIỆT NAM VÀ CHƯƠNG TRÌNH ĐÀO TẠO CỬ NHÂN SƯ PHẠM TIẾNG ANH CỦA TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC NGOẠI NGỮ - ĐẠI HỌC QUỐC GIA HÀ NỘI

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Tóm tắt: Đảm bảo chất lượng luôn là một vấn đề quan trọng đối với một hệ thống giáo dục. Trong các cách tiếp cận nhằm nâng cao chất lượng giáo dục quốc gia, việc xây dựng và áp dụng khung năng lực nhằm đảm bảo chất lượng dạy học đã được nhiều quốc gia trên thế giới thực hiện. Việc thông qua Khung năng lực giáo viên tiếng Anh ở Việt Nam (KNL) vào năm 2012 cho thấy những nỗ lực của Chính phủ trong việc xác định, thúc đẩy và củng cố chất lượng giáo dục. Điều này đòi hỏi các chương trình đào tạo (CTĐT) giáo viên tiếng Anh phải có chuẩn đầu ra tương thích với các chuẩn năng lực trong khung năng lực quốc gia. Tuy nhiên, câu hỏi đặt ra là làm thế nào để có thể xây dựng chuẩn đầu ra của một CTĐT cử nhân sư phạm tiếng Anh có sự tương thích với KNL? Chương trình đào tạo cử nhân sư phạm tiếng Anh của Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ - Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội ban hành năm 2012 có đáp ứng chuẩn năng lực trong KNL hay không? Thông qua phương pháp phân tích văn bản nhằm so sánh chuẩn đầu ra của CTĐT với các tiêu chuẩn và chỉ số thực hiện trong KNL, tác giả đã đưa ra một số kết luận liên quan đến sự tương thích giữa chúng. Từ đó, tác giả đã có những đề xuất cho việc cải thiện và phát triển CTĐT cũng như KNL.

Từ khóa: Chương trình đào tạo cử nhân sư phạm tiếng Anh, tiêu chuẩn giáo viên, lĩnh vực, sự tương thích, Khung năng lực giáo viên tiếng Anh Việt Nam

APPENDIX

ENGLISH TEACHER COMPETENCY FRAMEWORK FOR PRE-SERVICE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMME

DOMAIN 1 - KNOWLEDGE OF LANGUAGE, LANGUAGE LEARNING, AND LANGUAGE CONTENT AND CURRICULUM

Competency 1.1a: Language proficiency

Teacher-candidates demonstrate proficiency in the target language at an appropriate level on the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) and seek opportunities to strengthen their proficiency - Upper secondary teacher Teacher-candidates, C1; Lower Secondary teacher Teacher-candidates, B2; Primary teacher Teacher-candidates, B1.

Competency 1.1b: Knowledge of Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR)

Teacher-candidates understand the Common European Framework of Reference proficiency descriptors at the levels that apply to their students, and are able to apply that understanding to their students and teaching practice.

Competency 1.2: Language as a system

Teacher-candidates demonstrate understanding of the linguistic elements of the target language system, including phonology, morphology, syntax, pragmatics and semantics, reflecting on that that knowledge in their own language learning and linking it to student learning at appropriate developmental levels.

Competency 1.3: Second language acquisition theories

Teacher-candidates know and are able to apply SLA theories and research to enhance their own language learning and to inform their teaching.

Competency 1.4: Target language cultures

Teacher-candidates know and embed knowledge of target-language cultures into their teaching and examine them in light of Vietnamese culture for understanding and empathy.

Competency 1.5a: Literary content in the target language

Teacher-candidates demonstrate a basic knowledge of target language literature and cultural texts (other media), including children's literature, and understand how to use those texts to reflect on target-culture perspectives, and apply this knowledge to their lessons and teaching.

Competency 1.5b: Academic content in the target language

Teacher-candidates know basic academic subject matter in the target language and understand how to integrate academic content knowledge in foreign language teaching.

Competency 1.6: Language curriculum and syllabus design

Teacher-candidates understand a variety of curricular approaches as well as the national foreign language curriculum and are able to design units and course-level syllabus for particular students that incorporate proficiency, content, and national curricular objectives.

DOMAIN 2 - KNOWLEDGE OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

Competency 2.1: Language teaching methodology

Teacher-candidates know, understand, and demonstrate ability to use evidence-based instructional practices and strategies to integrate target-language academic and social listening, speaking, reading and writing skills for authentic purposes and to address diverse language learners.

Competency 2.2: Language teaching lesson planning, activities, and assignments

Teacher-candidates know and apply concepts, research, and best practices to plan effective lessons, activities, and assignments that integrate content, four skills, and language forms and functions.

Competency 2.3a: Building supportive, meaningful learning environment

Teacher-candidates know how to create a supportive learning environment that includes target language input, opportunities for negotiation of meaning, and meaningful interaction.

Competency 2.3b: Implementing and managing language classroom activities

Teacher-candidates know how to design, implement, and effectively manage a variety of classroom activities to integrate skills and encourage participation among diverse learners, including how to implement flexible groupings, and how to maintain classroom control.

Competency 2.4: Assessing language learning

Teacher-candidates understand a variety of purposes and forms of formative (ongoing), and summative (progress and proficiency) assessment tools and techniques, including performance-based assessment, and are able to design and use age-level-appropriate assessments to inform instruction, and to measure student progress and proficiency.

Competency 2.5: Using and adapting language learning textbooks, authentic materials and other resources

Teacher-candidates are familiar with, and able to use and adapt required textbooks effectively for language teaching and to locate and adapt materials and resources appropriate for students' age and language level.

Competency 2.6: Using technology effectively to enhance language teaching and learning

Teacher-candidates have basic computer literacy and are familiar with basic applications and uses of technology for language teaching and learning.

DOMAIN 3 - KNOWLEDGE OF LANGUAGE LEARNERS

Competency 3.1: Understanding learners' cognitive and social development to motivate and engage student interest.

Teacher-candidates understand learners' cognitive and social development, and affective needs, and develop instructional practices that address and motivate diverse learners.

Competency 3.2: Understanding developmental learner language and using it to inform instruction

Teacher-candidates recognize the characteristics of developmental learner language and adapt their instruction and deal with errors appropriately at particular students' developmental stage.

Competency 3.3: Reflecting on cultural values and prior language learning

Teacher-candidates reflect on their own and their students' cultural values and prior learning experiences and how they shape [affect] their language learning preferences and classroom behaviors.

Competency 3.4: Using language learning as a means of developing creativity and critical thinking

Teacher-candidates practice creativity and critical thinking in their own language learning, and seek to develop and apply creativity, and critical thinking skills in their students.

DOMAIN 4 - PROFESSIONAL ATTITUDES & VALUES IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Competency 4.1: Demonstrating professionalism in language teaching

Teacher-candidates know the value of foreign language teaching for their students and society and demonstrate professionalism in their studies and their teaching.

Competency 4.2: Practicing cooperation, collaboration, & teamwork in language teaching

Teacher-candidates know how to work cooperatively, and to collaborate with others in teams to accomplish tasks, and teach students these skills in the language classroom.

Competency 4.3: Engaging in professional language teaching development and lifelong learning

Teacher-candidates develop and practice learner autonomy, and are able to pursue current information about language teaching and research, and develop new skills and competencies.

Competency 4.4: Contributing to the language teaching profession

Teacher-candidates are familiar with ongoing professional development opportunities and contribute to the exchange of ideas within their teaching community, enhancing the quality of teaching by sharing knowledge and learning from others at a local, district, national level and beyond.

Competency 4.5: Modeling ethical language teaching and testing behavior

Teacher-candidates understand the ethical issues related to language teaching and testing, and model ethical professional behavior.

DOMAIN 5 - CONNECTIONS TO PRACTICE & CONTEXT OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

Competency 5.1: Connecting learning beyond the language classroom

Teacher-candidates understand the importance of connecting their own learning and their students' language learning to other students, classes, school, and relevant contextual issues.

Competency 5.2: Reflecting on and researching language learning and teaching

Teacher-candidates practice ongoing reflection and conduct small-scale, reflective, action and classroom-based research to examine their own language learning, and their own teaching questions, and use their findings to inform their own practice.

Competency 5.3: Understanding roles, uses & issues of English in Southeast Asia

Teacher-candidates understand the roles and uses of English and issues of teaching and learning English in SE Asia and begin to apply these understandings to their lessons, assignments, materials' selection, and activities.

Competency 5.4: Awareness of issues related to the role of English as a global language

Teacher-candidates understand issues related to English as an international language and use those understandings to inform choices of methodology, materials, content, and assessment standards.

ORAL CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN EFL/ESL CLASSROOMS: CLASSIFICATION MODELS

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Abstract: Corrective feedback in general, and oral corrective feedback (OCF) in particular, has been of interest to both language teachers and researchers in second language acquisition (SLA). Teachers focus more on positive feedback and concern if corrective feedback should be provided, and when and how to provide it (Ellis, 2017). By comparison, SLA researchers pay attention to negative feedback and its effectiveness. Having received great interest, there have been a number of attempts in defining and classifying OCF up to date. Different models of classification have been proposed with different aspects of OCF taken into consideration, namely implicitness/explicitness and input-providing and output-prompting. This paper aims to review a body of literature on OCF classification models in the field of SLA.

Keywords: oral corrective feedback, classification, second language acquisition

1. Introduction

Feedback is one of the features of instruction which has been the subject of second language acquisition (SLA) research for decades. Feedback can be positive or negative, depending on whether the feedback giver wants to encourage or reward the hearer, or to correct his/her errors. Corrective feedback, or negative feedback, is a term employed to refer to the "feedback that learners receive on the linguistic errors they make in their oral or written production in a second language [L2]" (Sheen & Ellis, 2011, p. 593). Research on feedback experienced a boom after Truscott (1996) claimed that corrective feedback had no effect and played no beneficial role in L2 learners' linguistic development. His study generated long standing debates on the issue, leading to a growth in research in this area which, to date, has produced varied findings. Many researchers were quick to reject Truscott's proposal outright. However, a convincing argument for the facilitative role of OCF in L2 acquisition has established by the outcomes of the multitude of research studies on OCF, from the early studies of authors such as Chaudron (1977) and Carroll and Swain (1993) to the more recent studies such as those of Yang and Lyster (2010), Gooch, Saito, and Lyster (2016). These studies have confirmed that negative evidence is beneficial for language learning as the effectiveness of OCF has been found in almost all of them (see recent meta-analyses, e.g. Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013).

Corrective feedback has been of interest to both language teachers and researchers in second language acquisition. Teachers focus more on positive feedback and concern if

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corrective feedback should be provided, and when and how to provide it (Ellis, 2017). By comparison, SLA researchers pay attention to negative feedback and its effectiveness. Corrective feedback can also be classified as written corrective feedback and oral corrective feedback. It has been observed that Vietnamese teachers of English seem to be more concerned and familiar with the pedagogical aspect of corrective feedback, that is, which mistake to be corrected and how to be corrected (Nguyen, 2003). They do not seem to know well and practice the OCF types from cognitive perspective in SLA; the teachers were observed to mostly use only metalinguistic information and elicitation (Le, 2011) while there are many more than that, and they were hardly aware of the fact that clarification requests can serve as corrective feedback (Pham, 2018).

For the reasons above, this paper aims to introduce a review of OCF classification models in the history of OCF and discusses the issues raised from these models. The paper then concludes by pointing out the practical application of these models in the areas of language teaching and SLA theory as well.

2. Models of OCF classification

2.1. Lyster and Ranta (1997)

An early and influential attempt at establishing a list of oral feedback types was made in the large-scale descriptive study of French immersion classes by Lyster and Ranta (1997). Their study aimed to identify the types of CF that emerged during classroom interactions. The results revealed six types of individual feedback used by the teacher in this study. To illustrate the types, let us look at the different ways a teacher can respond to the following erroneous utterance "s*he has cat"* made by a student, using one of the six following corrective feedback moves.

1. *Explicit correction* is the teacher's provision of the correct form with such phrases as "Oh, you mean…." "You should say…"

T: *You should say, "She has a cat".*

2. *Recast* describes the teacher's reformulations of all or part of the student's erroneous response, which is repeated with change or with both change and emphasis. *Translation* is also considered a form of recast because, according to the authors, translation occurs infrequently and has similar functions as recasts.

T: *She has a cat. / A cat.*

3. *Clarification request* is a way with which the teacher indicated that he/she could not understand the utterance because of either the meaning or linguistic form. A clarification request includes phrases such as "Pardon me?" or a repetition of the error as in "What do you mean by X?"

T: *Pardon?*

4. *Metalinguistic feedback* is the method the teacher uses to offer comments, information, or questions, about the rules of grammar in the utterance, without an explicit provision of the correct form. These can be metalinguistic comments, e.g. *No, not that*, and metalinguistic information, e.g. *It needs an article,* or metalinguistic questions, e.g. *Does the noun need an article?*

T: *No, not "has cat". You need an article "a", "an" or "the" before a noun*

5. *Elicitation* includes at least three techniques the teacher uses to directly elicit correct form from the student.

a. *Completion*: The teacher elicits completion from the student as s/he pauses for the student filling in the rest of her utterance. A metalinguistic comment can come before the completion.

T: *No, it's not correct. She has…….*

b. *Questions*: The teacher uses questions to elicit correct forms. It is notable that yes/no questions are excluded; they are metalinguistic feedback.

T: *How do we say that in English?*

c. *Request for reformulation*: The teachers sometimes requests for the student's correction.

T: *Could you correct your sentence?*

6. *Repetition* is the way the teacher repeats the student's incorrect utterance, normally with intonation to highlight the error.

T: *She has cat?*

Repetition could appear in all other feedback types except for recasts, i.e.

Clarification requests: *What do you mean by X?*

Metalinguistic feedback: *No, not X. We don't say X in French.*

Elicitation: *How do we say X in French?*

Explicit correction: *We don't say X in French; we say Y.*

It can be seen that this early model by Lyster and Ranta (1997) displays one of the early attempts in pinpointing the potential individual OCF types, which set a strong foundation for the later models. These later models, developed from the one by Lyster and Ranta (1997), examine these individual OCF types by categorising them from different perspectives.

2.2. Ranta and Lyster (2007)

Ten years after their initial attempt in determining the six possible individual OCF types used by teachers in the descriptive model in 1997 (see section 1 above), Ranta and Lyster (2007) made another move by categorising these OCF moves into reformulations and prompts two groups (see Table 1). As defined by the authors, reformulations include two individual OCF types, recasts and explicit correction, providing learners with target reformulations; prompts, on the other hand, include elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests and repetition, which signal students to self-repair. The main difference between reformulations and prompts is that while reformulations offer the correct form, prompts withhold it and provide clues for students to produce the correct form from their memory.

Table 1. Classifications of OCF (Ranta and Lyster, 2007)

REFORMULATIONS	Recast Explicit correction
PROMPTS	Elicitation Metalinguistic clue Clarification request Repetition

This model develops in the way the individual OCF types are categorised, not the number of the OCF types. Sheen and Ellis (2011) made another attempt to both introduce new types of OCF and categorise them at the same time as presented in the next section.

2.3. Sheen and Ellis (2011)

Sheen and Ellis's (2011) taxonomy continues to keep the six OCF types introduced by Lyster and Ranta (1997) and the categorisation by Ranta and Lyster (2007) but presents some new features as follows:

Table 2. A taxonomy of OCF strategies (Sheen and Ellis, 2011, p. 594)

	IMPLICIT	EXPLICIT
INPUT-PROVIDING	**Conversational recasts** (i.e., the correction consists of a reformulation of a student utterance in the attempt to resolve a conversational problem; such recasts often take the form confirmation checks where the reformulation is followed by a question tag as in "Oh, so you were sick yesterday, were you?").	**Didactic recasts** (i.e. the correction takes the form of a reformulation of a student utterance even though no communication problem has arisen).
		Explicit correction only (i.e., the correction takes the form of a direct signal that an error has been committed and the correct form is supplied).
		Explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation (i.e. in addition to signalling an error has been committed and providing the correct form, there is also a metalinguistic comment).
OUTPUT-PROMPTING	**Repetition** (i.e. the learner's erroneous utterance is repeated without any intonational highlighting of the error).	**Metalinguistic clue** (i.e. a brief metalinguistic statement aims at eliciting a correction from the learner).
	Clarification requests (i.e. attention is drawn to problem utterance is repeated by the speaker indicating/he/she has not understood it).	**Elicitation** (i.e. an attempt is made to verbally elicit the correct form from the learner by, for example, a prompting question).
		Paralinguistic signal (i.e. an attempt is made to non-verbally elicit the correct form from the learner).

First, there are nine individual OCF types in this taxonomy instead of six as introduced by Lyster and Ranta in their 1997 and 2007 models. Regarding recasts which are only one type by Lyster and Ranta, this feedback is categorised into two types by Sheen and Ellis. Conversational recasts are considered more implicit, that is, when the teacher does a confirmation check with reformulation followed by a question tag to resolve the communication problem. For example:

S: *She is sick yesterday.*

T: *Oh, she was sick, wasn't she?*

On the other hand, didactic recasts are more explicit, that is, the teacher reformulates the learner's erroneous utterance even when it is well-understood. For example:

S: *He love dogs.*

T: *He loves dogs.*

Also, explicit correction is not anymore one type but exists in the form of the two types: explicit correction only (i.e., the correction takes the form of a direct signal that an error has been committed and the correct form is supplied), or explicit correction plus metalinguistic explanation (i.e. in addition to signalling an error has been committed and providing the correct form, there is also a metalinguistic comment).

Paralinguistic signal (i.e. non-verbal attempt to retrieve the correct form from the student), an under-researched feedback type not mentioned in Lyster and Ranta's 1997 and 2007 models, is now added in Sheen and Ellis's model.

Besides the change in the number of individual OCF types, this taxonomy by Sheen and Ellis uses two new terms, "input-providing" and "output-prompting", which replace "reformulations" and "prompts", respectively, coined by Lyster and Ranta.

The last but important new theoretical aspect of this taxonomy is the division of the nine feedback types according to their explicitness. This distinction, based on the salience and noticeability of CF to the learners, is between implicit CF where there is no overt signal that an error has been made, and explicit CF where there is a signal. Explicit feedback includes didactic recasts, explicit correction only, explicit correction with metalinguistic explanation, metalinguistic clues, elicitation, and paralinguistic feedback. Implicit feedback consists of conversational recasts, repetition, and clarification requests.

This implicit/explicit dichotomy does not bring contentment among SLA researchers, leading to the development of the most up-to-date model by Lyster, Saito, and Saito (2013).

2.4. Lyster, Saito, and Sato (2013)

The most recent OCF classification model is one devised by Lyster, Saito, and Sato (2013) who further developed the previous models by adding the different single feedback moves on a continuum, rather than the dichotomy by Sheen and Ellis, of explicitness/implicitness, with reference to the dichotomy of reformulations and prompts (see Figure 1). At the furthest end of implicitness are recasts and clarification requests while at the explicit end are explicit correction and metalinguistic clue.

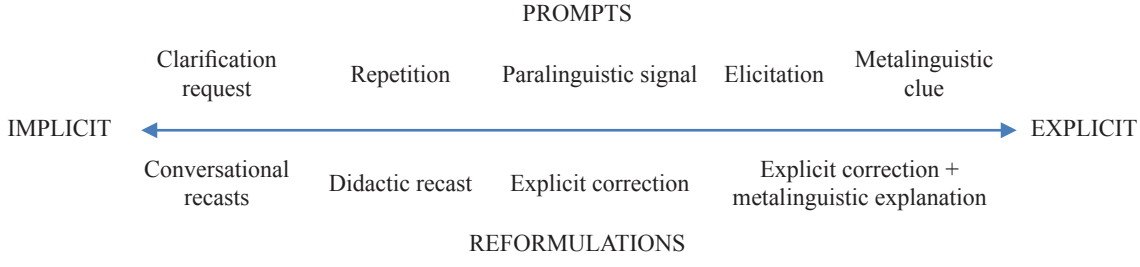

Figure 1. Classification of OCF (Lyster et al., 2013)

From the four models, it can be seen that the classification of oral corrective feedback has become more and more detailed and comprehensive over time. The model by Lyster and Ranta (1997) started with a description of six single moves of feedback which were then categorised into two sub-groups, reformulations and prompts by Ranta and Lyster (2007). Later, the OCF types were discussed in terms of implicitness and explicitness in the model by Sheen and Ellis (2011), and then the model by Lyster, Saito, and Sato (2013) provided a more comprehensive picture with the addition of the implicitness/explicitness continuum. However, even with the development of comprehensive categorisations of OCF types, a number of issues remain, which are discussed below.

3. Issues concerned

3.1. Recasts

Numerous discussions have raised questions about the category that recasts fit into. Recasts are typically identified as implicit because there are no such introducing phrases as "You should say…" "You mean…" and "Use this word…". However, their degrees of salience are different, because it depends on

whether it is a partial or a full recast, with or without emphasis/intonation.

Recasts were included in Lyster and Ranta (1997) but these were re-coded into four types by Lyster (1998, p. 54).

a. An isolated declarative recast which provides confirmation of a learner's message by correctly reformulating all or part of the utterance with falling intonation.

S: *Avant que quelqu'un le prendra*
Before someone it will take
"Before someone will take it."

T*: Avant que quelqu'un le prenne*
before someone it takes
"Before someone takes it."

b. An isolated interrogative recast seeks confirmation of the learner's message by correctly reformulating all or part of the utterance with rising intonation.

S: *He is nurse.*

T: *a nurse?*

c. An incorporated declarative recast provides additional information by incorporating the correct reformulation of all or part of a learner's utterance into a longer statement.

S: *He is nurse.*

T: *Yes, that's true that he is a nurse but he also works in a farm.*

d. An incorporated interrogative recast seeks additional information by incorporating the correct reformulation of all or part of a learner's utterance into a question.

S: *He needs umbrella.*

T: *Why does he need an umbrella?*

Recasts have been the most difficult CF type to categorise in terms of explicitness and implicitness. Because of their complexity, recasts have attracted a great deal of attention in SLA research. There has been a consensus on the continuum of their implicitness; recasts can be more or less implicit depending on the context, linguistic targets, length of the utterance, and the changes made to the utterance (Ellis & Sheen, 2006; Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013; Nicholas, Lightbown, & Spada, 2001; Sato, 2011; Sheen, 2004; Sheen, 2006). For example, long recasts with a number of changes have been thought to reduce the student's noticing of correction (Egi, 2007). Recasts are thought to be more salient and noticeable when the learners focus more on the language form than on communication (Oliver & Mackey, 2003), or less salient with morpho-syntactic targets (Mackey, Gass, & McDonough, 2000). They have been found to be more noticeable to an L1 than to another, e.g. more noticeable to Japanese than Canadian students (Lyster & Mori, 2006). Recasts have been found to repair as much as explicit correction does, so are considered equivalent to explicit correction in some studies (Lochtman, 2002; Loewen & Nabei, 2007); however, they have been found to cause a lower level of repair in uptake than explicit correction in others (Lyster, 1998; Sheen, 2004). Intensive recasts (that is recasts on errors of one type) have been found more effective than extensive recasts (that is recasts on errors of all types) (Nassaji, 2017).

Clearly, the results from these studies are mixed and it is evident that the difference in the way recasts are operationalised may affect their effectiveness. According to Lyster, Saito, and Sato (2013), although recasts vary in terms of their levels of implicitness, recasts belong to the implicit end of the continuum (see Figure 1). In contrast, Sheen and Ellis (2011) seem to have considered recasts as a dichotomy of implicitness and explicitness when they divide recasts into two subtypes. Conversational recasts are thought implicit and didactic recasts explicit.

This ambiguity requires researchers to justify their categorisation of recasts, and to design instruments that match their definition and classification. As cautioned by Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006), a generalisation of the findings in relation to recasts needs to be done with care, taking into account all the differences in purpose and design of the studies. From the discussion above, it is evident that explicitness of recasts is a difficult variable to hold constant in all contexts since it depends on a variety of factors. For this reason, it is necessary to identify the type of recasts employed in research studies.

3.2. Other OCF types

As stressed above, recasts vary in their levels of implicitness. Contentious issues have arisen in terms of other OCF types also. First, there is the complexity with regards to the explicitness level of explicit correction which can be used with or without metalinguistic explanation. Another noticeable feature is that, while elicitation is considered explicit by most of SLA researchers (Ellis, 2009; Loewen & Nabei, 2007; Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013; Sheen & Ellis, 2011), it is classified as implicit by Li (2010, p. 323) who follows Carroll and Swain's (1993, p. 365) definition of a CF as implicit because subjects are "never told directly that they were wrong, and they have to infer in order to understand their interlocutor's behaviour". Also, metalinguistic feedback has different degrees of informativeness (Lyster, 2015). It can consist of metalinguistic clues which simply provide a negator to reject the incorrect utterance of learners (e.g. *No, not "has cat"*), or it can entail metalinguistic explanation (e.g. *You need an article "a", "an" or "the" before a noun*). This feedback can be a combination of metalinguistic clues and explanation, which constitutes a higher degree of informativeness of the feedback and so increases its explicitness.

4. Conclusion

The classification of OCF have evolved over time through the works of prominent researchers. The number of OCF has increased, from the first time identified as six single types (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Ranta & Lyster, 2007), and later, nine types in Sheen and Ellis's (2011) model. Moreover, these single CF moves are categorised based on reformulations/prompts or input-providing/output-prompting, and also implicit/explicit dichotomy. The implicit/explicit continuum of the OCF types is the latest feature added to the most up-to-date model by Lyster, Saito, and Sato (2013).

With the aim to review and provide more information on OCF for ESL/EFL teachers in general and in Vietnam, particularly, the author hopes that there will be more teacher inquiries into this specific area in SLA, and more training on the matter will be carried out.

Theoretically, as mentioned in the Introduction above, the different ways of classifying or viewing OCF types affect the SLA researchers' perspectives in their studies into the effectiveness of OCF, substantially evidenced by a great volume of research. The author can discuss the relation between the application of different OCF classification models and the results of research into the effectiveness of OCF in the coming paper.

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HÌNH THỨC CHỮA LỖI BẰNG LỜI NÓI TRONG LỚP HỌC NGOẠI NGỮ: CÁC MÔ HÌNH PHÂN LOẠI

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Tóm tắt: Chữa lỗi nói chung, và chữa lỗi bằng lời nói nói riêng, từ lâu đã là mối quan tâm đặc biệt của cả giáo viên và các nhà nghiên cứu trong lĩnh vực giảng dạy ngoại ngữ. Giáo viên tập trung nhiều hơn tới cách đưa ra phản hồi tích cực nhằm khuyến khích người học, đồng thời quan tâm tới câu hỏi liệu có nên chữa lỗi, và nếu có thì chữa vào thời điểm nào và bằng cách nào. Theo hướng khác, các nhà nghiên cứu trong lĩnh vực thụ đắc ngoại ngữ quan tâm tới việc đưa ra phản hồi trực tiếp vào lỗi của người học và tính hiệu quả của các hình thức chữa lỗi này. Đã có nhiều mô hình phân loại các hình thức chữa lỗi bằng lời nói dựa trên các tiêu chí khác nhau, ví dụ: chữa lỗi một cách hàm ẩn hay rành mạch, hoặc dựa vào tiêu chí cung cấp hay không cung cấp mẫu ngôn ngữ khi người học mắc lỗi. Bài viết này sẽ tổng hợp một số mô hình nổi trội trong việc phân loại các hình thức chữa lỗi bằng lời nói trong lĩnh vực thụ đắc ngoại ngữ.

Từ khóa: chữa lỗi bằng lời nói, mô hình phân loại, giảng dạy ngoại ngữ

THE TRANSITION TO ENGLISH TEACHING: INFLUENCES AND CONSIDERATIONS FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION AND LANGUAGE PLANNING

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Abstract: Language policy enactment processes are complex, confounded by varied forces and interests, and shaped through negotiations, interpretations and compromise. Working from this perspective, this article examines the transition process of foreign language teachers from teaching other languages to teaching English, and the influences of this process on general foreign language education and language planning. In Vietnam, even though the shift to English teaching from other languages has been noted as a phenomenon, its process with grass-roots changes and potential influences on foreign language policy enactments in the country have not been specifically examined. By employing a case study approach, this article explores the transition process at An Nam University *(pseudonym)*, one of the universities undergoing the transition process. Drawn from a document, a preliminary survey, interviews with both teachers and leaders and observations, my study concludes that the transition process has an important role with various influences on different aspects in foreign language education in the university and in Vietnam. The study aims to provide fundamental pointers to current language policy implementation in the country as well as to other contexts undergoing similar changes.

Keywords: foreign language education, transition ("chuyển đổi"), Vietnam, English teachers, language policy planning

1. Introduction

Policy processes have been considered to be complex, confounded by varied forces and interests and shaped through negotiations, interpretations and compromise (Ball, 1994; Bowe, Ball & Gold, 1992; Gornitzka, Kogan & Amaral, 2005; Ozga, 2000, Reynolds & Saunders, 1987; Sin, 2014; Trowler, 2002; Trowler, Saunders & Knight, 2004). The implementation of language policies is claimed to be a policy enactment rather than a linear implementation process (Ball, Maguire & Braun, 2012). Singh, Thomas and Harris (2013) also emphasise the complexity, nuance and multidirectionality of policy enactment processes. The exploration of such processes is significant to understanding the complexity of policy enactments in this research field in general and in Vietnam in particular.

In Vietnam, even though many foreign language policies and educational changes have been promulgated, the complex

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enactment process of these policies, especially at grass-roots level, has lacked adequate attention. In particular, given that the transition from teaching other languages to teaching English, known here as the transition process, has been noted as a phenomenon in different studies alongside changes in foreign language education policy (Hoang, Nguyen & Hoang, 2006; Nguyen, 2011; Nguyen, 2012; Nguyen & Mai, 2015; Tran, 2015), it has not been specifically examined. Working from the perspective that policy and educational changes involve complex aspects in their implementation, this article explores this transition process of a group of teachers from teaching Chinese, French and Russian to teaching English, hereafter referred to as transitioned teachers or TTs at An Nam University.

2. Language policy enactments

According to Ball (1994), the process of introducing and enacting policies was complex, rather than a linear top-down perspective. He said, "policies do not normally tell you what to do, they create circumstances in which the range of options available in deciding what to do are narrowed or changed, or particular goals or outcomes are set" (Ball, 1994, p. 19). As opposed to the unidirectionality implied in "implementation", many scholars have pointed out the complexity, nuances and multidirectionality of language policy introduction and enactments, as well as acknowledging the disparity between formal policy decisions and practice (Ball, 1994; Bowe et al., 1992; Gornitzka et al., 2005; Ozga, 2000; Reynolds & Saunders, 1987; Trowler, 2002; Trowler et al., 2004).

In light of policy enactment, the focus on language policy has moved from the substance of policy itself to the practices in which policy becomes implicated and to which it contributes positively or negatively (Heimans, 2014). In other words, it is not just the question of knowing what policy is as a static object but more importantly and more concerningly, of knowing about the messiness and unpredictability of what people do in response to the policy. This article explores the transition process from teaching other foreign languages to English teaching as a result of educational and political changes based on this overall approach of language policy enactment.

3. Language policy and planning and teachers' roles

In an overview volume on the field of language policy and planning (LPP), Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) proposed that language planning occurred at several levels, the macro, the meso and the micro. It was argued that when applied linguists think of language planning, they normally consider it in terms of large-scale, usually national, planning. This process is often undertaken by governments and is meant to influence and/or change practices within a society. The importance of micro-level language LPP or what happens at schools or university with the involvement of teachers, has over time however been widely recognised. Many studies have highlighted the need to involve people at all levels including teachers with their important role in the language policy making process (Baldauf, 2012; Campbell, 2012; Datnow, 2012; Hamid & Nguyen, 2016; Liddicoat & Baldauf, 2008; Ollerhead & Ollerhead, 2010; Priestley, Edwards, Priestley & Miller, 2012; Ramanathan & Morgan, 2007; Vahasantanen, 2015).

Notably, teachers have been broadly identified as "central agents in language

policy development" (Baldauf, 2006, p. 54). Teachers from different backgrounds may be differently involved in change processes and policy enactments, and individual agency "may compromise the impact of a national language policy" (Baldauf, 2012, p. 240). In this article, the exploration of the TTs' experiences in line with the transition will thus significantly contribute to understanding the influences of dynamic educational changes in Vietnam, particularly the transition, regarding general foreign language education. Findings about the transition at An Nam university and its potential influences on the current policy and education context at the university and in Vietnam as a whole may well contribute important pointers to current foreign language education, especially teacher education, and language policy in the country, as well as to other contexts experiencing similar language shift.

In response to policy promulgation in Vietnam, several studies have investigated teachers' responses but have been mainly focused at primary level (Hamid & Nguyen, 2016; Mai, 2014; Phyak & Bui, 2016). None of the studies has explored the transition process specifically, or more importantly, the experiences of the TTs combined with the influences of this process on general foreign language education in Vietnam. Acknowledging the potential contribution of the transition and the TTs in foreign language education in Vietnam, the current article aims to fill these gaps by addressing the following research questions:

1. How did the transition from teaching other foreign languages to English happen in Vietnam?

2. How has this transition influenced foreign language education in Vietnam?

4. Research context and methodology

This article employs a case study approach, which is closely associated with natural inquiry (Merriam, 1998; Stake, 1995; Yin, 1984), to address the above research questions. Previously offering different foreign languages including Chinese, Russian and French, and currently mainly English, An Nam University, which is explored in this study, is the embodiment of language change and shift in Vietnam. The exploration of this case works as a mirror for understanding other universities and institutions experiencing a similar change. My research role as an insider, a tertiary lecturer in Vietnam, and an outsider researcher, not a TT, allowed me to explore in-depth insights of the case, avoid subjectivity and build up strong credibility for the research (Unluer, 2012).

A faculty document, a preliminary survey, and more importantly, 20 semi-structured interviews with 20 TTs and two interviews with two leaders of the faculty and the university, as well as observations from Zalo, a popular online communication tool in Vietnam and widely used in the faculty, were all collected and analysed. "Kỷ yếu khoa" (The faculty's development history document), which was publicly shared in the faculty, was firstly collected and analysed to better understand the case. A preliminary survey was then sent to the participants via email after they agreed to take part in the study. The surveys constructed an overall demographic profile of the participants together with general themes to be further explored in interviews and complemented by observations. Interviews were conducted at times convenient for the participants and observation field notes were gathered after the researcher received the participants' consent forms. This triangulation of data collection allowed for the strength and

in-depth of the findings' insights regarding the research questions as well as built the trustworthiness of the data (Glense, 2006).

Content analysis was employed as an analytical approach by extracting a set of characteristics from a text (Franzosi, 2004) and making valid inferences (Weber, 1990). This allowed me to explore the TTs' transition as well as its influences on foreign language education authentically. All of the data were analysed, transcribed and coded in the original Vietnamese, and only the coded themes were translated to English to be reported.

5. Findings and discussion

The two research questions are addressed and discussed in this section through findings and in light of the literature. The exploration of the transitions happening at An Nam University and the discussions in accordance with a general language shift in the Vietnamese context will firstly be presented. The influences of these transitions on foreign language education at the university and in the country will then be delineated.

5.1. Research question 1: How did the transition from teaching other foreign languages to teaching English happen in Vietnam?

An Nam University witnessed two transitions in line with changes in the national language policies. These include the transition from teaching Russian to teaching English in the 1990s, and from teaching Chinese, French and Russian to teaching English since 2008. Based on "Kỷ yếu Khoa", Table 1 presents the language education development from the university's formation and delineates the two transitions in the university.

Table 1. Languages development history at the university and the transition

Time	The development history of the case	The consequent transition
Before 1990s	The formation of An Nam University Only Russian teachers to teach Russian to all students at the university	
From 1990s	Expansion of the Foreign Languages Branch of the university with four divisions: French, Russian, Chinese and English.	The first transition: A group of teachers transitioned from teaching Russian to teaching English
	The establishment of the Foreign Languages Faculty: Training pre-service English language teachers and teaching other languages including French, Russian and Chinese to students of other majors in the university.	
Before 2010	Closure of French language teachers' major. French teachers only teach French as a second foreign language for English students. Offering English as the only foreign language for students of other majors in the university.	The second transition: Teachers of Chinese, Russian and French started to transition from teaching these languages to teaching English

5.1.1. The two transitions and transitioned teachers at An Nam University

The first transition that occurred at An Nam University witnessed the transition of Russian teachers to teaching English during the 1990s. As delineated in "Kỷ yếu Khoa", at the time of An Nam University's establishment until the early 1980s, Russian was the important foreign language taught and learnt at the university. Conversely, during the 1960s to 1980s, English was not as popular as French and Russian and was not introduced or taught at the university. English lecturers, as noted in this document, only worked in the science research laboratory to translate documents, and did not teach . However, from the 1990s, the university started to include English and Chinese in its teaching program. Especially, with the establishment of the Foreign Languages Faculty, the faculty set its aims of training pre-service English-major language teachers and teaching other languages for students of other majors in the university. During this time, with the shortage of teachers in English following its exponential development in Vietnam, together with signs of the downgrading of Russian in the country, a group of Russian teachers decided to study and teach English. This formed the first transition in the university.

The second transition at the university involved the cases of not only Russian teachers but also Chinese and French teachers in line with the change at the university from a yearly-based to a credit-based education system. Before 2008, despite the continuing development of English in Vietnam in general and at An Nam University in particular since *Doi moi (1986)* (Vietnam's reform), Chinese, Russian and French were still taught at An Nam University for students of other majors. Under the yearly-based education system, the university decided which foreign language would be taught by which faculty. For example, students whose majors were Literature, History or Geography would study Chinese as the required foreign language, whereas the Maths, Physics and Chemistry group and English major students would study Russian and French respectively. However, following the national educational trend, An Nam University changed from a yearly-based system to a credit-based system. Following this change, the university chose English as the only required foreign language to be taught at university for all majors, and French as the second required foreign language only for English major students. Consequently, Russian and Chinese teachers had no official classes at An Nam University. Additionally, not long after this, the Foreign Languages Faculty closed the French teacher training major, which had been offered, and only maintained English majors. French teachers thus had only a limited number of classes for English major students in the Foreign Languages Faculty. As a result of these changes, the teachers of Russian, Chinese and French in the faculty decided to transition to teaching English. This formed the second transition of language teaching in the university.

Drawn from these two transitions, 20 TTs took part in this study. Through preliminary surveys, Table 2 provides basic demographic profile of these TTs. The names of TTs 1-20 are all pseudonyms, and are arranged in the table according to the language they used to teach, namely Chinese, Russian and French, or their first foreign language. Among these TTs, TTs 7, 8, 9 belong to the first transition, while the remainder belongs to the second transition. Chinese TTs are from TT 1 to TT 4, Russian from TT 5 to TT 9, and French from TT 10 to TT 20. Five TTs of this group (TTs 5, 7, 8, 9, 10) studied English at a national university

in the capital of Vietnam. The others studied English in an in-service training course offered by An Nam University. When they finished their study and achieved a BA degree in English, they could officially change to teaching English. It took some teachers only two years in this process but up to four years for others.

Table 2. The transitioned teachers' demographic data

Name	First foreign language	Teaching experience (years)		Degree		Language(s) currently teaching
		First foreign language	English	First foreign language	English	
TT 1	Chinese	>10	<5	BA	MA	English/ Chinese
TT 2	Chinese	5-10	5-10	BA	MA	English
TT 3	Chinese	5-10	5-10	BA	MA	English/ Chinese
TT 4	Chinese	5-10	<5	MA	BA	English
TT 5	Russian	<5	5-10	MA	MA	English
TT 6	Russian	<5	5-10	BA	MA	English
TT 7	Russian	>10	>10	MA	BA	English
TT 8	Russian	>10	>10	MA	MA	English
TT 9	Russian	5-10	>10	PhD	BA	English
TT 10	French	5-10	5-10	MA	PhD candidate	English
TT 11	French	5-10	5-10	BA	MA	English/ French
TT 12	French	5-10	5-10	BA	MA	English
TT 13	French	>10	<5	MA	BA	English/ French
TT 14	French	>10	5-10	MA	BA	English/ French
TT 15	French	>10	5-10	MA	BA	English/ French
TT 16	French	5-10	5-10	MA	BA	English
TT 17	French	>10	5-10	MA	BA	English/French
TT 18	French	>10	5-10	MA	BA	English/French
TT 19	French	>10	5-10	MA	BA	English/ French
TT 20	French	5-10	<5	PhD	BA	English/ French

5.1.2. Reflecting language shift in Vietnam

It is notable that the transitions happening at An Nam University were in tandem with changes in foreign language education in Vietnam nationwide. The first transition from Russian to English teaching that happened at the university in the 1990s reflected language shift at that time in Vietnam. Indeed, before Doi moi, the status of English was still minor, ranking after Russian and French among foreign languages (Le, 2007; Nguyen, 2012; Pham, 2006; Vu & Burns, 2014; Wright, 2002). Although English had been widely learnt in the

South of Vietnam where the United States was directly involved in the Vietnam war (1954-1975), English was still very marginalised in general and particularly in the North of Vietnam (Nguyen & Nguyen, 2007). Russian was regarded as the most important foreign language in Vietnam for several decades in Vietnam after Independence (1945) and Reunification (1975) (Nguyen, 2012).

In the same vein, the second language shift at the university resonates with the changed position of the English language in national foreign language education since the 1990s. Following the fall of the Soviet Union and the downgrading of Russian, as well as the expansion of the nation's relations to foreign countries and adoption of a market-oriented economy (Nguyen, 2011), English has re-emerged as the main foreign language taught, and has been used in Vietnam for broader communication and cooperation since the 1980s (Alter & Moreau, 1995; Do, 1999; Wilson, 1993a; 1993b). English then became an attribute for the development of "a better standard of living" (Denham, 1992, p. 64) or an "unquestionable asset" during that time (Shapiro, 1995, p. 4).

Importantly, although two transitions happened at An Nam University, there was no official documentation about these two shifts. In other words, they were implemented as a covert decision, or a de facto or implicit language policy action (Baldauf, 2006; Schiffman, 1996; Shohamy, 2006) of tertiary institutions at the meso-level to require the teachers to transition. As commented by the TTs in their interviews, the idea of transitioning to English teaching was pitched and formed through faculty meetings with faculty and university leaders. It is thus understandable that even though the transition was noted in the literature as a phenomenon (Hoang, Nguyen & Hoang, 2006; Nguyen, 2011; Nguyen, 2012; Nguyen & Mai, 2015; Tran, 2015), it was not specifically examined. Arguably, however, there would have been other similar cases and transitions in other contexts nationwide, which were not explored. The examination of the transitions at An Nam University as an example in this study is thus significant to understanding other similar cases, especially in Vietnam and in other Asian countries, in order to potentially take timely action in regards to issues in foreign language education.

Noticeably, as recorded in the document and also in the interview with the faculty leader, the total number of TTs in the faculty used to constitute up to 60% of the staff and still comprised roughly 50% at the research time. With such a large proportion of TTs, the covert state of the transitions raised questions about their implementation process as well as their potential influences on foreign language education in the university and in a broader picture in Vietnam, which has not been investigated in previous studies. The next section will present and discuss these impacts.

5.2. Research question 2: How has the transition influenced foreign language education in Vietnam?

The transitions at An Nam University had strong influences on general foreign language education in the university and in the Vietnamese contexts. These include long-term teachers' professional development, language retention and language diversity as well as discrepancies between the top-down and grass-roots levels in the language policy implementation process.

5.2.1. Long-term professional development

As presented above, the TTs constituted a large number in general human resources at An Nam University and consequently in

English language education in Vietnam. In line with the overall picture of English teacher education in Vietnam, the transition process has posed the question of long-term effective professional development for these teachers both in their first foreign languages and in English.

First, the transition has led to concerns for the TTs' professional development in English, especially in line with the current required benchmark for English language teachers. Most of the TTs had only had a two-year in-service course in their English language teacher training, which they did not regard highly. These TTs compared their meticulous first foreign language training with the short and ineffective courses in English. In addition, there was a lack of regular effective professional development for these TTs. As many commented, the activities for their professional development were "rare and not effective". After the transition, their English language proficiency was felt to be not progressing.

Even though the majority of the TTs agreed that their English proficiency was adequate for their current teaching of non-major English students, they were not satisfied, nor did they consider themselves as "real" English teachers. TT 1, for example, added that although on the surface he was equipped with adequate degrees, he regarded himself as not meeting the requirements to become an "authentic" English teacher, with knowledge and expertise equal to the other English teachers who majored in English at the beginning. Several TTs also mentioned their wish to have more teaching methodology training. Being TTs, they acknowledged their shortcomings in terms of their English capability.

The TTs' own perceptions of their adequate English ability for their teaching in this study are in part in agreement with Mai (2014). Despite higher requirements from the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET), English teachers in Mai's study and the TTs in this study believed that their current levels were appropriate to be able to teach their students. Additionally, the findings in the current article echo Le (2007) that the retraining for these TTs "was not properly delivered" (p. 172). While Le only mentioned the case of Russian teachers, my study added cases of French and Chinese ones. More importantly, this evidence resonates with other studies about the urgent need for qualified English teachers in Vietnam (Nguyen, 2011) and other Asian countries such as Japan (Butler, 2004) and Taiwan (Tsao, 2008), as well as noting limited proficiency and a lack of understanding of teaching methodology (Carless, 2004; Fung & Norton, 2002; Hayes, 2008a; Kang, 2008, cited in Nguyen, 2011). Regarding the question of whether the policy will succeed in creating an army of qualified English teachers to cater for the English learning population (Le, 2012; Le & Do, 2012; Nguyen, 2011, cited in Hamid & Nguyen, 2016), frequent retraining for these TTs at An Nam University or in a broader landscape in Vietnam can potentially and significantly contribute to such a workforce.

Noticeably, resulting from the transition, issues exist of the TTs' professional development in their first foreign languages. Given the fact that a large group of teachers (TTs 1, 2, 3, 13, 15, 17, 18, 19, 20) still attempted to maintain their first foreign language after the transition, there were no effective activities or a supportive environment for them. They acknowledged that from a sophisticated understanding and high proficiency in their first foreign language at the beginning, since the transition, their first foreign language capacity had been gradually

weakening. TT 3 said, "I "mai một" [forgot] my first foreign language a lot. I mostly forget my Chinese…". TT 6 also asserted, her first foreign language is "dying, certainly dying itself...". This alarming fact of the loss of first foreign language capability is common among the TTs. Arguably, for these TTs, their English is not better and their first foreign language is dying. This concern was asserted by TT 2, "... Now, Chinese is dying, English is not getting better … I am not satisfied with myself". The TTs therefore did not have enough confidence to work in their first foreign language. This has caused problems born out of complex situation in respect of teachers' professional development for both their first foreign language and English.

Overall, a dilemma exists with regard to foreign language teachers' professional development resulting from the language shift. This has raised concerns of unintended consequences in the TTs' professional practices brought about by the transition. One the one hand, the TTs were not satisfied with their English training and their English development without useful courses and activities, which likely caused tensions in their teaching practices. On the other hand, these TTs gradually lost their first foreign language ability. Consequently, the issue of professional development for this group of TTs could affect general foreign language education at the university and the foreign language landscape in Vietnam in general. This converges with other studies in terms of raising significant concerns about teachers' proficiency and satisfaction levels (Mai, 2014; Nguyen, 2011) and teacher training and ongoing professional development in the light of changing expectations of English teachers and teacher roles (Hamid & Nguyen, 2016). This also raises the need to have government initiatives for teachers' skill enhancement (Shahab, 2013, cited in Hamid & Nguyen, 2016). With the distinctive situation of the TTs in this study due to the transition, these considerations are even more significant.

5.2.2. Language retention and language diversity

The transition posed questions of language maintenance and language diversity at the university and also in Vietnam. First, with regard to language retention, the TTs have demonstrated their efforts to maintain their first foreign languages despite lack of support. These include teaching, translating and interpreting jobs, being tour guides as well as participating in different social activities or communities related to these languages. Chinese TTs, for example, kept teaching Chinese courses with extra classes or night classes at the language centre and at home. TT 1 revealed that despite currently teaching English, he is still "hoping one day to get back to Chinese", his first foreign language, or to "teach Chinese at the university". TT 1 considered himself as two versions of one person. During the day, he teaches English as "a required, compulsory job", and in the evening, he indulges in his "hobby or as a person of himself" by teaching Chinese. Likewise, teaching French is perceived by many of the French teachers as a "precious treasure" (TT 14) for them to recall good memories. Many of them (TTs 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20) still tried to work with French although these TTs revealed, French classes might have disadvantages such as limited teaching hours and credits compared to English classes. TT 14 admitted,

> Teaching [French] means accepting disadvantages, smaller number of students, fewer credits, but everyone loves teaching [French]... teaching a language that we are dedicated to and are passionate with.

As evidenced from the comments of the TTs, despite the unsupportive environment at An Nam University for foreign languages other than English, the TTs still managed to retain their first foreign languages.

The TTs' attempts with regards to their first foreign language were also shown through my observations during my fieldwork at An Nam University. The French TTs created their own group chat on Zalo. They discussed their teaching on this tool and the other difficulties that they faced in their teaching and tried to find solutions together. This was the space where they could share problems in French teaching, including choosing teaching materials or solving difficulties, if any. These activities and the passion for the languages that the TTs have been working with showed that these TTs have made efforts to retain their first foreign languages. However, many of these activities remain at individual levels.

It is notable that ongoing activities to support these teachers to retain their first foreign languages from the faculty and the university were scarce and ineffective. In terms of administrative and academic management of the French group at the Foreign Languages Faculty, although French was still taught at the Faculty for English-major students, it no longer had either a separate division or a separate leader. In fact, this group belonged to the "Non-major English Division" or so called "English 2" Division. Similarly, the French major also had the same leader who was in charge of the whole "English 2" division and was originally from the Russian major. As TT 20 reported, this division focused more on teaching English for non-major English students, not on French language teaching. There was no one to lead and be officially in charge of the quality of French language teaching. The French TTs therefore had to discuss among themselves if there were any emerging issues with regard to their French teaching. As evident here, compared to English, French is not a focus of language development. The lack of an effective working environment for these languages caused unintended consequences for these TTs regarding working environments and conditions.

Importantly, the TTs' transition to English teaching and the ways of implementing this change has raised issues of language diversity at the university as well as in Vietnam. Due to the lack of support for their first foreign languages, the majority of the TTs gradually ceased their first foreign language teaching which resulted in the downgrading of these languages. The capability and the development of other foreign languages, besides English, at the university will thus be questioned. With respect to general language diversity in Vietnam, only focusing on English at An Nam University seems to be controversial. As asserted by several TTs (14, 15, 17, 20), the maintenance of other languages at the university can have value. TT 17, for example, explained the reasons to keep French. She argued that students who learn French may not necessarily become French teachers because French is no longer publicly taught at high school, but they still can work in tourism or other fields as interpreters. This fact was shown through the case of TT 15 who still worked successfully as a tour guide in Sa Pa besides his teaching at the university during the process of transitioning. The preference for English at the university, which has led to the marginalisation of other languages, thus needs to be considered.

This fact questions Nguyen and Nguyen's (2007) conclusion that English was a compulsory subject in the educational system, but does not deny the opportunity to learn other languages at school. Despite the

different context (Nguyen and Nguyen's study was at primary level and the current study is at tertiary level), it has been significantly shown in this paper that the preference for English has negatively influenced the development of other foreign languages and has caused the downgrading of language diversity generally. The overemphasis on only one language and neglecting of other foreign languages, as at An Nam University, can lead to an imbalance and a deterioration in language diversity. In addition, as mentioned in "Vietnam adds 5 new foreign languages" (2016), other foreign languages, including Chinese and French, are likely to be added to primary level teaching. The support for and maintenance of these languages thus would probably work as a strategic approach for the long-term development of the university. Supportive actions to maintain these languages are therefore encouraged.

5.2.3. The discrepancies and mismatches between the top-down and grass-roots level

Besides the issues of professional development, language retention and language diversity, the discrepancies and mismatches resulting from the transitions occurring at the university between the top-down and grass-roots level are noteworthy.

Firstly, there were mismatches between the leaders' and the teachers' opinions about the reasons leading to the transition. While the transition was considered by the leaders as a matter of fact or the choice of the TTs, the TTs claimed that the transition was a mandatory requirement and was the only choice that they had if they wished to stay working at the university. Given that there was no documentation about the transition, according to the leaders' interviews, the transition was seen as the TTs' only option following the "advice" or "suggestion" of the leaders. The university leaders said,

> It is not written, but there were meetings discussing the transitioning demand. They [the TTs] see one thing that the previous generations could overcome the crisis in teaching [the transition], and could stand firmly. Therefore, the next generations also look at the mirror of these ancestors to follow.

Additionally, there existed disparities in the perceptions of the TTs and the university's policy about language diversity. As for applying English as the only foreign language taught at university for non-English major students at the university, both faculty and university leaders gave reasons why the university ended up choosing only English for their foreign language education. The faculty leader noted that there used to be five foreign languages encouraged by the MOET, Chinese, French, Russian, German and English, but "English is the main language taught at the high schools in the region". He also mentioned that due to the new requirement from the MOET for the standard of students' outcome, if the university had chosen another language, it would be difficult for students to achieve the required standard. The leader of the university added, "the belief of the university's leaders was to follow the trend that English is the global language in the process of globalisation". Obviously, despite being one of the leaders of the university, this leader still mentioned a more powerful figure whose decision was crucial and decisive in this language policy. The notable point is that the TTs had no idea about the meetings, if any, which decided which foreign languages were to be taught. Instead, several of the TTs still believed that students were the ones who did not choose their first foreign languages. This clearly shows the existing gaps and misperceptions in communication between the university leaders and the teachers.

Controversially, the TTs mentioned their strong opposite view from the leaders' about English choice and the maintenance of language diversity. TT 20, for example, said that the decision to teach English only at the university, for him, was "a wrong decision". He clarified his idea:

> I totally do not support this decision because I think a big university should teach many foreign languages majors, not only English... Multilateral relations, multiple languages and cultures are very important.

Interestingly, he raised his opinions towards this policy by writing journal articles. He said, his article in a Vietnamese journal about teaching French at universities in Vietnam reflects this point of view, the importance of maintaining different foreign languages at university, rather than just English. He claimed, "maintaining teaching different languages, English, French, Chinese and Russian ensures the diversity of languages, and cultures, and confirm the level of a university". Sharing this opinion, TT 13 thought the decision of the university was too extreme. He said,

> [It is] too extreme, too biased towards English… A university environment should be multi-languages, …[students] have the right to choose [the foreign language] in schools including university, it is better.

As shown above, these comments exhibit discrepancies in the communication between leaders and teachers about the insights of the transition. This evidence also reveals remaining gaps between the university's policy and the teachers' perceptions in the process of implementing the change at the university. Notably, according to several TTs, there were no forums or opportunities for the TTs to express their "resentments" or opinions on these mismatches. TT 14, for example, said angrily, "No one could respond [to the change]... Teachers had no voice… No one hear [the teachers]..." The decision of the leaders towards policies was perceived as compulsory or "hard to understand" (TT 13). Undoubtedly, these existing discrepancies between leaders' views and the TTs' perceptions and the tensions in teachers' professional practices are unresolved.

The disparities of communication between the leaders and the teachers also led to concerns about general language policy enactment. "Foreign language policy is quite fragile" was the comment of TT 14 after giving examples about different shifts of foreign languages in Vietnam and at An Nam University as well as from his personal experiences. He had specialised in Russian for seven years before he changed to learning and teaching French after the downgrading of Russian in 1990. Recently, with development of English and contraction of French, he transitioned to learning and teaching English. Besides the changes he has made in languages, TT 14 also pointed out an example of this "fragile language policy". He mentioned that Ms Lan [pseudonym] was trained in Russian, but had then just become a ticket seller at the foreign language center of the university due to the diminution of Russian compared to other languages. He also added, "the way of introducing a policy or its implementation,... almost was pre-decided,... nothing to be referenced but have to accept".

The mismatches between topdown and grass-roots levels in this study resonate with results in other studies about language policy implementation, especially the call for more connection between these two levels (Nguyen & Bui, 2016; Phyak & Bui, 2014). Different interpretations and meanings of the policy by the teachers have been noted in different studies

(Ali, 2013; Zacharias, 2013, cited in Hamid & Nguyen, 2016). Indeed, the connection and communication between the teachers who directly enact the policy, and the stakeholders or the leaders who draft the policy, should be more effectively conducted. The gap in communication between these two actors as shown in this study could lead to inefficacy of the enactment process. In other words, in response to the current promulgation of policies in Vietnam, for better understanding and communication in the policy enactment process, these gaps and disparities between the top-down and the reality at grass-roots level deserve more attention in some contexts in Vietnam (Nguyen & Bui, 2016).

6. Conclusion

The article has discussed the transitions to English teaching from other languages in An Nam University in line with general language shifts in foreign language education in Vietnam. Issues of professional development, language retention, language diversity and the connection between the top-down and grass-roots level in language policy implementation were noted as influences of this process on and considerations for general foreign language education and language planning. The transition that happened at the university was a covert solution of the university in response to educational changes in Vietnam, which had resulted from socio-cultural and economic contexts in the country. It is arguable that there would be other cases or universities in Vietnam which have not been investigated. However, the covert process of implementing the change at An Nam University created problems for the ongoing necessary actions to respond to it, as well as how to balance and reconcile the transition with the current policy enactment in the country. As presented, even though the university has made efforts to maintain appropriate human resources and to partly solve the problems of the language shift, major issues exist. These include how to manage and maintain professional development for this group and their engagement with the new field of teaching, and how this transition process has directed and affected foreign language education in the university. These are several of the many questions discussed in the article and to be further addressed for other contexts in Vietnam and in other countries undergoing similar changes.

With the impact from the whole country's history and general education, the actions for the transition process should not be limited to a university level, but significantly at national level and include the stakeholders of the country. Looking back at the transition or the remnants of previous language education policy as a strategy to strengthen current and future foreign language education is laudable and should be encouraged. The inadequacy of macro-level policies and the lack of support for teachers that would equip them linguistically and pedagogically for developing students' proficiency in English was noted (Hamid & Nguyen, 2016) and emphasised in this study. Importantly, the connection between the university leaders and the teachers or between the stakeholders of policy making and the institutions was seen as the key issue to bridge the gap. Concerns of the TTs as presented in the study can only be solved when these are voiced by the stakeholders such as university's leaders and policy makers. Hamid and Nguyen (2016) emphasised that "if English language policies have produced only modest outcomes in many of the Asian societies, it is largely due to teachers and teacher education and professional development issues" (p. 37). Employing a case study approach, this paper acknowledges its limitation on the

study's generalisability stemming from the exploration of only one university in Vietnam. Nevertheless, its theoretical framework and employed methodology can be applicable to other situations in which the findings in this article can be reinterpreted. Further considerations and actions for this group of TTs and the transition process in other contexts or institutions in Vietnam and in other contexts experiencing similar language shifts are thus recommended.

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QUÁ TRÌNH CHUYỂN ĐỔI SANG GIẢNG DẠY TIẾNG ANH: NHỮNG ẢNH HƯỞNG VÀ XEM XÉT TRONG GIÁO DỤC VÀ CHÍNH SÁCH NGOẠI NGỮ NÓI CHUNG

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Tóm tắt: Quy trình ban hành chính sách ngôn ngữ là quá trình rất phức tạp, bị chi phối và định hình bởi các tác động, diễn giải, đàm phán và thỏa hiệp khác nhau. Dựa trên góc độ xem xét này, bài viết tìm hiểu quá trình chuyển đổi của các giáo viên dạy các ngôn ngữ khác sang giảng dạy tiếng Anh, cũng như những ảnh hưởng của nó đối với giáo dục và chính sách ngoại ngữ nói chung. Mặc dù ở Việt Nam, việc chuyển đổi sang dạy tiếng Anh từ các ngôn ngữ khác đã được ghi nhận là một hiện tượng nhưng những thay đổi và ảnh hưởng của nó đến các chính sách ngoại ngữ trong nước chưa được nghiên cứu một cách cụ thể. Thông qua phương pháp nghiên cứu tình huống, bài viết tìm hiểu quá trình chuyển đổi diễn ra tại Đại học An Nam *(tên trường do tác giả tự đặt)*, một trong những trường đại học sớm trải qua quá trình chuyển đổi này. Thông qua phân tích tài liệu, phiếu điều tra, phỏng vấn với giáo viên tham gia chuyển đổi và lãnh đạo của khoa và trường, cũng như sự quan sát của tác giả, bài báo đã đưa ra kết luận về vai trò và những ảnh hưởng của quá trình chuyển đổi đối với các khía cạnh khác nhau trong giáo dục ngoại ngữ ở trường hợp được nghiên cứu và ở Việt Nam. Bài viết cũng đề xuất một số gợi ý cơ bản đối với việc thực hiện chính sách ngôn ngữ trong nước cũng như ở các bối cảnh nghiên cứu khác có trải qua sự thay đổi tương tự.

Từ khóa: giáo dục ngoại ngữ, chuyển đổi, Việt Nam, giáo viên tiếng Anh, chính sách ngoại ngữ

QUALITY ASSURANCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION: IMPLICATIONS FOR VIETNAMESE UNIVERSITIES

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Abstract: This papar presents the literature based research into the quality assurance practices in higher education. A framework consisting of five components - leadership and management, stakeholder engagement, internal processes, cooperation and collaboration, and culture of continuous quality improvement - will be presented. The study analyses these five components as the driving factors for quality assurance and quality improvement at the institutional level. Finally, the implications for Vietnamese higher education will be provided. Among these implications is the need to manage quality assurance as organisational change for sustainability.

Keywords: quality assurance, leadership and management, stakeholder engagement, internal processes, cooperation and collaboration, culture of continuous quality improvement

1. Introduction

Quality has implicitly been a concern of higher education institutions since the founding of the mediaeval universities in Europe (Van Vught & Westerheijden, 1994). Vroeijenstijn (1995, quoted in Newton, 2006) claimed that 'the concept of quality is not new: it has always been part of the academic tradition'. In the same vein, the IIEP-UNESCO (2011) reviewed that 'quality assurance of higher education, by state authorities, collective higher education institution bodies, or higher education institutions themselves is by no means a new practice and request' (p. 13). In the last decades, quality assurance has become a global concern regarding quality and standards, there has been an international market for quality assurance services, national and regional quality agencies have been established, endeavours have been invested into developing more systematic and comprehensive quality assurance approaches, and various new models and frameworks have been proposed for educational quality in higher education (IIEP-UNESCO, 2011; Boyle & Bowden, 1997; Srikanthan & Dalrymple, 2007). As an inevitable international tendency, various countries around the world have adopted or developed formal quality assurance

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systems, aiming at regulating and improving quality of their higher education, in response to 'competitiveness to attract students and accountability for outcomes and resources used' (Boyle & Bowden, 1997, p. 112) to their customers and the public at large. More than ever, higher education institutions in many countries across the regions have been urged to guarantee and demonstrate their "value for money" (IIEP-UNESCO, 2011).

2. Quality assurance frameworks and models to date

As quality assurance adoption depends on diverse perspectives on quality dimensions, there has been no universally accepted conceptual framework for quality assurance in higher education. Quality assurance literature has seen the emergence of various models and frameworks developed for different regions at different times. More recently, various new models for educational quality management have been developed and proposed (see, for example, Cheng & Tam, 1997; Penington, 1998; Dill, 1999; Srikanthan & Dalrymple, 2002, 2004, 2007). For the purposes of this study, five models were selected for review. These models were identified as those that were most articulated and/or well referenced in the literature, and relevant to the Vietnamese context. Each is discussed below, in chronological order.

2.1. The transformative model (TM)

The transformative model was developed for European countries by Harvey and Knight (1996). It is rooted in the transformative notion that quality should focus on enhancing and empowering participants. This model highlights the development of a quality culture of continuous improvement. The authors proposed that the primary focus of the quality process should be shifted from external scrutiny to internal effective action. This continuous quality improvement process is driven from two directions: bottom-up empowerment and top-down auditing.

In Harvey and Knight's (1996) view, bottom-up empowerment leading to quality improvement requires the development of effective collegiate teams working together to identify quality targets, planning for implementation and reporting on outcomes. Bottom-up empowerment involves those participants who can affect the improvement of quality - the student, the teacher and the researcher.

Top-down auditing leading to quality improvement requires an effective external monitoring process. It takes into account a range of concerns and different stakeholder perspectives in an open, self-critical manner. Auditing operates at two levels: the internal level on a regular and comprehensive basis within the institution, and the external level, on a periodic, irregular basis, by a national or regional agency.

In a continuous quality improvement process, institutional management does not direct or manage quality but provides a context and enabling factors to facilitate quality improvement and quality culture development. The emphasis is on collegiate teamwork, the dissemination of good practice and the delegation of responsibility for quality. In the transformative model, accountability will result as a consequence of a planned and transparent quality improvement process.

2.2. The comprehensive educational quality assurance model (CEQAM)

Boyle and Bowden (1997) proposed the CEQAM based on their distillation of key ideas

from previous literature on quality assurance and higher education culture and practice. As they viewed it, the foci and requirements for comprehensive quality assurance approaches include: 1) an overarching vision, purpose and plans of the institution; 2) effective leadership and management; 3) people (including human resource management, professional development, effective communication etc.); 4) customer orientation that includes knowledge of needs and expectations, client satisfaction and management; 5) evaluation, information and continual quality improvement; and 6) structures, policies and procedures that optimise the effectiveness of processes.

According to the authors, the model needs to be interpreted in light of the enabling conditions (including the felt need for comprehensive quality assurance, leaders' commitment to quality assurance development and quality culture, adequate resources for quality assurance etc.) and basic principles and values (such as a primary focus on continual quality improvement, and accountability as an important consequence of quality assurance). The overall model encompasses a set of key elements integrated to form a quality assurance framework, as follows:

- *Key output elements:* evidence-based quality improvements in student learning, and evidence for accountability requirements

- *Key enabling/process elements:* institutional vision, values, strategic goals; program quality assurance system; faculty development program; assessment of learning; and faculty evaluation system

- *Key support systems:* enabling policies, structures, resources and support groups.

The model can be perceived in an integrated way. For example, the three enabling elements program quality assurance system, faculty development, and assessment of student learning - all influence and determine the critical outcome element (i.e. quality and continuous quality improvement in student learning). There is an interrelationship between program quality assurance system and faculty development, faculty development and faculty evaluation, and assessment of learning and program quality assurance.

The distinguishing feature of this model is that it involves the key elements of educational environments that influence educational quality management. It also has continual quality improvement in student learning as its primary goal, with accountability a consequence.

2.3. The university of learning model (ULM)

Bowden and Marton's (1998, 2003) model has some similarities with Harvey and Knight's (1996) TM of quality. This University of Learning model (ULM), like the TM, emphasised the enhancement of student learning and a proactive collaboration among academic teams in education delivery.

The authors examined the organisational features of higher education from a pedagogical perspective to facilitate a dynamic learning process. As such, the model highlights the synergetic involvement of academics in course/research teams, in developing a holistic view of students' competencies, and a collective consciousness of what is common and what is complementary. This is the basis for the academic teams to enable learners to differentiate options, and focus on the most relevant solution when facing problems and challenges in different contexts.

The authors argue that teaching, research and service are considered the core of the university system, and the ultimate goal of

a university is to prepare the individual and the community to face future problems and turn challenges into opportunities, based on formed knowledge. In this model, there is a shift from an input-oriented educational approach to a learning-focused approach. This in turn requires HEIs to shift their focus onto policies and activities centred on student learning.

2.4. The academic learning organisation framework (ALOF)

Garvin (1993) argued that the concept of a learning organisation is associated with the purposeful and systematic acquisition of knowledge (both new knowledge and knowledge of its operations), and the processes and structures that facilitate these activities. Garvin's learning organisation framework was developed based on the assumption that in a competitive context, an organisation must adapt its core processes through the search for, and application of, new knowledge. A number of other authors broadly agreed: for example, Buckle (1998) viewed a learning organisation as one with increased problem-solving capability and behaviour change leading to improved performance at the individual, team and organisational level. Wick and Leon (1995) defined the learning organisation as one that 'continually improves by rapidly creating and refining the capabilities needed for future successes' (p. 299). According to these authors, the learning organisation is the ideal type of organisation in which learning is maximised.

Dill (1997, 1999) adopted Garvin's framework and further developed it into the academic learning organisation framework (ALOF). In his view universities can respond to changes in the environment (for example, pressure for academic accountability and a more competitive higher education environment) by becoming "learning organisations". Dill (1999) analysed twelve university case studies drawn from the Institute for Management in Higher Education (IMHE) project on the impact of academic quality assessment on institutional management and decision-making. From this analysis, Dill suggested the following distinctive elements of the academic learning organisation:

- Culture of evidence into academic problem-solving (systematic problem-solving employing objective measures and scientific method)

- Improved coordination of teaching units (observing basic processes to understand how they work and can be improved)

- Learning from others (seeking knowledge from colleagues that can be used for academic research and improvement of basic processes of teaching and learning)

- University-wide coordination of "learning" (developing pan-university structures for providing more effective coordination and support)

- Transferring these among academic units (Dill, 1999, pp. 148-150)

The implications of this framework confirm the adaptive responses of universities to the new environment. As Dill pointed out, the literature consistently showed that universities are internally restructuring themselves to improve academic quality, enhance innovative research, and improve entrepreneurial capacities. Dill's framework puts focus on the improvement of the teaching and learning processes. This model of learning organisations emphasises the internal processes that could enhance sustainable institutional internal quality assurance, and advocates the transformation dimension of quality.

2.5. The holistic model for quality management in education (HMQME)

Srikanthan and Dalrymple (2002, 2004, 2007) developed the holistic model for quality management in education (HMQME) based on their synthesis of other quality models and approaches, including Duke (1992), Harvey and Knight (1996), Haworth and Conrad (1997), and Bowden and Marton (1998). The HMQME was grounded on the assumption that a model for quality management in higher education needs to be more holistic to meet the requirements of the two core functions of universities: service and education. The core features of this model include: 1) a clear focus on "transformation" of the learner and of the institution, "enhancing" them through the process of acquiring knowledge and skills, and ultimately "empowering" them; 2) a synergistic collaboration at the learning interface, with the underpinning idea that multi-actor collegial and supportive cultures will facilitate high quality programs; and 3) a significant commitment to improve learning at all levels, supported by senior management. A causal loop can be observed as follows: increased commitment leads to increased collaboration, which, in turn, facilitates transformation leading to improved quality outcomes.

The major elements of the model include institutional transformation for learning, teaching for transformation, assessment for transformation, quality improvement, and quality monitoring for learning. The model has various implications for the transformation of the institution, such as: a transformative type of learning (student-centred and learning-oriented) should be fostered, rather than a transmissive type of learning (teacher-centred and content-oriented); shared awareness of common goals and collective consciousness will make the institution a flexible dynamic organisation to cope with the changing environment; and there should be a paradigm shift regarding: 1) teaching as a key performance indicator; 2) collegial processes; and 3) the role of leadership. Similar to the CEQAM proposed by Boyle and Bowden (1997), in the HMQME, the focus of the quality system should be on improvement with accountability as a consequence.

2.6. Summary of the reviewed frameworks and models

There are both similarities and differences in the elements covered in the reviewed quality assurance models. Regarding commonalities, in the *Transformative model,* the *Comprehensive educational quality assurance* and the *Holistic* models, a culture of continuous improvement is at the centre of quality assurance, with accountability as a result, and the transformation of learning is advocated. These models focus on the internal processes and the conditions that drive quality improvement at the student-staff interface. The *Transformative model*, the *University of learning* model, the *Academic learning organisation* framework, and the *Holistic* model all emphasise the student learning experience and the dynamic collaboration of academic teams in education delivery.

In all the reviewed models, the engagement and active participation of academic staff, students, and administrators in the quality activities is highlighted. The role of stakeholder expectations and satisfaction is also an important feature of these quality assurance models. Compared to the industrial quality management models, the stakeholders involved in these educational quality models are more diversified, and the students, while the product of education, are at the same time, considered important stakeholders.

As for the differences between the reviewed models, the *Comprehensive educational quality assurance* model and the *Holistic* model for quality appear to be more comprehensive than the others. This is because they cover more elements that constitute quality, including leadership and management, policies and procedures, cooperation and collaboration among the different units of the institution, the engagement of staff, students and administrators in the quality assurance practices, and creating a culture of continuous quality improvement with accountability as an inevitable result.

To summarise, considering the key features of the above reviewed models and frameworks of quality assurance in higher education, it can be seen that an international convergence has emerged. Quality assurance models are getting more comprehensive, addressing the two core functions of universities, service and education, taking into consideration all the involving elements of the educational environment. A clear focus of these models is on the improvement dimension of quality. This requires internal changes from the institutions, in terms of organisational structure, the role of senior management and leadership, team interaction and a shared vision within the academic community, collaboration and commitment. A culture of continuous improvement is seen to be the key to institutional success.

A substantial part of the quality assurance literature deals with quality assurance models and frameworks. It should be noted, according to Lemaitre (2002), that every model is constituted with a significant cluster of elements. Some of these are essential to the key aspects of the models, some being contextual factors without which the model cannot properly function. Therefore, when any model is imported to a new higher education environment, the cluster is broken because the context is different. In this case, the model itself needs to be redefined, taking into account such factors as the current condition of the institution and its intended goals, the requirements of the student body, the features of research, the need for academic autonomy, or the demands of external stakeholders.

3. Quality assurance in Vietnamese higher education: adopting the regional quality assurance framework

Vietnam is one of those countries in the Asia-Pacific region, where the government has responsibility for some areas of quality assurance, and in this scenario, it is the government's responsibility to ensure that its quality assurance practices are aligned with international best practices (APQN, 2008).

During the first decade of the twenty-first century, with the expertise from international and regional quality assurance agencies and networks, and funding from international aid agencies, the Ministry of Education and Training (MoET) undertook fundamental steps to establish a legal and regulatory framework for quality assurance in education. This included the creation of a quality assurance policy-making unit under the ministry (GDETA) and a system of instruments including sets of standards and criteria, as well as guidelines for implementation (Pham, 2012). These system level quality assurance considerations aligned with the Asia-Pacific region higher education quality assurance framework, with Chiba principles[1] providing a commonly agreed reference point for

[1] Chiba, Japan, 18 February 2008, workshop under Brisbane Communiqué in conjunction with the APQN annual conference, 35 participants from 17 countries discuss the establishment of principles applicable to the particular context of quality assurance in higher education in the Asia-Pacific region.

consistency in quality assurance in the region (Pham, 2012).

In retrospect, quality assurance became a topic of discussion in the Vietnamese education development agenda in 2000. In the period 2001-2002, the MoET often referred to quality assurance as educational accreditation, due to the institutionalisation of accreditation in education. The requirement for public universities and colleges to be accredited was first put into a legal document in 2001, in Decision No. 47/2001/QĐ-TTg (MoJ, 2001). This was issued by the Prime Minister, approving the 'Planning on the network of universities and colleges in the 2001-2010 period'. It was reinforced in a subsequent legal document, Decision No. 121/2007/QĐ-TTg (MoJ, 2007) by the Prime Minister, approving the 'Planning on the university and college network in the 2006-2020 period'. The first adopted quality assurance initiative was accreditation (of educational institutions and educational programs), founded and funded by the government in 2002 (Lam & Vu, 2012). Accreditation standards and processes, which were developed with the USA model as a point of reference, were approved by the MoET in 2004 (Nguyen et al., 2009).

Since quality assurance in higher education was put into practice, regulations relating to this issue have been gradually integrated into the legal and regulatory system at the national level: Articles 17, 58 and 99 of the *Education Law* passed in 2005 relate to educational accreditation (VNA, 2005); and Part 3a in the *Education Law* (amended and supplemented in 2009) includes three additional articles on educational accreditation (VNA, 2009). The *Higher Education Law,* passed in 2012, contains one chapter (Chapter VII) on higher education quality assurance and accreditation (VNA, 2012). The government issued detailed regulatory documents and guidelines for implementation: Decree number 75/2006/NĐ-CP (VNGO 2006)) includes Chapter II, Articles 38-40 on educational accreditation; and Decree number 31/2011/NĐ-CP (VNGO 2011), amends and supplements Articles 38 and 39 of Decree 75/2006/NĐ-CP, in Article 1, items 14 and 15. Pham (2012) reported that the MoET developed a decree guiding the implementation of the *Higher Education Law,* providing detailed guidelines and instructions for the implementation of Chapter VII on higher education quality assurance and accreditation. Most recently, the MoET issued circular number 12/2017/TT-BGDĐT (as of 19 May 2017) providing guidelines and instructions for higher education quality assurance and accreditation. Accordingly, the criteria for accreditation are specified based on the AUN-QA criteria set.

The enactment of comprehensive and functional legal and regulatory frameworks, as discussed above, provides Vietnamese higher education with a scaffold stipulating the requirements for quality assurance in universities, as well as other levels of education. The quality assurance practices adopted elsewhere in the higher education system could now be reinforced and officially endorsed by the government.

As a system level policy-making unit, although GDETA asserts that the focus is on improvement, rather than accountability (Pham, 2012), on their part, they can only use accreditation as a dual purpose instrument. One purpose is for the top universities that are confident in being accredited. The other is for lower- ranked universities to identify their current quality status and develop improvement plans accordingly. GDETA is aware of the fact that they can provide universities with the legal framework, impose the quality assurance model, and develop relevant policies and procedures for external

quality assurance (accreditation implemented as a prominent activity, as outlined above). However, it is the responsibility of the universities to develop their internal quality assurance system, following Chiba principles (Pham, 2012).

In this regard, the quality assurance framework proposed in this study could serve as a well-researched framework for Vietnamese university to develop their quality assurance mechanism. The central component of this mechanism is the culture of continuous quality improvement, with accountability as a result. In the subsequent section, the proposed framework and its dimensions will be elaborated.

4. Quality assurance framework for higher education

This framework could be interpreted as follows: in order to have a viable quality assurance mechanism, the higher education institution (HEI), first of all, needs to address the system level quality assurance considerations and understand the organisational theory underlying its operations. The institution needs to develop its internal quality assurance, with five dimensions contributing to its operation:

- *Leadership and management,* which includes the role of institutional vision, values and goals, and leadership;

- *Culture of continuous quality improvement*, or a quality culture;

- *Stakeholder engagement* in various aspects of the institution's operation;

- *Internal processes* whereby the institution monitors and improves its performance; and

- *Cooperation and collaboration* among the units within the organisational structure.

This dimension is a special one, as it links to the broader dimension of the academic learning organisation (Dill, 1999) and collaborative learning (Kezar, 2005).

With the contribution of the five dimensions to internal quality assurance, the institution will be able to achieve accountability (responding to external quality assurance) as an inevitable result of improvement (sustaining internal quality assurance and staying competitive in the higher education environment) (Dill, 1999; Harvey & Knight, 1996).

The schematic diagram of this theoretical framework is presented in Figure 1 below. The arrow lines indicate the direction of the influence among the variables.

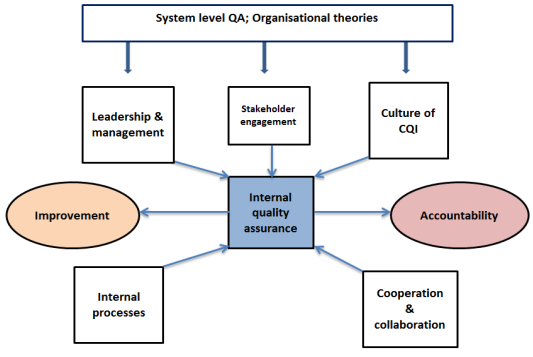

Figure 1. Diagram of the theoretical framework

5. Factors driving quality assurance and quality improvement at the institutional level

5.1. Leadership and management

Dimensions of leadership

As Meade (1997) indicated, in quality assurance in higher education, one of the major barriers to quality enhancement is the lack of leadership skills. The role of leadership in the institution's quality assurance practice can be identified using Middlehurst's (1997) framework. The first dimension of leadership is a *conceptual and analytical* one. In higher

education, this dimension involves a capacity to think in new ways, to generate new ideas and perspectives, and to create a vision. According to Wick and Leon (1995), leaders must have a clear vision, commit to that vision, and consistently communicate that vision to all the staff. Therefore, all members of the organisation will be enabled to anticipate what they can contribute to help achieve the organisational goals and objectives. Leaders of the institution are at their 'vantage point' and 'best positioned to see and articulate the performance gap' (Wick & Leon, 1995, p. 301) between the current achievements and the expected achievements of the institution.

The analytical perspective of leadership relates to the need to collect, analyse and interpret data. As Middlehurst (1997) pointed out, in the process of quality assurance, leaders need to make decisions to 'change, improve, sustain or withdraw activities' (p. 193) based on the interpretation of useful data from reviews, surveys or benchmarking activities.

The second dimension of leadership is a *structural and systemic* one. The leadership task at the structural level is to create structures that enable staff to improve their performance, and the organisation to improve its own performance. The systemic part of this dimension involves the capacity to attend to all the constitutive elements that have impact on the performance and operations of the institution. Fundamental changes cannot happen without this systemic leadership. In quality assurance practice in higher education, the identification of stakeholders and their interests, the search for partnerships and collaborative opportunities, and the monitoring of performance at all levels from institutional to program to individual, are examples of how this structural and systemic perspective of Middlehurst's framework can be adopted and implemented. Similarly, Horsburgh (1999) suggested that higher education leaders should engage actively with the changes that are affecting the higher education system and learn about the approaches to quality improvement in other contexts.

The final leadership dimension in Middlehurst's (1997) framework is a *motivational and behavioural* one. The author recognised that appeals to academics to change their practices on the grounds of economy and efficiency are unlikely to inspire commitment beyond what can be achieved though compliance measures. As Harvey (1995) noted, the implementation of quality assurance practices carries with it implied scepticism about the quality of academics' work and a lack of trust. If the foundation is built on partnerships and mutual trust, rather than on control and policing, it is more likely to sustain the change agenda, and the chance to achieve quality improvements is potentially greater. The adoption of this perspective requires the leaders of an institution to engage staff at the motivational and behavioural levels, to facilitate sustainable change over time, even after the quality assurance event has passed (Middleshurst, 1997).

The role of leadership in the institution's quality assurance

Middlehurst and Elton's (1992) view on the role of leadership in HEIs is still applicable to the current context. That is, the leadership role needs to remain of prime importance in all scenarios: to direct and build internal commitment towards positive collective action in the face of both external pressures and internal crises; to develop and support the main functions of the institution at times without pressures; and, at all times, to provide vision, insight and strategies that can unify organisational forces.

Regarding the specific context of quality assurance in higher education, as noted by O'Mahony and Garavan (2012), the implementation of quality assurance systems requires continuous leadership. Leaders can help increase staff awareness of quality improvement through a shared vision and purpose, and create an environment in which the organisation and its people can excel (Davies et al,. 2001; Dorfman & House, 2004). Leadership, particularly senior leadership, commitment to, and pro-active pursuit of continuous improvement, appears to be one of the most critical factors for the success of quality [assurance] implementation in HEIs (Osseo-Asare, Longbottom & Murphy, 2005; Papadimitriou, 2011). In support of these arguments, Kouzes and Posner (2007) proposed five practices of exemplary leadership: model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart. These practices appear to match well with the change management process, in this case, management of quality assurance initiatives.

As Barnett (1992) argued, institutional leaders play an important role in understanding the institution's organisational structure, in identifying the compatible elements of quality assurance systems for their institution, in making them explicit, in establishing frameworks for quality assurance and enhancement, and in raising awareness that quality matters, thereby promoting a culture of quality improvement across the institution.

HEI leadership plays an important role in encouraging increased ownership of internal quality processes based on shared institutional visions and goals. When leadership is executed on the basis of transparency and fairness, and when leaders enact their quality actions, and communicate and disseminate good practices, the people involved in the quality system can be greatly motivated and engaged. If this leadership dimension is well performed and connected with other dimensions, the quality mechanism will be at its optimal operational condition.

For continuous quality improvement, the role of leaders is vital, specifically academic leaders at school and faculty levels. These leaders get involved in the enhancement of curriculum design and renovation, improving students' learning and experience, and monitoring course quality and staff performance.

5.2. Quality culture

Although there is no universally accepted meaning of the concept, the culture of an organisation is associated with shared values, beliefs, norms, assumptions, and meanings of individuals participating in the organisation (Tierney, 1988; Barnett, 1992). Harvey and Knight (1996) characterised the governing culture in higher education as collegialism, based on shared decision-making, integrity and commitment to knowledge. Quality culture is the enabling environment in which the HEI implements its quality assurance practices.

Types of quality culture

Harvey and Stensaker (2008) used a cultural theory framework, inspired by Douglas (1982), Thompson et al. (1990) and Hood (2000), to categorise quality culture into the following four ideal-types: responsive, reactive, regenerative and reproductive.

First, a responsive quality culture is led by external demands, such as governmental imperatives or an agency requirement for compliance. The responsive mode takes these demands as opportunities to review the institution's practices and explore

how to make the policies and compliance requirements beneficial to internal improvement. The responsive mode will have an improvement quality agenda while addressing accountability issues.

Second, a reactive quality culture reacts to external demands, rather than engages with them. The reactive mode tends to be driven by compliance and accountability and works better when there is a reward. The quality culture is likely to be externally managed and imposed, with little or no sense of ownership. This type of quality culture appears to be less engaging than the first type.

Third, a regenerative quality culture is focused on internal improvement while being fully aware of external requirements. This dynamic mode has a coordinated plan for improvement and continuously reconceptualises its practices. The regenerative mode will presume that its continuous improvement agenda represents a form of accountability. It embraces the learning-organisation approach, stimulating collaborative learning opportunities, reflective learning and benchmarking possibilities.

Fourth, a reproductive quality culture reproduces the existing situation, aimed at minimising the impact of external factors. The reproductive mode is focused on what the institution and its units do best or what it is rewarded for. Established norms are preferred, rather than reconceptualised core values or future goals. This quality culture lacks transparency and accommodates taken-for-granted practices. A sense of "a job well done" is maintained in this culture.

As Harvey and Stensaker (2008) argued, these four types of quality culture can be found in any HEI setting and serve as a starting point for specific implications for each institution's quality assurance mechanism, with regard to the interaction between structure and culture.

In conclusion, quality culture is one of the necessary conditions for preparing HEIs to handle external demands and improve internal quality and governance. It could be a tool for reflecting on current practices, identifying possible challenges, and conceptualising future goals (Harvey & Stensaker, 2008). It is a demanding task to achieve an effective quality culture as it requires trans-institutional commitment and involvement (Gordon, 2002).

5.3. Stakeholder engagement

One of the significant trends affecting higher education in many countries is the increased attention to the changing needs of society and the expectations of employers (Conway et al., 1994; Birnbaum, 2000; Vidovich, 2002). This increased awareness is reflected in the enhanced involvement of stakeholders in the decision-making and quality assurance processes in HEIs in many countries.

According to a classification by Srikanthan and Dalrymple (2003), there are four major groups of stakeholders: providers (funding bodies and community); users of products or courseware (current and prospective students); users of outputs - graduates (employers); and the employees of the sector (academic staff and administrators). These authors relate the interpretations of quality developed by Harvey and Green (1993) to their own classification.

Although there are differences in the categories of stakeholders identified, there is agreement that stakeholders are those who have direct or indirect influence on the development of an HEI. Which key stakeholders will be invited to join the quality

debate depends on the types of education quality processes in each specific higher education context.

Why should stakeholders be engaged in the quality mission?

Regarding the role of stakeholders in higher education management, Srikanthan and Dalrymple (2007) stated that any model of management in any organisation could only succeed if it represents the shared values of the stakeholders.

One of the reasons for the increased popularity of stakeholders in the quality research is that different key stakeholders bring different perspectives of quality and quality systems to HEIs (Srikanthan & Dalrymple, 2003). As such, the first group (providers) view quality as value for money (Harvey & Green, 1993); quality is represented in the effective utilisation of funding leading to satisfactory delivery of services and products. The second group (users of products) consider quality as excellence (Harvey & Green, 1993); the products should be of comparatively high standards, as revealed by quality audit reports, promising advantage in career prospects and guiding student choice. For the third group (users of outputs), quality is fitness for purpose (Harvey & Green, 1993); graduates are equipped with the required competencies to handle prospective jobs. The fourth group (employees of the sector) interprets quality as perfection or consistency (Harvey & Green, 1993), as they require a high level of job satisfaction, including remuneration, recognition and the assurance of standards, norms and core ethos.

Westerheijden et al. (2013) also claimed that by bringing different expectations, perspectives and requirements to bear on quality, these stakeholders may enrich the debate on quality in the institution. If they focus on a single dimension (e.g. employers merely expect immediately usable skills from the graduates), then their contribution to the HEI quality debate would be less enriching. However, one condition for stakeholders to share their perspectives and join in the quality debate is the guaranteed access to HEIs' issues.

In what areas of higher education could stakeholders be involved?

Stakeholders have been involved in many stages of the education process and several activities that contribute to the assurance of higher education quality. For instance, Cornway et al. (1994) emphasised that stakeholders play an important role in the strategic planning processes of an institution and the terms that are consistent with these people would determine the survival of the institution. In order to prepare for the increasingly competitive environment, an institution should have successful strategies to deliver the right products and services. These strategies could be developed based on an understanding of the needs and wants of customers and the market (Conway et al., 1994). Thus, the involvement of stakeholders who have such knowledge and understanding is crucial.

In their case study of seven countries, Westerheijden and his team (2013) reported on a number of activities in which stakeholders are involved. First, the authors noted that key stakeholders are involved in decision-making bodies in HEIs, bringing in their socially-oriented views. Second, the authors commented on the pervasive professional influence of stakeholders on curriculum review and quality assurance. Good practices could be found in almost all case-study countries. For example, stakeholders from the business world have some influence on course content and thesis foci through their involvement in teaching activities, or, professionals from

different expertise areas teach part-time and bring immediate relevance to the classroom learning. The influence of external stakeholders is reflected through such traditional channels as guest lectures, excursions and field trips; or through more up-to-date channels such as placements, joint projects or theses in specific fields. The informal contacts between external stakeholders and academic staff provide the latter group with ideas that they can reflect on and use to make necessary decisions and changes in terms of course content or teaching methods.

Regarding education quality work, Westerheijden et al. (2013) also observed that a good number of external professionals are involved in the evaluation of pedagogical processes and internal quality assurance processes at the institutional level. Also, the quality assurance agencies require that external stakeholders are consulted for curriculum review processes. This paves the avenue for HEIs' movement towards market influence.

As key stakeholders of the university, the voices of students as agents for change and improvement in learning and teaching should be recognised. Their perspectives should be counted in the assessment of quality at the institution (Lagrosen et al., 2004; Shah & Jarzabkowski, 2013).

5.4. Cooperation and collaboration

The link between the leadership dimension and this cooperation and collaboration dimension is reflected in the collaborative development and implementation of the institutional strategic plan. This should clearly define goals in the core areas of research, teaching and learning. As suggested by Shah and Jarzabkowski (2013), in the self-regulating university environment, the institutional strategic plan should be supported by a research plan and a teaching and learning plan that provide guidelines for operationalisation. This should entail plans from academic faculties/schools and administrative units to put the strategic plan into operation on a day-to-day basis. Careful strategic planning has become crucial to strengthening universities' capacity to innovate their research, teaching and learning, to align strategy with amendments to government policies and trends in the external environment, and to respond to unexpected needs.

Cooperation among units

An institution's performance depends, to a considerable extent, on its internal structure and functioning. That is to say, if the internal structure does not work well, the institution will face challenges in achieving its targeted goals and outcomes. With the responsibility for implementing the goals and strategic plans of the institution, organisational unit performance has an impact on the whole institution's performance. This, according to Yorke (2000), explains the trend of organisational units being increasingly required to demonstrate how their activities support institutional plans and policies. Nevertheless, due to the varied nature of HEIs in terms of how loosely coupled their internal units are, or how autonomous these units are operating, the relationship between whole institutional functioning and organisational unit effectiveness is not explicit (Yorke, 2000).

As Sporn (2007) pointed out in her analysis of the new direction of higher education management, if core contributions of all academic and administrative units in a university are clearly defined, in the form of contracts between the leadership and basic units, the institutional performance will be more efficient and effective. For academic units, the focus will be on teaching and

research. For administrative units, the focus will be on functional areas such as information technology (IT), libraries, or marketing. Such procedures as management by objectives through contracts, goal setting and strategic planning as a basis for resource allocation and output control, are being applied in higher education.

Within the context above, as described by Sporn (2007), the cooperation between basic university units is very important, as an individual unit is not likely to implement its operations and achieve set goals if it is not connected to, or in collaboration with, other units. Between academic units, collaboration includes shared teaching and learning initiatives and joint research projects. Between academic and administrative units, cooperation includes support for the implementation of policy and procedures. Rhoades (1998) introduced the term 'professional managers' when describing the trend of professionalisation of higher education. Similarly, Sporn (2007) observed the development of professional support in many institutions. Examples include teaching centres designed to assist academic faculties to improve their course development and teaching methodologies, or multi-media officers who advise faculty staff about applying technology transfer to their teaching or translating their research into marketable products. These professional support activities represent and promote the cooperation and collaboration between university units.

As globalisation brings increased competitiveness to the higher education sector, universities are moving towards more market-oriented and entrepreneurial models. With governance being in the hands of the top leadership and administration being professionally managed, the power balance between academic faculties and administration can only be achieved when both groups are accountable, based on mutually agreed indicators and measures (Sporn, 2007; Amey et al., 2007). This condition is an important dimension of any quality assurance mechanism in higher education institutions.

Collaborative learning

Cooperation among organisational units contributes to the improved performance of the whole institution. Likewise, academic collaboration across the university network enhances the quality of teaching, learning and research. Srikanthan and Dalrymple (2002) claimed that collaboration is the key requirement for improvement of educational delivery.

Another study by Kezar (2005), among a very limited number of studies on collaboration at universities, highlights that if institutions redesign their organisational contexts to accommodate collaboration, they might be more responsive to external pressures. The major elements of Kezar's model of a collaborative university are:

Mission statements include the concept of collaboration, which is integrated into all the institution's work. It is reinforced through communication, and in public speeches by leaders and managers referring to the mission and collaborative work.

Networks provide a vehicle for ideas to flow and to gain momentum and energy to sustain the collaboration. Networks overcome resistance to new structures or processes on campus and inspire more people to join in the collaborative work. Networks have to be cultivated before attempts are made to conduct collaborative work. Typical activities of network building include orientation for a new faculty, a leadership series for faculty and staff, social events and academic symposia.

Integrating structures help redesign the organisational context for sustained

collaboration, when the idea (mission) and the people (network) are in place. The exemplary structure requires a central unit in charge of fostering collaboration, cross-campus high profile institutes and centres, and new accounting, computer and budgetary systems.

Rewards and incentives help promote collaboration, they help a new faculty to adopt an alternative approach to faculty work (i.e. collaborative work).

Sense of priority from the people in senior positions. Collaboration is a signalled priority when it is discussed by senior administrators, connected to the strategic objectives of the institution, written in strategic plans, accreditation reports and board correspondence, and is modelled by senior executives.

External groups such as sponsors, accrediting agencies, national coordinating boards, and stakeholders from business and industries create pressures for collaboration. The pressure from accreditors is the major source of support for a faculty that believes in collaboration; and motivates administrators, as poor accreditation affects the institution's reputation. The pressure from business and industry, as collaboration is needed in the workplace, has a powerful influence on certain disciplines, leading to transformed curricula.

Learning and conversations among colleagues, and informal information sharing about the benefits of collaboration, gradually confirm the message that collaboration enhances faculty work. A mechanism is needed to allow people to interact, such as a staff dining area or staff retreats.

These features, identified by Kezar in 2005, are still applicable to many HEIs, especially in developing countries. Sustained collaboration in the institution not only strengthens teaching, learning and research efforts, but will also pay off as better public recognition.

5.5. Internal processes

In the operationalisation of the institutional strategic plan, the achievement of strategic goals requires a strong and reliable operational system. This system is dedicated to managing risk and assuring and improving quality across all areas of the university (Shah & Jarzabkowski, 2013). It supports leadership and management through a robust system of internal processes, in the form of policies and procedures, and indicators and measures that help with regular performance evaluation in key areas. These processes, according to Shah and Jarzabkowski (2013), reflect higher education threshold standards and risk indicators. When these processes are in place, the institution can set and achieve its own goals, while being compliant with those higher education threshold standards.

Whether the institution is focused on external quality assurance compliance or internal quality improvement, it needs to develop professional administration and education support structures, to create new policies and procedures, and systems for managing data and information on educational performance and quality (Stensaker 2003; Westerheijden, Hulpiau & Waetens, 2007). While compliance- led quality assurance aims at getting policies and procedures right, improvement- led quality assurance aims at ensuring these are effective and implemented with consistency.

Harvey (2002a) argued that when the institution focuses on continuous improvement and adopts process-driven quality assurance, the internal processes will generate their own performance indicators. Such indicators will be owned by the institution and will measure real improvements. However, when processes

become more elaborate, place more demands on staff and become routinised, they lose their improvement potential (Harvey, 2002b). This might be due to the fact that administrative loads (e.g. the time and effort needed for form filling and evidence recording for accountability) may impinge on the time required for academic tasks or collaboration to improve teaching, learning and research quality.

Discussion of internal processes or policies and procedures (P&P) has gained popularity in the business management literature, with researchers arguing about the importance of these matters in the operationalisation of HEIs. However, there is very limited literature on such aspects as how institutions develop their internal processes; what enables or hinders the effectiveness of the internal processes; whether or not there are commonly applied internal processes; and whether or not HEIs have included internal processes in their quality assurance mechanisms.

6. Implications for Vietnamese higher education

The above elaborated components of the quality assurance framework (leadership and management, quality culture, stakeholder engagement, cooperation and collaboration, and internal processes) can be viewed as the key dimensions of the quality assurance mechanism required for any HEI. As such, educational quality can be assured and enhanced when:

- Leaders and managers make sure that quality assurance is written into official documents, such as the institutional mission and strategic plan; signal quality assurance as a priority in the institution's development agenda; and sustain their engagement in, and commitment to, quality improvement by showcasing their quality thinking and quality enactments.

- A culture of continuous quality improvement is created and nurtured in the institution, by the commitment of leaders; the increased awareness of all staff members of the need to practice quality assurance; and the enabling support structures and processes.

- Key stakeholders, especially those for whom the educational quality of the institution really matters (funding agencies, staff and students), and those who have relevant expertise and experience, are actively engaged in the decision-making process, including such educational and pedagogical aspects as curriculum renovation, new degree program development, partnerships and internships.

- The HEI promotes cooperation and collaboration and advocates transformative learning; and there is favourable cooperation and collaboration among organisational units, in the operationalisation of institutional functions and in the pursuit and improvement of teaching, learning and research endeavours.

- There are enabling internal processes in place, accompanied by performance indicators for measuring real improvements. The interaction between and among these dimensions varies according to the specific context of an institution. However, in total, they constitute a comprehensive mechanism for quality assurance in HEIs.

As implementing quality assurance initiatives is still a new phenomenon in Vietnam (Nguyen et al., 2009; Pham, 2012; Dao, 2014; Lam & Vu, 2012), how to support and sustain this important change is a critical concern for all change agents involved.

One common feature of the reviewed change management process models (Crosby, 1984; Anderson & Anderson, 2001; Kotter

& Cohen, 2002; Boman & Deal, 2008) is that change implementation is not a one-off process, but a continuous process. Making change "stick" is equally important (Senge et al., 1999; Palmer, Dunford & Akin, 2009). To facilitate sustainable change, a new culture must be created, embedding change in routine organisational practices. In this respect, researchers highlight the importance of the critical role of change leadership, communication and training, realignment of roles and systems, resolution of conflicts and resistance, and short-term achievement celebrations (Graetz et al., 2011; Palmer et al., 2009; Bolman & Deal, 2008; Anderson & Anderson, 2001).

Commenting on the need for organisations to sustain change, Palmer, Dunford and Akin (2009) claimed that 'sustaining change is necessary to ensure that some time after they are implemented, things do not quietly drift back to how they used to be. Sustaining change is about how to make it stick, how to make it a core feature of how work will occur' (p. 13). Therefore, it is recommended that Vietnamese universities should realign their quality assurance policies and practices, mobilise all possible resources, and optimise their systems, aiming ultimately at strengthening their internal quality assurance. Having a sustainable and robust internal quality assurance mechanism represents a positive step towards enhanced institutional capacity and competitiveness. Quality assurance, whether externally imposed or internally driven, would then function as a means to an end.

7. Conclusion

In this article, the proposed framework for quality assurance in higher education has been presented. It was conceptualised based on the existing quality assurance models and frameworks, with reference to organisational theories in higher education and the organisational theories reframed for change management. The factors that drive external quality assurance and internal quality improvement at the institutional level - the dimensions of this theoretical framework - have been further analysed. Finally, the implications for Vietnamese universities to sustain their quality assurance initiative have been proposed.

The ultimate purpose of the quality assurance initiative is to help universities better themselves. Therefore, it should be viewed as an internally-driven change. Symbolic compliance or concealment should not be desirable practices, no matter how much they appear to improve the external image. In the end, it is true quality that counts.

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ĐẢM BẢO CHẤT LƯỢNG GIÁO DỤC ĐẠI HỌC: NHỮNG BÀI HỌC ỨNG DỤNG CHO CÁC TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC CỦA VIỆT NAM

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Tóm tắt: Bài báo này trình bày nghiên cứu dựa trên tổng thuật tài liệu về đảm bảo chất lượng giáo dục đại học, từ đó xây dựng một khung đảm bảo chất lượng gồm 5 thành tố cơ bản là lãnh đạo và quản lý, sự tham gia của các bên liên quan, các qui trình nội bộ, hợp tác và phối hợp, và văn hoá không ngừng cải tiến chất lượng. Nghiên cứu đã phân tích 5 thành tố này như những yếu tố thúc đẩy đảm bảo chất lượng và nâng cao chất lượng ở các trường đại học. Cuối cùng, bài viết đưa ra những bài học ứng dụng cho các trường đại học của Việt Nam, trong đó có sự cần thiết phải quản lý đảm bảo chất lượng như một thay đổi của tổ chức nhằm đạt được sự bền vững.

Từ khoá: đảm bảo chất lượng, lãnh đạo và quản lý, sự tham gia của các bên liên quan, qui trình nội bộ, hợp tác và phối hợp, văn hoá không ngừng cải tiến chất lượng

‘FRESH OFF THE BOAT’ AND THE MODEL MINORITY STEREOTYPE: A FOUCAULDIAN DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

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Abstract: This project studies how the American sitcom *Fresh Off the Boat* performs the model minority discourse. The performance, in line with the Foucauldian tradition of discourse analysis, is understood based on the networks of events and meanings that have rendered the model minority stereotype intelligible. The study informs that the model minority stereotype entered the discourse on Asian Americans through mainstream media’s rationalization of Asian Americans’ economic success in 1960s, marking a significant change in social perceptions of Asian Americans. It demonstrates that the discursive status of the stereotype has been conditioned by three power networks namely the black-white paradigm, the Asian American family, and the stereotype-based humor in American sitcoms. *Fresh Off the Boat*, the authors argue, participates effectively in shaping contemporary model minority discourse as it employs the three power networks in an approach more realistic and humane than mere oversimplification of Asian American experience.

Keywords: Asian American, model minority, television, Foucault, power network

1. Introduction

This study started with an interest in Asian Americans, a minority group that is at the same time underrepresented and subject to persistent stereotypes in American culture. Despite a rapid increase in demographics, along the history of American media, Americans of Asian descent have ranked the least likely among major ethnic minority groups to be cast as lead roles in mainstream television (Kim & Kell, 2015). In the 1960s, the model minority image, portraying Asian Americans as highly ambitious and academically intelligent individuals who set an example as the ‘superior’ minority for other groups to follow, emerged as a prominent characterization. Since then it has become the most pervasive stereotype to be utilized by mainstream media to depict Asian Americans. As technology evolved and modern media platforms came to existence in the 2000s, Asian American public visibility has been strengthened (Hao, 2016). Among phenomena of success, the 2015 ABC’s TV series *Fresh Off the Boat*, the first sitcom in twenty years to feature Asian American protagonists on primetime television, stands out. The pilot episode of the show was aired on February 4th 2015 and soon

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became the second-highest viewed comedy premiere of the quarter (Kissell, 2015). On Rotten Tomatoes, the first season has a 91% certified fresh approval rating. In May 2018, the series was renewed for a fifth season. While making an exhaustive use of the model minority stereotype, *Fresh Off the Boat* is regarded a charming family sitcom. It offers a rich site that would allow us to keep in touch with contemporary performances of Asian American identities in mainstream media.

The model minority stereotype and its embodiments, due to their status as a widespread system of thought, from a Foucauldian perspective, qualify as a discourse. The key question of the present study is how the American sitcom *Fresh Off the Boat*, hereafter also referred to as *FOB*, performs the model minority discourse. Indeed, while discourse primarily refers to the sayable, it is the sayable about people and things, including objects of furniture, architecture, motion picture, etc. The objects of Foucauldian discourse analysis are not limited to verbal statements. *FOB* is relevant to discourse analysis since its material arrangement exhibits a system of thought characteristic of the model minority discourse.

This study is built upon the Foucauldian tradition of discourse analysis that has taken shape in media studies since the 1990s. Accordingly, the following bearings define our endeavor.

Firstly, how *FOB* performs the discourse is examined in relation with the networks of events and meanings that have rendered the model minority discourse intelligible, which are also called its historical conditions. For example, without discourses about race in American society, the model minority notion would be incomprehensible; thus, the discourses about race in American society are part of the historical conditions that have made the model minority discourse possible.

Furthermore, central to the study is the attempt to outline the power relations among different subjects produced by the model minority discourse, including American Asians, race, gender, family, success, etc. As an illustration, that parents act as the dominant figure to pressure their children to outperform peers in school is a notion belonging to the model minority discourse, from which we can say that the discourse has produced power relations between parents and children. We use the term 'power network' to characterize the model minority discourse and its constituents. As meanings effect power, a network of meanings is also a power network.

A Foucauldian discourse analysis, this humanities study does not involve quantitative descriptions of the ideologies and linguistic features of a systematically collected sample of statements in accordance with pre-selected theoretical frameworks. From the onset, *FOB* has been known as a performance of the model minority discourse. The challenge for our humanities essay lies in establishing the historical conditions of the discourse and featuring the particularities of *FOB*'s performance. We do not aim at a thorough investigation of the historical conditions of the discourse, but to study *FOB*, it is necessary for us to synthesize from accessible relevant artifacts narratives about the formation of the model minority discourse. A media product is successful not because it reproduces a well-accepted way of thinking but because its particular execution works. Thus, apart from showing how *FOB* conforms to the broad model minority discourse, our analysis of the show emphasizes its particularities, using examples from the first season.

Last but not least, our mode of inquiry

entangles constant exposure to relevant materials, critical reflection, and meticulous language crafting. The research process in no way resembles clear-cut step-by-step procedures. What matters is not how the research process has happened but how informative, persuasive, and generative this essay can be.

To address the research problem, the body of this essay will develop into three parts. The first part presents an overview of the emergence of the model minority notion in 1960s and its discursive developments until the 2010s. The second part demonstrates that the discursive status of the stereotype has been conditioned by three power networks namely the black-white paradigm, the Asian American family, and the stereotype-based humor in American sitcoms. It also offers a brief analysis of how the 1994 ABC's TV series *All-American Girl*, the precedent of *FOB*, executes the three power networks. Finally, the authors analyze *FOB*'s performance of the model minority discourse, arguing that the sitcom participates effectively in shaping the contemporary model minority discourse as it employs the three power networks in an approach more realistic and humane than mere oversimplification of Asian American experience.

To our knowledge, while several scholarly works have studied how the memoir and sitcom version of *FOB* represent Asian Americans (Yeh, 2016; Chen, 2017), none has been done in a Foucauldian tradition. Apart from providing a glimpse into how the model minority discourse persists in contemporary U.S., our study exemplifies a Foucauldian approach to critical media literacy. We propose that to be critical of media images involves understanding the historical conditions that have made them possible as well as the strategies they employ to participate or intervene in existing systems of meanings and power.

2. An overview of the emergence of the model minority notion in 1960s and its discursive developments until 2010s

The model minority discourse would not be possible without stories about Asian Americans and their success. There is congruence between what is considered as factual accounts of Asian Americans and the contents of the model minority stereotype. Asian Americans are an ethnically diverse group who have arrived in the U.S. in vastly different conditions. Despite the stark differences in their initial contact situations and collectively little recognition in the mainstream culture, all Asian groups were able to have established a relatively firm economic stand in the American society after some time of settling in their new life (Healey, 2013). The phrase 'model minority' later made its first appearance in a *New York Times* article in January 1966 as a plaudit of "the efforts of Japanese Americans in their successful struggle to enter the mainstream of American life" (Petersen, cited in Osajima, 2005, p. 216). This was followed by a *U.S. News and World* report on the success of Chinese Americans, which also utilized the term as the overarching concept to denote qualities such as diligence, morality, and thrift. According to Wong and Halgin (2006), the model minority image typically presents Asian Americans as either small business owners or academically accomplished students who, in spite of struggles and hardship, show great perseverance to "own a piece of the American dream" (p. 38). For the first time, Asian Americans were displayed in an ostensibly favorable light, subtly neglecting all the

past discrimination incidences in history, including the Chinese massacre of 1871 in Los Angeles, California—where approximately 20 Chinese immigrants were murdered by a mob of white men, or the Japanese internment camps during the 1942–1946 period—where hundreds of thousands of U.S. citizens of Japanese ancestry were forced to relocate to dilapidated camps after the Pearl Harbor attack, among others. The emergence of the model minority notion changed the rules of stereotyping Asian Americans. Negative stereotypes that convened adjectives such as illiterate, undesirable, full of filth and disease, and unassimilable withdrew so that positive ones came to the front.

The positive image, though bearing a certain degree of truth, was inevitably just the tip of the iceberg. One should be reminded that this new Asian American identity emerged amidst a specifically racially-sensitive era in American history, when the Civil Rights Movement was triggering intense debates around racial politics and challenging the Jim Crow system of racial segregation against African Americans. The model minority notion perpetuated by popular media in this historical context carried political implications that could act as a confutation to claims of a racist America. In this regard, Yamada (1981) and Osajima (2005) arrived at the same conclusion that the model minority stereotype did in fact disguise structural inequalities experienced by ethnic minority groups in this period and further illustrate a distorted image of a fair American society where everyone, irrespective of their skin color, is granted the same rights and opportunities to 'make it' in the New Land.

In the decades following the 1960s, representations revolving around the concept of model minority continued to pop up in major popular press publications, but the approach witnessed noticeable changes. To understand their significance, it is important to note that the notion of model minority was frequently criticized for the way it narrows the Asian American identity into 'pan-ethnicity'—that is, instead of being viewed as an ethnically diverse group consisting of different backgrounds, Asian American immigrants—especially those belonging to the second generation onwards, tend to feel that their unique cultural heritage is often neglected (Park, 2008). During the 1980s, various articles began to acknowledge the dynamic nature of the Asian American population (Bell, 1985; Barringer, 1990). As the 1965 Immigration Act made Asians become the fastest growing minority in the country, it was only natural that the Asian American demographics was broadened to include Korean, Vietnamese, and other foreign-born Asians, rather than only Japanese and Chinese. Another change in the narratives involved the realization of a negative by-product created by the model minority stereotype: Lee (1994) points out that the 'model' label places tremendous pressure on Asian American students to strictly fulfill their parents' expectations and thus, propels them to focus too much on academic work while overlook social skills. Among other criticisms, these two new insights display "a greater recognition of the complexities and critiques associated with the model minority thesis" (Osajima, 2005, p. 218).

Since its inception, the major propositions of the model minority stereotype have stayed stable. Its discursive developments since the 1990s up to now include more visibility in American television and a change in ownership. In the media landscape of the U.S., as a general situation, Asian Americans have endured underrepresentation. The situation is particularly grave when it comes to mainstream television. While it is possible

to say that the dominant image of Asian Americans in television is that of the model minority, we derive this conclusion mostly from brief appearances of Asian Americans, especially in TV commercials. To be specific, studies conducted to analyze the portrayals of different ethnic minorities in the U.S. advertisements reveal that Asian Americans, in the rare occasions when they are featured, appear mainly in technology-related product placements (Mastro & Stern, 2003), which correlates with the stereotype that Asians are tech-savvy nerds. Ethnically Asian actors are also seen predominantly in a business setting and hardly ever in a social or family relationship (Coltrane & Messineo, 2000). This kind of representation hints at an emphasis on the work ethic deemed a typical model minority characteristic. The pool of American movies and series with Asian leads has been very limited. The first sitcom in American television history to assign an all-Asian cast to be protagonists was the 1994 ABC's TV series *All-American Girl*, hereafter also referred to as *A-AG*. Despite being expected to be a ground-breaking Asian American debut show, *A-AG* received numerous unfavorable reviews and had to be cancelled after only one season. The series features a Korean American family and constructs its main plot around the rebellious daughter Margaret Kim, who forcefully rejects the model minority identity. The show suggests that the model minority stereotype went from a product of white Americans to a set of characteristics that Asian Americans claim to characterize Asianness.

American audience had to wait for more than 20 years for the second sitcom with an all-Asian cast, the 2015 ABC's TV series *Fresh Off the Boat*. This time, the model minority stereotype is obviously the frame of the show. *FOB* is created in a decade where Asian Americans have achieved a certain degree of success in their quest for more representation in mainstream media. This was made possible by the growing popularity of superstars like Ryan Higa, Kevin Wu, Michelle Phan, to name a few, on the new influential digital platform of YouTube during the 2007–2013 era. Ever since this period, a 'revolution' has occurred in the diversity of the major American broadcast networks' shows: instead of employing conventional all-white lead roles, approximately 30 percent of the series featured "a mostly non-white cast" or "non-white actors as co-leads" (Deggans, 2015). In the case of ABC (*FOB*'s production company), the sitcom form adopted by this Disney-owned group seems to take a distinctive route: not only has ABC created prime-time series with protagonists being those of ethnic minority background, they have simultaneously included production teams—people conceiving the inchoate essence of a show—that encompass people of color. According to Paul Lee, ABC's former president, the key to their company's success lies in this inclusion of 'authentic voices', for this broadcast network believes only creators with real-lived experiences that truly resonate with the storyline can portray it under the most genuine light (Lynch, 2016). In this context, the model minority stereotype in *FOB* is expected to attain a new status: it stands for real-life experience decisively claimed by Asian Americans themselves. The sitcom *FOB* is inspired by the life of chef and food personality Eddie Huang and his memoir. The real-life Eddie Huang narrated the first season. He later made it clear that the show had veered off the authentic storyline in his memoir. His mordacious critique of the show's lack of authenticity suggests that a stereotype is unlikely to capture real-life experience adequately.

In summary, since its emergence in the

1960s, the model minority notion has persisted. However, the model minority as a discourse has gradually incorporated nuances about how the stereotype applies to Asian Americans and new forms of performance. We also notice that the model minority concept has received a lot of criticisms. The simplifying nature of the stereotype and its operations on relations among different racial groups and within the group have been recognized.

3. Three power networks of the model minority discourse and *All-American Girl*

For those who are concerned about the model minority stereotype, perhaps as soon as Asian Americans appear as well educated, intelligent, competitive, hardworking or successful in media, the stereotype is named. However, even the intelligibility of small details as the model minority is predicated on extensive systems of identification. The model minority as a general discourse is a huge system of materials and meanings. To take a closer look at the discourse, this study locates three power networks that have contributed to shaping the discourse in American media and are particularly important to make sense of sitcoms with multiple episodes. A brief analysis of the way the 1994 ABC's TV series *All-American Girl* performs the model minority discourse is included to illustrate the synthesis of the three power networks in the presence of the model minority stereotype as well as to provide points of comparison and contrast for appreciating *FOB*.

3.1. The black-white paradigm

To begin, the visibility of Asian Americans paradoxically relies on a paradigm that hints at their invisibility: the black-white paradigm. In introducing the black-white paradigm, this essay calls attention to the construction of Asian American identities using black and white identities.

The black-white paradigm was originally a concept brought into existence by a series of historical accounts in the legal system of the U.S. The pioneering event involved the California Supreme Court's ruling in 1854 that classified Chinese Americans as American Indians—or Native Americans, after a murder-convicted white man appealed to the jury's judgment by claiming that the Chinese American witness in the case shall not have the rights to offer testimony against a white man. The convict's lawyer justified his argument by citing the anthropological hypothesis that Native Americans were descendants of Asian groups who migrated to the Americas over the Bering Straits, and thus the Chinese American witness must be considered a member of Native Americans, who, at the time, were disenfranchised of the right to give testimony in court.

The racial status of Chinese Americans was made even more perplexing as the state of Louisiana categorized them as white in 1860, but by 1870 they were re-classified as Chinese. In 1927, the U.S. Supreme Court settled on the definition of the Chinese as nonwhite, hence propelling this group to be subjected to segregation under the Jim Crow legislation. It is worth remembering that a similar story of fluid identity could be told by several other ethnic minorities including Japanese Americans in California and Latino/as in Texas, and that in the instances where these non-black minority groups were assigned such manipulated racial labels, the underlying motive of the lawmakers had concerned the ultimate protection of whiteness and white privilege against people of color on the grounds of a black-white binary pattern detected from antecedent legal documents (Alcoff, 2006, p. 250).

The black-white paradigm then could be understood as a notion that regards racial discourse in America as predominantly revolving around only two groups: the black and the white. The term became more widely accepted during the 1960s Civil Rights Movement when African Americans constituted 96 percent of the minority population, but soon faced scrutinizing criticisms from scholars of color for its oversimplification of a convoluted racial hierarchy. By neglecting the important history of civil rights narratives surrounding Latino/a, Asian, and Native Americans, the black-white binary rendered the racial complexities experienced by these groups almost invisible (Kim, 1999; Luna, 2003; Castagno, 2005). This dichotomy has constructed a racial image of an American society where "a very large white majority confronts a relatively small black minority, which has the effect of reinforcing the sense of inevitability to white domination" (Alcoff, 2003, p. 17).

On one hand, the black-white paradigm was mobilized to produce the model minority stereotype. On the other hand, emerging as a discourse produced by white Americans partly to reverse discrimination, the stereotype has added new elements to the black-white paradigm. In general, this stereotype places Asian Americans somewhat 'in the middle' of the black-white spectrum upon comparing "their proximity to white conservative values and economic success" (Kim, 1999, p. 2397). It is because of the 'elite' status of Asian Americans (they are considered 'more white' rather than 'more black') that the public often undermines the unique history of oppression against this ethnic minority group, and hence, refuses to take race-related problems associated with this group in a serious manner as they take African Americans. This consequence translates to the television world. Stereotypical traits of the model minority are utilized to create commercials that sell these traits or to make jokes for the sake of entertainment. Attempts to narrate meaningful stories that reflect the experience of Asian groups are rare in U.S. media.

3.2. Asian American family

As a brief history of the model minority stereotype has been presented, this subsection focuses on a key element of the stereotype: a consistent family image. The family structure is a site to display relations between family members and to contest values. A model minority family is defined by the following interrelated power networks.

First, there is a marked emphasis on academic excellence as means of future socioeconomic success among school-aged youths. This is often seen as a result of the traditional Confucian values practiced by the majority of Asian families (Chou, 2008). To foster such success, parents are thought to be the driving force—placing tremendous expectations on children to excel academically, in hope that the achievements would secure the next generation of economic stability and social mobility in their future jobs (Goyette & Xie, 1999). In terms of career orientation, there is also a biased attitude amongst parents towards high-ranked technical occupations such as doctors, lawyers, and engineers, as opposed to a climate of indifference in arts-related fields that are deemed frivolous and unrealistic (Goyette & Xie, 2003). The focus on educational excellence sometimes puts children of Asian American households in the mentality of constant academic competition, which often creates a relationship of rivalry among the youths.

Second, the first-generation immigrants in a family are depicted as hard-working, driven individuals who have become successful technical workers or managers

of small businesses. They achieve a level of economic mobility superior to that of other ethnic minorities and comparable to that of the dominant white population (Goyette & Xie, 2003; McGowan & Lindgren, 2006). The first generation, therefore, often acts as an epitome of perseverance and work ethic for their successors to emulate. In many cases, the second generation takes this role. The point is that parents must set an example of aspiration, work ethic, and success for their children.

Third, as a direct consequence of their economic accomplishment, both parents and children of a typical Asian American family are believed to be an exemplary case of successful assimilation into the mainstream community—living in the suburbs and harmoniously interacting with whites, which helps to legitimate the ideals of the American Dream (McGowan & Lindgren, 2006). In this characteristic there exists a power relation between the model minority family and the outside world. Asian Americans are put on a pedestal when measured against other ethnic minorities and are regarded to be on a par with the dominant white groups.

When it comes to the last defining feature of a model minority family, patriarchy, we bear in mind that the model minority family is mostly understood as a typical Asian American family. Strictly defined, the model minority family is about the elements that are believed to represent Asian Americans' socioeconomic success. Nonetheless, since Asian Americans' socioeconomic success is explained by their family culture, all the cultural features characterizing a typical Asian American family are invoked when the model minority stereotype is brought to the table. The modern family is generally patriarchal, stressing the leading role of the husband and the father. This role is usually perceived as intensified in Asian American families.

These defining power networks of the model minority family are consistent in different media forms, allowing for easy recognition of the model minority stereotype.

3.3. Stereotype-based sitcom humor

The model minority stereotype does not need sitcoms for its discursive status. However, it is in tune with the sitcom genre, which typically bases its plot on a family structure and produces stereotype-based humor. American sitcoms have conditioned the model minority discourse by giving a form for its performances. This subsection seeks to describe the power network of stereotype-based humor in American sitcoms.

Ever since situation comedy made its debut on mainstream television during the 1950s, the genre has become the bread and butter of prime-time television. Compared to other forms of TV shows, sitcoms cost less to produce yet were far more sellable as reruns (Butsch, 2005). The success experienced by sitcoms is believed to be directly linked with the way they portray inferior statuses associated with society's long-standing stereotypes of women, blacks, and other minorities. Since the public has already been familiarized with these stereotypical images, the recurring character types embodying them become norms to viewers, on which writers and producers can depend to establish patterns of humor without having to give much explanation (Bowes, 1990; Butsch, 2005). Such strategy is particularly effective in a short form of drama like sitcom as the typical duration of an individual episode remains at only about twenty five minutes.

In the attempt to examine potential effects of racially stereotype-based jokes in sitcoms on audiences' perception of ethnic minorities, scholars often find it challenging to claim "whether viewers laugh *at* stereotyped

minority figures or *with* them" (Bowes, 1990; Hall, 1990, as cited in Park, Gabbadon, and Chernin, 2006). However, more critical theorists claim that minority actors who take on roles having stereotypical traits associated with their own race stand a great chance of leaving a harmful impact on the climate of representation within their ethnic group. Specifically, the light-hearted, self-deprecating portrayal could gradually translate to the naturalization of racial difference, which discourages audiences from critically engaging with racial discourses presented on mainstream media (Hall, 1997).

Alongside stereotype-based humor, patriarchy is another recurring element in the sitcom genre. In his in-depth analysis of the prominent trends dominating over three hundred series aired throughout the first five decades of sitcom history, Butsch (2005) concludes that there is a tendency to restrict the appearance of ethnic minority and women to roles equated with 'the fool' in the storyline—that is, the subordinate character who participates in the show's narratives with the central purpose of producing humor. By contrast, representations give spotlight to the white middle class, particularly middle class men, to emphasize their masculinity and dominance within the domestic sphere. This tradition of representation persists all through its span in prime-time television history and is capable of attracting a growing number of audiences. This fact proves that sitcoms are "preeminent examples of dominant culture, steadily presented to the largest population over the longest time" (Butsch, 2005, p. 112).

3.4. All-American Girl's performance of the model minority discourse

In *FOB*, there is a brief scene in which an Asian-American watching *A-AG* pokes fun at its faults. Without doubt, *FOB* is more successful, but *A-AG* is not a lesser version of *FOB*. The two shows are interested in different issues and adopt contrasting approaches. *A-AG*'s feminist intervention, the soul of the show, does not find an equivalent in *FOB*. The model minority stereotype is what Margaret Kim has to go against as she lives with her traditional Korean American family, not an encompassing order for all the protagonists as in *FOB*. While *FOB* grapples with narrating real-life experience, *A-AG* unabashedly presents a caricatured treatment of identities.

In *A-AG*, all-Americanness is predicated on an overemphasized Asianness. Stuart, Margaret's brother, plays the role of a doctor and a 'mama's boy'—the perfect moral standard in a family who upholds traditional Asian values while simultaneously achieves upward socioeconomic mobility in mainstream society. Margaret's mother takes great pride in Stuart's good-natured personality and obedience to his family's expectations whereas she is constantly in conflict with her Americanized daughter. Margaret Kim's character is in utmost opposition to her brother. Margaret wants "juicy American freedom, the kind of female bildungsroman that took place in nights out at the local club The Skank, a career in the music industry, and cute white boys with torn jeans and bad jobs" (Jung, 2014). Margaret rebels against an Asian family that appears insulated from American society as "an immaculately preserved corner of Asia" (Jung, 2014). In *A-AG,* 'Asian' and 'American' seem incompatible, just like patriarchy and feminism. Margaret abandons her familial culture to make room for the American culture. Her physical appearance, however, constantly reminds us that she is of Asian descent. While *A-AG* shows that Asian Americans claim the model minority stereotype as representative of their original culture, Margaret's opposition to the identity

in favor of American freedom suggests that the show, particularly the stereotype, is conceived from a white perspective and Asian Americans can be whitened.

As the Kim family is portrayed as a typical Asian American family, the characters are not specific enough to be realistic representations. This caused many to deem *A-AG* racist. The expectation of authenticity might be irrelevant particularly in consideration to sitcom comedy. The show is clearly concerned with supplying the audience with a rendition of an Asian American family that meets stereotypical expectations rather than a realistic representation of Asian American experience. The rendition is done in such an extreme way that makes it a deliberate style instead of a failure to provide authenticity. To appreciate *A-AG* one must read it on the level of stereotypes, which entails suspending the quest for realism. However, rigid stereotypes do not seem sustainable. The stereotype-based jokes go stale, which can be a problem of the show's stereotyping style or of bad script writing.

4. *Fresh Off The Boat*'s performance of the model minority discourse

FOB tells the story of a Taiwanese American family trying to settle down in the white-dominated suburbs of Orlando, Florida after moving from Chinatown in Washington, D.C. to run their established Western steakhouse named Cattleman's Ranch. The Huang family consists of six members: Eddie Huang, his brothers Emery and Evan Huang, parents Louis and Jessica Huang, and grandmother, Grandma Huang. The family's closest neighbors are the age-mismatched white couple Marvin and Honey. Our critique of *FOB*'s performance of the model minority discourse uses illustrations from the first season.

FOB narrates the Huang family's experience heavily using formulas from the model minority stereotype and the sitcom form. It reinforces the stereotype, maintaining racial division and patriarchy. We argue that while FOB does not disrupt the networks of meanings and power that have shaped the stereotype and American sitcoms, the show produces a realistic, humane touch by featuring struggles and specificities. The realistic and humane conditions created by *FOB* secure the show's success; however, stereotyping and the absence of disruptive scripts limit *FOB*'s capacity to expand social horizons of sensibility.

4.1. Struggles and the specificity of stereotypes

In *FOB*'s construction of Asian-Americanness on the model minority stereotype, the characters find themselves in and between black and white identities but do not try to relegate themselves to black or white positionalities. Their negotiation of black and white identities present stories of struggle that appear realistic and relatable. This approach is in contrast with *A-AG*'s, where Stuart seems endowed with model minority traits without going through dilemmas and Margaret vehemently adopts a white American style to an extent that makes her strange to both Asian and non-Asian audience.

In the series, Eddie Huang, whose perspective functions as the main lens through which the story is told, establishes a clear association with the hip-hop sub-culture originating from the African American community. Eddie is a major hip-hop fan rooting for the Notorious B.I.G, 2Pac, LBC Crew and demonstrating his embrace of the music genre by wearing loose, baggy clothing and utilizing hip-hop slangs like "son", "fly", or "dope" in his speech attire. In this regard, author Eddie Huang, in an interview

with Hot97 Radio Station in 2016, explained his choice of affiliating with black culture as a way to comprehend the racial scene in America and to construct his own identity as a second-generation Asian American immigrant: "[…] For anyone that was the outcast trying to understand their place and rule in America, you listen to hip-hop." His disclosure recalls the notion that black culture is somewhat representative of the status of all ethnic minorities in America (Lee, 2015). Nonetheless, there is a difference between downplaying non-black minority groups' experience by using the binary nature of the black-white paradigm and highlighting how Asian Americans relate to black culture. Randall Park, cast as Louis in the show, shared in an interview that he relates to young Eddie's outsider status through his association with hip-hop music as a kid growing up in the late 80s: "I loved it [hip-hop], I knew everything about it, I listened to everything I could get my hands on" (cited in Grierson, 2015). Eddie's resort to black culture is not to make himself black but to resist both Taiwanese and white culture. Eddie struggles with self-identity rather than easily accepting given options. The show's protagonist Eddie is not a natural model minority figure but one that is subject to the model minority intricacies laid out by his family.

Eddie's family fits entirely within the model minority stereotype. The Huang family is representative of the Asian assimilation into the mainstream community. However, the purpose is not to resemble white, and struggles against white are prominent. Upon the family's arrival in the new white-dominated neighborhood, narratives focus on describing how each member adjusts to the area. In the last episode of season one "So Chineez," the Huangs appear to have settled well into Orlando: Eddie becomes the school's student council president, Cattleman's Ranch attracts an increasing number of customers, and Jessica is on good terms with all the neighborhood women. Moreover, in their conversation with the friendly white neighbors Marvin and Honey about establishing membership in the North Orlando Country Club, Jessica finds it amazing that her family could actually be the first Asian American members, but what amazes her even more is how the white couple responds to her realization: "*Oh, I didn't even think of that, you know* s*ometimes I forget you guys are Chinese. […] You guys are just like regular ol' Americans to us.*" Marvin consistently persuades Louis to come play at the tennis court and network with new people to help him expand the steakhouse. Presented with a valuable opportunity, Jessica unexpectedly confronts great fears of the family losing touch with their cultural roots, especially in terms of patriotic attitudes towards their homeland and appreciation of Mandarin. She goes to great lengths to change the family's daily routine in order to erase any sign of white culture, from dressing in full traditional Chinese[1] clothing, cooking traditional Chinese meals, to sending the three brothers to a Chinese Learning Center two hours away from their house. Despite all these, at the end of the episode, she confesses to Louis: "*I keep telling the boys to hold on to their identity, but I can't even do it myself. They have me, Louis, I'm just a chipwich-eating American couch lady*." Jessica's confession does not signify a complete surrender but a humble acknowledgement of the impossibility to remain purely Taiwanese. The Huang family achieves an Asian American status, a situation

[1] The distinction between Taiwanese identities and Chinese identities has been the subject of heated debate. In this essay, instead of pointing to the People's Republic of China, 'Chinese' refers to the large civilization of which Taiwanese culture has long been considered a part.

remarkably different from the Kim family's in *A-AG*. The Kim family shies away from Americanness, and Margaret's bold embrace of American identities tends to accentuate her lack of Americanness. In *FOB*, the model minority stereotype topples the wall between Asianness and Americanness, marking the recognizability of the Asian American as a group.

Definitely, the model minority status is a product of struggles. The Huangs' model minority traits might have originated from cultural traditions but are only present in complex struggles. The Huangs' journey to establish their new western steakhouse in Florida is a typical model minority story in that it highlights the parents' priority of the family's collective economic success over every other personal business. At times, the priority leads to possibility of vices. *FOB* uses these situations to produce humility and the courage to acknowledge one's truths and feelings.

In episode seven "Showdown at the Golden Saddle," a truth is revealed to viewers: the Huangs' Cattleman's Ranch Steakhouse is a knock-off version of the famous Golden Saddle franchise in Orlando. Louis confesses to Jessica that he stole the restaurant's confidential operation manual and made some alterations in order to create their own version of the 'wild West' steakhouse. Through Eddie's narration at the beginning: "*When it came to providing for his family, he [Louis] would do whatever it took*," viewers are introduced to the model minority script, but the whole episode is not only to emphasize the strong drive for success that Asian Americans have upon setting foot into the Promised Land. Louis and Jessica are shown embarrassed.

In episode three "The Shunning," the block party is a golden opportunity for the family to network with people in the neighborhood and promotes the restaurant. When Louis finds out that Jessica has made friends with Honey, the alleged home-wrecker that ruined her husband's first marriage, he warns Jessica that this friendship might have a negative effect on their restaurant's business because all the neighborhood women hold Honey in contempt. Having an internal conflict, Jessica ultimately decides to favor the sake of her whole family: "*[...] You are right. It is not worth risking the future of the restaurant for somebody who I've just met because our number one priority should be the restaurant succeeding.*" In the block party, however, after seeing Honey being the only one to genuinely enjoy the Chinese stink tofu that she has carefully prepared, Jessica is moved and realizes that she does not have to pretend to turn a cold shoulder to Honey just because the family's business is at stake. Towards the end of the episode, Louis and Jessica could still find a way to spread Cattleman's Ranch's reputation a little farther yet manage to do so in a heartfelt, moralistic way.

Struggles characterize a minority status but are also common to humans. They provide substance for the audience to relate to. While framed by stereotypes, the struggles in *FOB* occur as specific events. Comparing to *A-AG*, *FOB* treats stereotypes with more specificity. Its advancement of specificity goes from crafting the contour of events to character building and environment setting.

Emery and Evan, Eddie's younger siblings, are model minority prototypes, and they are not the same. Evan is a star student who does everything right and obeys all the rules, simply for the sake of doing so. He has a more friendly relationship with his parents than with other kids. Emery, while upholding the image of a mama's boy, "*blends in like a chameleon*" and effortlessly socializes with

his new friends. He acts like a stereotypical adult in his 20's, a ladies man who can get whomever he wants as a girlfriend. In model minority representations of Asian Americans, excellent academic prowess is usually associated with traits such as unsociability and awkwardness. Emery is stereotypical, but the *FOB* team did make a creative move in shaping the character.

Furthermore, the Huangs are specifically Taiwanese/Chinese Americans. Although in real life the cast come from various Asian origins, it is clear that the characters are not Korean, Japanese or Indian. This is due to the use of representatives of Taiwanese/Chinese culture. The Chinese stink tofu is an example. Constance Wu, who plays Jessica, in an interview by Jenny Zhang for The Lenny Interview in 2015, spoke about her initial fear of criticizing some of the show's details. Wu was then open about her request to make the show more specific, stating, "If you change the food to a 1,000-year-old black egg with tofu and scallions, it will be a little more specific, and specificity is just better for character, and it's more interesting than, say, tofu and rice" (Zhang, 2015). *FOB* is not undermined by complaints about its failure to be Taiwanese/Chinese. Unlike *FOB*, *A-AG* is said to perpetuate the idea that all Asians are the same. *A-AG* disappointed Korean American viewers, who found the briefly spoken Korean phrases essentially unintelligible.

To sum up, *FOB* creates specific, relatable characters and stories, which, we believe, has sustained the show through seasons. Stereotypes are not necessarily distorted images of an existing reality. They are discursive units that organize social experience. *FOB*'s performance of the model minority stereotype blurs the distinction between artificiality and authenticity. It is possible to commend that *FOB* has been successful in narrating Asian American experience from the perspective of Asian Americans. However, *FOB*'s status as a sitcom laden with stereotypes does not allow it to make an arrogant claim of authenticity. Reality might be more harrowing. The real-life Eddie Huang yelled at the fact that "the show had bowdlerized his story, which included whippings by his father" (Nussbaum, 2015). He expressed frustration over ABC's approach, saying it advances "an artificial representation of Asian American lives" (Huang, as cited in Bacle, 2015). The sitcom was to suit a broad American audience, not to represent and satisfy the real-life Eddie Huang. There has not been any official statement coming from ABC or *FOB*'s executive producers about the show's target audience, and the series has generated contrasting responses. Reportedly there have been numerous criticisms coming from Caucasian viewers claiming that *FOB*'s characterization of Asian Americans is caricatured, racist even (Philip, 2014; Ferguson, 2015); on the other hand, Asian Americans, the ethnic group whose stereotypical representation is being treated as the main source of the show, mostly offer favorable reviews (Ferguson, 2015; Lui, 2015; Nguyen, 2015). In fact, many Americans of Taiwanese/Chinese ancestry claim they could relate to Eddie and his brothers on a personal level when seeing the boys being forced to attend classes at the Chinese Learning Center, a common experience for any Taiwanese/Chinese American child growing up in the 1990s.

4.2. Perpetuation of inequalities

However specific its characters and stories are, *FOB*'s reliance on stereotyping reproduces the power networks of the model minority image and American sitcoms. The model minority stereotype renders Asian Americans vulnerable to competition for academic excellence and

economic success. Its loyalty to patriarchal nuclear family entails unequal relations between men and women, husband and wife, and parents and children. In alignment with the American sitcom tradition, ethnic minorities and women become 'the fool'. Without doubt, *FOB* perpetuates inequalities.

Throughout the show, *FOB* employs a large amount of racial stereotype-based humor, especially through the way Eddie's mother Jessica Huang embodies virtually all of the characteristics of a model minority parent. Jessica exemplifies the 'tiger mom.' In the opening scene of episode two "Home Sweet Home-school," Jessica is shown more concerned with her sons' grades than a serious crime happening in the neighborhood. In the same episode, upon receiving Eddie's latest report card with straight A's results, to Eddie's surprise, his mother not only refuses to acknowledge his accomplishment but even proceeds to complain to the principal that "*school is too easy.*" Since Eddie's middle school does not offer afterschool programs, Jessica voluntarily becomes her sons' home-school teacher to assign them extra homework outside of the curriculum. The way Jessica plans out the future for her sons also reflects the way Asian American parents stereotypically underscore the significance of academic merits in upward mobility and encourage their offspring to aim at high-paying, technical jobs in the future. In episode twelve "Dribbling Tiger, Bounce Pass Dragon," when given the duty of directing Emery and Evan's school play, Jessica feels obliged to rewrite the script in a way that would make it meaningful enough to teach the children "*life lessons so they'd be successful*." The dialogues of the play, after Jessica's editing work, become serious conversations about her perceived values of jobs in the real world. She assigns Emery of the line "*I'm studying to be a doctor, so I can make my parents proud,*" when Evan proudly claims "*and I'm prepping for the bar exam so I can become a lawyer and have a stable income and health insurance*." As *FOB* pokes fun at the tiger mom trope to elicit humor, Jessica Huang and the Asian parenting habits she performs are by no means objects of contempt. Respectful humor is a substance of egalitarian encounters; nevertheless, when humor comes from a specific stereotype, the contents of the stereotype tend to keep exerting their influence. A variety of structural inequalities are still at work.

For those with a feminist inclination, the promotion of competition and the packaging of cultural complexities into a racial box inherent in the model minority stereotype might not be as problematic as the reinforcement of patriarchal dominance. As *FOB* popularizes the model minority stereotype, it puts women at disadvantage. Specifically, Louis is always more reasonable than Jessica. Thus, Jessica, while having a central role, somehow resembles 'the fool' in sitcom humor. Louis points out Jessica's overpowering manipulation of the school play's script. He convinces his wife to be more understanding of the difference between theirs and their sons' generation: "*Oh, we never had the chance [to get involved in non-academic activities], Jessica, but isn't that why we work so hard, to give them the opportunity to do things that we couldn't do?*" This conversation helps humanize both characters, but it is the wife's behaviors that need adjusting. Despite being portrayed as a bumbling character, Louis is the ultimate decision-maker: he is the one who decides to move out the entire family from their ethnic enclave in Washington D.C. to seek a new life in Florida. Being the breadwinner of a family of six, Louis nurtures and realizes the idea of opening his own restaurant so that they no longer have to work for Jessica's brother's business. Every detail of the Cattleman's

Ranch Steakhouse, from location, setting, staff, to development strategies is determined by him. Even though Jessica plays the role of the tiger mom and rather aggressive wife, she is confined in the domestic setting as a stay-at-home mother in the first half of season on. Louis is still the one in charge of governing the atmosphere and attitudes among all family members. The couple, however, shares a loving relationship.

In an article on *The New Yorker*, Nussbaum (2015) gives the following words to *FOB*: "*Fresh Off the Boat*[2] is unlikely to dismantle the master's house. But it opens a door." *FOB* sustains the unequal relations in the power networks of the model minority discourse. However, because of its humane scripts, we find a spirit of generosity that carries with it a promise to open up possibilities.

5. Conclusion

This study began with an interest in Asian Americans and then proceeded to a concern for the model minority stereotype, which had already attracted a plethora of criticisms. Criticizing a stereotype, an over-generalized belief about a category of people, seems overly easy. One just needs to reveal how the stereotype fails to account for all the group members, simplifies, distorts, or disguises reality. Departing from such a style of critique, this project models a critique of stereotypes that underscores their productive nature. Existing in and as discourse, the minority model stereotype not only represents Asian American experience but also reproduces power networks that lay out conditions for Asian American lives and those related to them. Suspending stereotypical perceptions is an ethical choice, but it is impossible for an individual to annul the effects of stereotypes. Model minority stereotypes come from and produce large networks of meanings and power that individuals are caught in.

This essay is also a critique of a particular media work. An important event in presenting Asian Americans, *FOB* is visible as an embodiment of the model minority stereotype. This reading is grounded in how the stereotype has been identified. Thus, we have brought into view networks of events and meanings constituting the intelligibility of the minority model discourse. At the same time, to say that *FOB* performs the model minority discourse does not mean to assume that it simply activates something that has existed. For the show, to perform the discourse entails being creative and unique. *FOB* would not survive without being specific in treating the model minority stereotype. It employs strategies to give a realistic and humane touch to its stereotype-based characters and stories. In this way, representations of Asian Americans in the show have been well accepted. The audience can relate to the characters and stories from their experience rather than just an understanding of the stereotypes. *FOB* has continued to its fifth season. The series effectively participates in shaping contemporary model minority discourse, perpetuating racialization and patriarchy.

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[2] Originally written "Fresh Off the Boat"

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'FRESH OFF THE BOAT' VÀ THIỂU SỐ GƯƠNG MẪU: MỘT NGHIÊN CỨU DIỄN NGÔN THEO FOUCAULT

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Tóm tắt: Nghiên cứu này nhằm chỉ ra cách sitcom truyền hình Mỹ *Fresh Off the Boat* thể hiện diễn ngôn 'thiểu số gương mẫu'. Các tác giả sử dụng đường hướng phân tích diễn ngôn của Foucault, qua đó đặt hình ảnh khuôn mẫu thiểu số gương mẫu trong những mạng lưới sự kiện và nghĩa đã giúp nó tồn tại và trở nên hiểu được với nhiều người. Kết quả nghiên cứu cho thấy thiểu số gương mẫu được đưa vào diễn ngôn về người Mỹ gốc Á qua sự quảng bá hình ảnh thành công của nhóm trên truyền thông đại chúng vào những năm 1960, một dấu mốc về sự thay đổi của cảm quan xã hội về nhóm người này. Nghiên cứu cũng gọi tên ba mạng lưới quyền lực đan xen điều khiển diễn ngôn thiểu số gương mẫu, bao gồm: hệ hình trắng-đen, gia đình Mỹ gốc Á kiểu mẫu, và sự hài hước dựa trên hình ảnh khuôn mẫu trong sitcom Mỹ. Từ đó, các tác giả rút ra kết luận Fresh Off the Boat góp phần tạo ra diễn ngôn thiểu số gương mẫu của thời kỳ đương đại do nó tham gia vào ba mạng lưới quyền lực theo một cách nhân văn thay vì chỉ đơn giản hóa câu chuyện về người Mỹ gốc Á.

Từ khóa: người Mỹ gốc Á, thiểu số gương mẫu, truyền hình, Foucault, mạng lưới quyền lực

TREE OF LIFE: TEACHERS' REFLECTION ON THEIR TEACHING CAREER

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Abstract: This article discusses the use of narrative inquiry in educational research and emphasizes the importance of giving teachers opportunities to self-reflect and share their insights with other colleagues. It presents the narratives collected after the first stage, data collection, of an on-going narrative project using the tool 'Tree of life' to facilitate teachers' self-reflection on their teaching career as a professional development activity. This activity provides a large amount of teacher-generated data while allowing teachers to reflect on some critical incidents in their career and gain self-knowledge which is as crucial to good teaching as knowing students and the subject they teach. By telling their stories, teachers can come to know themselves better and really appreciate how much they have accomplished and grown during their career, thereby making appropriate and meaningful plan for future professional development.

Keywords: narrative inquiry, self-reflection, tree of life, teacher professional develoment

1. Introduction

Professional development is an essential part of all teachers' lives. It is a process of "continual intellectual, experiential, and attitudinal growth" (Lange, 1990, p. 250). This process happens in both formal and informal settings across different contexts including both the schools where teachers work and the community where they live. This life-long learning commitment starts during their study at their teacher-training institutions and continues long after their graduation.

There are two approaches to teacher professional development. Traditionally, teacher professional growth is presumed to happen through workshops conducted by outside experts. This top-down approach to professional development assumes that the transmission of knowledge in workshops can change classroom-teaching behaviours. In reality, workshop sessions of this nature have little actual or only short-term effects on classroom teaching (Farrell, 2007). The recent literature supports the view that teachers rather than the outside experts are the "legitimate knowers, producers of legitimate knowledge, and as capable of constructing and sustaining their own professional practice over time" (Johnson & Golombek, 2002, p. 3). This bottom-up approach to professional development assumes that professional development happens as teachers articulate their inner world of choices as responding to the outer world, their teaching context (Mann, 2005). Teachers are believed to be capable of creating difference as they explore the nature of their own decision-making and classroom practices via reflective practice.

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Earlier, Wallace (1991) identified three major models of teacher professional development:

- An apprenticeship model in which less experienced teachers learn from those with more experience;

- An applied science or theory-to-practice model in which teachers learn from research and experts then apply this knowledge in their own contexts;

- A reflective approach in which teachers critically analyse, reflect on, and adapt their own practice.

All three models require teachers to be reflective and routinely question their own teaching practice and beliefs about teaching and learning while being sensitive to the complex cultural contexts where they work (Murray, 2010; Wallace, 1991). Critical reflection, therefore, plays a key role in effective professional development for teachers. Farrell (2007, p. 176) summarises that reflective teachers can develop:

- a deeper understanding of teaching;

- an evaluation of what stage they are at in their professional growth;

- more skills in self-reflection and critical thinking;

- more complex and clearer schema about teaching;

- a more coherent personal approach to classroom teaching;

- more elaborate pedagogical reasoning skills;

- more informed decision-making skills;

- themselves as more proactive and confident teachers.

According to Farrell (2007), there are three main types of reflective practice, namely reflection-in-action, reflection-on-action, and reflection-for-action. The difference between these three types lies in the time of reflection and its purpose. Reflection-in-action happens during the event, such as classroom teaching. Reflection-on-action occurs after the event, and reflection-for-action takes place when teachers think about future actions. In addition, there are two main approaches to reflective practice. The first one emphasises reflection only on classroom actions while the other involves the broader historical, sociopolitical and moral context of schooling. Only through the latter, known as critical reflection, can teachers become agents of change (Farrell, 2007).

As the bottom-up approach to teacher professional development becomes more and more popular, the concept of professional development has expanded to reflect interactions between teachers, their teaching, and their contexts. Hardy (2012) understood teacher professional development as a situated, multi-faceted concept. He approached professional development as policy, research, and as a part of teachers' work. He defined teacher professional development as a socio-political practice influenced by teachers' working and living contexts and the individuals or groups who are engaged in, support and create it. He argued that it is essential to recognise the complicated nature of the concept and the interaction, sometimes conflictual, between the factors and people involved in order to offer effective professional development for teachers.

In short, the modern view on teacher professional development has shifted to a long-term approach that facilitates teachers' development via reflective practice and collaborative learning while being sensitive to the contexts where teachers live and work. One way of doing this is to embrace narrative inquiry as a qualitative research methodology

allowing an investigation into the ways in which human experience the world as revealed through their stories.

2. What is narrative inquiry?

Narrative inquiry has a relatively long history in general teacher education research and is a fast growing interest in the field of language teacher education (Barkhuizen, 2008). As teachers are no longer viewed just as subjects of study but rather as knowing professionals or agents of change (Johnson & Golombek, 2002), their narratives of experiences have become the subject of research. The increased emphasis on teachers' reflective practice, teachers' knowledge (i.e., what they know, how they think, how they develop professionally, and how they make decisions in the classroom), and the increasing importance of teachers' voices talking about their experiences have all contributed to the emergence of narrative inquiry and its popularity over the last few decades (Cortazzi, 1993). As narratives can provide a way into teachers' beliefs and experiences, narrative inquiry can help understand those beliefs and experiences.

Connelly and Clandinin (e.g., Connelly & Clandinin, 1986, 1999, 2006; Clandinin & Connelly, 2000) are important figures adapting narrative inquiry for educational purposes. They argued that through telling and retelling, living and reliving teachers' own stories, teachers' lived experiences, including their knowledge and practices, could be interpreted and understood narratively.

Clandinin and Connelly (2000) trace the core of narrative inquiry to Dewey's (1938, 1991) theory of experience. Dewey argued that human beings learnt from reflecting on experience, confronting the unknown, making sense of it, and taking action. For him, experience is both personal and social because people are individuals but they are always in relations, or in other words, always in a social context. Studying one individual's experience, for example of language learning, would therefore involve more than that individual's learning but also require understanding of that experience in the individual's context, for example, learning with other people, with a teacher, in a classroom, in a community, and so on. Dewey also argued that experience was continuous as one experience led to another. Any individual's learning experience always has a history and that history is ever-changing as new events unfold. Narrative inquiry embraces these two characteristics of experience, namely interaction and continuity, and is conducive to documenting the changing conditions of lives and the impact these new conditions can have over time on all aspects of an individual's life, including language learning. It recognises that people make sense of their experiences according to narratives that are constantly being restructured in the light of new events, and also acknowledges that these narratives are shaped by lifelong personal and community narratives (Bell, 2002).

One challenge that all narrative inquirers face is how to best present their work. Because narrative inquiry goes beyond simply telling stories to an analytical examination of the underlying insights and assumptions that the story illustrates (Bell, 2002), and also because of the limited space given in journal publication, the stories of participants are often not reported with their richness of detail and experience. One common practice is for the researchers to retell part of the stories or quote some sentences from the stories. This however raises the problem of ownership of the stories while taking away the chances for the narratives to be reanalysed by readers and

other researchers from a different perspective. I therefore decide to publish the study in two different articles with the first one presenting the narratives generated by the participants and the follow-up article providing my interpretation of the data. Other researchers, therefore, are also invited to interpret the data from their own perspectives to contribute to a complex understanding of our participants.

3. 'Tree of life': A tool for self-reflection

The research reported in this paper uses the self-reflective tool **'Tree of life'** (Merryfield, 1993) which allows teachers to begin their self-reflections by telling their story: where they come from, where they are now, and where they want to achieve, and how to get there. By retelling and outlining their personal history and teaching careers, teachers can better understand themselves along with exploring other aspects of their work. This practice of self-reflection is important, as research has shown that when self-reflecting, teachers can:

- recall previous experiences for self-discovery;
- become more aware of who they are as teachers;
- become more aware of how they got to where they are at present;
- become more aware of what they have accomplished over their career;
- decide what is important for them personally and professionally;
- become more aware of their thoughts, actions and feeling;
- decide where they may want to go in the future both personally and professionally;
- gain keen insight into themselves and their practice;
- share with other teachers a strong sense of personal identity that infuses their work.

(Farrell, 2007, p. 15)

'Tree of life' is a popular metaphor found in many fields such as biology, philosophy, mythology, and religion. It focuses on the lives of individuals while recognizing that the individual is the expert of their own lives. Retelling their personal stories can identify significance in them, making it possible for individuals to actively take steps to preferred ways of being in the world (Bruner, 1986; White & Epston, 1990).

The main elements of the tree were adapted to incorporate the narrative approaches: the roots, trunk, and the limbs, which represent the early influences, later influences, and the most recent influences respectively. Over the years, tree of life was further developed to have more elements including the leaves, fruits, and the bugs (Ncube, 2006). When thinking of the roots, teachers will focus on their origins and family history. The trunk of the tree is a prompt for significant events that have shaped their lives: these are either positive events or events that are difficult or evoke a painful memory. The leaves of the tree represent important people or significant relationships in ones' life, for example parents and favourite teachers. The branches of the tree elicit participants' thoughts and ideas about the direction they would like to go in life and the important actions which play an important role in making them teachers. The fruits stand for the achievements which participants have accomplished or the things which they are proud of. Finally, the bugs of the tree represent the negative factors, the problems and challenges teachers are facing in their day-to-day teaching and lives. By labelling these various parts of the tree, reflective practitioners can discover or

rediscover aspects of themselves as formed by past events, and can actively cultivate their trees to reflect the kind of person they want to become and the goals they aim to achieve.

The research presented in this paper is an on-going project which is divided into two stages. In the first stage, seven in-service teachers reflect on their life history and teaching career, retell them using the metaphor 'Tree of life'. The participants are university lecturers at an institution in the Northern part of Vietnam. Of the seven teachers, Mark is the youngest who graduated from a teacher training university last year and recently has enrolled in a postgraduate program. Sharika and Kate both have about six years of teaching experience and have earned their Master degree after studying abroad in Australia. Susan earned her Master some years ago, and in her own words, still "navigating the field" to find a suitable career path. Cathie earned her Master recently while Mollie and Liam were recently awarded their PhDs. These participants were chosen because they are willing to participate in the study, which is essential in conducting narrative inquiry research. In addition, the participants are currently at different stages of professional development which allows diverse narratives to emerge. Mutual trust between participants and the researcher also plays a crucial role as it allows candid reflection. The reflective activity with "Tree of life" provides participants opportunities to reconsider their identity, based on the rationale that our self-identities are shaped by our own accounts of our lives and the stories we tell about ourselves (White & Epston, 1990). This narrative practice also allows individuals to identify their strengths and find ways to achieve their goals. The second stage of the study draws on the concepts of collective narrative practice, during which participants share their tree of life, make bonds with each other, identify shared problems in the context where they teach and live, thereby addressing social issues and building a community of practice which allows safe and meaningful professional development activities to take place.

This paper, as an on-going report, focuses on the first stage of the project, presenting the tree of life narratives of eight teachers. They are all motivated and accomplished teachers although currently at different stages of their career and have very different experiences. As I refrain myself from summarising and reducing their life experiences into a few sentences, the readers can read through their stories retold in their own words in the section below. All the narratives were written by the participants themselves in English. The name of the teachers, however, have been changed to maintain anonymity. Regardless, I suppose many readers would see themselves in these stories or would connect them with someone they know of. This is because human experience is unique but also a shared experience.

4. Teachers' narratives

4.1. Participant 1: Mark

Root: I come from a typical Vietnamese family, with my parents wanting me to study well and have a stable job in the future. Since my early childhood, I have had an introverted personality, preferring to read books and have long discussions about knowledge and ideas with other people. I like learning new things and sharing what I know with other people who might be interested. Perhaps most important of all, I like being able to help others.

Trunk: I first became interested in learning English in my eighth grade, mostly because I wanted to understand English songs, movies, TV programs and books in their original

language. I was first inspired to learn English seriously in my eleventh grade by my high school English teacher, who established a great rapport with her students and could make each English lesson relaxing and interesting. I started helping some of my classmates to improve their English in my twelfth grade, which gave me my first impression of teaching. During my preparation for the university entrance exam, I was inspired to become a teacher by a great English teacher at a local cram school, who always prepared very thorough lessons and was always willing to answer each student's questions. I wanted to be like him and decided to pursue a career in English language teaching.

Branch: During my years in pre-service education, I was both a student of many good teachers and a part-time English tutor to many high school and college students. These two simultaneous roles allowed me to apply what I had learned about teaching to practice and further consolidated my passion for teaching. I had a few months working in the Teaching Practicum at a college in Hanoi, which helped me accumulated real experience in teaching, especially in my classroom management and lesson planning. After graduating, I applied for a teaching position at my university and was accepted. During my time here, I received frequent training sessions from experienced teachers in the faculty (e.g. frequent INSET training, Mentoring program, etc.) These opportunities allowed me to polish my skills further and become a better teacher. I have recently started my Masters' program. I am beginning to learn more about researching and how to apply theoretical knowledge in the practice of teaching. The more I learn, the more I feel interested in my work and my study.

TPD Plan: By examining my own journey to become a teacher, I can see which aspects of my job I am still weak at, as well as which factors in my life and my personality I can use as motivation to help me become better. For example, I believe I have not accumulated enough experience with teaching, and I plan to fix this by using mentoring and classroom observation and by conducting research to help me develop my teaching competence. I know I am only in the early stage of my career as a teacher, but I believe that my interest in learning foreign languages and my enthusiasm for sharing what I know with others might be what I can use to motivate myself to become a better teacher.

4.2. Participant 2: Shakira

Root: I was born in an average Vietnamese family with my father being a mechanics and mom being a house wife. However, as my deceased grandfather always wanted his daughters and grand-daughters to pursue any paths with a 'foreign' element, so my parents wanted me to become an English teacher. I was too young to understand any of their wish, but then one day, one friend of the family came back from America and gave us a Walt Disney movie video. The movie was Beauty and the Beast. Back then, there was neither subtitle nor dubbing; I could barely understand what they said but I was so interested in the plot, with the music, with the voicing. I watched it over and over again, until I could even 'shadow' the character in the exact manner they were acting. And on top of that came the beautiful soundtrack 'Tale as old as time'. Along with the movie were the era of Michael Jackson, Bryan Adams and many other rock bands. I listened and sang along without knowing what I was really singing. I had no idea that I fell in love with English, but I think I did.

Trunk: My school years were very simple and oriented by parents. Except for Primary School, I was in English specialized class in

both secondary and high school. Still, I didn't have a vision of what my future job would be. Even during my four years in University of Languages and International Studies, I didn't give a thought about teaching job. My part-time job back then was translating movies and TV series for Vietnam National Television. I was like I would never have a teaching job. A few months after my graduation were rough. I worked at ULIS for two months before embarking on a youth exchange program for another two months. During the program, I travelled and met so many interesting youths of all ASEAN countries, which made me feel like teaching was definitely not my thing. Upon my return, I worked for the school for another year with the thought that I would leave once the contract finished. But then, that one year changed me even more, and now I would say I love my teaching job. Even when I'm not teaching English, I would love to teach something else.

Branch: My first few years at school were, I would say, ok. I liked my students; they were only 4 years younger than I was so we got along quite well in class. I was assigned with a mentor but to be honest, that was a disappointment because he never showed up in my class. However, other senior colleagues were really helpful in giving advice about teaching, adopting materials, and managing my class. Also, many of my classmates were in the same division with me, so in a way, I found a sense of belonging. In 2013, I commenced my Master degree in Educational Leadership in Australia. I was enlightened with so much new knowledge about leadership, organizational behavior, human resource management that every time I reflected on what had happened, they all made sense. I also learned something important: I don't need to push myself to attain a high position to make a change, I can make changes in everything I do to my students and colleagues. Coming back to Vietnam, working in the same division as before, I initiated some new ideas to the materials and received good feedback, which made me want to contribute more. Also, I was given chance to become a mentor. Working with new teachers inspires me in an absolutely different way than with students because they are grown-ups, they are proactive in learning but at the same time a bit lost in this new career. Working with my mentees, listening to their joys and worries, knowing that they are making progress, I find my job more meaningful. I must say I see myself a bit clearer everyday thanks to my mentees. So, I may be an introvert, but still love working with people. That's why I guess I will pursue teaching my whole life.

4.3. Participant 3: Kate

Root: There is no one who works as a teacher in my immediate family. However, in my father's side, all of my grandmother's nephews and nieces are teachers of all kinds of subjects ranging from primary to high school level. So, somehow, I could say it runs in the blood. I remember I seemed to get the approval and support of "the whole universe" when choosing teaching career. Most of my close friends, despite my objection, regard me as a kind, smart and humorous person. I like readings book, watching documentary films, learning new things and gain new experiences. Within my capacity, I enjoy helping others.

Trunk: My parents were very different from those of my friends in the way that they did not force me to learn days and nights to get recognitions and prizes. I spent my time equally on both learning and playing. Funnily enough, I always studied well at school and got almost all of those things, I mean recognitions and prizes, which never stopped surprising my parents. I truly enjoy studying,

just as my favorite hobby. That strange passion helped me to excel over my schooling and prepared a great platform for my career path later. I first started learning English when I was a third grader in primary school. I can still picture my first English teacher vividly in my mind now. What a caring and gentle teacher she was. At that time, I was amazed by the fact that there was another language other than Vietnamese. Before then, I thought everyone in the world all spoke my mother tongue. How naïve I was! However, English was not my focus until secondary school. I was selected at the 6th grade to join English team to attend exams for excellent students. I got my first prize back then, which has driven me forward along the track up to now. During my schooling, my interests in English grew so fast that it surpassed my teachers' knowledge. They could not answer all of my queries, so I bought many books from the bookstores to study by myself. I hardly attended any extra classes, but reading books at home. The knowledge I got from different books was consolidated in my self-made handbook for my own references. I could say proudly that I am mostly self-taught.

Branch: It may come as a weird surprise to you, but I had no intention of being a teacher until the day I became one. I entered a teacher training university for the love of the language and my hopes to develop the proficiency of using English. I first started teaching several classes as my part-time job when I was a third-year student. During this trial time, I gained teaching skills and my interests in teaching began to grow gradually. Upon my graduation, I knew for sure my career choice would be teaching job. Working at university, I have had a great number of opportunities for professional development, learning from knowledgeable and experienced colleagues, unlimited access to libraries with a lot of relevant books and being offered teaching autonomy in classroom. Doing action research and frequent reflections on my own experience are two of my preferable ways to continue harnessing my knowledge and skills.

TPD Plan: I obtained my Master degree three years ago and have a plan to pursue doctorate degree soon in the next several years.

4.4. Participant 4: Mollie

Root: I come from a family with strong aspirations for intellectual development. I am a person who always loves exploration. In fact, that inquisitiveness and the receptiveness to knowledge has been the motivation for any of my learning for improvements as well as doing PhD studies.

Trunk: When I started secondary high school, I began studying English and developed my passion for it. My first teachers of English made strong impressions on me in so many ways: not just in terms of English knowledge but also their teaching methods which were different from teachers of other subjects: they encouraged students with generosity of compliments; they were open-minded and used communicative approach to give us various practice in front of the class and in groups or pairs. Then I went to gifted high school, specialized in English. During my high school, I attended different English exams for gifted students and got some prizes.

When I entered university, I participated in extra-curricular activities related to English out of interest and also to enhance my competence such as being MC of English club and doing research in English. During the college years, I was self-disciplined and still kept quite strict schedule of everyday self-study individually or cooperatively with my best friend and others. I was quite active in the

learning process, went to class to ask teachers questions and practiced English in front of the class as much as I could. I can say that most of my English competences have resulted from my own hard work of self-study which was of course significantly inspired and guided by my teachers and professors that I have met and learnt from. English has become my inspiration and passion. It changed me from a very shy, low self-esteem into a sociable, confident person. So I believed that English would become my major in the future no matter what specific kind of job I would have.

Branch: Attending international conferences is one of the most efficient ways of professional development because you can upgrade your knowledge with the top professors' talk and expand your professional network. I attended the 49th RELC International Seminar on Critical Competences for the 21st Century Language Classroom in Singapore as a speaker. And I benefited so much from that, from coming up with more ideas for my PhD thesis, to verify my professional development activities, and get to know more fellows.

At my university, luckily I had chances of learning from and then working with many qualified and enthusiastic teachers and professors who inspired me a lot in becoming a more competent and dynamic person. This continued to M.A then PhD studies. My PhD studies was a remarkably challenging and also rewarding journey of mine which can be called enlightening journey. I have learnt enormously from the professors, research participants during the investigation and also other PhD students. Then, it's all about paying forward, so now with my humble knowledge and experience, I have tried to support undergraduates, M.A and PhD students by reading their papers to give comments and suggestions. All in all, professional development is an ongoing journey so thinking and doing out of the box can possibly help us to have great achievements. Strong determination, self-discipline, creativity and other ample qualities with hard work are what it takes. Hope all the best for all of us who have strong willingness of improving ourselves day after day to become competent and effective teachers.

4.5. Participant 5: Susan

Root: I come from a typical Vietnamese family with teaching tradition. My dad is a physic teacher in a university. Since I was a little child, my dad has always appeared to be an exemplary teacher in my eyes. Besides, I prefer reading books, learning new things and sharing knowledge with other people. This made me consider teaching as a career I would like to pursuit.

Trunk: I became interested in English quite early. It was in my sixth grade when I started reading the series Harry Potter and wanted to understand the original version. Although I studied in a mathematics-specialized class during high school, I still kept my passion for English. At that time, it was not only because I wanted to understand books, movies and TV programs in English, but also because I wanted to understand more about English speaking countries in particular and the world in general. In addition, my parents wanted me to become a teacher and go to Vinh university because it was next to my house. And I did so.

Branch: During my years in my university, I was both students of many good teachers and part-time English tutor to high school students. I was inspired by my teachers and at the same time helping high school students better their English brought joy to me. After graduation, I applied for a teaching position in my university and was accepted. I had one year teaching here. Though it was a short

time, I taught various kinds of students from English major and non-major college students to English specialized high school students. This helped me accumulate real experience in teaching. After that, I started Masters' program in English. It was when I became more interested in researching, not only in the field of teaching methodology but also other fields of English linguistics and culture. Then, one of my teachers asked me to work at the Department of Science and Technology and I thought why not to try something different from teaching and accepted the offer. However, besides working at the office, I kept on teaching and tutoring. During my time working here, I had opportunities to participate in training workshops such as researching methodology, extensive reading, cross-cultural communication, and etc., which broadened my knowledge of researching also teaching.

TPD Plan: Nevertheless, now I'm still navigating. By examining my own career journey, I hope I may find out my strengths and weaknesses and what I really would like to do in the future.

4.6. Participant 6: Cathie

Root: I come from a small village in the North of Vietnam. Like any other parents, mine always wanted me to study well at school and get a stable job when I grew up. In their opinion, teaching was the most suitable job for me, or my siblings, although none of them or my family members were teachers. Talking about myself, I have been quite extroverted and I like learning new things and gaining new experiences a lot. Naturally, I also want to be helpful and to be recognized by the community.

Trunk: I started learning English in grade 6. During my years at school, English was something interesting, new and fun. I enjoyed all the English lessons and had quite good relationships with my teachers. They often encouraged me to go to a language university. As teaching had always been the choice for me and when thinking of being trained to be an English teacher, it was the best place, so it was obvious that I applied to it without questioning.

Branch: Having said that, doing the teacher training program was really a milestone in my life. While I chose teaching as my future job, I had never seen why I loved it or how I could be a good teacher. Then in this university, I was taught by dedicated and wonderful lecturers, who were experts in their fields and always nice and inspiring to students; and I realized I just wanted to be like them. Teaching was not the only way, or the best way, but may be the most suitable way for me to be helpful and recognized. I was inspired to work hard and study hard to be able to take my own path and build my dreams. That is exactly what I want to do for other people, more specifically my students through English lessons.

From then on, I have been under long training sessions to become what I am now. Most of my skills and experiences were gained through the part-time job as a private English tutor when I was still a student, the tutoring programs and the teaching practicum period at university, the conferences on English teaching I attended after graduating, the post-graduate course in Language Teaching Methodology I took and the time I worked as an academic manager or an English trainer in different educational organizations. I also did some research on teaching different English skills such as speaking and reading, and how English can be used in the teacher's instructions during a lesson. I understand that a good teacher needs to have enough patience and knowledge of the field, as well

as a professional manner and critical thinking; but most importantly, a good teacher needs to be open-mined, tolerant and willing to learn and share.

TPD Plan: Working now with fantastic colleagues is my excellent opportunity to improve myself. There are a lot of things for me to learn, but I will initially focus on Teaching Methodology and then Testing and Assessment. I believe it's always important to study new methods of teaching because language is always changing and different target learners will require a specific approach to get motivated. Moreover, Testing and Assessment is an essential part of teaching job, which I think all teachers should have full knowledge of and necessary skills in. In the future, I will continue to do more research on these fields, attend more conferences with experts from different countries and maybe sign up for some courses to keep myself active, open and exposed to the latest information of the world.

4.7. Participant 7: Liam

Root: Regarding the root of the tree, I would like to acknowledge that my family background plays an important role in shaping my career choice. Both my parents are literature teacher, and over the years, they have tried to pass down their love of teaching to me. At first, I did not really picture myself in the future as a teacher, yet I have realized that when I do not teach, I miss the feeling of being in class with students.

Trunk: I learned English quite earlier, perhaps when I was in grade three, but it was not my favorite subject. It was not until my first encounter with a native speaker perhaps when I was in grade five. Realizing that English was a practical subject, I became more interested in it. Despite my effort, I was still not one of the best students in my class. During my secondary school life, I had more opportunities to use English with international students studying at an international institution next to my school. (Thanks to my teacher who frequently organized visiting trips which allowed us to mingle with those kids and learn from native English speaking teachers.) My English at that time was still quite rudimentary though. During the three years at high school, I managed to significantly improve my English (especially grammar and vocabulary), but I had no opportunity to practice English communicatively. I decided to enroll in an English language teacher training program firstly because of its tuition-free policy and secondly due to a naïve belief that I could spend the next four years just on learning English.

Branch: Finally, I will reflect on the limb of my tree of life. During my undergraduate study, at first, my listening skills were very rudimentary. Thanks to a teacher who gave me a gift during a listening activity, I had the motivation to keep trying and improving. One activity I did every night at that time was to listen to VOV5 radio program before going to bed. As a results, my listening skills improved dramatically. I started tutoring in my second year at college, but I only earned money from teaching after graduation. In my first few years of teaching, I was assigned to teach English to ethnic students. (Many of them were struggling to learn English as a third language.) Thanks to that experience, I have learnt to be patient with my students and enjoyed working together in a small and cozy community of practice.

In addition to my full time job, I decided to accept part-time tutoring work from various institutions and schools at different levels (both university and high school) to enrich my teaching experience. In 2007, I got some scholarships to pursue postgraduate education

in Australia. During that time, I had chances to study with experts in the field and immerse myself in a true academic environment. I learnt more about teaching methodology, second language acquisition, computer assisted language learning, intercultural communication, and doing research. Most importantly, I learnt to embrace a life-long learning attitude.

TPD Plan: Reflecting on my tree of life, I have realized that recently I have neglected collaborating with my colleagues, as I spent most of my time on private tutoring jobs. Perhaps a suitable professional development activity for me now is to set up or join a group of colleagues who are willing to share time reflecting on their daily practice, conducting team teaching and classroom observation, and perhaps even doing research together.

5. Conclusion

This paper has provided eight narratives told by the participants using the tool Tree of life to reflect on the root, trunk, and branches of their teaching history and often concludes with the teacher's plan to move forward in their teaching career. The stories presented illustrate how narrative inquiry can be used for encouraging teachers to take the initiative in their own professional development. As mentioned before, this paper does not offer any analysis of these stories but will present them in another follow up article. It is also hoped that these stories will stimulate the readers to reflect on their own teaching careers or life history in order to actively become the architect of their own life-long professional development.

Self-reflection for language teachers as exemplified in this paper is a self-initiated, self-directed, and self-evaluated process which allows teachers to reflect on how they got where they are today, how they conduct practice, and their underlying assumptions, values and beliefs that have guided their past and current practices. Once having known themselves better and really appreciated how much they have accomplished and grown during their careers, teachers can make appropriate plans for future professional. After reading and reflecting on the teachers' journey shared in this paper, readers are encouraged to use the tool Tree of life to 'tell' their own story. The next step would be to share these stories with other teachers. By sharing with a critical friend, teachers may have different insights into the meaning and interpretation of the stories than if they are to be analyzed alone. Meanwhile, school managers and teacher educators should aim to foster a learning community where teachers can freely share with each other about their practices and concerns without any fear of being judged. Yet, that would be presented in another article.

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CÂY CUỘC ĐỜI: GIÁO VIÊN TIẾNG ANH CHIÊM NGHIỆM VỀ QUÁ TRÌNH GIẢNG DẠY

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Tóm tắt: Bài viết là một minh chứng về nỗ lực sử dụng nghiên cứu tường thuật trong nghiên cứu về giáo dục, nhấn mạnh tầm quan trọng của việc tạo cơ hội cho giáo viên chiêm nghiệm và chia sẻ với đồng nghiệp. Bài báo trình bày các câu chuyện được thu thập sau giai đoạn đầu: thu thập dữ liệu bằng cách sử dụng công cụ 'Cây cuộc đời' để tạo cơ hội cho giáo viên chiêm nghiệm về sự nghiệp và quá trình giảng dạy của họ như một hoạt động phát triển chuyên môn. Bằng cách kể câu chuyện của họ, giáo viên có thể hiểu rõ hơn về bản thân, trân trọng hơn những gì đã đạt được và quá trình trưởng thành về chuyên môn, từ đó có thể đưa ra kế hoạch phù hợp và có ý nghĩa cho sự phát triển nghề nghiệp trong tương lai.

Từ khóa: nghiên cứu tường thuật, chiêm nghiệm, cây cuộc đời, phát triển chuyên môn

MOTIVATION TYPES IN PREDICTING THE USE OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES BY ENGLISH MAJOR STUDENTS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF LANGUAGES AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES – VIETNAM NATIONAL UNIVERSITY, HANOI

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Abstract: This study examined the role of motivation types in predicting the use of language learning strategies by English major students at the University of Languages and International Studies - Vietnam National University, Hanoi (ULIS). A questionnaire was employed to collect information from 123 students. The first section of the questionnaire was about how often the students used strategies in learning English, and the second one collected information about the participants' levels of four motivation types. The results indicated that all the strategies were used by the majority of the respondents, and among four types of motivation, their instrumental motivation was of the highest level. Importantly, the study disclosed a significant and positive correlation between motivation and language learning strategy use. Finally, going beyond the correlational analysis already observed in many other studies, this study utilized regression analysis which then helped unveil significant contributions of integrative and intrinsic motivation to strategy use. Helpful implication can be drawn from this study.

Keywords: language learning strategies, motivation types, English major students, EFL learners, regression analysis

1. Introduction

The strategies and techniques that language learners exploit to acquire the language and solve challenges in their language learning have been a thriving area of research, especially in second language (L2). Since the works by Rubin and Stern in the late 1970s, there have been a plethora of studies revealing the benefits of language learning strategies (LLSs) to L2 learning. Bialystok (1978, p.71) claimed that learning strategies were the *"optimal means for exploiting available information to improve competence in a second language"*. More than a decade later, Cohen (1990), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), and Oxford (1990) found that appropriate use of LLSs could help students gain learning autonomy, process information more effectively, and improve their performance.

Besides, the variables affecting LLS use were also taken into consideration by several scholars. Among many variables, motivation

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has emerged as one of the most powerful besides age, sex, aptitude, etc. (Khamkhien, 2010; Oxford, 1990; Taguchi, 2002). However, the number of studies particularly on the relationship between motivation and LLS use was modest, and most of them did not pay attention to motivation types. Additionally, only correlation relationship was discussed to some extent in literature in the field (Al-Qahtani, 2013; Khamkhien, 2010; Lau & Chan, 2003; Liu et al., 2014; Mochizuki, 1999; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989), and little was known about the predictive power of motivation in explaining LLS use of EFL learners. The same is true for the context in Vietnam and at the University of Languages and International Studies - Vietnam National University, Hanoi (ULIS).

Thus, this study was conducted with an objective of expanding understanding about this relationship, especially the role of motivation types in explaining and predicting LLS use by English major students at ULIS.

2. Literature review

2.1. Language learning strategies

Ellis (1994, p. 532-533) affirmed that *"strategies refer to both general approaches and specific actions or techniques used to learn an L2"*, and strategy use can be either behavioral or mental, either visible or invisible, which was consistent with the ideas of O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1989, 2001). Concerning whether strategy use necessitates consciousness or not, Ellis (1994), Oxford (2001), and Grabe (2009) agreed that learners make use of learning strategies intentionally until they can implement them skillfully and automatically. Above all, there was a consensus among these researchers that strategies affect learning process directly and indirectly, exerting positive influence on students' task solving, language skill development, language proficiency, communicative competence, learning autonomy, self-confidence, and aiming at making the process of learning easier and more feasible (Al-Qahtani, 2013; Dreyer & Oxford, 1996; Duong, 2005; Ellis, 1994; Matsumoto, Hiromori, & Nakayama, 2013; Moya, 2014; Nisbet, Tindal, & Arroyo, 2005; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Oxford, 2001; Oxford & Scarcella, 1992).

One of the controversial issues in this field was the classification of LLSs. In 1971, Rubin began to provide an insight into strategies used by the *'good language learners'* and came to the latest classification in 1987 with three main groups of strategies: *'learning strategies', 'communication strategies'*, and *'social strategies'*. However, Ellis (1986) argued that successful use of communication strategies may not be indicative of *'good language learners'* because it may prevent language learning, for example, being excel at guessing meaning may prevent the desire for learning. Another outstanding way of categorizing LLSs belonged to O'Malley and Chamot (1990) with three types, namely *'metacognitive strategies', 'cognitive strategies',* and *'socioaffective strategies'*. The addition of social type was supposed to acknowledge the prominent role of interactional strategies in language learning (Griffiths, 2004). Besides, some other researchers such as Bialystok (1978), Chesterfield and Chesterfield (1985), and Stern (1992) also proposed their own classifications of LLSs.

Basing on the works of predecessors, Oxford developed a taxonomy that included almost all the strategies discussed before in the fields. As a result, Oxford's (1990) classification is the most inclusive with two major groups of *'direct'* and *'indirect'* ones

which comprised six subgroups inside. The first main category of direct strategies is made up of three smaller groups namely *'memory strategies'*, *'cognitive strategies',* and *'compensation strategies'*. Divided into *'creating mental linkages', 'applying images and sounds', 'reviewing well',* and *'employing action'*, the first group helps learners to store new language information and retrieve it later. The second group entails conscious ways of handling the target language with four subgroups of *'practicing', 'receiving and sending messages', 'analyzing and reasoning',* and *'creating structure for input and output'*. Meanwhile, the third group involves *'guessing intelligently'* and *'overcoming limitations in speaking and writing'* enabling learners to communicate despite knowledge limits (Oxford, 1990). When it comes to the second major category (indirect strategies), there are three subgroups: *'metacognitive strategies', 'affective strategies',* and *'social strategies'*. By *'metacognitive strategies',* Oxford (1990) meant the strategies of *'centering learning', 'arranging and planning learning',* and *'evaluating learning',* which facilitate students' control of their own learning and cognition. Differently, *'affective strategies'* refer to controlling and regulating emotion, motivation and behaviors with the strategies of *'lowering anxiety', 'encouraging oneself'* and *'taking emotional temperature'* (Oxford, 1990). Lastly, according to Oxford (1990), students utilize *'social strategies'* by *'asking question', 'cooperating with others',* and *'empathizing with others',* which helps improve their social interaction with people. Some experts such as Brown (2007) and Ellis (1994) agreed that this is a very comprehensive, detailed and systematic taxonomy of strategies, which was also the reason why Oxford's (1990) work was selected to be the theoretical framework for this study. Moreover, corresponding to the taxonomy is Oxford's (1989) Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) which is a questionnaire on how students use the LLSs in their language learning. The version for speakers of other languages learning English of the SILL (Oxford, 1989) has been widely employed by researchers, and it served as the instrument for data collection in this study as well.

Concerning previous studies, several have investigated the frequency of using LLS by L2 learners, but the findings were different across studies. For example, metacognitive and cognitive strategies were revealed to be the most frequently used in Al-Hebaishi (2012), Al-Qahtani (2013), and Chand (2014) while metacognitive and memory strategies were found in Hayati (2015) and compensation in Mochizuki (1999), Oxford and Ehrman (1995). Similarly, there have been a certain number of studies in Vietnam, such as Doan (2012), Le (2011), Nguyễn and Trịnh (2011), Nguyễn, Trịnh, and Huỳnh (2012) to name but a few. While these three papers all discovered the dominance of metacognitive strategies, they are not congruent regarding the findings on other strategies. For example, Doan (2012) and Nguyễn and Trịnh (2011) found cognitive to be a frequently-used strategy group, but Le (2011) and Nguyễn, Trịnh, and Huỳnh (2012) ranked cognitive among the least commonly-used ones. However, the inconclusive findings were understandable because the participant samples possessed different characteristics (study levels, learning settings, etc.), and learning strategies were likely to be affected by many factors, which would be discussed later in this paper.

2.2. Motivation in language learning

As one of the pioneering researchers in this field, Gardner (1985) proposed three

components of motivation namely *'effort', 'desire'*, and *'attitudes'* to learning activity, which respectively referred to time for language learning and the drive of the learner, the degree of the want to improve language proficiency, and, finally, emotional behaviors or reactions in learning. According to Ahåt (2013), Deci and Ryan (1985), Dörnyei and Skehan (2003), Gardner and Lambert (1972), Gardner and Masgoret (2003), Hashemian and Soureshijani (2011), Khodadady and Khajavy (2013), Wigfield (2000), and Yu (2013), motivation plays a prominent role in L2 learning and achievement: the motivated students could recognize their goals, exert more effort to handle the tasks, have more aspiration and less anxiety, enjoy learning activities, draw lessons from success and failure, exploit LLSs as an effective tool to reach the goals, and are likely to achieve higher proficiency than the unmotivated. In Vietnam, Hoang's (2011) research provided support for both integrative and instrumental.

Defining motivation types also garnered a lot of attention. Gardner (1983), Gardner and Lambert (1972) posited that there were two types of motivation in language learning: integrative versus instrumental motivation**.** The former refers to the reasons mainly related to the learners' identification with the society (Gardner, 1983) or their desires and willingness to explore more about the culture of the region using the target language, to connect more with the local community or to be a member of that society (Gardner and Lambert, 1972, Saville-Troike, 2006). A typical illustration is the act of learning French of many English-speaking Canadians (Ellis, 2003). In contrast, the latter is derived purely from practical reasons or non-interpersonal purposes such as admission requirements or job promotion (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Saville-Troike, 2006). While both motivation types were theorized to be essential, Csizer and Dörnyei (2005), Yu (2013) found integrative motivation the more powerful contributor to success in L2 learning. Nonetheless, Dörnyei (1990), Gupta and Woldemariam (2011), Lukmani (1972), Rehman et al. (2014), Warden and Lin (2000), Yu (2014) showed that in EFL contexts where learners have few opportunities to use the foreign language or interact with foreigners, instrumental motivation was more important and stronger.

Other researchers raised another well-known categorization which differentiated intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Whilst the former means *"motivation to engage in an activity for its own sake"*, the latter refers to *"motivation to engage in an activity as a means to an end"* (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002, p. 245). Brown (2007) also agreed that a person whose behavior is determined by external forces is extrinsically motivated. Homework, grade, and teachers are some of the external factors pushing the learner to get engaged in learning (Brown, 2007). As Harmer (1991) argued, both integrative and instrumental motivations can be categorized as extrinsic motivation. In Deci and Ryan's opinion (1985), being extrinsically motivated could do some harm to learning. That is, it is likely that when the rewards or even the punishment disappear, so does motivation. Concerning intrinsic type, Lightbown and Spada (1999) agreed that it brings no harmful effects because the needs derive from inside. It was even considered the underlying factor in L2 learning success (Baleghizadeh & Rahimi, 2011; Grabe, 2009; Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000; Liu et al., 2014). Regarding some studies with Vietnamese students as samples, Nguyen (2013) showed evidence for the major role of extrinsic and instrumental type in students' motivation for learning English while Ngo, Spooner-Lane, and Mergler (2015) affirmed that those who

are intrinsically motivated exert greater effort in learning English. More interestingly, Phan (2010) found that learners' motivation levels changed depending on situations, and intrinsic motivation was usually overpowered by other types of motivation.

Another type was discussed by Ellis (2003, p.75): *'resultative motivation'*. All above sorts of motivation have been identified based on the assumption that motivation stimulates language learning and contributes to achievement; however, in many cases, motivation could result from learning (Ellis, 2003). This scholar reasoned that success and sense of achievement in language learning could sustain existing level of motivation or may enhance or, in some contexts, weaken motivation.

Besides, Ellis (2003) seems to imply that integrative, instrumental and resultative categories all belong to extrinsic motivation because in Ellis's classification there are four types: integrative, instrumental, resultative, and intrinsic categories. In this research, Ellis's (2003) system of motivation was applied due to its comprehensive coverage of all main motivation types discovered previously.

2.3. Language learning strategies and motivation in language learning

The factors affecting L2 learners' strategy use have been increasingly studied. Among many factors, motivation was found to be the most influential by Oxford and Nyikos (1989). The superiority of motivation over study experience, gender, study major, English proficiency, enjoyment, etc., in correlating with and affecting LLS choice and use was supported in Khamkhien (2010), Lau and Chan (2003), and Mochizuki (1999). Vietnamese context can be related most closely to Khamkhien's (2010) because this work took Vietnamese students (along with Thai students) as the sample. Besides, significant correlation between LLS use and motivation was also reported in Al-Qahtani (2013), Baleghizadeh and Rahimi (2011), Gupta and Woldemariam (2011), Liu et al. (2014), Matsumoto, Hiromori, and Nakayama (2013), and Xu (2011).

Moreover, the relationship between LLS use and motivation was found to be mediated by different strategies and motivation types. Schmidt and Watanabe (2001) indicated that cognitive and metacognitive were correlated most strongly with motivation. In Oxford and Nyikos (1989), the students' instrumental desire was not interrelated with communication strategies. However, the opposite was found in Ehrman (1990). In the meantime, Al-Qahtani (2013) suggested that both integrative and instrumental strategies significantly correlated with LLS use, but the former possessed the higher correlation. For intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, Vandergrift (2005), Baleghizadeh and Rahimi (2011) showed that both were significantly correlated with strategies, but the higher correlation was between strategies and intrinsic motivation. In Oxford and Ehrman (1995), however, LLS use was interrelated with only intrinsic motivation.

The above listed studies had some undeniable strengths. For example, Oxford and Nyikos (1989), Schmidt and Watanabe's (2001) recruited a huge number of participants (1200 and 2089 respectively), and in Oxford and Nyikos (1989) there was a large amount of evidence for the SILL's reliability and validity. However, there existed some gaps and limitations. In Gupta and Woldemariam (2011), Lau and Chan (2003), Matsumoto, Hiromori, and Nakayama (2013), Vandergrift (2005), the focal attention of their research was the strategies for only one in four main English skills. Similarly, Baleghizadeh and Rahimi's (2011) research was confined to

only metacognitive strategies. For some other studies, the measurement of motivation was not well-developed. In Khamkhien (2010), Mochizuki (1999), Oxford and Nyikos (1989), the number of items pertaining to motivation was relatively small (thirteen, one, and six respectively). What is more, Khamkhien (2010), Oxford and Nyikos (1989) only employed the dichotomous questions in the motivation questionnaires, which might not reflect exactly the students' opinion and their level of motivation. Additionally, many of the studies merely scrutinized one or two types of motivation or did not clarify the motivation types investigated. Several did not report the results for each motivation types either. Besides, some scholars noted that motivation is not stable in many cases (Dörnyei&Skehan, 2003) and often changes as a function of study results, social and classroom setting, beliefs, and feelings (Grabe, 2009; Mazumder, 2014; Waninge, Bot, & Dörnyei, 2014; Xu & Case, 2015). Aside from this, different motivation types could be beneficial in different contexts as argued by Brown (2007). Therefore, the results of previous investigations are not always applicable to a certain place of another context. On top of that, the majority of previous studies in the field solely conducted correlation analysis while further analysis is worth investigating too. Conspicuously, more research is needed, especially in L2 context where the shortage of research exactly addressing the relationship between LLS use and motivation types is undeniable.

In short, it appears that there exists a relationship between motivation and what LLSs the learners use and how often these strategies were utilized. Nevertheless, the effects of different strategy groups and motivation types on the relationship have not been clarified thoroughly enough. This, along with the room for improvement in previous research, became the rationale behind the present study.

3. Research questions

This study was conducted to, first, identify the range of learning strategies used by the English majors at ULIS, and, secondly, the popular motivation types among them. Finally, it aimed at disclosing the role of their motivation types in explaining and predicting their use of LLSs. Briefly, the study sought to answer three questions:

1. What is the range of language learning strategies used by the English major students at ULIS?

2. What are their dominant types of motivation for English language learning?

3. What is the power of motivation types in predicting EFL students' use of language learning strategies?

4. Methodology

4.1. Participants

123 third-year undergraduates majoring in English at ULIS were the sample in this study. A vast majority of the participants were at the age of 21, and their first language was Vietnamese. Although the number was set randomly and was not the total number of the English major students (which was about four times higher for third year students and much more greater for the whole university, at the time of the study), the sample was large enough for a high chance of receiving a good reliability index later on and large enough for the authors to make valid generalization.

4.2. Instrument

After the pilot and consultation, the questionnaire was finalized and delivered to

the EFL students. Although the informants were Vietnamese, the fact that they all majored in English and the researchers would serve as the questionnaire administrators to assure the most detailed and supportive instruction and assistance caused researchers to decide English as the language of the questionnaire.

Basically, the questionnaire included two main sections: one pertained to the students' use of LLSs, and the other was about their motivation to learn English (See Apendix).

The first section of the questionnaire adopted fifty statements in the SILL by Oxford (1989). There were six parts A, B, C, D, E and F corresponding to Oxford's six types of LLSs: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies respectively. Each group was composed of the statements mentioning strategies used by language learners. For this section, the participants were required to rate how true these statements were for themselves on the scale of five options from (1) *never or almost never true of me* to (5) *always or almost true of me*. Oxford (1989) also suggested the way to interpret the mean scores of the students' self-ratings. If the means are equal 4.5 or above (out of 5), the strategies are always or almost always used; if from 3.5 to less than 4.5, the strategies are usually used; if from 2.5 to less than 3.5, the frequency is medium, and the strategies are sometimes used; if from 1.5 to less than 2.5, the strategies generally are not used; if the mean is less than 1.5, the strategies are never or almost never used. This scale was applied to the interpretation of the results in this study as well. Besides, the validity of Oxford's questionnaire has been proven to be high through many tests, researches, and reviews (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989), and in this study, the Cronbach alpha was also high at .883.

The second section of the questionnaire consisted of 19 statements as to the students' motivation types. They divided into four parts of integrative, instrumental, resultative, and intrinsic motivation. In the first two parts, the items were adapted from Gardner (1985) and Hernandez (2006). The four items in the integrative motivation part mentioned the reasons related to the language beauty, the English culture and the people especially those from English speaking regions. Conversely, the eight items of the instrumental motivation part were about practical reasons to learn English, for example, the helpfulness of English in traveling and working in oversea environment, in getting better jobs, qualifications and in schooling. Next, adjusted from the investigation of Madrid and Pérez (2001), three items of the third part were designed to obtain information about learners' resultative motivation. Particularly, these items helped to identify if the study results negatively or positively affect students' motivation and how strong the influences are. Finally, intrinsic type was discussed in the last part with three items asking about learners' love and enjoyment for learning English itself. These items were from Tsai and Chang's (2013) questionnaire.

Besides, this section of the questionnaire also applied the 5-point Likert ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (5) *strongly agree.* Moreover, the way to interpret the mean scores was made compatible with the system used for the frequency of LLS use presented above. That is, if the mean scores were equal 4.5/5 or higher, the students' motivation was considered extremely high; if from 3.5 to less than 4.5, their motivation was high, if from 2.5 to less than 3.5, it was at medium level; if from 1.5 to less than 2.5, their motivation was low; if less than 1.5, the students were not motivated at all, or extremely low. Concerning the reliability, the Cronbach alpha of the motivation section was high at .860.

4.3. Procedures

After piloting the questionnaire with eight university students and consulting with the research supervisor, the researcher finalized the questionnaire and administered it to the students. When the instrument was delivered, the respondents were helped to understand the topic and purpose of the questionnaire. The overall guide was given in Vietnamese orally so that the students could fully understand what exactly they had to do to complete the questionnaire. The respondents filled in the form under the researcher's observation and they were encouraged to ask questions and give suggestions. Finally, the uncompleted answers or those with seemingly random ticks were excluded, and only the completed questionnaires were collected and counted. These answers were then used for data analysis.

5. Results

5.1. The range of language learning strategies used by the English major students at ULIS

The means of students' self-rating frequency of using six categories of LLSs is given in Table 1. Based on Oxford's (1989) scale, the frequencies of using LLSs were at a medium level (3.31/5), that is, the majority of the students did not usually practice LLSs. It can be seen that among six groups of LLSs, metacognitive and social ones were exploited most frequently by the subjects. Metacognitive type was the only LLS type that reached the mean score slightly above 3.5 (out of 5), which signifies that they were usually used by the students (Oxford, 1989). All LLS groups other than metacognitive had their mean frequency between 3 and 3.5, which means the students sometimes used these sorts of LLSs. Among them, memories strategies were the least frequently used.

Table 1. Mean scores of the students' self-ratings on their use of LLSs (N=123)

Strategy categories	Mean	SD	Rank
a. Memory	3.059	1.026	6
b. Cognitive	3.332	0.937	4
c. Compensation	3.341	1.003	3
d. Metacognitive	3.510	0.937	1
e. Affective	3.194	1.131	5
f. Social	3.428	0.948	2
Strategy use overall	3.311	0.284	

More specifically, the most and the least popular LLSs across all six groups are displayed in Figure 1. Out of fifty strategies, twelve strategies had the means over 3.5/5, which made them most frequently used strategies (11b - 50f in Figure 1). The values ranged from 3.53/5 to 3.98/5, determining that these were usually used strategies. Out of every ten students asked, from five to seven answered that they usually or always employ these strategies. Noticeably, one-third of these strategies belonged to the category of metacognitive type (type d), the most frequently used type.

At the other end of the spectrum are seven most rarely used strategies (5a – 43e in Figure 1), of which the means were from 2.73/5 to 2.93/5. That means these strategies were sometimes utilized by the students. Only less than 30% of respondents reported a regular use of these strategies. Moreover, it is noteworthy that nearly two thirds of them were memory strategies (type a), the most rarely used type.

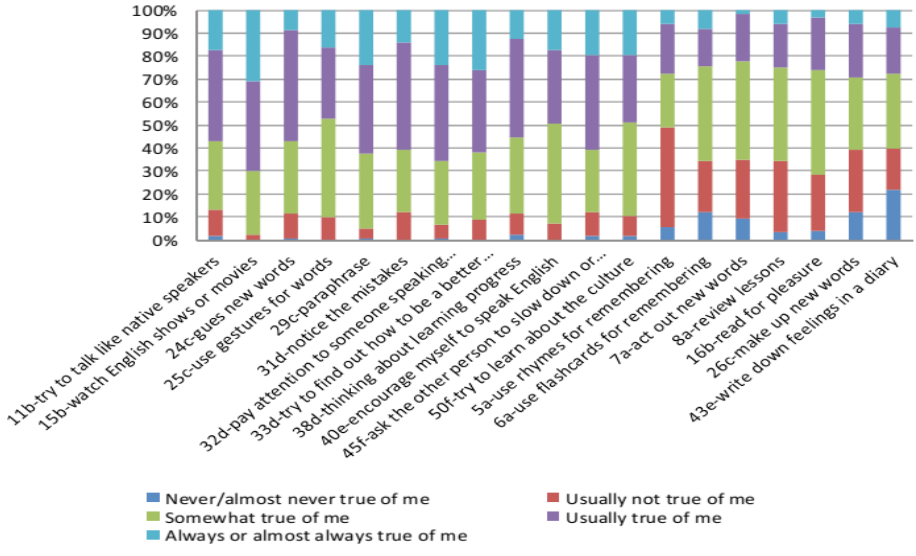

Figure 1. The students' frequency of using the most and the least popular strategies (N = 123)

5.2. The students' types of motivation for English language learning

Table 2 summarizes the mean scores of students' self-rated motivation levels for motivation in general and all four types in particular. Figure 2 presents in detail how the respondents rated their motivation. It can be seen that the average rate for motivation, in general, was at a high level (3.781/5). Moreover, ranging from just slightly under 3.5/5 to roughly 4/5, the means for all four motivation types were also high. This means the participants had strong motivation for learning English. 17 out of 19 given reasons for English learning were agreed by more than half of the participants. Among the four types, the second type or instrumental motivation was of the highest level and became the most dominant (3.961/5). This type had a huge 70% or above of the participants confirming agreement on nearly 80% of the listed reasons for learning English. It also possessed the most sizeable proportion of the respondents asserting their substantial motivation (eight out of nine statements got the strong agreement from more than 30% to nearly 45% participants). Figure 2 also indicated that six most motivating reasons belonged to this type (English was helpful for travel, career, business, further education, and development update).

Table 2. Mean scores of the students' self ratings on their motivation (N = 123)

Motivation types	Mean	SD	Rank
1. Integrative	3.730	0.971	2
2. Instrumental	3.961	0.977	1
3. Resultative	3.488	0.984	4
4. Intrinsic	3.607	0.995	3
Motivation overall	3.782	0.266	

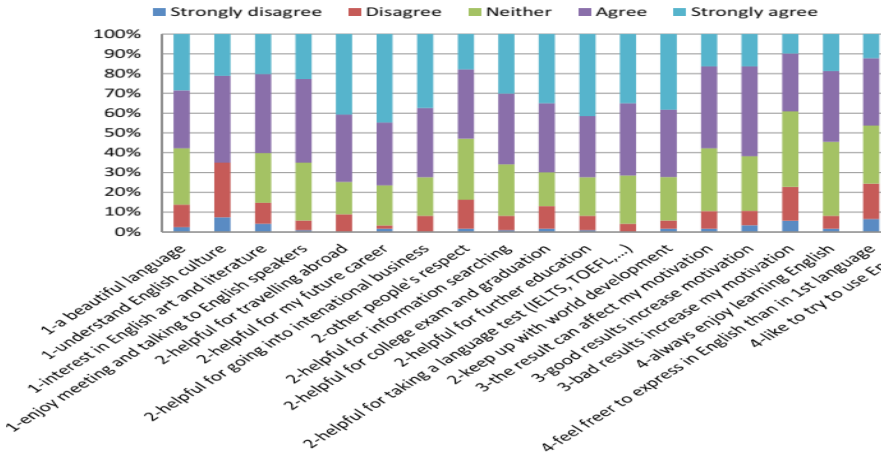

Figure 2. The students' motivation for learning English (N = 123)

Instrumental motivation type was followed by integrative, intrinsic, and resultative one. Only the resultative type was under 3.5 – the cut score for the high level of motivation; however, the gap was just negligible (3.487 vs. 3.5). The resultative type also had the statement that was least agreed as a motivator: Only less than 40% of students thought their motivation increased as a result of bad results or failures in English learning and using. Even though being the least motivating, the mean score for this statement still signified a medium level of motivation (3.2/5).

5.3. The relationship between students' use of LLSs and their motivation types

A Pearson product moment correlation was run to examine the correlations between variables (See Table 3). In general, the students' motivation significantly correlated with strategy use. The correlation was positive and at a moderate level ($r = .341$, $p < .001$). This means the students who had a higher level of motivation for learning English tended to use strategies in learning English more frequently. However, this relationship was modified by the categories of LLSs and types of motivation. The students' general motivation was not interrelated with compensation and affective strategies but significantly correlated with the rest of strategies types, and the strongest correlation was with social strategies ($r = .349$, $p < .001$). For the overall strategy use, it correlated with all types of motivation except for the resultative one, and the strongest correlations were with intrinsic and integrative types ($r = .333$ and $.331$ respectively, $p < .01$).

Table 3. Correlations between the students' use of LLSs and their motivation (N = 123)

	Strategy	Memory	Cognitive	Compensation	Metacognitive	Affective	Social
Motivation	.341***	.206*	.310***	.173	.290**	.131	.349***
Integrative motivation	.331**	.172	.312***	.211*	.282**	.099	.352***
Instrumental motivation	.234**	.133	.217*	.172	.209*	.022	.256**
Resultative motivation	.163	.208*	.071	-.046	.147	.197*	.110
Intrinsic motivation	.333**	.156	.350***	.092	.248**	.224*	.334***

* p< .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

Taking specific LLS groups and motivation types into consideration, it can be seen that cognitive, metacognitive, and social strategies were significantly correlated with integrative, instrumental, and intrinsic motivation while memory group only related significantly with resultative motivation. Differently, compensation category merely correlated significantly with integrative motivation, and affective strategies only correlated with resultative and intrinsic types. It is evident that memory and compensation groups had the tiniest number of significant correlations with four motivation types (only one). In the case of motivation types, it was resultative motivation which had only two significant correlations with strategy categories (with memory and affective strategies). By contrast, integrative and intrinsic motivation possessed the highest number of significant correlations with LLS use (4 out of 6). The instrumental one correlated significantly with three strategy groups (cognitive, metacognitive, and social).

In order to find out how strong different types of motivation could predict the students' LLS use, multiple regression analyses were conducted (See Table 4).

Table 4. Predictive power of the students' motivation types in explaining their LLS use (N = 123)

Step	Predictors	R	R^2	ΔR^2	ΔF
1	Intrinsic motivation	.333	.111	.111	15.114***
2	Integrative motivation	.378	.143	.032	4.452*
	Excluded variables: resultative motivation, instrumental motivation				
1	Integrative motivation	.331	.110	.110	14.908***
2	Intrinsic motivation	.378	.143	.033	4.641*

* p< .05, *** p < .001

In the first place, a stepwise regression analysis was run with all four types of motivation (See the top panel of Table 4). However, instrumental and resultative motivation were excluded from the model, leaving intrinsic and integrative motivation two significant predictors. Intrinsic type was placed at Step 1, significantly contributing 11.1% to the variance of strategy use (ΔF = 15.114, $p < .001$). Coming into the model at Step 2, integrative motivation also made a significant contribution, adding an additional 3.2% to the variance of LLS use (ΔF = 4.452, $p < .05$).

After that, to ensure the predictive power of intrinsic motivation in explaining LLS use, a hierarchical regression was implemented only with the two motivation types (intrinsic and integrative). The order was reverse to the first regression model (See the bottom panel of Table 4). In particular, entering at the first step, integrative motivation contributed significantly to the variance of LLS use (ΔR^2 = 11%, $p < .001$). Intrinsic motivation was entered at the second step after controlling for integrative motivation. The result showed that intrinsic motivation still significantly explained 3.3% of the variance of LLS use, remaining a significant predictor (ΔF = 4.641, $p < .05$).

Overall, in four types of motivation, only integrative and intrinsic motivation were significant predictors of language learning strategy use.

6. Discussion

This research was conducted to examine the relationship between LLS use and motivation of English major students at ULIS. Generally, these two variables correlated significantly with each other and two types of motivation, that is, integrative and intrinsic motivation were shown to be significant predictors of LLS use.

Addressed in the first research question, the students' English learning strategy use came to light. The finding was that, generally, the participants did not often make use of LLSs in learning English. The most frequently used strategies were metacognitive strategies, followed by social, compensation, cognitive, affective, and memory strategies. This finding was consistent to Al-Hebaishi (2012), Al-Qahtani (2013), Chand (2014), Doan (2012), Hayati (2015), Le (2011), Nguyễn and Trịnh (2011), Nguyễn, Trịnh, and Huỳnh (2012) in that metacognitive strategies were used the most often by the students. This indicates that students gave a higher priority to centering, arranging, planning and evaluating their own learning. They, to a lesser extent, paid attention to how to deal with their learning materials (cognitive strategies), benefit from socializing with others (social strategies), and make up for their knowledge limit by using strategies (compensation strategies). The most rarely practiced were controlling and sharing feeling strategies (affective strategies) and memory strategies. In the same fashion, Doan (2012) also proved that affective and memory strategies were utilized much less than other strategy groups. These above findings can be justified by the students' study level and their major. Tertiary education is normally accompanied by a higher level of self-study and learning autonomy, which can lead to the superiority of metacognitive strategy use over other strategies. Moreover, the participants also specialized in English, so, understandably, they did care about the progress and achievement in English skills – their major, and this is what metacognitive strategies deal with. Furthermore, their English possibly had reached the level that memorizing English vocabulary or structures ceased to be a burden or the main focus to them. As a result, memory strategies were the least frequently used.

The second question's concern was the students' dominant types of motivation. The results revealed that they were strongly motivated to learn English, and their motivation level of each type was high. This might be the result of the fact that the participants majored in English. It was likely that they had to think over to decide on what they would like to pursue before taking the university entrance exam, and the decision was often based on their desire, their strengths, and family's suggestions. Hence, to a certain extent, the students would have an internal interest in learning the language and the culture. Moreover, they were working with English in focus and probably preferred to make a living mainly by taking advantage of their English skills. Hence, the special significance of English in study, graduation, and future career made their instrumental motivation reach a high level. In this study, the students' instrumental motivation was stronger than their integrative motivation, which was consistent with the findings and conclusion by Al-Qahtani (2013), Dörnyei (1990), Gupta and Woldemariam (2011), Lukmani (1972), Rehman et al. (2014), Nguyen (2013), Warden and Lin (2000), and Yu (2014). Moreover, it was also the strongest type of motivation for the participants, followed by integrative, intrinsic, and resultative one. For the case of resultative type, the students' motivation level

was at a medium level. However, it should not be interpreted that the respondents were not highly motivated by the results of their English learning because the score for resultative type was averaged out to some extent by the third statement referring to the influence of bad results and failure on their motivation. Instead, it should be understood that good results and success in learning English were much more encouraging for the majority of students than bad results and failures.

Finally, the third research question focused on the relationship between motivation and LLS use. It was found that the students' motivation correlated significantly, positively, and moderately with the frequency of using LLSs. This finding is completely in keeping with the studies by Al-Qahtani (2013), Baleghizadeh and Rahimi (2011), Gupta and Woldemariam (2011), Lau and Chan (2003), Liu et al. (2014), Khamkhien (2010), Matsumoto, Hiromori, and Nakayama (2013), Oxford and Nyikos (1989), Schmidt and Watanabe (2001), and Xu (2011) which claimed that as the level of students' motivation increases, the frequency of using LLSs tends to increase.

Among six groups of LLSs, cognitive, metacognitive, and social were interrelated most closely to motivation types, which might result from the higher frequency of using these categories of LLSs. This result is in line with Schmidt and Watanabe (2001). Concerning four motivation types, the integrative, instrumental, and intrinsic types were rated higher than resultative one, and they also correlated more strongly with LLS use than the resultative type. Intrinsic motivation was shown to possess the strongest relationship with strategy use, followed by integrative motivation. Obviously, this supports the findings by Vandergrift (2005), Baleghizadeh and Rahimi (2011), and Al-Qahtani (2013) which asserted that intrinsic motivation correlated more strongly with strategy use than extrinsic motivation, and integrative motivation correlated more strongly with strategy use than instrumental motivation.

Of great concern was the contribution of motivation types to the use of LLSs, which has not been investigated much in the field of L2 learning. Among these four types, only intrinsic and integrative motivation significantly contributed to LLS exploitation, becoming two significant predictors of strategy use. It is interesting to note that although instrumental motivation was the dominant motivation type for the EFL learners, it did not correlate with LLS use as strongly as intrinsic or integrative motivation and could not significantly explain or predict their use of LLS. Somehow, the findings were comparable with Al-Qahtani's (2013) which reported that the students were motivated more instrumentally than integratively, but it was integrative motivation that correlated more strongly with strategies. In the case of the current research, it is possible that the students' level of instrumental motivation was above the sufficient level for predicting LLS use, so it lost the power in predicting LLS use. For resultative type, the absence of its contribution to LLS use might be due to the fact that it was not rated as a strong motivation by the participants.

Obviously, it was shown in this study that the relationship between motivation and LLS use was not only mediated by motivation level but also motivation types, which lent support to the view that the relationship between EFL learners' motivation and LLS use was affected by many aspects of motivation other than motivation level (Al-Qahtani, 2013; Baleghizadeh & Rahimi, 2011; Ehrman, 1990; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989, 1995; Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001; Vandergrift, 2005).

Furthermore, the results also gave evidence for previous conclusions by Baleghizadeh and Rahimi (2011), Grabe (2009), Guthrie and Wigfield (2000), Liu et al. (2014) that intrinsic motivation plays a prominent role in language learning. Concerning the finding about integrative motivation, the present study also supported the argument that integrative motivation was a significant contributor to the students' success in L2 learning while instrumental type was not (Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005; Yu, 2013).

Observably, the results of the current study were not congruent with some other studies such as Lukmani (1972) and Warden and Lin (2000) which favored instrumental motivation and gave no evidence for integrative motivation in L2 learning. However, it should be taken into consideration that these studies did not concentrate on the LLS use. In fact, there has been only a modest number of studies on this topic. More importantly, as mentioned before, it was conceded that motivation can change over time or vary as a result of changes in learning achievement, learning environment, learning contexts, beliefs and emotions (Brown, 2007; Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003; Grabe, 2009; Mazumder, 2014; Waninge, Bot, & Dörnyei, 2014; Xu& Case, 2015). This, to some extent, can account for the variations and conflicts in findings across studies to date.

7. Conclusion

On the whole, this research investigated the relationship between the ULIS English major students' use of language learning strategies and their motivation types. First and foremost, it was found that all the LLSs were used by the majority of respondents, but they did not utilize them regularly in general. Among six groups, only metacognitive strategies were used on a regular basis. For all the other categories, the strategies were sometimes applied by the surveyed students. Relatively, metacognitive and social strategies were exploited the most frequently. In contrast, two classes of memory and affective were the least familiar strategies. Secondly, the students had strong motivation for learning English in terms of all the four types addressed, that is integrative, instrumental, resultative, and intrinsic motivation. Among the four, instrumental motivation was of the highest level. Lastly, the relationship between LLS use and motivation was enlightened. In general, these two variables significantly correlated with each other. Motivation types were presented to correlate most strongly with cognitive, metacognitive, and social strategies, and strategy use was interrelated significantly with all motivation types except the resultative one. Furthermore, LLS use was significantly explained and predicted only by intrinsic and integrative motivation.

Helpful implication can be drawn from this study. Firstly, using the SILL by Oxford (1989) and motivation questionnaires can be very helpful for language teachers to understand more comprehensively about their own students: what strategies they use, and what motivates them the most. The teachers, then, can help them by raising the students' awareness of learning how to learn the language, explicitly introducing LLSs in language sessions, or designing strategy-based instruction. To motivate learners' motivation, the instructors should be flexible and opt for appropriate ways depending on situations. Besides reminding the students of the advantages of being proficient at English, or designing the tasks that could prove the usefulness of English skills, the instructors could also give the learners opportunities to expose to English culture (literature, movies,

people,…), organize intriguing activities, give constructive and encouraging feedback to inspire their students, and even play a role model of a teacher who is intrinsically motivated to teach English.

However, the study still had some limitations. First of all, the instruments making use of self-report had certain inherent limitations, which, in fact, was common in the research of this field. Further study should recruit more participants to gather more reliable data, and the students of disciplines other than English should be of concern. Also, interview or think aloud method can be employed along with questionnaires to obtain more insightful results.

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ĐỘNG LỰC HỌC TRONG DỰ ĐOÁN VIỆC SỬ DỤNG CHIẾN LƯỢC HỌC NGOẠI NGỮ CỦA SINH VIÊN CHUYÊN NGÀNH TIẾNG ANH TẠI TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC NGOẠI NGỮ - ĐẠI HỌC QUỐC GIA HÀ NỘI

Bùi Thiện Sao, Dương Thu Mai

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Tóm tắt: Bài nghiên cứu tập trung tìm hiểu vai trò các loại động lực học tập trong dự đoán việc sử dụng chiến lược học ngoại ngữ của sinh viên chuyên ngành tiếng Anh tại Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ - Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội (ULIS). Phiếu hỏi đã được sử dụng để thu thập thông tin từ 123 sinh viên. Phần thứ nhất của mẫu hỏi nhằm xác định tần suất sinh viên sử dụng chiến lược học trong việc học tiếng Anh và phần thứ hai thu thập thông tin về mức độ các loại động lực học tập của sinh viên. Kết quả chỉ ra rằng tất cả các chiến lược đã được sử dụng bởi phần lớn những sinh viên tham gia nghiên cứu, và trong số bốn loại động lực học, loại động lực mang tính phương tiện (instrumental motivation) có mức độ cao nhất. Quan trọng hơn, nghiên cứu cũng chỉ ra mối tương quan thuận rõ ràng giữa động lực học và việc sử dụng chiến lược học ngôn ngữ. Cuối cùng, tiến xa hơn các nghiên cứu tương quan, nghiên cứu này tiếp tục áp dụng phân tích hồi quy để tìm ra sự đóng góp rõ ràng của động lực hòa nhập cộng đồng (integrative motivation) và động lực nội sinh (intrinsic motivation) trong dự đoán, giải thích việc sử dụng các chiến lược học. Một số ý nghĩa sư phạm cũng được rút ra từ kết quả nghiên cứu.

Từ khóa: chiến lược học ngoại ngữ, động lực học ngoại ngữ, sinh viên chuyên ngành tiếng Anh, người học ngoại ngữ, phân tích hồi quy dự đoán

APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION 1: Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (Version 7.0 (ESL/EFL) ©R.L.Oxford, 1989)

Please put a tick on the appropriate number that tells **HOW TRUE OF YOU** THE STATEMENT IS.

1	2	3	4	5
Never or almost never true of me	Usually not true of me	**Somewhat true of me.**	Usually true of me.	Always or almost always true of me

PART A: Memory strategies						
1	I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.	1	2	3	4	5

2	I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I use rhymes to remember new English words.	1	2	3	4	5
6	I use flashcards to remember new English words.	1	2	3	4	5
7	I physically act out new English words.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I review English lessons often.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	1	2	3	4	5
Part B: Cognitive strategies						
10	I say or write new English words several times.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I try to talk like native English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
12	I practice the sounds of English.	1	2	3	4	5
13	I use the English words I know in different ways.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I start conversations in English.	1	2	3	4	5
15	I watch English language TV shows or go to movies spoken in English.	1	2	3	4	5
16	I read for pleasure in English.	1	2	3	4	5
17	I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.	1	2	3	4	5
18	I first skim an English passage (read it quickly) then go back and read carefully.	1	2	3	4	5
19	I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	1	2	3	4	5
20	I try to find patterns in English.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	1	2	3	4	5
22	I try not to translate word-for-word.	1	2	3	4	5
23	I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	1	2	3	4	5
Part C: Compensation strategies						
24	To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.	1	2	3	4	5
25	When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	1	2	3	4	5
26	I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	1	2	3	4	5
27	I read English without looking up every new word.	1	2	3	4	5
28	I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	1	2	3	4	5
29	If I can't think of an English word, I use words or phrases that mean the same thing.	1	2	3	4	5
Part D: Metacognitive strategies						
30	I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	1	2	3	4	5
31	I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	1	2	3	4	5
32	I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	1	2	3	4	5
33	I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	1	2	3	4	5
34	I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.	1	2	3	4	5

35	I look for people I can talk to in English.	1	2	3	4	5
36	I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	1	2	3	4	5
37	I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	1	2	3	4	5
38	I think about my progress in learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
Part E: Affective strategies						
39	I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	1	2	3	4	5
40	I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
41	I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	1	2	3	4	5
42	I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.	1	2	3	4	5
43	I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.	1	2	3	4	5
44	I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
Part F: Social strategies						
45	If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or to say it again.	1	2	3	4	5
46	I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	1	2	3	4	5
47	I practice English with other students.	1	2	3	4	5
48	I ask for help from English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5
49	I ask questions in English.	1	2	3	4	5
50	I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION 2: Motivation for language learning

Please answers the following questions by putting a tick on appropriate number:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Neither**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

PART 1: Integrative motivation: *I learn English because…*						
1	I love the language as it is such a beautiful language.	1	2	3	4	5
2	It will enable me to understand and appreciate more the English life style and culture.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I am interested in English art and literature (music, movies, stories, articles, …).	1	2	3	4	5
4	I enjoy meeting and having conversations with friends or people who speak English, especially those from English speaking countries.	1	2	3	4	5
PART 2: Instrumental motivation: *I learn English because...*						
1	English will help me if I should ever travel abroad.	1	2	3	4	5
2	English will be helpful for my (future) career (get good job or promotion).	1	2	3	4	5
3	It will enable me to involve or go into an international business.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Other people will respect me more if I know English.	1	2	3	4	5

5	I will be able to search for information and materials in English for my assignments.	1	2	3	4	5
6	English will help me to pass my exams and graduate from the college.	1	2	3	4	5
7	It will enable me to further my education.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I need the language in order to take a test in future. (IELTS, TOEFL, TOIEC, …).	1	2	3	4	5
9	It will enable me to keep up with development of world economy, science and technology (globalization)	1	2	3	4	5
PART 3: Resultative motivation						
1	My results or achievement in English learning increase or decrease my motivation.	1	2	3	4	5
2	My motivation increases as a result of GOOD results, SUCCESSES, the prizes, praise in English learning and using.	1	2	3	4	5
3	My motivation increases as a result of BAD results or FAILURES in English learning and using.	1	2	3	4	5
PART 4: Intrinsic motivation						
1	I always enjoy learning English.	1	2	3	4	5
2	I feel freer to express myself in English than I do in first language.	1	2	3	4	5
3	I would like to try to use the English.	1	2	3	4	5

General information

Name: _____

Class: _____

Age: _____

Thank you for your cooperation!

LEARNER-CONTENT INTERACTION IN AN ONLINE ENGLISH LEARNING COURSE AT A VIETNAMESE UNIVERSITY

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Abstract: Interaction plays a critical role in both traditional and online learning processes. For online learners of English, interaction with the course content is especially vital because it provides them with necessary knowledge in language competence and contributes to the success of online learning. This paper presents the findings of a study about learner-content interaction in an online English language learning course implemented at a university in Vietnam. The study findings reveal that the learners were confident in using the online course, but they did not particularly appreciate its usefulness. The study suggests that in the context where online language learning is at infancy like Vietnam, providing continuous technical support is crucial to promote autonomous learning.

Keywords: learner-content, interaction, usefulness, macro skills, automatic speech recognition (ASR), Vietnam

1. Introduction

Globally, online learning has become a popular trend thanks to the boom in the application of the Internet in education in general and language learning in particular. Past studies have shown that there are many benefits for learners in online language learning, especially for shy ones who find face-to-face interaction a big challenge (Wu & Liu, 2012; Wu & Marek, 2013). Some of those benefits include increased confidence, motivation and ability for learners to communicate with peers, especially with native speakers of the target language they are studying. Among the three types of interaction (learner-learner, learner-instructor and learner-content interactions) (Moore, 1989), the interaction between the learner and course content plays an important role because of its contribution to the success of the learning outcomes and course completion (Tuovinen, 2000; Zimmerman, 2012).

Since the beginning of computer assisted language learning (CALL), attention has been paid to the development of content (e.g. materials and interactive exercises) for online courses to foster learners' macro language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) and language areas (e.g. grammar, pronunciation). With the participation of both computer experts and language educators, online language courses have been able to provide learners with various activities or exercise types such as multiple choice, matching, point-and-click and simple form filling. Most of the exercises are designed with task-based instruction, which is useful

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to second language learning (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009).

As for *listening* skills, the use of computer and web technology has been proven to make learners' listening comprehension more effective and efficient in which learners can get instant feedback on their performance (Bui, 2004; Roussel, 2011; Giang, 2004). Regarding *reading*, empirical studies have claimed that technology enhances learners' comprehension of input, and reading comprehension (Taylor, 2009). In terms of online language *writing*, the application of advanced technology has made immediate corrective and targeted feedback possible (Dodigovic, 2007) and learners' frequency of editing their own written works increases (Yoon, 2008). In respect of *speaking*, it has been claimed in the literature that with automatic speech recognition (ASR) technology learners can improve their pronunciation proficiency and speaking skills accordingly (Carey, 2004; Chiu, Liou, & Yeh, 2007).

One of the critical issues concerning learner-content interaction is the usefulness or quality of the interaction. In developing countries, where online learning at the higher education level is still in its infancy (Satar & Özdener, 2008), the assessment of quality of course content has not been considered seriously. The implementation of an online course is sometimes based on the decision of the management board with little consultation with instructors or learners and there are concerns about the content of the online course (Chiu et al., 2007). Another important issue is the relationship between quantity and quality of learners' interaction with the content. Some researchers posited that there was a positive correlation between access rates (or time on tasks) and final grades (Chen, Zhang, & Liu, 2013; Zimmerman, 2012). However, other researchers viewed that it was the quality that mattered, not quantity of interaction, i.e. the amount of interaction time or the scores they get from doing online tasks (Garrison & Cleveland-Innes, 2005; Lee, 2012). In some instances, higher education institutions made interaction with content compulsory to ensure highest possible frequency of interaction. However, some researchers have suggested that standard for online teaching should not contain arbitrary thresholds for required interaction (Grandzol & Grandzol, 2010).

One of the purposes of this study is to examine the learners' perceptions about the usefulness of their interaction with the content of an online English course used at a university in Vietnam. The specific research question for this study was:

How useful is the learners' interaction with course content of an online English language course?

The study used Moore's (1989) theory of interaction as a framework to contribute to better understanding of online learner-content interaction in a country where online learning is at infancy; English is a foreign language; the learners are considered passive and technological and online teaching pedagogy are yet as advanced as in the developed countries (Dang, 2010; Le, 2013; Satar & Özdener, 2008).

Moore's (1989) theory of interaction posited that in distance education in general and online learning in particular there are three types of interaction: learner-content, learner-instructor and learner-learner. It is very important to make a clear distinction among these three types of interaction in order for educators to agree on the concept and to avoid misunderstanding in the use of different media. Of these three types, learner's interaction with content of subject of study is the process that shapes educational

experiences, resulting in changes in the learner's knowledge, perspective, mindset, etc. In the oldest form of distance or online learning, this type of interaction was mostly one way and learning was largely self-directed. Nowadays, with the development of advanced information technology, there is more automated interaction whereby learners can 'talk' to the computer and get instant feedback from it.

2. Method

2.1. The participants

The participants in this study were 210 first year students who used an online English course (described below) as part of their four-year study for a Bachelor of Arts degree specializing in interpreting and translation at a Vietnamese university. In the first two years of this degree, they focused on English language practice, both in traditional (face-to-face) classes and online. In the traditional classes (about 12 hours per week), the participants studied macro language skills with the lecturers, some of whom were also assigned to supervise the learners' online study. At the beginning of the study programme, the learners were given a half-day orientation session on how to use different components of the online course (see below).

2.2. The course

The online course in this study was a commercially available language learning platform (https://www.edusoftlearning.com/learning-solutions/) used at a Vietnamese university. The main content of this course was grouped into three levels of English proficiency: basic, intermediate and advanced; each of which was further divided into sub-levels as shown in Figure 1. Depending on the learners' level of English (suggested through the placement test), the instructors assigned the learners with some appropriate levels only, or all available levels. Better students might be assigned with all levels so they could work at their own pace while weaker students were assigned with one suitable level only and moved up as they progressed.

Figure 1. Course content

In each level there were eight units, which covered different topics such as family life, sports, communication and business. For each unit, the learners had a choice of practicing their listening, reading, speaking and grammar. In each of these components, the learners were advised to follow three steps. First, they should read the 'Explore' section to get some inputs presented in different multimedia formats such as audio, video and text. Next, they had to do the exercises in the 'Practice' section, for example filling in blanks, answering questions and matching. The learners often received instant automated

feedback from the system about the correctness of their answers. Finally, they could move on to the 'Test' section to consolidate what they had done in the previous steps.

The course included the automatic speech recognition (ASR) technology in the listening and speaking practice entitled *Record Yourself*. After doing their listening comprehension practice, the learners selected different sentences to listen and repeat. Their repetition was recorded, and scores were given to tell them the accuracy of the oral production, which was sent to the instructors for comments. In the speaking component, the learners could do the same, and/or enhance their verbal reaction by responding to prompts in a dialogue. The majority of speaking practice in this course was mainly in the form of 'listen and repeat'. Figure 2 illustrates an example of the system's response to the learners' oral production.

Figure 2. Record yourself tool

In the above example, a learner listened to the sample sentence, "*Well, Duke, it motivates me, for sure*" as many times as necessary to acquire the pronunciation of individual words as well as the stress and rhythm of the whole sentence. Afterward, s/he recorded the sentence and received the visual display of the score (e.g. 45%-58%) showing the match between the learner's oral production and the sample one. This repetition and recording could be done as many times as the learner wished in order to increase the score. However, the system could not tell the learner which individual sound(s) that were rightly or wrongly pronounced, nor could it provide instructions on how to improve the performance.

In addition to the above-mentioned content, the online course also had supplementary components to help the learners enhance their vocabulary, idioms and fixed expressions as well as general knowledge through various reading comprehension materials.

The above online course was used in a blended mode at the university. At the beginning of each semester, the instructors, who were also the class lecturers, assigned all the learners with some study levels (e.g. Intermediate 2 & 3) depending on the learners' level of English. The learners were also required to complete 80% of interaction with the content of the assigned levels before the end of the semester tests. However, there was little integration between what the learners had to practice in the online course and what was taught in the classroom. The content of the online course was not included in the end-of-the-term tests (usually after every four months of study).

2.3. Data collection and analysis

In this study, learners' interaction with the content of the course was retrieved from the teacher management system (TMS) including learners' time on task. In order to obtain the learners' perception, a survey questionnaire was designed and administered to collect information about the following aspects:

(i) level of confidence in using the online course,

(ii) perceived usefulness of interaction with the course content, and

(iii) suggestions to enhance the usefulness of the course content.

The survey questionnaire was based on the Online Learning Readiness Scale (OLRS) with five dimensions: self-directed learning, motivation for learning, computer/Internet self-efficacy, learner control, and online communication self-efficacy (Hung, 2010). Once the questionnaire was developed it was emailed to five instructors who had experience with the online course. This was aimed to obtain their professional comments and to ascertain face validity and content validity for the instrument. Basing on the feedback of the instructors a few items of the questionnaire were revised to make it more focused on the usefulness of the learners' interaction with the course content. In respect of the reliability of the survey items on the usefulness of interaction with the course content, the mean inter-item correlation was 0.2, which was optimal according to Briggs and Cheek's (1986) recommendation.

The quantitative data from the survey were processed using simple descriptive statistics (Cramer, 2003) and statistical analysis such as chi-square test for independence (Pallant, 2011), using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS - version 21). The qualitative data were analysed using content analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014). The interpretation of the results was facilitated by using Moore's (1989) conceptual framework of online interaction. The following section of the paper presents the study results.

3. Results

3.1. Confidence in using the online course

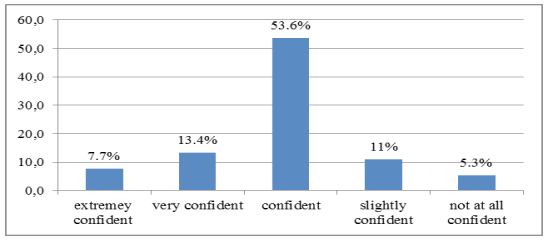

Figure 3. Level of confidence in using the online course

Figure 3 shows that the learners of this course had a relatively high level of confidence in using the course. Over 74.7% of them reported that they were confident or very confident in using it. This result reveals that the orientation at the start of the online study could provide learners with basic skills on how to use the different components of the online course. However, over a quarter of learners were still not confident in the interaction with content, which suggested that continuous support to the learners during the online study time was crucial to maximise what the course offered.

3.2. Perceived usefulness of course content

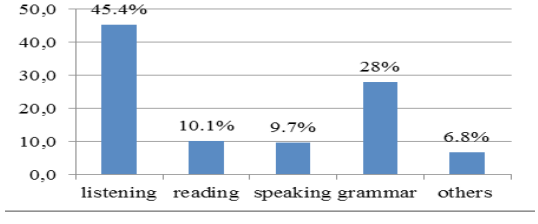

Figure 4. Usefulness of interaction with macro skills and online course

The data in Figure 4 show that the learners found practice with listening and grammar the most useful activities - 45.4% and 28% respectively, followed by doing the reading and speaking practice (about 10% each). Nearly seven percent of the learners did not share their perceptions about their interaction with the course content.

In order to examine if there is an association between the learners' confidence in using the online course and their overall perception of its usefulness, a chi-square test for independence was performed and the result indicated a significant relationship, χ^2 *(df 4, n=209) = 14.8, p=.005*. This seems to show that the more the learners were confident in using the online course, the more they found it useful.

3.3. Time on tasks

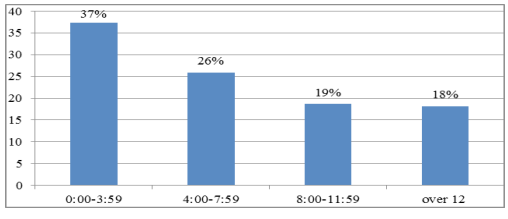

Figure 5. Time on tasks (in hours)

The teacher management system of this online course allowed the researchers to gather information about the learners' total hours invested in the seven months of their online study. Figure 6 showed that the learners who spent less than four hours accounted for almost 40% of the participants. Those who spent over 12 hours accounted for only 18%. Nevertheless, the above data did not indicate the quality of the learners' interaction with the course content. This was consolidated through the results of chi-square tests, which interestingly showed that there was not a significant association between the learners' time on tasks and perceived usefulness of the course content, χ^2 *(df 6, n=209) = 8.3, p=0.22*.

3.4. Learners' suggestions to enhance the course usefulness

In the open-ended question of the survey, the participants were invited to express their suggestions to make the course content more useful in the interaction processes. Their opinions were divided into different groups. While some viewed that the content had to be updated and interesting with more [educational] games and attractive design, others stated that the interaction with the course content should not be made compulsory. There were a few suggestions to link the course content with the end-of-semester tests and improve the quality of the internet connection speed as well as making the course compatible with other operating systems instead of the Internet Explorer only. Others wanted more difficult exercises and varied topics in the study units. Followings are some of their comments:

- Change the browser IE into Google Chrome;

- Easier to access by many ways, not only IE; More attractive design; More useful exercises

- EDO should be upgraded the content as well as the quality of connection. If it can develop the interactiveness, maybe I will be more interested in.

- EDO should delete the grammar part; and improve the sound quality in the listening part; The best thing is that EDO should follow the formal of IELTS.

- More interesting topic & contents; Cheaper; Guided by teacher in each lesson

4. Discussion

The findings detailed in the above section present a few interesting points for discussion.

First of all, in respect of the learners' self-efficacy in using the online course, the study results indicated that the majority of learners were confident in using the course. This result was confirmed through the chi-square tests, which showed significant associations between the learners' confidence in using the course and their perceived usefulness of its content. According to Hung et al (2010) orientation for courses should help the learners encounter as few technical difficulties during their study as possible. This is especially true for a language learning course which is embedded with automatic speech recognition (ASR) technology. Learners need to be efficient in performing such actions as checking the microphone, clicking the record button and hearing their voice again. The failure of any hardware, software (ASR technology) or the performance of the above actions can demotivate learners from oral practice. However, over 16% of the learners were still not confident in using the course. They might have encountered some of the above-mentioned (technical) failure and thus did not find speaking practice particularly useful. Therefore, it is suggested that continuous support from technical staff and instructors be needed throughout the study duration.

Secondly, the learners' highest preference to the practice with the listening skill suggests that this practice was the most useful. During their study at school, little attention was paid by the teachers to this skill, and thus the learners were normally weak at it (Le, 2011; Van,2011). Having a chance to do the listening practice again and again could have helped them improve a lot. This finding supports previous research into this area, which has revealed that learners' listening comprehension is more useful through the use of computer and web technology (Brett, 1997; Lee, 2007; Roussel, 2011). In the current trend of using available online resources such as Youtube, Ted Talk for teaching listening comprehension, it is recommended that pedagogical support (pre-listening, key vocabulary) be provided to learners (Hubbard, 2017).

The learners' lack of preference for the reading skills could have been because of the boredom of the reading practice, both in the traditional and online contexts (Le, 2011). In addition, the automated feedback from the system did not provide the learners with explanations why their answers were right or wrong, unlike in the traditional context. Hence, the learners might have been confused about some of the feedback, especially when they could not comprehend why an answer was incorrect. So although past studies have shown some benefits of using technology to enhance learners' reading comprehension (Leffa, 2012; Marzban, 2011; Taylor, 2009), further investigations are needed to examine the role of such affective variables as interest, motivation and real usefulness of doing online reading comprehension tasks (Abraham, 2008; Shawback & Terhune, 2002).

In respect of speaking practice, the learners of this online course perceived relatively low usefulness of the practice. This was possibly because the speaking practice in the course were mostly 'listen and repeat' in nature. Thus after a certain time of working with it the learners might have become bored and stopped the practice. The result of this study is different from the findings of the study by Chiu at el. (2007) which revealed that the ASR based practice met the learners' expectations of learning English. However, in Chiu's (2007) study, the English major group did not show major improvement after the oral practice. The learners of this study were also English major students, so the simple practice of 'listen and repeat' might not have been useful for them either.

In this study, the insignificant association between the learners' time on tasks and their perceived usefulness of the course content corroborates the results of earlier studies which have revealed that quantitative method of evaluating online learning is questionable (Chen et al., 2013; Sun et al., 2008). In other words, the simple adding-up of the amount of time spent or number of exercises completed did not truly reflect the quality of the interaction. Past studies have revealed that the quality of interaction was more important than that of quantity (Garrison & Cleveland-Innes, 2005; Lee, 2012). Hence, the requirement of making the learners complete 80% of interaction with the assigned study levels before the end of a semester was more of administrative significance than academic one. Indeed, it was suggested by a few researchers that imposing arbitrary thresholds for required interaction might not be an effective measure to encourage online learning (Grandzol & Grandzol, 2010).

5. Conclusion

This paper presents the findings of a study examining the learners' perceived usefulness of the course content of an online English language learning course in Vietnam. Two key conclusions could be drawn from the findings of the study. In terms of macro skills improvement, the learners benefited the most from the practice in listening skills, and the least in speaking skills. Therefore, it is recommended that the design of future online course should be improved to further enhance the learners' oral practice instead of simple 'listen and repeat' or 'listen and respond'. In respect of the quality of interaction, the study indicates that the amount of time invested in doing the online practice did not reflect the quality of interaction. Again, this raises the need to design the online practice to facilitate the learners' meaningful interaction with the course materials. It is the quality of interaction that was more important than the quantity (Lee, 2007).

The practical implications for this study are for both the course managers and to some extent, the instructors. Firstly, the managers should involve the instructors in the development of an online course content as well as the design of the accompanying exercises because they are the ones who provide guidance to the learners during the study processes. They are also responsible evaluating the learners' study outcomes. Hence, the instructors' involvement might be able to create a sense of alignment between online study and overall learning objectives (Koszalka & Ganesan, 2004). In addition, there is a need to involve technological experts to ensure that the developed content is well embedded in an online learning platform to help the learners make the most of the advantages that advanced technologies can offer.

Secondly, the results of this study show that start-up orientation is very important to familiarize the learners with different parts of an online course. Nevertheless, in order for the learners to become autonomous in their online study, it is necessary to provide the continuous guidance and impose certain rules and structures including personal accountability and positive interdependence in the first few months of the study (Abrami et al., 2011). Past studies have shown that CALL and computer-mediated communication seem to be useful in promoting autonomous learning (Wach, 2012), but the learners' autonomy does not occur voluntarily. Similarly, it has been observed by Eneau and Develotte (2012) that learners need the continuous encouragement of instructors in order to build their autonomy

both in self-learning and in cooperating with others. This also raises a challenge for the instructors: coping with pedagogical shift from traditional to online teaching (Vi, 2005).

6. Limitation

The findings in this study are subject to a number of limitations. Firstly, the study was conducted with only one cohort of learners at a Vietnamese university. This means that the study findings might not be transferable to other groups of learners or institutions. Secondly, the study is limited by the lack of rich qualitative data about the learners' interaction with the content. Future studies need to obtain more qualitative data such as interview and focus group discussion to obtain more in-depth information and perceptions from the learners. Alternatively, experimental studies might be needed to gather empirical data about the learners' actual online behaviour both quantitatively and qualitatively including pre- and post- tests to investigate the changes of the learners' English language proficiency over a certain period of online study. Such research will be able to provide more comprehensive findings about the usefulness of learner-content interaction in an online English language learning course.

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TƯƠNG TÁC NGƯỜI HỌC - NỘI DUNG TRONG CHƯƠNG TRÌNH HỌC TIẾNG ANH TRỰC TUYẾN TẠI MỘT TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC Ở VIỆT NAM

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Tóm tắt: Tương tác đóng một vai trò quan trọng trong cả lớp học truyền thống và trực tuyến. Đối với người học tiếng Anh, tương tác với nội dung rất quan trọng vì nó cung cấp cho họ kiến thức về ngôn ngữ và góp phần vào sự thành công của quá trình học trực tuyến. Bài viết này trình bày kết quả nghiên cứu tương tác giữa người học và nội dung của một chương trình học tiếng Anh trực tuyến đã được thực hiện ở một trường đại học ở Việt Nam. Kết quả nghiên cứu cho thấy người học tự tin trong việc sử dụng khóa học trực tuyến này, nhưng họ không đánh giá cao hiệu quả của việc tương tác với nội dung của khóa học. Bài báo khuyến nghị là trong bối cảnh học ngoại ngữ trực tuyến còn đang ở giai đoạn sơ khai như tại Việt Nam, cần liên tục hỗ trợ kỹ thuật cho người học mới có thể giúp họ tự lực trong việc học trực tuyến.

Từ khóa: người học - nội dung, tương tác, hữu dụng, kỹ năng tiếng, nhận dạng giọng nói tự động (ASR), Việt Nam

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear participants,

My name is Pham Ngoc Thach from Hanoi University. I am doing a study on learners' interaction with content of the online course you used last year, the English Discoveries Online (EDO). Please respond to all the questions by ticking one of the boxes or write in the space provided. The survey will take about 10 minutes to complete. Thank you very much for your time.

1. What's your username for accessing EDO? _____

2. By the end of last academic year (May 2013), how long had you used EDO? _____

3. How confident are you in using EDO? Please tick one of the boxes.

Extremely confident	Very confident	Confident	Slightly confident	Not at all confident

4. Which macro skills in EDO are you most satisfied with? Please tick one of the boxes.

Listening	Reading	Speaking	Grammar	Others (please specify)

5. What is your overall satisfaction with EDO? Please tick one of the boxes.

Extremely satisfied	Very satisfied	Satisfied	Slightly satisfied	Not at all satisfied

6. In your opinion, which macro skills in EDO is the most useful? Please tick one of the boxes.

Listening	Reading	Speaking	Grammar	Others (please specify)

7. What's your overall assessment of the usefulness of interaction with EDO? Please tick one of the boxes.

Extremely useful	Very useful	Useful	Slightly useful	Not at all useful

8. Approximately how much was the interaction with the content of EDO contributed to the results of your semester two test last year? Please tick one of the boxes.

Less than 10%	10%-20%	More than 20%	Other percentage

9. What could be done to make interaction with the content of EDO more useful?

10. What could be done to make you more motivated to use EDO?

REPRESENTED SPEECH AS A RHETORICAL DEVICE IN *10+ NIGHTS*

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Abstract: Represented speech has long been a subject of research in linguistics and literary criticism from a variety of perspectives. From a stylistic one, we conduct this study of represented speech in narratives with data from the novel *10+ nights* by Hồ Anh Thái so as to clarify I.R. Galperin's view (1971) which posits that represented speech is a rhetorical device. The paper clarifies the following issues: (i) What is a rhetorical represented speech?, (ii) Is all represented speech in literary works a rhetorical device?, and (iii) If not, what are unique characteristics of rhetorical represented speech? The major methods used in this study include: classification (classifying types of represented speech), description (describing types, patterns and linguistic features of represented speech), and rhetorical analysis (analyzing rhetorical values and impact of represented speech so as to generalize theoretical arguments). The data used for this study include direct represented speech that does not conform to regular rules. This paper starts with concepts of represented speech as a rhetorical device, followed by rhetoric represented speech in *10+ nights* and ways to identify rhetoric represented speech in *10+ nights* before the conclusion.

Keywords: represented speech, rhetorical device, narrative, stylistics, lead-in

1. Concepts of represented speech as a rhetorical device

Represented speech is normally regarded as part of utterances in literary works, but in fact, it occurs everywhere - in everyday speech, in public service and administrative settings, in media, in political pamphlets, or in academic writing. However, not all represented speech acts as a rhetorical device simply because represented speech is primarily the rendition of others' words in such situations as those occurring in literary works, especially in plays.

What is rhetoric represented speech? In *Stylistics* (1971), I.R.Galperin merely provides in passing a pioneering argument that represented speech is a rhetorical device (section on Represented speech, when discussing features of represented speech) without stating a clear definition of rhetoric represented speech. While analyzing represented speech, both pre- as well as post-Galperin stylisticians only dealt with such issues as definition of represented speech, characteristics of represented speech (semantics, syntax and configuration), types of represented speech and identification of represented speech, amongst others (Genette, 1972; Wale, 1989; Asher, 1994; Black, 2006). On the whole, these investigated represented

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speech as a way of organizing utterances rather than consider represented speech a rhetorical device, so they suggested no definitions of this rhetorical device.

We posit that represented speech is a rhetorical device (rhetoric represented speech, hereafter abbreviated RRS for short), since it is used to bring about certain rhetoric impacts on the expression of the content and intent of literary works and provide readers with novel impression. Our investigation reveals that among the three forms of represented speech, namely direct, indirect and free, the direct form can be utilized creatively so as to reach the best expressive effects. This is the reason why we decide to study direct represented speech in this paper (and our previous ones as well) and consider its rhetoric effects.

2. RRS in *10+ nights*

In narratives, represented speech always consists of the lead-in (of the narrator) and the actual words (of the character, or the quote). Also, it consists of linguistic elements, such as expressions that name the character, verbs of speaking, thinking or manner of speaking, amongst others, and possibly other elements describing the character's countenance, gestures, states of mind, etc. Graphically, quotes are placed after a colon in quotation marks on the same line or on another line with a dash at the beginning instead of quotation marks. A full-stop ends the quote before another line begins. Technically, the direct, actual words of the character are separated from the lead-in of the narrator. Lexically, in quotes, the first person is always used when the character is referring to him/herself, and quotes are normally of the spoken register. Grammatically, or structurally, verbs are conjugated in the Present tense (in inflectional languages), and the sentence occurs as direct forms of interrogative, exclamative or imperative utterances, together with appropriate punctuation marks. The represented speech that comprises all of these features is an ordinary one, which is trivial and void of rhetorical values and impact; it is by no means a rhetorical device, so it is not the subject of our research.

Examining *10+ nights* by Hồ Anh Thái, we could collect 242 instances of direct represented speech as a rhetorical device out of a total of 290 instances of represented speech in the novel. Hereafter the paper will classify and present specific features of direct represented speech as a rhetorical device (in the view presented above in Section 1).

2.1. Composition and patterns of rhetoric represented speech

Our investigation reveals that rhetoric represented speech (RRS) in *10+ nights* mostly occurs as (i) intertwined speech of both the character and the narrator (217 out of 242), and (ii) utterances of several characters, which formulates dialogues (25 out of 242).

2.1.1. Speech of one character intertwined with that of the narrator

These direct RSs in *10+ nights* appear in the following pattern:

Pattern 1: ***Lead-in + Quote***

2.1.1.1. ***The lead-in*** *in this pattern falls into 3 types:*

a. The lead-in is a declarative statement that includes a verb of speaking and occurs sequentially to others without any graphic signs to separate it from the quote. In terms of position, it may precede or follow the quote, e.g.

(1) Mỗi cô dắt về là một cuộc khởi đầu. <u>Tất nhiên phải được giới thiệu trân trọng</u>. *Mẹ*

ơi đây là đây là.(1) Bà mẹ gạt đi ngay… (Hồ Anh Thái, 2007, p. 18)

Each girl introduced was a beginning[1]. Naturally they had to be introduced formally. *Mom, this is so-and-so.* The mother instantly diverged from the topic.[2]

b. The whole RS is a narrative, including an S-V construction consisting of verbs of speaking without graphic signs to separate it from the quote, e.g.

(2) Đạo diễn bảo *tại kĩ thuật non kém của ta làm hỏng phim tôi.* (Hồ Anh Thái, 2007, p. 157)

The director said that *our poor technology ruined my movie.*

c. The lead-in occurs as a normal construction, with verbs of speaking or manner of speaking, separated from the quote with colon (:), e.g.

(3) Vẫn cái giọng kia leo lẻo: *số điện thoại này hiện không liên lạc được xin quý khách vui lòng gọi lại sau*. Thì thế, ít ra cũng gieo lại một tí hi vọng để còn chờ đến một lần sau tuyệt vọng.

The same voice twitters: *The number you call is currently unavailable. Please call again later.* Well, so, at least it sows a bit of hope for another time waiting in vain.

Among the 3 types, (a) is used the most, with 87 out of 137 instances while (b) and (c) occur less, with 26 and 24 out of 137 instances respectively.

2.1.1.2. ***The quote*** *in this pattern is structured as 3 types:*

a. The quote is a sentence, grammatically very much like a statement (with punctuation marks), separated from the lead-in as an independent one (example (1)), and without graphic markers of direct speech;

b. The quote is part of the sentence (normally a complement after verbs of speech, as in (2)), but is not separated from the lead-in and without graphic markers of direct speech;

c. The quote is part of the statement but structured as a sentence which is separated from the lead-in by a colon (:), with the initial letter normally capitalized (as in (4)), or not (as in (3)), e.g.

(4) Thiếu phụ có câu cửa miệng với những người đàn ông đến chơi nhà: *Thôi về làm gì, ở lại đây mà ngủ cho vui.* Cho vui. Trắng mặt ăn tiền. Ai muốn nói mình dễ dãi cũng mặc. Ai vui tính thì coi là đùa. Ai tin thật thì ở lại thì đúng là thật. (Hồ Anh Thái, 2007, p. 71).

The lady always said to her male visitors: *What are you heading home for, just stay here overnight for fun.* For fun. Shameless to make money. Who says I am a slut, I don't care. To humorous people this is a joke. To those who believe in the words and stay, things would turn out that way.

Pattern 2: ***The quote***

This occurs alone as a quote "mingled" among statements, e.g.

(5) Người đàn ông và người đàn bà cần có một căn phòng. Họ đến mượn căn hộ này của người bạn. *Cần phòng à, ôkê, quá đơn giản*. Người bạn tỏ vẻ thông cảm hiểu biết… (Hồ Anh Thái, 2007, p. 8).

The man and the woman needed a room. They borrowed this apartment from a friend. *Need a room, ok, a mere piece of cake.* The friend appeared empathic…

or part of a statement, e.g.

1 The examples are presented in the following format: the underlined is the lead-in, and the *italicized* is the quote. These graphical representations are ours, not in the original.

2 The translation here is mere literal rendition rather than refined literary re-creation of the original for the sake of readers' understanding.

(6) Đêm đêm công nhân vệ sinh vẫn còn phải xách đèn chai nện ủng cồm cộp đi vào *ông ơi mở cửa cho tôi thay thùng*. (Hồ Anh Thái, 2007, p. 13).

Each night, sanitation workers had to stamp their boots, with a light in a bottle in their hands, *please open the door for me to replace the toilet bucket*.

The quote in this pattern is always a sentence (as in (5) and (6)) although graphically there is no indication (initial letter not capitalized, no punctuation mark at the beginning of a sentence, as in (6)).

Pattern 1 was used more by Hồ Anh Thái (137/217 instances) while Pattern 2 was used less (80/217 instances).

2.1.2. Quotes from several characters (conversations)

Like quotes from one character, quotes from different characters appear in two forms:

Pattern 3: ***Lead-in + Conversation***

2.1.2.1. There are two types of ***lead-in*** *in this pattern:*

a. Only one lead-in for the whole conversation. The lead-in is normally presented together with utterances in the conversation and separated from the characters' utterances by a comma (,). The lead-in can be put in the final utterance, e.g.

(7) Chính xác tình trạng của người đàn ông khi bị kẹt lại trong căn hộ này. Điện thoại di động đời mới nhiều chức năng gọi cho bạn bè. *Tìm cho tớ xem ông trồng chuối hột ở đâu? Nộm hoa chuối à, tớ biết một nơi nhậu có nộm hoa chuối đậm đà khó quên, đến nhà hàng ở Láng Hạ nhé. Khỉ gió*, <u>người đàn ông phải văng tuc ra</u>. (Hồ Anh Thái, 2007, p. 28).

Exactly the situation of the man who got stuck in the apartment. New types of mobile phones have more functions when calling friends. *Find me the banana grower? Banana flower salad, I know a restaurant with banana flower salad, unforgettable taste, come to the one on Lang Ha Street. Dammed you,* <u>the man had to swear.</u>

Alternatively, the lead-in can be in the initial utterance, e.g.

(8) <u>Nói tiếp câu nữa</u>, *không phải nộm hoa chuối, lão họa sĩ trồng chuối hột ấy. Cái gì? Thằng chuối hột nó làm sao? Nó nợ nần gì mày? Sao nói năng gì như kẹt băng thế?* (Hồ Anh Thái, 2007, p. 29).

<u>Another utterance continues</u>, *not banana flower salad, the artist who grows banana. What? What with the banana grower? He owes you anything? Why mumbling as if there's a nut in your mouth?*

Another form of lead-in is like a statement that is separated from the conversation, e.g.

(9) <u>Chín giờ ba mươi mới có hồi âm của kẻ thứ hai</u>. Cho tao gui loi chia buon. Tao dang o sai gon di choi cho lon, khong ra duoc.

May khong ra duoc nhung may co the bao mot thang nao di tim thang Hoa Si Chuoi Hot, bao no ve ngay. (Hồ Anh Thái, 2007, p. 31).

<u>Response from the second did not come until 9:30</u>. Send him my sympathy. I am in Sai Gon, visiting Cho Lon now, cannot come there.

You can't come but you can ask some guy to find the Banana Artist and tell him to come back instantly.

b. A conversation may have different lead-ins to utterances of various characters, although there may not be lead-ins for every one of them. On the other hand, even when there is lead-in, both the lead-in and the quote are not graphically marked for identification. Sometimes it is impossible to distinguish the lead-in from the direct or indirect RS, e.g.

(10) Chuyện trò rộn ràng dẫn đến hỏi thăm về gia cảnh (i). Anh bảo anh hai vợ (ii). <u>Anh</u>

gọi vợ hai ơi chào các dì đi (iii). Cô nhân tình khoanh tay chào (iv). Vợ hai nói chuyện với các dì cho vui đi (v). Cô Mơ Khô quay ra than phiền có anh chồng đào hoa đi đâu gái theo đó (vi). Mấy bà già rôm rả chèng đéc ơi, một lúc mần luôn hai zợ ngon lành, pháp luật có cho giấy kết hôn không con (vii)? Anh nói thản nhiên thuận vợ thuận chồng chẳng cần giấy tờ đâu các dì ơi, con chỉ sợ nhất là cả hai vợ đoàn kết đồng lòng bao vây cấm vận chồng (viii). Con làm sao cho công bằng zậy con (ix)? Con chia ngày, vợ một ngày chẵn, vợ hai ngày lẻ, chủ nhật thì góp gạo thổi cơm chung (x). Tất nhiên cũng có ngày con nhầm, đi nhậu về lơ mơ nhầm một thành hai hai thành một (xi). Nhưng các cô ấy cũng tự giác, nhầm là tự ý gọi lái xe đến chở con trả về đúng nhà (xii). Không cô nào lợi dụng hoàn cảnh để xài thêm một suất (xiii). Thế là nhà yên (xiv). (Hồ Anh Thái, 2007, p. 143-144).

The lively talk led to inquiries of family circumstances (i). He said he had 2 wives (ii). He called my second wife, say hello to these aunts (iii). The lover folded her arms and said hello (iv). My second wife, please talk to the aunts (v). Mo Kho complained of having a Don Juan husband – girls follow him wherever he is (vi). The older women chatted boisterously oh my god, having two wives simultaneously, so good, any marriage certificate from the authority, guy (vii). He replied shamelessly we get on well with each other and agree there's no need for that paper, what I fear most is that both wives join hands to ban their husband (viii). So how do you ensure fairness to both (ix)? Every other day, madams. First wife on even days, second on odd days, Sunday all together (x). Well, naturally sometimes I am confused. Drunk, I am confused between them (xi). Well, but they are fair and honest. If I am confused, they call my chauffeur to drive me to the right home (xii). Neither of them takes advantage of the circumstance to get more than agreed (xiii). So peace to all (xiv).

The RS in (3), (6), (7) and (8) are direct ones with lead-in, but are presented successively together with quotes without separating marks. RS (3) and (6) resemble both direct and indirect ones.

2.1.2.2. ***Quotes in conversations*** are largely a sentence or several sentences presented separately or as part of sentences together with lead-in. Graphically, quotes in conversations look livelier than quotes from single characters thanks to various punctuation marks (e.g. question marks at the end of utterances in (7), (8) and (10)).

Pattern 4: ***Conversation***

Pattern 4 contains no lead-in but only the represented speech. There are 2 types in this pattern:

a. Type 1: Only the conversation appears between narrative parts. The author does not use any lead-in for utterances by different characters nor any separating marks. The whole conversation appears like a narrating part without clear direct utterances, and it is also difficult to identify who says what, e.g.

(11) Cả bốn gã đều ngớ cả ra. *Nó bảo sai sai cái gì. Hợp đồng sai thì bố đứa nào dám kí. Thôi thì mày kí đi. Điên à, nhỡ nó ghi tao nợ nó triệu đô tao cũng kí à. Còn tao không sợ triệu đô nhưng cái hợp đồng dài ngoằng nội dung Việt gian phản động diễn biến hòa bình thì sao. Thôi đợi họa sĩ cởi mở về. Mà lão biến đâu nhanh thế nhỉ?* (Hồ Anh Thái, 2007, p. 41-42).

All the four guys were astonished. *He says sign something, what to sign. Who dares to sign incorrect contracts. Ok, you sign it. Crazy, will I sign it if it says I owes him one million bucks. I do not fear one million bucks but what if that lengthy contract contains counter-revolutionary content against the government. Well, wait for the open-minded*

artist to come back. Where on earth has he vanished so quickly?

In this example, all the sentences from the second to the last one are conversation among 4 characters, but there are no lead-ins and no graphic marks to indicate who says what.

b. Type 2: No lead-ins for each character in the conversation, but there are graphics to identify them. Specifically, SP1 (speaker 1) is consistently marked with different lines and the quotation marks " ", while SP2 (speaker 2) is marked with different lines and the dash at the beginning, e.g.

(12) Thực đơn theo yêu cầu thực khách thì người cung ứng cũng có yêu cầu.

"Cháu cần mua một môbai chụp ảnh. Năm triệu. Sẽ có đủ thực phẩm cho chú ăn năm ngày nữa". (SP1)

- Sao biết chú cần ăn năm ngày nữa? (SP2)

"Cháu tạm tính vậy. Đồng ý chi năm triệu không chú?" (SP1)

- Chú cần biết là tiền ấy không dùng mua ma túy hay hùn vốn giải thưởng đua xe. (SP2)

"Cháu sẽ trình chú cái <u>môbai</u> mới. Hôm qua đứng chơi Bờ Hồ, thấy <u>cu rùa chĩa đầu</u> lên mà không chụp được. <u>Bỉ mặt</u> trước bạn bè quá" (SP1) (Hồ Anh Thái, 2007, p. 221).

The menu meets diners' demands, so suppliers have demands too.

"I need a camera mobile phone. 5 million. Will supply you with enough food for 5 more days." (SP1)

- How can you know I need to eat for 5 more days? (SP2)

"I just guess. Agree with 5 million?" (SP1)

- I need to know that money is not for drug or contributing to racing prizes. (SP2).

"I will show you the new <u>mobile phone</u>. Yesterday I hanged around Hoan Kiem lake, and saw <u>Old Turtle raising his head</u>, but I couldn't take a shot. <u>Lost my face</u> while friends were around." (SP1)

Patterns 3 and 4 are used more frequently, with 11 and 14 out of 242 instances respectively, but much less than patterns 1 and 2.

As the organization of lead-in and quotes in RRS in *10+nights* analyzed above shows, graphically, unlike other novels by such authors as Nguyễn Huy Thiệp, where RRSs stand out with clear markers and boundaries, and both lead-in and quotes normally share the same structures (Nguyễn Thị Thu Thủy, 2016a), RRSs in *10+ nights* are not in focus. Instead, they mingle with the narrator's words. Both the lead-in and the quote fall within the same statement or paragraph as if they were in the same speech flow. There are no graphic markers for the lead-in and quotes in most cases. All boundaries of direct speech are blurred and unmarked. However, Hồ Anh Thái's RRSs resemble those of Nguyễn Huy Thiệp in that they are organized as a set of (repetitive) patterns with high density and frequency: 242 RRSs in 4 patterns out of 290 in *10+ nights* while Nguyễn Huy Thiệp uses 1140 RRSs of the same pattern in the total of 1180 RSs in his 7 different novels (Nguyễn Thị Thu Thủy, 2016b). Such an RRS organization clearly demonstrates the author's artistic intent while generating novel, fascinating impressions on readers. This means various options avail for organizing RRSs, but it is important that RRSs should differ from normal RSs, and RRSs should be repetitive in a certain number so as to form a pattern. We believe this is a crucial feature of RRSs that apparently distinguishes them from normal RSs.

2.2. Word use in RS

2.2.1. Word use in lead-in

In RSs with lead-in's, lead-in's mostly contain verbs of speaking (130/147), verbs of manner of speaking or expressions related to the presentation of speech. No instances are found to be without. Even if they appear, it is difficult to identify them as lead-in's because in most instances, they are presented as successive statements in the narrative flow.

2.2.2. Word use in quotes

Compared to lead-in's, words in quotes are much more lively and richer, which make the language moderner, newer and clearly direct speech. Also, it is this feature that enables readers to identify RRSs in *10+ nights*.

(i) Elements of direct speech are present, including exclamation, colloquial expressions, street slangs, dirty words, local vocabulary, dialectal pronunciation, foreign borrowings pronounced in the Vietnamese way, first and second persons, amongst others, e.g.

(13) Giáo sư Một hồn nhiên tin ngay lời khen: *Đúng phóc, tui đang nói dở tới chổ ảnh hưởng của zăng mưn phương Tây. Tui xing tiếp tục zới ảnh hưởng của zăng hóa Nga, Mỹ ở Ziệc Nam nửa cuối thế kỉ hai mươi.* (Hồ Anh Thái, 2007, p. 201).

(13) Professor Mot naively believed the praise instantly: *Right, ay was talkin' 'bout influences of Vestern [Western] civilization. Now allow me to continue with influences of Russian and American cultures on Vietnam in the later half of the 20th century.*

(with "đúng phóc" (right) being colloquial; while "tui" (ay = I), "chổ" (point), "zăng mưn" (civilization), "xing" (allow me), "zới" (with), "Ziệc Nam" (Vietnam): local dialect pronunciation).

(14) Thầy đuổi trò tồng ngồng chạy vòng quanh cái bục gỗ, thầy chửi bằng giọng miền trong nồng nặc như tiếng Ý. *Tổ cha mi mi từ mô ra ri mần răng mà mi lại ra ri*. (Hồ Anh Thái, 2007, p. 21)

The teacher chased the naked student around the wooden platform, and cursed him in the strong local dialect that sounds like Italian. *Dammed you, how couldja turn out this way.* (with "mi" (you), "mô" (where), "ri" (this), "mần răng" (how) being dialectal vocabulary).

Particularly interesting is the fact that colloquial expressions, slangs, dirty words and borrowings are not only uttered by less educated characters but also educated ones, e.g.

(15) Hồng Kông khen thêm một tiếng ngon đilisớt. *Nó bảo <u>sốt sốt</u> cái gì? Thịt chó không chấm <u>sốt</u>, <u>đồ ngu</u>.* (Hồ Anh Thái, 2007, p. 41)

Hong Kong adds a praise that it's đilisớt [i.e. delicious]. *He said what's <u>sốt sốt</u>. Dog meat does not need to dip in <u>sauce</u>, <u>idiot</u>.*

(16) Giáo Sư Một cũng bất ngờ. *<u>Chếc mẹ</u> tui, hắng bỏ bom tui*. (Hồ Anh Thái, 2007, p. 199)

Professor Mot was also startled. *<u>Paw [poor] me</u>, he trapped me.*

Such words uttered by intellectuals are meant to satire and mock at the vanity of city life, city people, the supposedly educated upper-class, and even villains in artist's disguise.

(ii) Most notable are youngsters' language.

10+ nights is updated with a system of modern language used by youngsters in their vibrant social life with different types of people and different ways of language use from all sources and walks of life, e.g.

(17) *"Cháu sẽ trình chú cái <u>môbai</u> mới. Hôm qua đứng chơi Bờ Hồ, thấy <u>cụ rùa chĩa đầu</u> lên mà không chụp được. <u>Bỉ mặt</u> trước bạn bè quá"* (Hồ Anh Thái, 2007, p. 221).

"I will show you the new mobile phone. Yesterday I hanged around Hoan Kiem lake, and saw Old Turtle raising his head, but I couldn't take a shot. Lost my face while friends were around."

(iii) The presence of ready-made clichés, which are built-in recording (as in (3)), or lyrics of songs stored in phones, e.g.

(18) Chính vào lúc ấy một tiếng huýt sáo làm họ mở choàng mắt. Giai điệu không lời đúng vào cái câu mà họ đều biết. *Và em đã biết nói tiếng yêu đầu tiên*. Không huýt tiếp mà lặp lại. *Và em đã biết nói tiếng yêu đầu tiên*. (Hồ Anh Thái, 2007, p. 212)

Right then a whistle woke them up. The tune without lyrics was the one they knew: *And you say the first word of love*. No more whistling but repeating *And you say the first word of love.*

or idioms and proverbs, e.g.

(19) Vậy là bà thắc mắc. *Vợ chồng như đũa có đôi. Uyên ương một cặp chẳng rời nhau ra. Người ta mong có đôi để mà đầu gối tay ấp, mong bám nhằng nhằng lấy nhau, mong còn chẳng được, mình thì giương cao ngọn cờ độc lập tự do. Cô có thân mà không biết sướng. Phải tay tôi ấy à, đi đâu cũng phải có ông có bà. Rõ là kẻ ăn không hết người lần chẳng ra chưa kìa ...*

So she wonders. *Couples are like a pair of chopsticks, a pair of pigeons that are never apart. People long to have partners to pillow talk, to stay together, but they may not succeed, while you cherish liberty. You don't know how to enjoy happiness. If I were you, I would never go anywhere alone, always in couple. Well, difference between the have and the haven't...*

(with "đũa có đôi" (a pair of chopsticks), "đầu gối tay ấp" (roughly translated as "pillow talk"), "kẻ ăn không hết người lần chẳng ra" (the have and the haven't) are popular Vietnamese idioms).

2.3. Discussion on RRS in 10+ nights

Based on the analysis above, it is possible to say that Hồ Anh Thái attaches high importance to the art of lead-in, as he creates novel ways of lead-in which are unique so as to bring about impressive impacts. This provides evidence to confirm the view that RS is a rhetorical device.

2.3.1. The most apparent feature of RS in *10+ nights* is the absence of graphic marks (colons, quotation marks, beginning a new line, dash at the beginning of the line, punctuation marks of direct speech like question mark, exclamation mark, etc.) to distinguish lead-in's and quotes, or distinguish RS from normal narration. Almost all sentences in *10+ nights* contain the narrator's words, while few are marked as characters' utterances. Therefore, the narrator seems to dominate. Characters' words are presented successively in the narrative flow, which makes the reader feel that the narrator and the characters are one, and the characters' words mixed with those of the narrator. Thanks to that, it is easier for the narrator to depict the messy society where all values are turned upside down. Furthermore, the absence of graphic markers brings the readers closer and faster to the characters' words because they are not interrupted by colons or quotation marks. Also, the readers are fascinated with the curiosity to decipher who says what.

2.3.2. Lead-in's in *10+ nights* both ensure consistency and rules (as shown in the 4 generalized models and types), and freedom (as shown in a rich variety of forms apart from what was presented in 2.1), all of which endows Hồ Anh Thái's RS with diversity and strong, unique impression of the author's innovation in organizing speeches in his novel.

2.3.3. The introduction of colloquial language from all walks of life and social

strata, clichés, idioms as well as modern vocabulary into characters' utterances gives RSs in *10+ nights* their irresistible attraction.

Generally speaking, Hồ Anh Thái did create various breakthroughs that bring the reader novel and thrilling impressions, and generate high impacts in expressing his ideological content and intent in the novel.

3. Ways to identify RRS in *10+ nights*

As is seen, it is by no means easy to identify RS in *10+ nights* since almost all RSs in the novel are unmarked; there are almost no formal indicators. Therefore, we posit that in order to identify RS here, apart from regular graphical markers or lexical indicators, it is necessary to refer to other factors, especially indicators of direct speech. In sum, we can rely on:

3.1. Graphics (colons after the lead-in; quotation marks, dash at the beginning of the line before the quote, comma, question mark, exclamation mark at the end of the quote) in case there are graphics.

3.2. Lexical indicators, including verbs of speaking, verbs of manner of speaking or speech-related words if one wants to find the lead-in.

Meanwhile, quotes can be identified through:

- Elements of direct speech: first person pronouns, exclamation words, colloquial expressions, slangs, dirty words, foreign borrowings pronounced in the Vietnamese ways, etc.,

- Ready-made expressions: built-in recordings in phones, song lyrics, popular idioms and proverbs, amongst others.

3.3. Speech acts

Let us return to example (11):

(11) Cả bốn gã đều ngớ cả ra (i). *Nó bảo sai sai cái gì (ii). Hợp đồng sai thì bố đứa nào dám kí (iii). Thôi thì mày kí đi (iv). Điên à, nhỡ nó ghi tao nợ nó triệu đô tao cũng kí à (v). Còn tao không sợ triệu đô nhưng cái hợp đồng dài ngoằng nội dung Việt gian phản động diễn biến hòa bình thì sao (vi). Thôi đợi họa sĩ cởi mở về (vii). Mà lão biến đâu nhanh thế nhỉ (viii)?* (Hồ Anh Thái, 2007, p. 41-42).

All the four guys were astonished (i). *He says sign something, what to sign (ii). Who dares to sign incorrect contracts (iii). Ok, you sign it (iv). Crazy, will I sign it if it says I owes him one million bucks (v). I do not fear one million bucks but what if that lengthy contract contains counter-revolutionary content against the government (vi). Well, wait for the open-minded artist to come back (vii). Where on earth has he vanished so quickly (viii)?*

All utterances in this conversation appear in the form of narration, but in fact, only (i) is the narrator's act of narrating while (ii) through (viii) are speech acts of the characters in the conversation, i.e. they are direct utterances of the characters.

3.4. Context

In many instances, especially RS without lead-in, or with lead-in but without graphics, it is necessary to rely on contexts, to trace each word of the narrator or characters in order to identify RS.

3.5. Perspective or vantage-point

Foregrounded or backgrounded perspective or vantage points can help identify RS. The character's vantage point always foregrounds the active situation in question while that of the narrator is backgrounded in nature because he/she is describing the situation surrounding the character (Nguyễn Thị Thu Thủy, 2016b).

4. Conclusion

Studies of RS can assume different approaches. This study is based on the

position that RS is a rhetorical device in literary works. As the results reveal, only those RSs which intentionally diverge from conventions can exert rhetorical impacts. Thus, the study explores breakthroughs in RSs in order that novel expressive values can be generated. The results assert that the view of RS as a rhetorical device is fully grounded.

It is possible to identify RRS thanks to their unconventional features. For instance, Nguyễn Huy Thiệp's RRSs are unconventional in RS organization (all RSs are separated from narrating parts, and are the focus of narration. Lead-in's ensure the S + V model, which are short and normally contain ellipses of S; the quotes are also short and may not be relevant to the utterances of other interlocutors) (Nguyễn Thị Thu Thủy, 2016a). By contrast, Hồ Anh Thái's RRSs are either incomplete or without graphics, or mixed and blended with narration. Furthermore, what leads to strong impressions on the reader is the simultanousness and synergy of RRSs, which is intentional by the author.

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THOẠI DẪN - MỘT BIỆN PHÁP TU TỪ TRONG *MƯỜI LẺ MỘT ĐÊM*

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Tóm tắt: Thoại dẫn đã được nghiên cứu từ lâu trong ngôn ngữ học và phê bình văn học với nhiều quan điểm khác nhau. Từ cách tiếp cận phong cách học, chúng tôi nghiên cứu thoại dẫn trong truyện kể (trên ngữ liệu tiểu thuyết *Mười lẻ một đêm* của Hồ Anh Thái) nhằm làm rõ luận điểm của I.R.Galperin (1971) khi ông cho rằng thoại dẫn là một biện pháp tu từ. Bài viết có nhiệm vụ làm sáng tỏ các vấn đề: thế nào là biện pháp tu từ thoại dẫn, có phải tất cả các thoại dẫn trong tác phẩm văn chương đều là biện pháp tu từ không? Nếu không thì biện pháp tu từ thoại dẫn có những đặc điểm gì riêng? Phương pháp nghiên cứu chủ yếu được sử dụng là phương pháp phân loại (để phân loại các kiểu thoại dẫn), phương pháp miêu tả (để miêu tả các kiểu, các mô hình cấu tạo và đặc điểm ngôn ngữ của thoại dẫn…) và phân tích tu từ học (để phân tích giá trị tu từ, hiệu quả tu từ của một số trường hợp biện pháp tu từ thoại dẫn, làm rõ những luận điểm khoa học trong bài viết). Ngữ liệu được chọn nghiên cứu là những thoại dẫn trực tiếp có hình thức dẫn không theo quy chuẩn thông thường. Bài viết gồm có bốn phần: khái niệm biện pháp tu từ thoại dẫn, thoại dẫn tu từ trong *Mười lẻ một đêm*, cách xác định thoại dẫn tu từ trong *Mười lẻ một đêm*, và kết luận.

Từ khóa: thoại dẫn, biện pháp tu từ, truyện kể, phong cách học, lời dẫn

DISCUSSION

TEACHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH LINGUISTICS AT UNDERGRADUATE LEVEL AT THE UNIVERSITY OF LANGUAGES AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES - VIETNAM NATIONAL UNIVERSITY, HANOI: CHANGES OVER THE LAST TEN YEARS

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Abstract: This paper, which is not a research paper, elaborates on the innovations made in English linguistics undergraduate courses at the University of Languages and International Studies - Vietnam National University, Hanoi (ULIS) during the last ten years, from 2009 to 2018. The report on the changes in teaching and learning English linguistics was informed from the 4 published research papers, the contents of which functioned as jigsaw pieces together combining and complementing to make up the complete picture of teaching and learning English linguistics at ULIS over the last decade. The report was also informed from the observation of how English linguistics has been taught and learnt over the last ten years by the author in the roles of a teacher of English linguistics and a course developer at ULIS as well. The comparison between the scenarios of English linguistics teaching and learning before and after 2014 was made, from which the outstanding innovations in teaching and learning English linguistics over the last decade could be seen.

Keywords: English linguistics, innovation, thinking skills

1. Introduction

English linguistics has been taught to English majors at ULIS as compulsory subjects since the English Linguistics Program and the English Teacher Education Program were established about half a century ago. Since then, to align with the innovations in Vietnam's education system and the drive towards higher quality teaching and learning at ULIS, besides the increase in number of courses, the contents of the English linguistics courses have also been changed. From 5 English linguistics courses including phonetics and English phonology, English grammar, and English Semantics, Pragmatics, and Discourse Analysis being taught in 2009, the number linguistics courses at ULIS was more than doubled by 2015. The linguistics subjects currently being taught include: Introduction to Linguistics 1 (an brief introduction to Phonetics and

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English phonology, Morphology, Syntax and Semantics), Introduction to Linguistics 2 (a brief introduction to Pragmatics, Sociolinguistics, Discourse analysis, Critical Discourse Analysis, and language acquisition), English Phonology, English Syntax, English Semantics, Pragmatics, Discourse Analysis, Functional Grammar, Research Methods in Applied Linguistics, Sociolinguistics, Text Editing, Sociolinguistics, and World Englishes. The linguistics contents of the courses were updated, and the expected learning outcome were set to be higher, the teaching methodology and students' learning are changing, too. Such changes have been progressively made over the last decade to meet the demand of the international integration process in education, in which benchmarking with similar international programs is a prerequisite to evidence the quality of the tertiary education programs.

2. Innovation in teaching and learning

Innovation is often said to be a major driver for maintaining competitiveness in a more and more globalised world. Innovation could be defined as:

> '… an idea, practice, or object that is perceived as new by an individual or other unit of adoption…[and] It matters little […] whether or not an idea is "objectively" new as measured by the lapse of time since its first use or discovery. The perceived newness of the idea for the individual determines his or her reaction to it. If the idea seems new to the individual, it is an innovation' (Rogers, 2003, p. 12)

Besides the definition above, there are other definitions that might vary depending on the specific area of application, as innovation is a very broad concept and could be seen in any fields. However, the definitions share the idea that innovation is a general representation for something new and excellent, which means that innovation could be a crucial factor in society development and welfare gains (OECD, 2016).

In education, innovation could be an informed evidence-based change in philosophy of teaching and learning, which leads to adaptation of instructional practices that better promote educational objectives (De Lano, Riley, & Crookes, 1994, p. 489)

As stated by UNICEF, innovation in education does not just mean new technology applied to teaching and learning, but a kind of intervention that could (i) improve learning, equity and systems; (ii) solve a real problem in a simple and clear way (be demand-driven); and (iii) match the scale of the problem it is trying to solve. Educational innovation can be found in processes, services, programs and partnerships [1].

Innovations in curriculum development and teaching methodology started at ULIS in academic year 2011-2012 with a focus on the job-oriented learning outcomes, which are professional knowledge and skills that students will need to prepare for their future jobs. To meet the social demand for high quality human resource in such an era of international integration, the exit requirements of the programs were revised to cover a variety of practical professional skills and wider understanding in different disciplines. Accordingly, English linguistics courses at ULIS have been innovated. The new subjects such as Research Methods in Applied Linguistics or World Englishes were then gradually added to the course list, with the aim to facilitate students with better skills in learning and research and to broaden their view to wider and up-to-date trends in the disciplines, and preparing them better for their future jobs. As one important

[1] https://www.unicef.org/education/

learning outcome is students' ability to use critical thinking skills in a creative way to solve problems that they will meet in their future jobs, students' thinking skills development received more attention from course developing teachers. The learning outcomes set in each course were therefore, revised to focus on thinking skills of high levels. As the course objectives were revised, the assessment tools used in the innovated subjects should therefore be reconstructed to accurately measure the extent to which students achieve these course objectives. The teaching methodology were also changed so as to facilitate students' learning better and to smooth their progress along the way towards achieving the exit requirements.

During academic year 2017-2018, the institutional project of examining the alignment between the expected learning outcomes stated and the teaching and learning activities and assessments employed in ULIS courses, hereby called ULIS OTA alignment examination project, was conducted with the involvement of all course developing teachers at ULIS. During six months from October 2017 to March 2018, these ULIS teachers were guided through the process of reflecting on their own teaching practice, and scanning the syllabi and specifications of assessment types to evaluate the alignment between expected learning outcomes, teaching and learning activities and assessments in ULIS courses. The different stages of ULIS OTA alignment examination project were efforts to locate all the problematic issues that might exist in the program curriculum and educational processes, from which the basis for planning future innovations towards higher education quality could be established.

3. Teaching and learning English linguistics at ULIS from 2009 to 2014 and after 2014

3.1. Sources of data

In this paper, in order to draw a picture of teaching and learning English linguistics at ULIS over the last 10 years, I based myself on three major sources of information: (i) the two papers by Nguyen, Nguyen, Nguyen, and Doan (2015) and Nguyen, Nguyen, Nguyen, and Doan (2016) which report on empirical studies conducted in late 2014, early 2015; (ii) two papers by Nguyen and Nguyen (2017) and Nguyen (2018) which report on innovative action research projects conducted from 2015 to 2017 by teachers of English linguistics of ULIS; and (iii) my own observation as a teacher of English linguistics and a developer of English linguistics courses at ULIS since 2009. Although the scope and aims of the four studies are not quite similar, they all share the aim of investigating how English linguistics was taught and learnt at ULIS.

Source 1: In Nguyen et al. (2015), which focused on the expected learning outcomes of the courses and teaching and learning activities used in ULIS English linguistic classes, and Nguyen et al. (2016), which focused on assessment tools, an overview of how linguistics courses were taught and learnt from 2009 to 2014 was sketched. The data of the two studies were collected from syllabi analysis, test specifications analysis, paper-based questionnaires with students and English linguistics teachers, and interviews with students about the how the learning activities and assessments were conducted in class. The data were then analyzed to see what the expected learning outcomes were set, how the learning activities facilitated students to achieve the expected learning outcomes, and how the learning outcomes could be assessed.

The analysis was based on a thinking-based frameworkdeveloped in accordance with Marzano's thinking skills taxonomy as presented in Table 1.

Table 1. The analytical framework developed in accordance with Marzano's thinking skills taxonomy

No	THINKING SKILLS THAT COULD BE REQUIRED IN LINGUISTIC TASKS	EXAMPLES OF LINGUISTIC TASKS	MARZANO'S TAXONOMY
4.4	*Adapt* the existing rules/framework to investigate the linguistic data	Suggest the strategy to translate English modal devices into Vietnamese	**UTILIZATION LEVEL 4**
4.3	*Experiment or test* the rules/processes in students' own learning	Speak the sentence in Singaporean English accent / using the Falling Tune / the Dive.	
4.2	*Figure out a way to solve* the existing of predicted problem	How can the given Facebook statuses be devoid of sexism?	
4.1	*Decide the best* among the alternatives	Which is the most suitable pragmatic strategy to be used in the situation?	
3.4	*Specify* (to defend or judge) the arguments/viewpoints on a certain issues	Explain how metaphors work in the chosen text.	**ANALYSIS LEVEL 3**
3.3	*Form conclusions* from the findings about linguistic data	What type of genre is being used in the text chosen?	
3.2	*Generalize* in terms of broader linguistic categories/ principles/ visuals	What are the communicative strategies that speaker A uses in the conversation?	
3.1	*Classify, compare and contrast* the issues / different views on the issues	Classify the cohesive devices used in the texts.	
2.4	*Represent* the language chunks using the given models	Analyze the constituents of the clause: *He asked* me *to open the door for him.*	**COMPREHEN-SION LEVEL 2**
2.3	*Illustrate* the linguistic concepts(s) / phenomena	Make 2 clauses in SOV pattern and 2 clauses in SVOC pattern.	
2.2	*Describe* the relationship between the language chunks	Describe the structure of this noun phrase. *The beautiful lady in pink over there.*	
2.1	*Describe the key part* of the language chunks	Transcribe the following words in IPA. *watch, statue, strategic*	
1.4	*Identify* the different types of certain linguistic notions or phenomenon	State the morphological processes in the word: *interpersonal*	**RETRIEVAL LEVEL 1**
1.3	*Determine* if the statements are *true* or *false*	Decide whether the statement is T or F: */m/ and /b/ are bilabial sounds.*	
1.2	*List* the types or *name* the concept(s)/ issue(s) being described	What are the 3 characteristics of antonyms?	
1.1	*Recognize* a concept from a list of descriptions	Circle the definition of conceptual meaning: a. *What the word refers to.* b. *The dictionary definition of the word.* c. *The grammatical category of the word.* d. *The speaker's evaluation on using the word.*	

Source 2: From Nguyen and Nguyen (2017), which highlighted the effects of an innovative intervention of integrating explicit higher-order thinking skills instruction in English linguistics classes at ULIS, and from Nguyen (2018), which presented the results of an action research project where the researcher, also a ULIS teacher of English linguistics tried out a new approach in teaching in her own linguistic class, some main ideas of how linguistics courses were taught and learnt from academic year 2014-2015 upto academic

year 2016-2017 could be generalized. The data of these two studies were collected from assignment analysis, class observation and online questionnaires and interviews with students about the how the learning activities facilitated and assessments required students in their learning. The data in this study were analyzed using the same thinking-based framework in Table 1.

Source 3: As a ULIS teacher of English linguistics and a developer of ULIS English linguistic courses during the period of 2009-2018, I have always been well-informed of the changes in the number of courses, the course design process, the assessment tools used in linguistics courses at ULIS, which are all publicized in the program specification, teaching schedule and assessment schedule. The information of these kinds is used as complementary source to provide the needed information which is out of the scopes of the four studies mentioned. I also take the data related to English linguistic courses from the data bank of ULIS OTA alignment examination project as a reliable reference in sketching an overview of how English linguistics are currently taught and learnt at ULIS. The data in this project data bank were analyzed using Bloom's revised taxonomy. However, to make the comparison between teaching and learning English linguistics at ULIS from 2009 to 2014 and after 2014 possible, data about learning outcomes and assessment tasks in linguistic courses taken from the data bank of ULIS OTA alignment examination project were re-analyzed using the same analytical framework presented in Table 1 as well.

3.2. Methodology

In order to spot out the changes in teaching and learning English linguistics at ULIS from 2009 to 2014 and after 2014, the findings related to teaching English linguistics before 2014 of the studies in source 1 and the findings related to teaching English linguistics after 2014 of the studies from source 2, with the complementation of source 3 were compared. The interpretation and discussion of the changes were in accordance with three big themes: expected learning outcomes, assessments of the learning outcomes, and teaching methodology and student's learning.

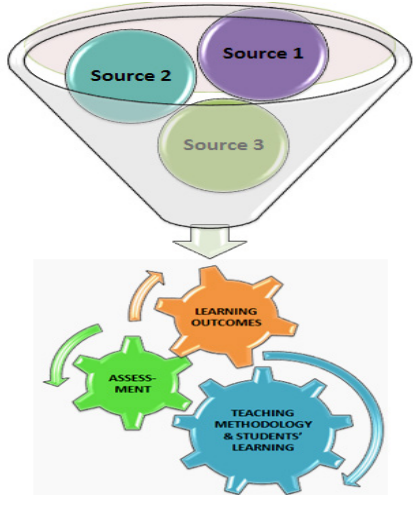

Figure 1. How changes could be identified

The findings about the differences between teaching and learning from 2009 to 2014 and after 2014 were then discussed to figure out the innovations made in teaching and learning English linguistics at ULIS over the period of 2009-2018.

3.3. Findings and discussion

3.3.1. Teaching and learning English Linguistics at ULIS from 2009 to 2014

As detailed in Nguyen et al (2015), the analysis of the 5 syllabi used before 2014 revealed that the expected learning outcomes were not clearly stated but could be inferred from the assessment description that the expected learning outcome were set at quite low levels of thinking skills, focusing on the skills at retrieval and comprehension levels. The action verbs used in 4 out of 5 syllabi were mostly to *understand* or to *demonstrate general understanding* of what students were taught. In the syllabus of the English Semantics course, the learning outcome was set to a higher level in which the students were expected to *carry small research* in Semantics; however, the assessment description, no research requirement could be traced. The expected learning outcome of *applying* what they have learnt in their own study was also mentioned in the course objectives in 2 other syllabi, but not in the assessment description. From my own observation as the teacher of the English linguistics subjects, the *applying* process was expected to be in students' self-study, which means this was not a compulsory requirement; no assessments were set to measure whether this expected learning outcome is achieved.

Tests prevailed as the dominant assessment type in all courses, especially as end-term assessment. The test specifications analysis and the questionnaire data demonstrated that students were assessed with the tasks requiring them to perform at quite low-level thinking skills of Retrieval and Comprehension in Marzano's taxonomy. The most popular types of assessments were tests (mid-term and end-term), to do which students had to *remember* the exact definitions of linguistic concepts like morpheme, tense, or basic noun phrase, to *understand* such linguistic phenomena as homonymy and polysemy so as to identify or distinguish them, or to *conduct simple analysis* using existing models (eg. to analyze the clause elements). Such findings resonated the finding from syllabi analysis that there seemed to be a small mismatch between the expected learning outcomes and the assessments in 3 out of 5 courses (the outcomes were stated higher than how the students were actually assessed).

As mentioned Nguyen et al. (2016), the interview with 19 students confirmed the absence of compulsory requirement of research and application learning tasks, and informed that the common types of learning tasks required students to remember, understand, or do simple analysis of the English texts. The common teaching methodology was purely lecture-based, i.e. the lecture started with teachers' presentation of the new knowledge and then teachers' exemplification of the concepts or issues presented. Many teachers still "follow the familiar path of passing on the fragmented bits of information that students memorize, but still forget" (Newman 1990:41). Apart from this, the linguistics classes, were usually teacher-centered, where the teachers planned and led all the learning activities and assignment in class, provide the keys to the exercises, and their students rarely raised questions on why they needed to learn what they were being taught and if there were any alternative ways to teach and learn more effectively.

The summary of how students were required to learn and be assessed is seen in Table 2.

Table 2. How students were required to learn and be assessed from 2009 to 2014

No	HOW STUDENTS WERE POSSIBLY REQUIRED TO LEARN AND BE ASSESSED	PERCENTAGE OF COURSES
4.4	*Adapt* the existing rules/framework to investigate the linguistic data	0%
4.3	*Experiment or test* the rules/processes in students' own learning	0%
4.2	*Figure out a way to solve* the existing or predicted problem	0%
4.1	*Decide the best* among the alternatives	0%
3.4	*Specify* (to defend or judge) the arguments/viewpoints on a certain issues	0%
3.3	*Form conclusions* from the findings about linguistic data	0%
3.2	*Generalize* in terms of broader linguistic categories/ principles/ visuals	0%
3.1	*Classify, compare and contrast* the issues / different views on the issues	20%
2.4	*Represent* the language chunks using the given models	100%
2.3	*Illustrate* the linguistic concepts(s) / phenomena	100%
2.2	*Describe* the relationship between the language chunks	100%
2.1	*Describe the key part* of the language chunks	100%
1.4	*Identify* the different types of certain linguistic notions or phenomenon	100%
1.3	*Determine* if the statements are *true* or *false*	100%
1.2	*List* the types or *name* the concept(s)/ issue(s) being described	100%
1.1	*Recognize* a concept from a list of descriptions	100%

In short, before 2014, the expected learning outcomes were not set high enough to necessitate students' critical thinking and creativity in learning. Students were expected just to understand linguistic issues and do simple linguistic analyses. There seemed to be a misalignment between the expected learning outcomes and the assessments, and tests were overused as the dominant assessment type in English linguistics courses. The teaching methodology was still very much teacher-centered, and students' learning style was generally passive.

3.3.2. Teaching and learning English linguistics at ULIS after 2014

During the revision of the ULIS English linguistic courses which started from 2012 and almost finished in 2015, all of the courses in English programs were revised in backward design approach, so there was a systematic uniform among the course syllabi. The course contents have been changed to cover emerging issues in the disciplines with updated references. As regards the process of course revision and development, the expected learning outcomes were clearly set out with the use of action verbs first, the appropriate assessment formats to measure the learning outcomes were then decided, then come the teaching methodology and contents that aid students' learning towards achieving the learning outcomes.

As mentioned, in academic year 2017-2018, the six-month ULIS OTA alignment examination project was conducted at institutional scale to evaluate the degree of alignment between expected learning outcomes and teaching and learning activities and assessments of ULIS courses, so that changes could then be planned. The results

from examining the expected learning outcomes, teaching and learning activities, and assessments of 12 English linguistics courses depict a optimistic scenario of students' being required to learn and being assessed in these courses. The changes in terms of expected learning outcomes and assessments as revealed from the results of ULIS OTA alignment examination project could be summarized as below:

(i) The expected learning outcomes as stated in the 2018 syllabi are apparently higher than those set before 2014, which means students are now required to use higher order thinking skills to dig deeper in learning tasks. In six out of twelve courses, the learning outcomes reach level 4 – Utilization in Marzano's taxonomy, which means students are expected to learn at a high degree of independence and creativity. However, in three out of twelve English linguistics courses, the course developing teachers still confine the learning outcome almost to Retrieval and Comprehension levels, with a modest extension to the simplest skill in Analysis level.

(ii) The assessment papers are varied in types, including tests, small quizzes, presentation, reflective writing, problem-based tasks, practical language analysis projects, research essay. Many of the assessment types necessitated students' employment of thinking skills of high levels like *generalizing*, *specifying*, *evaluating*, and *decision making*. All but one learning outcomes as stated were measured in at least one assessment paper.

Table 3 demonstrates the differences in how students were required to learn and be assessed in English linguistics courses before 2014 and how they are currently required to learn and be assessed in these courses.

Table 3. How students are required to learn and be assessed before 2014 and after 2014

No	HOW STUDENTS ARE POSSIBLY REQUIRED TO LEARN AND BE ASSESSED	PERCENTAGE OF COURSES 2009-2014	PERCENTAGE OF COURSES 2014-2018
4.4	*Adapt* the existing rules/framework to investigate the linguistic data	0%	0%
4.3	*Experiment or test* the rules/processes in students' own learning	0%	0%
4.2	*Figure out a way to solve* the existing or predicted problem	0%	33.33%
4.1	*Decide the best* among the alternatives	0%	50%
3.4	*Specify* (to defend or judge) the arguments/ viewpoints on a certain issues	0%	58.33%
3.3	*Form conclusions* from the findings about linguistic data	0%	66.67%
3.2	*Generalize* in terms of broader linguistic categories/ principles/ visuals	0%	75%
3.1	*Classify, compare and contrast* the issues / different views on the issues	20%	100%
2.4	*Represent* the language chunks using the given models	100%	100%
2.3	*Illustrate* the linguistic concepts(s) / phenomena	100%	100%

2.2	*Describe* the relationship between the language chunks	100%	100%
2.1	*Describe the key part* of the language chunks	100%	100%
1.4	*Identify* the different types of certain linguistic notions or phenomenon	100%	100%
1.3	*Determine* if the statements are *true* or *false*	100%	100%
1.2	*List* the types or *name* the concept(s)/ issue(s) being described	100%	100%
1.1	*Recognize* a concept from a list of descriptions	100%	100%

In terms of changes in teaching methodology and students' learning, the empirical research reported in Nguyen and Nguyen (2017) and Nguyen (2018) could inform about some innovative changes.

In Nguyen and Nguyen (2017), an intervention was made in 2 classes of Introduction to English Linguistics 2 (one in academic year 2015-2016 and the other in academic year 2016-2017): providing explicit instructions on using higher-order thinking skills in learning activities – explicitly instructing students how to learn, and providing explicit instructions on using higher-order thinking skills in assessments – explicit instructing students how to perform at their best as well. The intervention was made in two cycles, with the hypothesis that explicit instructions on using higher-order thinking skills in learning activities and assessments was appropriate to promote students' learning and motivation. From the data collected from class observation, assignment analysis, and a group interview with students, it was concluded that the intervention of making thinking skills requirements explicit to students in learning task instructions and assessment instructions was a good choice for teaching Introduction to English Linguistics courses. The students in the class with intervention gradually learnt how to shape their effective learning process, performed better in learning activities and assessments than students in the no-action class, and they became more creative and more motivated in learning. The intervention therefore has now been disseminated to some other classes of Introduction to English Linguistics 2 and other linguistics courses of Discourse Analysis, Functional Grammar, and World Englishes as well. The assessment instruction developed during the research project of Nguyen and Nguyen (2017) has now become the official version for final assignment in Introduction to English Linguistics 2 courses.

In Nguyen (2018), problem-based learning – a modern learner-centered approach, was applied in a two-cycle action research project in two undergraduate Semantics classes (one in academic year 2015-2016 and the other in academic year 2016-2017). With the assumption that problem-based learning could promote students' thinking skills and facilitate their learning, the learning and formative assessment tasks were designed to be problem-based, where students have to make use of the knowledge they had learnt and thinking skills of high levels to solve authentic problems; goal-oriented learning occurred during this process of problem solving. The data collected from class observation, online questionnaire, focused-group interview, and assignment analysis all led to the conclusions that problem-based tasks could effectively facilitate students' learning of linguistics as well as other content subjects; students became

more active and motivated when learning in such a learner-centered approach. The findings of this research project were disseminated and the problem-based approach has been extended to Text Editing and Functional Grammar (undergraduate level) courses and to Semantics course at graduate levels as well.

As a teacher in English Linguistic Division, I could recently hear of project-based learning and teaching activities conducted in ULIS English linguistic classes. However, the innovative attempts are still in progress and no research-based results of these activities have been reported in any published work.

To sum up, in comparison to what happened before 2014, the teaching and learning of English linguistics after 2014, as reflected from results of ULIS OTA alignment examination project as well as in Nguyen and Nguyen (2017) and Nguyen (2018) evidence many changes. In terms of expected learning outcomes, by 2018, the expected learning outcomes are stated explicitly with the use of action verbs in all syllabi of English linguistics courses; the learning outcomes were prevalently set to be at high levels of Analyzing and even Utilization in Marzano's taxonomy (before 2014, the learning outcomes were confined mostly to Retrieval and Comprehensions – the two low levels in Marzano's taxonomy). In terms of assessments, the assessment papers are no longer simply tests, but many other types of assessment (problem-based tasks, practical projects, research essay) have been designed to call for students' employment of critical thinking and creativity. The learning outcomes and the assessments in English linguistics courses were almost perfectly matched. In terms of teaching methodology, research-based attempts to promote students learning and motivation were tried out, reflected, and disseminated. Innovative project-based teaching and learning activities could be observed in some classes, but no research-based results have been publicized yet.

4. Conclusions

Besides the observable increase in the number of courses, when combining and comparing the three sources of data, the following innovations in teaching and learning English linguistics at ULIS could be identified:

In terms of expected learning outcomes of the courses, there has been a noticeable leap from outcomes categorized to be of low levels of Retrieval and Comprehension to outcomes categorized to be of high levels of Analysis and Utilization in Marzano's thinking skills taxonomy in almost every course. In other words, there seems to be a change in teachers' expectation about students moving from surface learning towards deep learning.

In terms of assessments, there is a remarkable enhancement in the alignment between assessments and expected learning outcomes in the English linguistics courses. If by 2014, the mismatch between what was set out for students to achieve and what could be measured about their achievement could be found in 60% of the courses, by March 2018, the alignment between assessments and expected learning outcomes set for all the twelve English linguistics courses was nearly perfect. From the one and only dominant type of tests prevailing as both mid-term assessment and end-term assessment in all courses, by 2018, assessment types has been significantly diversified to include critical-thinking-necessitated types like problem-based tasks, research essays, projects.

In terms of teaching methodology, from the traditional lectured-based and teacher-centered models easily found in any ULIS linguistic classes before 2014, innovations have been made by teachers in different courses in the form of action

research projects. The innovative interventions might be simple and practical as providing explicit instruction on how students should use thinking skills in their learning and assessments, or a bit more complex as designing the learning and formative assessment tasks in the form of ill-structured problems, so that students could be submerged in goal-oriented creative learning in motivating learner-center classroom context. At least two action research projects have been conducted, reflected, and findings publicized for dissemination. Other efforts to innovate teaching methodology related to project-based learning could also be heard of. The observable trend in innovating teaching methodology seems to be a change from being highly teacher-centered to more and more student-centered.

In terms of students' learning, in accordance with attempts to innovate in teaching methodology, changes could be seen in students learning. From passive-learning students who spent most of their efforts in rote learning and who almost never voice up any questions, many students have been able to shape their effective learning process, learn more actively with good motivation in learning.

Despite all the innovations as described, there still exist problems as pointed out in 3.3.2. In the near future, all the problems as identified in the ULIS OTA alignment examination project would soon be solved as planned. The contents in the English linguistics courses at ULIS would be updated to cover the up-to-date issues and trends in the linguistic discipline. The research-based innovations in teaching and learning English linguistics at ULIS as presented would be disseminated on a larger scale.

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DẠY VÀ HỌC NGÔN NGỮ HỌC TIẾNG ANH BẬC ĐẠI HỌC TẠI TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC NGOẠI NGỮ - ĐẠI HỌC QUỐC GIA HÀ NỘI: NHỮNG BIẾN ĐỔI TRONG 10 NĂM QUA

Nguyễn Thị Minh Tâm

Khoa Ngôn ngữ và Văn hóa các nước nói tiếng Anh, Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, ĐHQGHN, Phạm Văn Đồng, Cầu Giấy, Hà Nội, Việt Nam

Tóm tắt: Bài viết trình bày về những đổi mới đã diễn ra trong quá trình dạy và học các môn Ngôn ngữ học tiếng Anh tại Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ - Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội (ĐHNN-ĐHQGHN) trong khoảng thời gian 10 năm từ 2009 đến 2018. Thông tin sử dụng trong bài viết này được lấy từ bốn bài nghiên cứu đã công bố trước đó có nội dung liên quan tới việc giảng dạy Ngôn ngữ học tiếng Anh và từ sự quan sát của tác giả với vai trò là một giáo viên giảng dạy Ngôn ngữ học tiếng Anh, đồng thời là người tham gia xây dựng và điều chỉnh nội dung, quá trình triển khai các khóa học Ngôn ngữ học tiếng Anh tại ĐHNN-ĐHQGHN.

Từ khóa: ngôn ngữ học tiếng Anh, đổi mới, kỹ năng tư duy

BRITAIN'S POLICIES TOWARDS THE EU: INTEGRATION OR FOREIGN POLICY THEORIES?

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Abstract: Together with Brexit has come not only the official spliting of the United Kingdom (UK) from the European Union (EU) but also the question whether scholars and diplomatic officials should approach the relationship between the two partners of the UK and the EU from Integration Theory or Theory of Foreign Policy? This article investigates the effects of both the viewpoints on the practice of certain diplomatic jobs by the UK's goverments towards the EU from 1972 to 2016 and the research works by scholars in the world on this relationship.

Keywords: the UK, the EU, Integration Theory, Theory of Foreign Policy, Brexit

On the 21st, June, 2016, the UK's people gathered together in one of the most important referendums of the history of international relations to vote for or against the exit from the EU, in which the country has been a member since 1972. The referendum results announced later officially marked the victory of the Brexit movement, taking Britain out of the EU, despite all the efforts of the former Prime Minister David Cameron, creating shocks to all the international circles of scholars and diplomatic officials.

1. The process of the UK's joining and integrating into the EU

After the Second World War, nearly all the European countries were severely destroyed and damaged. At first, the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC) was set up by the six countries of France, Germany, Italia, Belgium, Luxembourg and Netherlands "to unite European countries economically and politically in order to secure lasting peace"[1]. In 1957 the European Economic Community (EEC), or "Common Market", was established. Later, the Maastricht Treaty (1992) combined all the three communities of ECSC, European Atomic Energy Community (Euratom), and EEC (or EC since 1993) into one institution named European Union (EU) (Tran Thi Vinh, 2011). "The EU did not set out to become a world power….. But as the Union expanded and took on more responsibilities, it had to define its relationships with the rest of the world."[2] With its 28 members, the EU now has been a world player. "In terms of the total value of all goods and services produced

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[1] https://europa.eu/european-union/about-eu/history_en, retrieved 3:10pm dated 27/7/2018

[2] A world player -The European Union's external relations (2004). http://library.umac.mo/ebooks/b12914940.pdf retrieved 3:46pm dated 27/7/2018

(GDP), it is bigger than the US economy. EU GDP in 2017 with €15.3 trillion."[3]

Being one of the most powerful countries for many centuries, the UK was surprisingly rejected the membership into the EEC (later EC and the EU) in the 1950s and 1960s. In 1961, "Prime Minister Macmillan announced Britain's application for EEC membership" (Pilkington, 2001, p. 14). worrying that the French leadership to the EEC would be affected by the British and that the British, together with the American, were conspiring to paralyse the EU from within, the French President De Gaulle at the time decided to use his veto to stop the British's coming into the EEC. Britain's second application in 1964 met the same reactions from De Gaulle. Despite being rejected the admission into the EEC many times, Britain was persistently determined with the application. This policy aimed at two targets: (1) integrating into and exploiting the purchase power of this potential market in order to strengthen the UK's economy; (2) sweeping the way for NATO (with the USA and the UK being two dominants partners inside) to control this global economic and political institution, making it ready for their confronting policies towards the USSR and its rallies at the time. The UK had to wait until the French President's resignation to be admitted into the Union in 1973 (Pilkington, 2001, p. 14-17).

Until 2016, during 43 years Britain's being in the EU, the relationship between the two partners of the UK and the EU has undergone numerous ups and downs. Just after the signing of the Treaty of Accession in 1972 by Edward Heath's government to fulfill the requirements for the application into the EU, the opposite Labour Party won the 1974 elections "with a manifesto commitment to withdraw from the EC" (Pilkington, 2001, p. 18). The results of the referendum supported Britain's staying with the EU. However, until 2016, Britain had taken part in many important institutions of the EU, including The Single Market, The Court of Justice (of the European Union), the European Council and the European Parliament, ect. but had not taken part in the Schengen (which allows smooth movements within countries in the group) and the Eurozone. These are the reasons why the British are considered to be "an awkward partner" in the Union (George, 1998) In almost all the discussions and negotiations at the EU summit meetings, Britain has been criticized for refusing a closer cooperation with the other members to solve the Union's problems which relate to economic crisis, monetary matters and saving or security to immigrants. In short, before Brexit 2016, Britain in fact has commited a considerable number of exits from the EU.

2. *The Integration Theory* and *The Theory of Foreign Policy*

In Joshua S.Goldstein's opinion, "International integration refers to the process by which supranational institutions come to replace national ones – the gradual shifting upward of sovereignty from the state to regional or global structures" (Goldstein, 1999, p. 427). Let's take the integration within the EU as an example. In order to be accepted into this institution, the British had to sign the Treaty of Accession in 1972[4], which mandated that the laws by the EU be more superior and be prioritized in any member country. In short, part of the country's sovereignty in making laws has been transferred to the EU. The more the country integrates into

[3] https://europa.eu/european-union/about-eu/figures/economy_en, retrieved 3:55pm dated 27/7/2018

[4] https://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/1972/68

the EU, the more of the sovereignty will be handed to the Union. Also, the more the EU itself connects its members into the expanded integration in economy, policies, security, society and culture, the more centralization it creates. Therefore, Joshua S.Goldstein later pointed out: "Integration can mean greater centralization at a time when individuals, local groups, and national populations are demanding more say over their own affairs. The centralization of political authority, information, and culture as a result of integration can threaten both individual and group freedom. Ethnic groups want to safeguard their own cultures, languages, and institutions against the bland homogeneity that a global or regional melting pot would create." (Goldstein, 1999, p. 430)

While the integration theorists look at the Britain-EU relationship from the view point considering that Britain is just part of the Union, and should follow the rules by the EU at any cost, scholars following The theory of Foreign Policy claims that the relationship between the two partners have never been so one-sided; and that we should consider the relationship under the light of state interests – one of the most vital components in foreign policy analysis. The claims are based on the fact that the decision of participating in any regional institution of a country asks for a great deal of calculations and analysis on its national interest beforehand. To the calculating British, national interests have consistently been the utmost important aspects in any policy to appoach close relationship to any partner. Henry John Temple Palmerson[5], one of the greatest British Prime Ministers in the 19th century, ever said: "We have no eternal allies, and we have no perpetual enemies. Our interests are eternal and perpetual, and those interests it is our duty to follow." In one survey by Chatham House in 2012, "47 per cent of those surveyed felt that British foreign policy should support the national interest at all times, even if it meant doing things that might be regarded as unethical." (Edmunds, Gaskarth, & Porter, 2014, p. 29). However, here arises a vital question: "What is a national interest?". Edmunds, Gaskarth, & Porter (2014) state that "national interest is implicitly also one of national identity" (p. 12). The authors then point out that there are six ideal roles that the UK might adopt in world politics to lighten its identity, namely: "isolate, influential (rule of law state), regional partner, thought leader, opportunist-interventionist power and great power" (p. 14). The problem is if the British really keep in minds the roles as mentioned above in the integration into the EU, the conflicts between the two partners are unavoidable.

3. Effects of *The Intergration Theory* and *The Theory of Foreign Policy* on the relationship between the UK and the EU

As discussed in the previous parts of this article, the EU and the UK have approached the integration from different perspectives. The EU, influenced substantially by the liberalism and neo-functionalism, aims at building a concrete "supranational" institution which promotes economic development and healthy competition, equal rights and security to all-EU citizens, free movements of goods, services and labours within the Union. Meanwhile, the British aim at the six model roles, two of which are related to opportunist power and great power. At the same time, the utmost target of the UK in any international relationship is for its national interests. In other words, Britain attaches itself closely to the principles of Realism, which supports the protection and enhancement of national interests through power (Booth, 2011).

[5] https://www.gov.uk/government/history/past-prime-ministers/henry-john-temple-3rd-viscount-palmerston

Here arises a question: if the two partners follow different thinking patterns, why did the British apply for the membership in the EEC in 1972? The answer is at the beginning of the foundation, the EU (former EEC or EC) could be considered a regional organization of economic cooperation. After the Second World War, "from being the world's greatest creditor nation in 1939, Britain had become the world's greatest debtor. Moreover, as a result of the war Britain had lost most of its overseas markets and was expected to run a balance of trade deficit of some 2 billion pounds a year when American Lend-Lease (effectively a form of aid) came to an end, as it did abruptly, in August 1945." (May, 1999, p. 7). However, the next three decades just witnessed the British trials in vain to make the economy as strong as before the War (McDowall, 2002). On the contrary, the next-door countries in the EEC had obtained great success in economy, creating purchasing potentials for goods, services and labours. The decision to ask for membership in this community seemed to have been irreversible, though it was based on merely economic purposes.

One of the first firing conflicts between the two partners used to be the amount of money the EU asked for Britain's membership. In order to receive the agreement, the UK had to pay 20% of the total EU's annual budget while the 8 other countries in the community paid the 80% left. Immediately after Margeret Thatcher came to the power as the Britain's Prime Minister in 1979, the question of British contribution to the EU's budget "arose at Mrs Thatcher's first European Council meeting and dominated discussions in the Council for five years…" (Pilkington, 2001, p. 19). In 1984, the matter was somehow arranged on the basis that Britain would receive 66% of the difference between what they gave and what they got back from the EU funding system, but "the insistent demands made by Mrs Thatcher and her domineering and insulting treatment of her supposed partners had at times almost turned Britain into a pariah in European circles." (Pilkington, 2001, p. 22).

The next Conservative Prime Minister, John Major, tried to console his peers in the EU at the beginning of his time in the office by persuading the British to ratify the Treaty of Maastricht which turned the EC into the EU in 1992. However, Britain's exit from the European Rate Mechanism (ERM) on the 16 September 1992 and the Britain beef ban crisis since 1989 which remained unsolvable pushed John Major to fury. His reactions with the continual use of veto and arguments with peers at EU meetings once again lowered the Britain's ranking in the diplomatic circles (Pilkington, 2001, p. 92-94, p. 136-137). Also, he refused to sign the Social Charter, which is one of the three most important documents of the Treaty of Maastricht.

During 1997-2010, the leaders of Labour Party, Tony Blair and Gordon Brown, came into office. Britain's economy soon gained surprising growth rates and the harmony between the two partners was maintained during Tony Blair's first presidency. However, his decision to support the USA in the bombing of Iraq in 2001 created fusion among the other EU members, especially Germany and France (Blair, 2013). To Gordon Brown, he was criticized because he did not try to take Britain back into the ERM and the Eurozone, despite the fact that the country's economy had been running better and at the time was abundantly eligible to access into both. (Do Ta Khanh, 2013)

David Cameron (2010-2016) became the British Prime Minister when the world and EU economies had been shattered away with the global economic crisis starting in 2008. With his wisdom and skillful leadership, Britain maintained the highest growth rates in the EU, continuously being around 3% annually from 2013-2016 (Do Ta Khanh, 2013). However, his

economic austerity would not allow him to be more generous towards the other EU members who were suffering badly and were waiting for the support from the UK. David Cameron was also criticized severely for refusing to share the burdens by the immigrants with the others (Chu Thanh Van, 2018). However, it is necessary to emphasize that the job of being British Prime Minister is extremely demanding. On the one hand, the country asks him to protect its citizens' rights first. On the other hand, peers with the integration disciplines in mind force him to distribute the British wealth to all EU citizens, together with the immigrants coming to the continent from poverty of Asia and Africa. Keeping the balance between the two has never been an easy experience to any leader of the UK. Brexit really took place on the 23rd June, 2016, which put an end to the awkward positions to both the UK in the EU and David Cameron.

In short, starting with different thinking patterns and disciplines, the actions by both sooner or later would go into different ways, which is illustrated vividly by the example of Britain - EU relationship as described above. "It was perhaps inevitable that the British should see themselves not only as unique amongst Europeans, but also as separate and different; and that British policy towards the continent should be characterized by 'splendid isolation'" (May, 1999).

4. Effects of *The Intergration Theory* and *The Theory of Foreign Policy* on the approach to research on Britain - EU relationship by scholars

Different perspectives and approaches to Britian - EU relationship not only affect practical jobs by diplomats and politicians but also direct scholars to different routes and theoritical frames of their research works.

Conventionally scholars who look at the Britain - EU relationship from the Integration Theory would normally try to measure Britain's integration into the Union in different areas (security, economy, social culture, etc.). Or else, they may analyse the contributions by Britain to the EU's three main "pillars" of integration, as assigned in the Treaty of Maastricht[6]. Among them, the first pillar – The European Communities – handled economic, social and environmental policies within member countries; the second pillar of The Common Foreign and Security policy (CFSP) concerned about foreign policies (usually to the countries outside the Union) and military matters in the region or in the world; and the third pillar named Police and Judicial Co-operation in Criminal Matters (PJCCM) saw to cooperation in the fight against crime both in and outside to protect people and institutions within the EU. Numerous works by foreign and domestic scholars have proved to follow this discipline, such as *Europeanization and Multilevel Governance - Cohesion Policy in the European Union and Britain* by Bache (2008), *International Politics on the World Stage* by Rourke (2008), *The Reluctant European* by the Economist (2015), *In Defence of Europe: Defence Integration as a Response to Europe's Strategic Moment* by The European Commission (2015), and *Adjustments in development policies of dominant countries in Europe in the periods of economic crisis and global recession* by Nguyen An Ha (2013)[7]. In conclusion, there are still a great number of scholars who consider the EU a supranational institution, with Britain being a "unit" inside and the relationship being analysed from the top-down discipline. In this view, Britain can not hold its independent position of a country with full sovereignty to make and implement its

[6] Treaty of Maastricht (1992). https://europa.eu/european-union/sites/europaeu/files/docs/body/treaty_on_european_union_en.pdf

[7] This book is printed in Vietnamese, named *"Điều chỉnh chính sách phát triển của một số quốc gia chủ chốt châu Âu giai đoạn khủng hoảng tài chính và suy thoái kinh tế toàn cầu"*.

own policies any more. Not only the EU scholars but also the EU officials and politicians keep this kind of viewpoint to the Britain's position in the EU. But practice has proved that Britain has not been an easy follower.

On the contrary, scholars approaching the Britain - EU relationship with Theory of Foreign Policy in mind regularly focus on the benefits and costs of the relationship. They tend to look into a single policy by the British in the cooperation with other members in the EU. They care enough to bear in their minds that Britain and the EU are two independent partners. The research works of this discipline have a tendency of moving from theories of power, national interest, subjects of international relations as individual states, etc. to the cooperation between various actors in the world arena. The authors of these works are also in favour of Realism Theories in international relations. A great numbers of books, government reports and research works have been published under the light of this discipline. The most noticeable and influential ones include *Introduction: Interpreting British Foreign Policy* by Bevir, Daddow, & Hall (2012), *What's in a phrase? - The United Kingdom and Ever Closer Union* by Brown (2015), *New Labour and the European Union - Blair and Brown's logic of history* by Daddow (2011), *Collective Security in Space: Search for a Comprehensive Strategy for Utilisation of Space for National Interests* by Defence Academy of the United Kingdom (2014), *Foreign and Commonwealth Office: Annual Report and Accounts 2011-2012* by Foreign and Commonwealth Office (2012), *Policy Making in the Real World* by Hallsworth, Parker, & Rutter (2011), *Review of the Balance of Competences between the United Kingdom and the European Union Foreign Policy* by HM Government (2013), and *Britain in the European Union today* by Pilkington (2001).

In summary, the process of Britain's integration into the EU has undergone a number of fluctuations. It has not been so smooth and concrete as the other members' experiences. The reasons partly come from the fact that the British have approached the EU with the perspective of Realism and theory of Foreign Policy while the EU see the process under the light of Liberalism which promotes free trade, human rights, and democracy. Not only British and European politicians are affected by such a difference in thoughts, but the scholars and researchers on international relations are also under influence. The products of these actors' working therefore come in different shapes and sizes.

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CHÍNH SÁCH CỦA ANH ĐỐI VỚI EU: TIẾP CẬN TỪ LÝ THUYẾT HỘI NHẬP HAY LÝ THUYẾT CHÍNH SÁCH ĐỐI NGOẠI?

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Tóm tắt: Sự kiện Brexit không chỉ đánh dấu sự tách ra khỏi EU của nước Anh mà còn làm nổi lên câu hỏi liệu các học giả và chính trị gia nên tiếp cận mối quan hệ giữa hai đối tác này từ hệ lý thuyết nào: Lý thuyết về Hội nhập hay Lý thuyết về Chính sách đối ngoại? Bài báo này xem xét ảnh hưởng của hai hệ lý thuyết trên đối với Anh và EU trong một số động thái chính trị của nước Anh với EU trong giai đoạn 1972-2016 và ảnh hưởng của các lý thuyết này đối với các công trình nghiên cứu của học giả trên thế giới.

Từ khóa: nước Anh, EU, Lý thuyết Hội nhập, Lý thuyết Chính sách Đối ngoại, Brexit

INFORMATION

MODELS OF MENTORING IN LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

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New York: Springer, 2017

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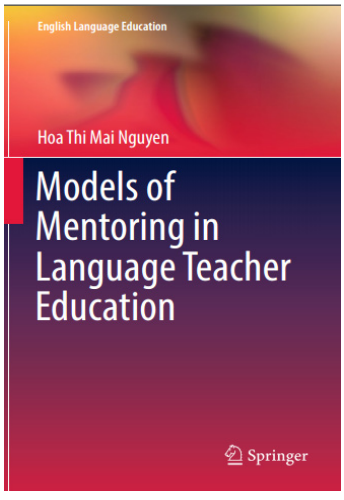
Mentoring in foreign language teacher education, be it official and organized programs or informal sharing and discussion with colleagues, has been widely recognized as a powerful means to assist pre-service and novice teachers in improving their teaching practice. Much as each teacher's personal and anecdotal appreciation of this activity's effectiveness, little about mentoring has been empirically researched and comprehensively presented. In fact, mentoring for foreign language teacher students and early-career teachers is still underexplored. Among available references, *Models of Mentoring in Language Teacher Education* (Nguyen, 2017) is the latest and most informative book that gives teacher educators, mentors and policy makers comprehensive literature about mentoring and research-based recommendations and guidelines to successful implementation of mentoring and peer mentoring within the Asian teaching context.



With ten chapters in total, the book appears as a complete work in the field of mentoring for EFL teachers in one Asian context. Chapters 1 and 2 discuss the overall situation of English language teacher training in Vietnam and theoretical background that underpins the use of mentoring in English language teacher training and retraining. A substantial part of chapter two is devoted to discussing theoretical frameworks for mentoring and peer mentoring with a clear focus on two major functions of a peer-based professional relationship including career-related functions (information sharing, career strategizing and job related feedback) and psychosocial functions (confirmation, emotional support, personal feedback and friendship). Highlights of these two chapters are the arguments that mentoring-related issues in both pre-service teacher education and in-service teacher professional development found in Vietnam are similar to other settings in Asia, suggesting that the book will be relevant to teachers and educators in Asia in general besides its stated target readers.

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Chapters from 3 to 9 comprise the bulk of the book with insightful discussions on pre-service teachers' perception of mentoring activities during their practicum, qualities expected of mentors for effective mentorship, group mentoring as an activity to develop pre-service teachers' reflection and peer mentoring as a means to professionally and emotionally assist pre-service and beginning teachers. The main part of these chapters are the author's succintly reported research projects on mentoring activities with different groups of participants in Vietnam over a number of years. These studies are presented and discussed in light of relevant body of literature in the field.

The qualitative study in chapter 3 reveals the pre-service teacher participants' expectations of a successful practicum and their awareness of both positive support and problems they experienced during their practicum. Some participants appreciated their mentors being caring and supportive of their creativity while many others expressed disappointment with their mentors' inadequate feedback on their lessons, unreasonable expectations and requirements and their lack of professionalism. Findings from this chapter are not surprising to those who have been involved in school-based practicum; however, the author did provide a number of practical implications for more effective school-based teaching placement. Teacher educators can benefit from the suggestions that teacher students should take a proactive role in their own learning rather than depending on their mentors and that school mentors need to be rigorously selected and equipped with mentoring skills.

Chapter 4 draws on chapters 3 and 5 to give an overview of a formal mentoring program which stresses a mentor's expected personal traits, mentor-mentee matching and mentor training. These themes are discussed again in chapter 9, which is about problems pertaining to implementing peer mentoring. Readers interested in learning more about conducting successful mentoring programs for beginning EFL teachers are likely to find chapters 4 and 9 highly relatable. Important themes such as mentors' expected personal qualities, mentor-mentee matching and peer mentoring training are repeated in these two chapters, implying that these are factors that should be carefully considered and planned. Though the list of mentors' expected personal qualities is relatively predictable, and not particularly useful, the section on grouping colleague mentors and mentees based on their similarities in characteristics, career goals, experiences, work ethics and the like and the one on equipping both mentors and mentees with mentoring skills provide thought-provoking ideas to implement effective peer mentoring programs.

Chapter 5 further discusses group peer mentoring, a model that boosts pre-service teachers' reflective practice during their teaching placement. Major findings from this qualitative case study include a fairly high level of reflection among the participants with comparative reflection being the most common form of reflection followed closely by descriptive reflection and critical reflection. Observation, post-observation discussion, time and a supportive environment are reported to be the factors that foster reflection among the participants. Finishing chapter 5, readers can recognize a clear link between this chapter and the previous ones. With chapter 3 emphasizing the important role of teacher students' dependence and responsibilities as adult learners, chapter 5 highlights teacher students' reflection induced by group peer mentoring. The author purposely built one chapter upon another to gradually argue for group mentoring and peer

mentoring as a valuable opportunity for pre-service teachers to learn from one another to become independent learners and reflective practitioners, rather than taking in knowledge and mimicking lessons from an experienced teacher like in conventional mentoring. This line of argument seems smart and truly persuasive. Wallace (1994) once proposed a framework for foreign language teacher education and development including three models: the applied science model, the craft or mentoring model and the reflective teaching model. It is clear that the author's studies in chapter 3 and 5 lend themselves closely to Wallace (1994)'s framework and provide strong evidence and arguments for fostering foreign language teachers' habit of reflecting on their own classroom practices and their effects and what constraints there are. Murray and Christison (2011) view it the same way when categorizing peer coaching as a reflective approach to sustainable development for foreign language teachers. They believe that peer coaching puts together teachers who are committed to improving "their craft" (p. 203) and delivering more effective lessons and who are willing to give descriptive, specific and change-oriented feedback to their own and their colleagues' classroom activities.

Chapter 6 and 7 report a quasi-experimental pre- and post-test design study which confirms the significant influence of formal peer mentoring on pre-service teachers' professional practice. Comparing two groups of participants' performance and surveying their feedback, the author found that by participating in formal peer coaching, pre-service teacher participants in the treatment group made more impressive progress in their lesson planning and preparation, classroom management, giving instructions and professional responsibilities than the control group. The author devoted the whole chapter 7 to discussing the kinds of support the student teachers received. The findings and discussion sections in this chapter are very much similar to the contents of chapter 2, which is also about psychological support and career-related support that pre-service teachers draw from their mentors.

Chapter 8 is a discussion of a peer mentoring program conducted for beginning teachers. A number of themes such as self-reflection (chapter 5) and psychological support (chapters 2 and 7) are discussed again in this chapter. The repetition, however, does not become tedious, but provides surprising insights into the actual effectiveness of peer mentoring for beginning teachers. While the teacher mentees in the study appreciated their colleague mentor's feedback on their lesson, they did not have enough time to explain their practice and did not feel frank enough to comment on their mentor's lessons. What can be learnt from this is that a more appropriate amount of time should be allocated for post-observation feedback and that mentors should be trained prior to engaging in mentoring activities. Another useful contribution to the current literature about a mentor-mentee relationship is that peer mentoring among novice teachers could turn a hierarchical relationship into an equal and friendly companionship in which teachers support each other in both professional and personal life. In this chapter, readers can also recognize that the theme of self-reflection is discussed again. It seems very clear that the author is a strong advocate of developing EFL teachers' reflective practice in different professional development activities.

Chapter 10 closes the book with a number of final remarks that stress the pivotal role of mentoring in teachers' professional development and the conditions for effective mentorship. In short, the volume is not only a comprehensive body of literature on

mentoring for foreign language teachers but also a collection and presentation of the author's studies on mentoring, which provides updated and valid findings and implications for teacher trainers and other concerned readers.

The discussion on mentoring in this volume is concise and reader-friendly, without over-simplifying the complex theoretical rationales for mentoring including social constructivism, collaborative reflection, teacher learning, and the foundational theories for group and peer mentoring, which reflects the author's extensive expertise in the field. Each and every issue related to mentoring is explained in detail and supported by ample relevant literature and research evidence. This volume can, therefore, be used a reliable and rich source of references for EFL teacher readers and emerging researchers interested in mentoring activities. Similarly, the whole volume, particularly sections reporting the author's research project in each chapter, is a standard sample of a strong and succinct academic research writing style. As a researcher writer, the author neatly reports a good range of methodologies and designs of the studies she conducted. Emerging researchers can definitely extract certain paragraphs and arguments for the choice of different research designs, data collection and analysis instruments for their own reference. In his review of Nguyen (2017), Stewart (2017) refers to the author's research in this volume as "assiduous" as a way to acknowledge her well designed and pithily expressed studies.

Readers who have been involved in mentoring activities would not find it hard to notice that the majorities of studies on different aspects of mentoring reported in this book were mostly done with pre-service teachers in Vietnam during their practicum (Chapters 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 9). While all the studies were thoroughly designed and conducted and their implications are of great help to teacher educators particularly, it cannot be denied that mentoring itself is a long-term professional development activity that is more applicable to in-service teachers than pre-service teachers who are only engaged in mentoring for 4 to 6 weeks of their practicum. This means that the book would provide more relevant findings and practical implications if more novice teachers were included as participants. Having said that, it has to be pointed out that in Vietnam and other Asian contexts, the practice of classroom observation and reflection among in-service teachers is not yet widely conducted (Pham, 2001), whereas for teacher students, practicum is a required component of their program, meaning that in terms of availability and practicality, teacher students would conveniently make up the main group of the participants in the reported studies.

Regarding training mentors, the author introduces three training models and emphasizes cherry-picking strategies from each model rather than adopting one. She also reports a qualitative study examining the mentors' evaluation of four 60-minute mentor orientation sessions they attended (Chapter 9). Despite a brief description of the mentoring training activities, the frequency of the four 60-minute mentor training sessions was not reported. The participants' comments on the speed and effectiveness of the sessions should, therefore, be discussed with caution. What feels unsatisfactory in the study is the absence of the participants' evaluation of the mentoring training after they worked as mentors, which could reflect their awareness and acknowledgement of the benefits of what they had referred to as "theoretical" or "formal" right after the training sessions. Interested readers would also expect more

specific and practical guidelines on preparing inexperienced mentors for their tasks. An appendix that describes in full detail highly effective mentoring training activities would be much appreciated.

In conclusion, the author made an impressive effort in writing up this comprehensive volume which concisely summarizes literature on mentoring, clearly presents different viable mentoring models and strongly advocates the model of formal peer mentoring as a professional development activity for teacher students and beginning teachers. Teacher students, teachers, teacher educators and policy makers benefit from the soundness of studies conducted and reported in the volumes and the practicality of suggestions for conducting mentoring activities that fit differing contexts.

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AN INTRODUCTION TO FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR (Third Edition)

M.A.K. Halliday & Christian M.I.M. Matthiessen

London: Edward Arnold, 2004/2014

AN EXPERIENTIAL GRAMMAR OF THE VIETNAMESE CLAUSE

Hoang Van Van

Hanoi: Education Publishing House, 2012

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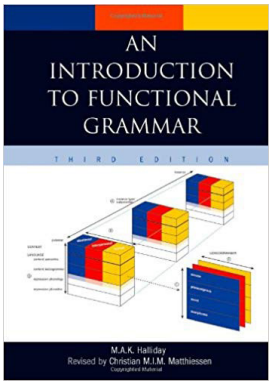

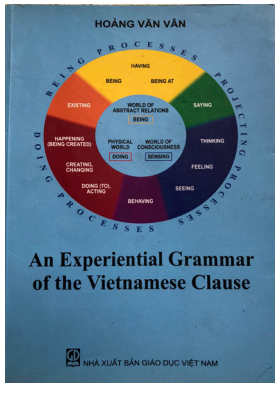

1. Introduction

The books under review are both about systemic functional grammar. The first book is *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*, third edition by M.A.K. Halliday & Christian M.I.M. Matthiessen (2004/2014). The second one is *An Experiential Grammar of the Vietnamese Clause* by Hoang Van Van (2012). As will be seen, in his *An Experiential Grammar of the Vietnamese Clause* Hoang Van Van based himself on the systemic functional grammar framework as proposed by Halliday (1985/1994, 2012) and Halliday & Matthiessen (2004/2014). Therefore, in what follows, we will examine Halliday & Matthiessens' book first.

2. An Introduction to Functional Grammar

An Introduction to Functional Grammar, third edition is 689 pages long. It was

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originally written by Halliday himself and the first edition came out in 1985 with many subsequent printings. In 1994, the book was re-edited by Halliday and was publsihed under the second edition also with many subsequent printings. In 2004, the book was revised by Matthiessen and was publsihed under the third edition. In this edition, although the title was retained, much of the book was expanded, providing more texts for illustration and more figures and diagrammes to talk about systemic dimensions of grammar in terms of both functions and systems. The book includes two parts with ten chapters. The first part (consisting of five chapters) is concerned with the description of various aspects of the clause; and the second part (also consisting of five chapters) describes aspects of other grammatical units which are referred to by Halliday & Matthiessen respectively as above the clause, below the clause and beyond the clause. An overview of the ten chapters in Halliday & Matthiessens' book is provided below.

Chapter 1 analyses the relationship between text and grammar. What really captures my attention in this chapter is that the authors see texts as a specimen or an artefact and I find their view justifiable when they state that some understanding of grammar can help analyse and interpret texts. In this chapter, the authors introduce basic theoretical concepts for what they call "architecture of language". The concepts discussed include axis, stratification, instantiation, metafunction, and composition. The compositional structure that is called 'constituency' is mentioned at phonological, graphological, and lexicogrammatical levels.

Chapter 2 is interesting to read, especially when the authors analyse how semantic relationships are construed by grammatical items via the analysis of Mandela's speech, enabling readers to unclose the issue and learn how to "unfold the text as logogenesis" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 18). The chapter also introduces some new concepts including explanation of the concept lexico-grammar which embodies the unity of lexis and grammar. The authors explain that lexis and grammar form two poles of a single cline with lexis, viewed from grammatical perspective, "appear as medium of delicacy grammar" Halliday & Matthiessen (2004). In addition, as mentioned by the authors, "systemic grammar is organized around the concept of grammaticalisation whereby meanings is construed in networks of interrelated contrasts", and grammar system is characterized by three properties namely closure, generality and proportionality.

Chapters 3, 4, 5 represent different functional aspects of the clause and different "functional configurations" which make up different strands of meaning including clause as a message, clause as exchange and clause as representation. The three kinds of functions or meanings are described thoroughly in each of the chapters mentioned. It is noticeable that the illustration and explanation of the meanings are presented visually, bringing more scientific touch to the book. Furthermore, these inforgraphics provide the reader with a simpler and systemic look at grammar rather than intricate information as it is normally presented. Examples can be found on pages 80, 82, 108, 135, 158, 165. I also feel that the detailed analysis of the corpus in the chapters can be great guidelines for novice text analysts like me.

Part II of the book describes grammatical units such as below the clause, above the clause and beyond the clause. Below the clause consists of nominal group, verbal group, adverbial group, prepositional and conjunction groups. These below-the-clause units are included and discussed in Halliday &

Matthiessens' *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* since they "serve different functions in the clause" (p. 310). This is important in mapping between classes at phrase/group ranks and functions at clause rank, showing the one-to-one relationship between classes. According to Halliday & Matthiessen (2004/2014), if traditional grammar helps show each component in the clause structure, systemic functional grammar also focuses on the functions of each component in relation to the clause functions.

The clause complex is explored in Chapter 7. This is a unit above the clause. In this chapter, Halliday & Matthiessen look at grammar "from above" the clause, as stated by the authors, via which they investigate how (simple) clauses are linked together and how texts are organized in the rhetorical-relational way. Based on the Hallidayan systemic functional framework (Halliday, 1973, 1978; Martin, 1992; Hasan & Parrett, 1994; Matthiessen, 1995; and many others), Halliday & Matthiessen (2004/2014) distinguish the clause complex along three dimensions: metafunction, rank, and stratification. The authors (2004, p. 369) state: "In terms of metafunction, it (the clause complex) is organized by the logical mode of the ideational metafunction, constructing with circumstantial argumentations of the clause (experiential) and cohesive sequences (textual). This means that the organization of the clause complex is based on a univariate model rather than a multivariate one, just like complexes at other ranks and like groups – clause rank; and it is thus related to the clause in terms of logical complexing rather than in terms of experiential constituency. In terms of stratification, a clause complex realizes a semantic sequence of projection or expansion;…". Thus, in a clause complex, two major types of relationships are recognized and discussed systematically in Halliday & Matthiessens' grammar; they are, degrees of interdependency and logico-semantic relation. What is really impressive is the discussion is visually described with abundance of analysis of the texts as examples, enabling the reader to systemize types of relations between clauses as well as the underlying meanings of each. Chapter 8 is, as intended by the authors, an addition to chapter 7, thus for the most part of the chapter the authors exemplify the group and phrase complexes via detailed analysis of the corpus.

Chapter 9 is concerned with cohesion and discourse, what Halliday & Matthiessen refer to as: "around the clause". This is also an interesting chapter to read. First, the authors confirm that texts and systems are not different phenomena, but different just when seen from up close (appears as texts) or distance (appears as system). Text and system form a "*cline of instantiation*". The chapter, as mentioned, centers on cohesion, but it focuses not just on the system of cohesion, but also its relation to semantics. Halliday & Matthiessen confirm that lexico-grammar has evolved textual resources (system of cohesion) for creating logogenetic patterns and cohesive links (p. 586).

Chapter 10, which is also the final chapter, looks at grammatical features beyond the clause. The authors discuss metaphorical modes of expression. Semantic domains are clearly defined before the discussions of the metaphorical expressions (metaphor of mood, modality, and ideational metaphors). The most interesting part to read, however, is the first one in the chapter, which provides a deep insight into the relationship between lexico-grammar and semantics with the confirmation that the clause is a "tri-functional construct" (p. 589). Overall, as confirmed by Halliday and Mattiessen, "sometimes the effects of metaphorical

expression is all what is needed" to understand a text and "metaphorical interpretation … suggests how an instance in the text may be referred to the system of the language as a whole" so it is significant to study grammatical metaphor – a kind of grammar that lies behind a discourse or 'text linguistics' (p. 658).

3. An Experiential Grammar of the Vietnamese Clause

An Experiential Grammar of the Vietnamese Clause was first published in Vietnamese in 2002. It was reprinted in 2005, and in 2012 the full and revised English version was published by Vietnam National Education Publishers. As a student of the late eminent Prof. Emerita Ruquaiya Hasan and influenced by the systemic functional theory developed by M.A.K. Halliday, Hoang Van Van has applied successfully insights of systemic functional linguistics to the analysis of one aspect of the Vietnamese clause: the experiential meaning realized in the transitivity system (or system of process types) in Vietnamese. In other words, the book, as stated by the author, is "a functional description of the Vietnamese experiential grammar" (p. 12) based on systemic functional grammar theory developed by Halliday and other systemicists.

The book is organized into three parts. Part 1 provides a foundation for the author's description of the Vietnamese experiential clause in the second part. This part includes four chapters to introduce the Vietnamese language, Vietnamese grammar, systemic functional linguistics framework by Halliday as the basis for investigation into the Vietnamese clause, as well as the notion of clause in Vietnamese. Part 2, consisting of five chapters, is an in-depth investigation into the transitivity system in Vietnamese. Part 3 is the conclusion in which the author summarizes what has been explored, makes some suggestions for further research. Details of each chapter in the three parts are presented as follows:

The first chapter provides some introductory information about Vietnam, the language and its people, aims and scope of the book, data and descriptive strategies, and conventions on glosses and symbols.

Chapter 2 provides information about the history of Vietnamese language and concludes that Vietnamese grammar was strongly influenced by French grammar, then American structuralist approach in the South and European structuralism in the North. The author also reviews *An Outline of Functional Grammar of Vietnamese* by Cao Xuan Hao (1991/2004), via which the Vietnamese readers can capture a better understanding or, for some, a new look at the Vietnamese language. From the review, four major drawbacks of the reviewed grammatical studies have been pointed out: (1) clause is one of the most important categories in the grammar of any language, seen from the view point of functional linguistics but is not pointed out; (2) meaning is often dealt with in terms of lexis (word-based) rather than grammar both lexis and grammar; (3) language is seen as a set of rules rather than a resource for making meaning; and (4) social aspects of language is largely neglected (p. 71).

From important remarks in chapter 2, Hoang Van Van devotes the whole Chapter 3 to reviewing systemic functional linguistics as developed by Halliday and other systemic linguists. In particular, he re-examines Halliday's important concepts underlying systemic functional theory and comes to the conclusion that it is useful to apply systemic functional linguistics to the description of Vietnamese grammar since it lays emphasis on

both the potential and the actual or the system and the instances of language, thus providing deeper insights into the nature of language.

Based on the systemic functional framework, Hoang Van Van explores the notion of clause in Chapter 4 and acquaints the reader with this critical notion (which, to him, is somewhat similar to the notion of simple sentence in traditional grammar). He concludes that like English the clause in Vietnamese is one of the most important grammatical categories which can be conceptualized along three dimensions of stratification, rank, and metafunction.

In Part Two, the whole of Chapter 5 is devoted to the exploration of the basic notions that are related to the description of the Vietnamese experiential grammar. Here Hoang Van Van starts his chapter with a review of the basic concepts of transitivity and the transitivity frameworks as developed by Halliday (1985, 1994, 2012) and Matthiessen (1995) for English, Shore (1992) for Finnish, and Martin (1996) for Tagalog. Hoang Van Van then develops a framework to describe the transitivity system (system of process types) of the Vietnamese experiential grammar, which consists of three super-ordinate options: doing process (consisting of material and behavioural processes), projecting process (consisting of mental and verbal processes), and being process (consisting of relational and existential processes). These process types, their participants and incumbent circumstances are described in detail in Chapters 6, 7, 8, and 9.

Chapter 10 wraps up what has been discussed, points out some limitations of the research and makes some suggestions for further studies.

Overall, it can be seen that although *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* is concerned mainly with the description of the English clause, it lays theoretical foundations for the development of *An Experiential Grammar of the Vietnamese Clause*. From the review above, we can see that the two books share some similarities and differences as follows:

The focus of *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* is Grammar, with consideration of below, around and beyond the clause, while the focus of *An Experiential Grammar of the Vietnamese Clause* is on only one aspect of the Vietnamese clause - the experiential meaning realized in the transitivity system and the theoretical framework for this study is from the former one.

The two studies show that the clause in both English and Vietnamese can be seen from around or within, and from above. However, while the English clause can be seen from below (i.e., phonological unit clause relation), this may not be the case for the clause in VN. In fact, the mode of expression for MODE choices in Vietnamese clauses are prosodic rather than segmental as in English clauses as stated by Halliday (1984) and Matthiessen (1990) and the reason may be due to "language-specific" Hoang Van Van (2012, p. 111).

The main difference may be, as stated by Hoang Van Van, while Halliday and other systemicists foreground either systemic or structure, Hoang Van Van strikes a balance between two by providing system networks and presenting examples to illustrate how various systemic choices are realized by the structures.

4. Evaluation

4.1. Contribution

The third edition of *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* by Halliday and Matthiessen, is an invaluable scholarly reference for teachers, students and researchers

of linguistics, especially those who are concerned about functional grammar and discourse analysis. The book provides readers with a better understanding of the relation between grammar, meaning and discourse. It also provides the reader with key concepts that form functional theory. It is a must-read for those who want to analyse, compare and interpret texts in large corpora. It is noticeable that the authors could employ an application of a software (**Sysfan**) to the analysis of the corpus. In terms of visualisation, the book represents concepts in a visually friendly and systemic way. Following are some of the comments on the book by scholars:

An Introduction to Functional Grammar is "...an invaluable presentation of, and rationale for, the central descriptive apparatus of Halliday's systemic-functional grammar of English... essential reading for all students of English textual structure, teeming with insights." (Michael Toolan, University of Birmingham, UK)

'It is hard to imagine anyone in the field of applied linguistics or 'linguistics applied' that does not recognise the ever increasing insights that this edition of SFG continues to give in seeing language from so many different perspectives. Its value for teachers and researchers is immeasurable.' In his book reviews, he also states that "Not just in text analysis already alluded to but also as a source of insight into children's language development." (Foley, 2005)

The book has also been considered to bring "great joy and comfort to see a theory keep renewing itself while sticking to its basic views about the relationship between language, text and society" (Zhanzi, 2004).

Studies in Second Language Acquisition - a journal of international scope devoted to the scientific discussion of acquisition or use of non-native and heritage language confirms that "Anyone who claims any interest in practical grammar and its relationship to theoretical grammar should certainly familiarise themselves with it (*An Introduction to Functional Grammar*)".

An Experiential Grammar of the Vietnamese Clause is a reader-friendly reference book. It is useful and practical to those who want to explore in-depth into Vietnamese grammar from systemic functional approach. With the easy-to-read writing style, Hoang Van Van walks the readers from abstract to concrete exemplification, and what is appreciated is the well-written concluding remarks of each chapter, enabling readers to round up his discussion in the chapter. His visualization and method of rendering the abstract concepts is also a commendable point of the book.

4.2. Critique

This third edition *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* by Halliday & Matthiessen has been considered a great improvement from the first and the second editions, and a must-read book for teachers, students, researchers working with functional grammar. It, however, appears to be hard to handle here and there due to its abstract concepts. As Foley (2005) comments, though the concepts such as 'instantiation' (p. 26) is important, it "can cause some difficulty when it comes to giving an explanation in the classroom or lecture theatre are substantially fleshed out in this new edition."

Another minor point to look at is the use of the diagrams which may need further adjudgment as mentioned by Foley (Ibid.): "In the actual book itself, there are diagrams which are also functionally questionable. No doubt this is partly due to the quest to show the delicacy that is involved in a particular grammatical network. The diagram (p. 302) is an example of this. There are also some minor

errors in some of the diagrams (p. 32) as on 'morpheme' for morpheme…… and……. also the availability of a website to further one's explorations of areas of the grammar.".

In *An Experiential Grammar of the Vietnamese Clause*, as Nguyen Thi Tu Trinh et al (2017) comments, Hoang Van Van 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 paramental (clauses that lie on the borderline between behavioural and mental processes). However, Hoang Van Van does not go into detail to show how the troubles should be shot". It is expected that this will be dealt with in his next edition or a new book on Functional Grammar of Vietnamese. Moreover, admire the book much as I do though, I feel that it would be ideal if the author added some further synthesis or some guidance to the possible readers on how to apply the book to their own work rather than just the chapter summary in the CODA. This would, as I feel, create an echo to a great deal of work he has done.

5. Application of the books

These books are, as mentioned above, highly recommended to those who work in the field of language education and functional linguistic research. They have successfully depicted the panorama of the "architecture of language": the language dimensions, the language strata and the realisation relationship between the strata, the making meaning functions of language via the meta-function, and the clause (from below, around/within/and above). Every chapter of both of the books is useful to my investigation into and comparison of the discourse and grammar of Economics specialized journals, especially Chapters 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 of the former and chapters 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 of the latter. They can be invaluable scholarly references for discourse analysts, researchers and classroom teachers as well.

To conclude my review, I would like to state that personally, I find Halliday & Matthiessens' book extremely interesting and illuminating. This is because it provides us with deep insights into the relationship between grammar, meanings and discourse semantics. The book brings to the reader the whole range of corpus analysis, assisting them as they make their way into the theory of systemic functional grammar. Hoang Van Van's book can also be a highly recommended reading for those who are interested in the study of Vietnamese grammar from the systemic functional perspective. This is because it offers an overview of the history of Vietnamese language, factors affecting Vietnamese language, the concepts and the role of the clause in Vietnamese as well as an in-depth analysis of the experiential grammar of the Vietnamese clause, paving the way for the description of other aspects of Vietnamese systemic functional grammar.

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M.A.K. Halliday (1925-2018) was a renowned British-born Australian linguist, teacher, and proponent of neo-Firthian theory who viewed language basically as a social phenomenon. He was professor of linguistics and then emeritus professor in linguistics at the University of Sydney, Australia. He is well-known as the chief architect of the world-widely recognised systemic functional theory. He worked in various regions of language study, both theoretical and applied, and was concerned with applying the understanding of the basic principles of language to the theory and practices of education. For more detail, visit http://www.ello.uos.de/field.php/TheoryModelMethod/MAKHalliday.

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