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RESEARCH

"INSPIRATION AND SUCCESS FOR ALL LEARNERS": HOW DO VIETNAMESE EFL SCHOOL TEACHERS PERCEIVE THEIR ROLES AND WHAT STYLE OF TEACHER ARE THEY IN THE ERA OF INDUSTRY 4.0?

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Abstract: This research is an attempt to highlight how Vietnamese EFL school teachers perceive their roles and what style of teacher they are in this current changing world – the world of Industry 4.0. The study involved a sample of 300 Vietnamese EFL school teachers throughout Vietnam. The instruments employed for the research were three questionnaires intended to explore different aspects of EFL teachers' perception of their roles. The data collected were analyzed quantitatively and were discussed in some detail. The research brought to light a number of significant findings of which five are prominent: (i) Vietnamese EFL school teachers displayed a relatively good understanding in identifying what roles are of traditional teacher style (TTS) and what roles are of modern teacher style (MTS); (ii) they rated as high and medium most of the roles of the TTS and reported having performed most of them; (iii) they rated as low some of the roles of the TTS but still kept on performing them; (iv) they rated as very high, high and medium most of the roles of the MTS, but only 2/3 of them were reported having been performed; and (v) they rated as medium many of the remaining roles of the MTS which belong to what has commonly been referred to in modern EFL/ESL pedagogy as the learner-centred approach in communicative language teaching (CLT), but the number of these roles reported having been performed were very modest. Based on the interwoven information obtained from the three questionnaires, it was suggested that although the era of Industry 4.0 is a reality, many of the Vietnamese EFL school teachers seem to be on the traditional side of the traditional ↔ modern teacher style scale. It is recommended that teacher role should be a legitimate component in all EFL teacher training and teacher professional development (PD) programmes in English teacher education departments/faculties in Vietnam to help EFL teachers be better familiarized with their roles, particularly those required in modern EFL/ESL education, so that they can perform their roles more effectively and more appropriately in their teaching for the success of their students as they move along their "journey of learning" (Pullias & Young, 1968: 32) a new means of communication.[2**]

Keywords: teacher role, traditional teacher role, modern teacher role, teacher role-pertained responsibility, traditional ↔ modern teacher style scale

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1. Introduction

"The mediocre teacher tells. The good teacher explains.

The superior teacher demonstrates. The great teacher inspires."

(William Arthur Ward)

We are living in the age where information and communication technology are developing rapidly. In the field of education, "Computers [and many smart and modern electronic devices, I would add] are now, for teachers and students, the gateways to a wealth of information, contacts, and activities. The use of the Internet has mushroomed – indeed some countries have wired up their entire public education systems – and the technology for self-study, language laboratories, and computer corpora has developed far beyond what many have anticipated" (Harmer, 2005: ix). In the field of teaching generally, there has been in recent decades a strong tendency to move from the "teacher-centred approach" to what has been referred to as the "learner-centred approach". And in the field of second and foreign language teaching particularly there has been a tendency to move from the often undefined notion of "non-communicative language teaching" to the relatively clearly-defined notion of "communicative language teaching (CLT)". The final aim of these "new" approaches, in the context of foreign language education, is that the students will become independent learners and more effective language communicators, and the teacher, among other things, will become an inspirer or a source of inspiration for the students' learning (cf. Breen & Candlin, 1980; Nunan, 1991; Tudor, 1993, 1994; Richards & Rodger, 2001; Jones, 2007).

In mid-June 2018, I was invited by the National Foreign Languages 2020 Project to write a paper for the 4th International VietTESOL Conference that would be held on 7-8 December, 2018 at the University of Education, Ho Chi Minh City. I accepted the invitation with delight and began to look for the details of the Conference. I emailed Dr Nguyen Ngoc Vu, former Dean of the English Faculty of the University, and in next to no time I received an email in reply from him with an attached file containing a tentative title which read: "Inspiration and Success for All Learners". The title, as I perceived of it, may have a number of readings, but if we read it as "If the teacher inspires, all the learners will succeed", we can see that the meaning of the Conference is realized by a complex sentence with "If the teacher inspires" being the subordinate clause, and "all learners will succeed" the main clause. I am not a learner in the proper sense of the word. So naturally I would choose a topic within the domain of the subordinate clause. But what topic specifically should I choose so that it could engage the wide and diverse range of interests of the experts (Vietnamese and international language scholars, second or foreign language school and university teachers, and EFL post graduate students perhaps) who would be present here on this occasion? It took me quite a while to get my topic cap on. Finally, being happy with the idea that no topic could cover even a small aspect of the Conference, I decided to choose the topic which I thought would be the concern of the majority of EFL teachers in Vietnam under the rubric of my title, "Inspiration and Success for All Learners: How do Vietnamese EFL School Teachers Perceive their Roles and What Style of Teacher are They in the Era of Industry 4.0?" By delivering this topic, I want particularly to speak to those who are teaching English in schools, to those in preparation for teaching, and perhaps to others who have an interest in teaching English as a second or foreign language. My experience as a classroom teacher and my close work with EFL school teachers over many years have led me to see that EFL school teachers are doing teaching every day, but not so many of them are fully aware of their roles, and that quite a few of them often get confused and even bewildered when they are told to perform new roles in a new teaching method/approach. As a result, they begin their work with joy and hope but gradually lose their love for the profession under the severe demands and pressure of teaching. So, together with other things that make up "the good language teacher" (Prodromou, 1994: 18), a better understanding of the roles of the teacher will help them reduce their becoming dull, continue their professional growth toward excellent teaching, so that they can act as effective inspirers for their students. My paper will fall into five parts. Following Part one which presents the reasons for choosing the topic, Part two is concerned with a literature review in which I will examine representative related studies on teacher roles. This is followed by Part three where I will present the design and methodology of my research. Part four constitutes the focus of the research in which I will present research findings and discussion of the findings. And finally in Part five, I will summarize the main points of the research, provide conclusions drawn from the research findings, point out limitations and make suggestions for further study.

2. Literature review

The conceptualization of teacher role has attracted scholars from a vast range of broader views over the past decades. Researches on this topic in education generally and in language teaching particularly are numerous. But for the purpose of this research, six seem to be relevant: "A Teacher is Many Things" by Earl V. Pullias & James D. Young (1968), "Aspects of Language Teaching" by Henry G. Widdowson (1999), "Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom" by Tricia Hedge (2000), "Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classrooms" by Jack C. Richards & Charles Lockhart (2004), "The Practice of English Language Teaching" by Jeremy Harmer (2005), and "Learning Teaching" by Jim Scrivener (2009).

"A Teacher is Many Things" is the first work selected for review because it is a classic, lucid, succinct and penetrating book on the role of the teacher generally. It was written by two eminent American educators Earl V. Pullias and James D. Young and was published by Fawcett Publications in 1968. In this book, "drawing upon their own extensive experience in the classroom, the authors [Pullias & Young] describe and evaluate the varied and constantly expanding roles every school teacher must assume to be successful" (cited from back cover of the 1977 version). The book, as Pullias & Young claim, is intended to address those who are teaching, those in preparation for teaching, and thoughtful parents and other citizens who have an interest in the teaching art (p. 9). The authors begin their book by examining the notion of teaching (in Chapter 1). They claim that teaching is a complex job and that it is both a science and an art. The teacher, therefore, must know the subject she is teaching; at the same time she must have knowledge about the subjects that are related to her subject; and she must have knowledge of human psychology. Apart from these aspects, in teaching the teacher must balance many factors in her actual performance such as knowledge, skills, and qualities of personality, etc. Pullias & Young (Ibid.) discuss nine obstacles which are thought to hinder the teacher's excellent teaching (in Chapter 2): (i) cynicism (caused by the teacher's doubt that nothing is perfect), (ii) narrowness (caused by the teacher's tendency of being too much specialized in a subject),

(iii) confusion (caused by the teacher's failure to understand the meaning of her work and her part and purpose in life), (iv) false ideas about people (caused by the teacher's subjective judgements about people), (v) disorder (caused by the teacher's need to do more, learn more, and get more in a crowded and disorderly life), (vi) dead knowledge (caused by the teacher's presenting the knowledge she gained from the past which is of less or no meaning to students), (vii) poor imagination (caused by the teacher's lack of imagination which makes students bored), (viii) routine (caused by usual or dull order in which the teacher does things everyday), and (ix) ways of working (caused by the teacher's failure to develop a style suited to her work). Chapters 3 through 16 constitute the focus of Pullias & Young's study. Here the authors present 14 roles the teacher is generally assumed to take: (i) A Teacher Is a Guide (Chapter 3), (ii) A Teacher Is a Teacher (Chapter 4), (iii) A Teacher Is a Modernizer (Chapter 5), (iv) A Teacher Is an Example (Chapter 6), (v) A Teacher Is A Searcher (Chapter 7), (vi) A Teacher Is a **Counsellor** (Chapter 8), (vii) A Teacher Is a Creator (Chapter 9), (viii) A Teacher Is an Authority (Chapter10), (ix) A Teacher Is an **Inspirer of Vision** (Chapter 11), (x) A Teacher Is a Doer of **Routine** (Chapter 12), (xi) A Teacher Is a **Breaker of Camp** (Chapter 13), (xii) A Teacher Is a Storyteller and an **Actor** (Chapter 13), (xiii) A Teacher Is a Facer of Reality (Chapter 15), and (xiv) A Teacher Is an **Evaluator** (Chapter 16). Each of these 14 roles is defined, explained and discussed in detail to make the book a comprehensive and an entertaining piece of research. This explains why published over half a century ago in a country (the USA) whose culture is different from the culture of Vietnam, most of the teacher roles suggested in "A Teacher is Many Things" are still valid in modern education, and are of particular use for modern researchers on the roles of the teacher.

"Aspects of Language Teaching" was written by the famous British applied linguist Henry G. Widdowson. Despite the fact that the title of the book is a bit ambiguous[1], the contents presented in it have proved that it is a scholarly piece of work, and is something that deserves to read. Widdowson's book consists of 11 chapters; and of these 11 chapters he devotes one (Chapter 11) to discussing the roles of the language teachers and learners. What seems to be of interest is that different from other studies on teacher role, Widdowson's study seems to be theoretical; it is not concerned with identifying the roles and responsibilities the teacher is assumed to take. Widdowson begins his chapter by defining the notion of role. Using the definition of role by Banton (1965: 29), Widdowson (1999: 181) defines a role generally as "a set of norms and expectations applied to the incumbents of a particular position". He explicates the term "incumbents", referring it to the positions taken up by teachers and pupils in the classroom. He then raises two questions for exploring the roles of the language teachers and learners: "What are the norms and expectations associated with these [teacher and student] particular roles?", and "What particular positions do the incumbents occupy?" In response, Widdowson (Ibid.), drawing on Hymes's (1972) research, argues that the classroom, seen from the point of view of both physical surroundings (settings) and socio-psychological context (scene), provides the context for the enactment of these roles. According to Widdowson,

[1] The title of the book is ambiguous because it does not explicate specifically the meaning of the term "language". The reader may find it difficult to understand what the author means by the term, whether it is language generally or the English language generally or the English language as a first language, a second language, or a foreign language.

physical surroundings may facilitate or constrain certain interactive procedures, while socio-psychological context may help recognize how roles are assumed by classroom incumbents: the teacher and the students. He then discusses the term “role” at some length, distinguishing two kinds of role enacted in the classroom. The first kind, he maintains, has to do with occupation and is identifying and categorizing (e.g. pupil, student, master, mistress), and the second one has to do with activity and is temporary and accidental (e.g. learner). He claims that the term “teacher” is ambiguous, referring to both an identifying and categorizing role and a temporary and accidental activity role (p.183). Based on this distinction, Widdowson examines two kinds of classroom engagement. The first kind of engagement involves the identifying roles: the teacher in social interaction with the pupil. He refers to it as *interactional* engagement whose norms and expectations, as he explains, defining appropriate behaviour are social attitude and educational ideology. It reflects the way educationists believe students should be socialized. There is another kind of classroom engagement which Widdowson calls *transactional* purpose. This kind of engagement instigates activities directed at achieving learning goals, and it consists of two accidental roles: teacher as teaching person on the one hand and learner as learning person on the other. The norms and expectations in this kind of engagement, as Widdowson explains, relate to pedagogic purpose; and “the ways of defining roles are likely to be the most effective for dealing with a particular subject, for developing specified knowledge and skills, for meeting the demand of the examination” (p.184).

In the second section of the chapter, Widdowson discusses teacher role in relation to “teacher authority and learner autonomy” (p. 187). He observes that, at least in Western education, the teacher as a possible agent of authority which seeks to maintain the power of privilege, schooling pupils into obedient compliance has come under suspicion. He cites Cicero in support of his belief that “Most commonly the authority of them that teach hinders them that would learn” (p. 187). He then identifies general teacher roles by making a distinction between what he refers to as “exercise of authority in interaction” and “exercise of authority in transaction”. According to Widdowson, in the exercise of authority in interaction the teacher’s role as *professeur* (teaching person) is more or less authoritarian (a role ascribed to the teacher by the society in which she can claim a superior and dominant position, and her dominance over the students is based on right). In the exercise of authority in transaction, in contrast, the teacher’s role as *enseignment* (expert) is more or less authoritative (a role derived from the teacher’s being an expert, and her dominance over the students is based not on right but on knowledge).

It seems from Widdowson’s discussion that of the two teacher roles, he favours the authoritative (non-authoritarian) one as, he explains, this approach can help students “feel secure and non-defensive to enable them to learn not because the teacher demands it of them, but because they need to in order to accomplish their own goals” (Widdowson, 1999: 188, citing Talyor, 1987: 58). However, he draws attention to the reader that the exercise of the non-authoritarian approach does not mean that the teacher abdicates her fundamental authority to guide and structure her class. He goes on to state: “… no matter how we view pedagogy, no matter how much initiative we believe should be allowed to the learner, the teacher as *enseignment* [expert] must surely retain an undiminished authority. He or she still has to contrive the required enabling conditions for learning, still has to monitor and guide progress” (p. 189).

Widdowson's chapter on teacher role is useful for researchers, language teachers, particularly foreign language researchers. Apart from pointing out the differences between traditional and modern teacher styles, his chapter makes a clear distinction between teacher as authoritarian and teacher as authority, the two terms/roles which often cause confusion and misunderstanding among researchers and teachers in language teaching in general and in EFL in particular.

"The Practice of English Language Teaching" was written by the influential English language teaching methodologist Jeremy Harmer. Unlike Widdowson, the title of Harmer's book is less ambiguous as it contains in itself the classifier "English" in the noun phrase "English Language Teaching". There is, however, still some ambiguity in it as we still do not know whether "English Language Teaching" refers to the teaching of English as a first, a second or a foreign language. The book, as Harmer claims, is targeted at practising teachers and those studying on in-service training programmes and post graduate courses. It consists of 24 chapters, covering various aspects of the English language and English language teaching. Of the 24 chapters, Harmer devotes a separate chapter (Chapter 4) to describing the teacher and her roles. Although Hamer does not explicate or theorize how he identifies teacher roles, it can be inferred from his presentation that his "framework deals exclusively with roles that relate to classroom procedure. Other frameworks include categories which move beyond the immediate pedagogic concerns which are influenced by attitudes in the social and cultural environment" (Hedge, 2000: 27). Harmer's chapter on teacher role is organized into four parts. Part one is concerned with an answer to the question, "What is a teacher?" and some problems relating to teachers and leaners in the learner-centred approach. Part two presents 8 teachers roles: controller, organizer, assessor, prompter, participant, resource, tutor, and observer. Each of these roles is defined, described, and discussed in some detail. To guide teachers how to perform these roles successfully in the classroom, Harmer provides them with many practical and useful tips. Part three is devoted exclusively to the description and discussion of the teacher as performer (actor). It seems from Harmer's discussion that the teacher as performer is one of the key roles the modern language teacher should take on. He likens the role of the teacher as performer in the classroom to that of the actor on the stage: "Just as stage directions give the actors an insight into what lines mean, so similar description in teaching may give us insights into how activities can best be managed" (p. 64). What seems to attract readers' attention is that linguistically Harmer employs a number of manner adjuncts (adverbs) to describe the behaviours or the ways the teacher is advised to perform her roles in the classroom for students' effective communication activity. Below is what he succinctly states (italics added):

> … for an activity where students are involved in a team game, we will want to behave *energetically* (because a game needs excitement and energy), *encouragingly* (if students need a nudge to have a go), *clearly* (because we do not want the game fail through misunderstanding) and *fairly* (because students care about this in a competition situation). If, on the other hand, students are involved in a role-play we should perform *clearly* (because students need to know exactly what the parameters of the role-play are), *encouragingly* (because students may need prompting to get them going), but also *retiringly* (because, once the activity has got going, we do not want to overwhelm the students' performance) and *supportively* (because students may need help at various points (Harmer, Ibid.: 64).

In Part four of this chapter, Harmer looks at the role of the teacher as teaching aid. He mentions three roles: mime and gesture, language model, and provider of comprehensible input. Mime and gesture, according to Harmer, help the teacher to convey meaning to students on the spot; language model means that the teacher models language herself for students to follow; and provider of comprehensible input means that outside the classroom, if student can access to English, it is the English that frequently appears incomprehensible to them. In learning context, only the teacher knows her students' level of English and can provide them with comprehensible English which a textbook or an audio CD cannot.

It can be said in summary that Harmer's chapter on teacher role is of particular significance to language teachers in general and EFL teachers in particular. It presents and describes in a clear style a number of English language teacher roles, some of them are traditional, some others are modern, and some others seem to be of both. It not just tells teachers what roles they should take and gives them insights into classroom behaviour so that they can understand their roles but also helps them how to perform these roles appropriately and effectively in their work.

In **"Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classrooms"**, Richards & Lockhart (1995) devote a chapter to discussing the roles of the second language teacher. Drawing on insights from Ellis & McClinton (1990), Richards & Lockhart define role generally as "the part taken by a participant in any act of communication" (p. 97). According to Richards & Lockhart (Ibid.), there are a number of factors that create and influence the roles of the teacher, but four seem to be of particular importance: (i) institutional factor, (ii) teaching approach or method factor, (iii) teacher's personal views, and (iv) cultural factor.

With regard to the institutional factor, Richards & Lockhart claim that different teaching settings create particular roles for teachers based on the institutional administrative structure, the cultural operating in each institution, and its teaching philosophy. They contrast teacher roles in a "traditional school" with those in a "modern school". In the traditional school, they state, the senior teacher or head of teaching group makes most of the key decisions; the teaching schedules are issued by the school; and the teacher is seen primarily as someone who carries out those decisions that have been made. In the modern school, in contrast, many teachers can serve as course coordinators in rotation; the courses the students must follow are not fixed; counsellors work with the students when they come into the programme; the teachers can make their own decisions about course goals and syllabus content, and how they should teach and monitor their own classes. Based on the institutional factor, Richards & Lockhart identify eight teacher roles many of which can be said to belong to the learner-centred approach to second or foreign language teaching: needs analyst, curriculum developer, material developer, counsellor, mentor, team member, researcher, and professional.

Concerning teaching approach/method factor, Richards & Lockhart maintain that some methods or approaches in language teaching define specific roles for teachers and prescribe the kinds of behaviours in which they should or should not allow in the classroom. In the audiolingual method, for example, the teacher is assumed to play the central and active role. She is the model of the target language for the students to follow, the controller and director of the pace of learning, the monitor and corrector of students' performance (cf. Richards & Rodgers, 1996: 56, 2001: 62). In active teaching and other methods which rely less on teacher-directed teaching, the teacher is thought to play the roles of a knowledge presenter, an explainer, a manager, a monitor, a feedback provider, a responsibility sharer, a lesson organizer, and a coordinator (Tikunoff, 1985; Hyland, 1991). And in the communicative approach to language teaching, the teacher is suggested to play the roles of a facilitator, an independent participant, an organizer, a guide, a researcher, and a learner (Breen & Candlin, 1980).

With reference to teacher's personal views factor, Richards & Lockhart observe that although many teachers have been trained to use a specific method of teaching or asked to teach within a philosophy established by their institution, very few of them have ever followed that method of teaching in its entirety (unless they work in a setting that demands they do and carefully monitor adherence). Instead, the way they teach often reflects their personal interpretation of what they think works best in a given situation. Based on the teachers' descriptions of how they see their role, Richards & Lockhart suggest the following teacher roles: planner, manager, quality controller, group organizer, facilitator, motivator, empowerer, and team member.

And in regard to the cultural factor, Richards & Lockhart state that teaching is an activity which is embedded within a set of culturally bound assumptions about teachers. These assumptions define the roles the teacher is believed to take. They prove their point by pointing out the differences between Western and Oriental education. Western education, according to the authors, focuses more on individual learner creativity and encourages the teacher to facilitate independent learning. Oriental (Chinese) education, in contrast, focuses more on the learner's mastering a body of knowledge presented/transmitted by the teacher, and both the teacher and the learner are concerned with the end product of learning, i.e. students are expected to reproduce the knowledge in the same form as it is transmitted by the teacher (see also Widdowson, 1999; Scrivener, 2009).

There are at least three merits in Richards & Lockhart's chapter. First, it provides insights into the various factors that create and influence the roles of the teacher. Secondly, like the studies by Widdowson and Harmer, it suggests a number of language teacher roles, some of them are of traditional teacher style, some others are of modern teacher style, and some others seem to be of both. And third, it points out some main differences between Western and Oriental (Chinese) education systems.

"Teaching and Learning in the Language Classrooms" is a book of 447 pages long. In this book, Hedge (2000) discusses a number of aspects concerning language teaching and learning. Unlike Widdowson, Richards & Lockhart, and Harmer, Hedge does not examine teacher role in a separate chapter. Instead, she incorporates the problem into a broader framework referred to as "the framework for teaching and learning in the learning process" (p. 26). Hedge begins her examination of the role of the language teacher by analyzing the sample of lesson notes from the Teacher's Book and the corresponding section from the Student's Book entitled "Pre-intermediate Choice". She notices that the activities move from teacher-centredness (the teacher takes a dominant role in largely teacher-fronted classroom) to learner-centredness (students do pair works). Then employing the framework suggested by Harmer (1991), Hedge is able to identify the language teacher in a number of roles in this lesson: controller, assessor, corrector, organizer, monitor, feedback provider, resource. To support her research, Hedge briefly presents Karava-Duka's (1995) study undertaken with a multicultural group of experienced teachers from differing worldwide contexts and representing a wide range of teaching approaches. The author (Karava-Duka) asked the teachers what roles they perform as teachers. She arrived at a below list of roles which are subsumed under 9 categories and the corresponding percentage of teachers who mentioned the functions pertaining to a particular category.

1. **Source of expertise** (46.4%)

1.1 Denoting authoritarian stance?
Instructor
Presenter
Actor
Pedagogist

1.2 Denoting supportive stance?
Informant
Input provider
Information provider
Resource
Source of knowledge

2. **Management roles** (35.7%)
Manager
Organizer
Director
Administrator
Public relation officer
Arranger

3. **Source of advice** (53.5%)
Counsellor
Advisor
Personal Tutor
Psychologist
Listener

4. **Facilitator of learning** (64.2%)
Learning facilitator
Helper
Guide
Catalyst to group discussion
Prompter
Mediator

5. **Sharing roles** (17.8%)
Negotiator
Participant
Student
Cooperator

6. **Caring roles** (25%)
Friend
Sister/Mother
Caretaker
Supporter

7. **Creator of classroom atmosphere** (14.2%)
Entertainer
Motivator
Source of inspiration

8. **Evaluator** (10.7%)

9. **Example of behaviour and hard work** (3.5%)

(Hedge, 2000: 28-9, citing Karavas-Dukas, 1995)

Hedge then discusses some typical roles teachers perform in a traditional and contemporary second language class, and some aspects of teacher competence such as ability to plan an effective lesson, to manage activities and interactions successfully, to monitor learning, to give instructions, and to give feedback.

There are at least two merits concerning Hedge's study. The first is that it looks at the problem of teacher role from a more practical perspective: from the teaching steps suggested in a Teacher's Book. And the second one is that it provides (although not fully and explicitly presented) a useful list of teacher roles (both traditional and modern) subsumed under a number of general role categories.

Scrivener, in his book **"Learning Teaching"** (2009), devotes a small but significant section to discussing the roles of the language teacher. Based on the teacher's teaching style, he broadly categorizes the language teacher as having three roles in relation to teaching which he refers to respectively as (i) the teacher as the explainer, (ii) the teacher as the involver, and (iii) the teacher as the enabler. By "the teacher as the explainer", Scrivener means one who relies mainly on 'explaining' or 'lecturing' as a way of information to the students. He states that done with this teaching style, this teacher's lessons can be very interesting, entertaining, and informative. The students are listening, perhaps making notes, but are mostly not being personally involved or challenged. They often get practice by doing individual exercises after one phase of the lecture has finished. By "the teacher as the involver", Scrivener wants to emphasize the fact that the teacher knows the English language and how it works. She is also familiar with teaching methodology. She is able to use appropriate teaching and organizational procedures and techniques to help her students learn English. Explanation may be one of the techniques. But what she does is to involve the students actively and put a great effort into finding appropriate and interesting activities that will do this, while still retaining clear control over the classroom and what happens in it. And by "the teacher as the enabler", Scrivener maintains that the teacher is confident in sharing control with the students, or perhaps to hand it over to them entirely. Decisions made in her classroom may often be shared or negotiated. In many cases she takes her lead from the students, seeing herself as someone whose job is to create the conditions that enable the students to learn for themselves. She may become a 'guide' or a 'counsellor' or a 'resource' of information when needed. Sometimes when the class is working well, when a lot of autonomous learning is going on, she may be hardly visible.

Scrivener's conceptualization of teacher role is useful not only for the practical teacher but also for the research teacher. His examination of teacher role, although not comprehensive, provides useful insights into three important general teacher roles under which there are a number of other specific roles (both traditional and modern).

It can be seen from the reviewed literature that studies on teacher role are numerous. It is, therefore, not surprising that the problem can be approached from different perspectives: from education generally (the study by Pullias & Young) to language education particularly (the studies by Widdowson and Hedge), and to English language education more specifically (the studies by Harmer and Scrivener). It can also be seen from the reviewed literature that different researchers tackle the problem of teacher role from different levels: some seem to look at the problem from a more theoretical level (Widdowson and Richards & Lockhart), while others seem to explore it from a more practical one (Harmer, Hedge, and Scrivener). In regard to the identification of teacher roles, different researchers seem to approach the problem in a different way: some confine their research to the prescripted roles the teachers perform in the classroom (Hedge, Scrivener, and Harmer); others extend their research to the roles the teachers perform outside the classroom (Pullias & Young and Richards & Lockhart). Still, some identify and describe teacher roles by exploring teacher's personal view, institutional philosophy, the influence of teaching approach or teaching method, and the cultural context in which teachers work (Richards & Lockhart), others seem to approach the problem by making a distinction between what has been commonly referred to as traditional teaching style (related to the teacher-centred approach) and modern or "enlightened", to use Widdowson's (1999: 186) term, teaching style (related to the learner-centred approach). However, what they seem to have in common is that all of them consider teacher role an important aspect of teaching, and all appear to favour the idea that traditional teaching style seem "to impede the natural learning process for it does not allow for learner initiatives; it does not give the learner scope to draw on the available resources of intuition and inventiveness, or to engage freely the procedures for learning which he or she has acquired through a previous experience of language" (Widdowson, 1999: 186). There are, however, at least three gaps that remain unacknowledged by most of the studies reviewed. First, most of the studies seem to have focused on examining teacher role and the nature of teacher role generally: what it is, how it is classified, and what teachers should do to fulfil their roles. Secondly, most of the studies seem to have been conducted by western scholars; their attitudes towards traditional and modern teacher roles, therefore, seem to be somewhat Western-biased. Thirdly, and more importantly, no research has ever attempted to examine how teachers, particularly EFL teachers, perceive their roles and to identify what style of teacher they are in a specific teaching context. These remarks take me to Section 3, where I will present the design and methodology of my research.

3. Research design and methodology

Aim and objectives

The overarching aim of this research is to examine how Vietnamese EFL school teachers perceive their roles and to identify what style of teacher they are in the current changing world. To fulfil this aim, the study sets for itself the following objectives:

1. Finding how Vietnamese EFL school teachers identify teacher styles.
2. Finding how Vietnamese EFL school teachers rate teacher roles through teacher role-pertained responsibilities.
3. Exploring what roles Vietnamese EFL school teachers have performed and what roles they haven't performed in their actual teaching.
4. Locating the current Vietnamese EFL school teachers on the traditional ↔ modern teacher style scale.

Research questions

The above aim and objectives can be translated into the following questions for exploration:

1. What roles do Vietnamese EFL school teachers think are of traditional teacher style, and what roles do they think are of modern teacher style?

2. How do Vietnamese EFL school teachers rate the importance of teacher roles through teachern role-pertained responsibilities?

3. What roles have Vietnamese EFL school teachers performed and what roles haven't they performed in their actual teaching?

4. What style of teacher are Vietnamese EFL school teachers in this era of Industry 4.0?

Research instrument

To accomplish the aim and the objectives, and to answer the research questions, the research employs three questionnaires. The reason for choosing questionnaires is that of all research instruments, questionnaire is the most commonly used format (cf. Trochin, 2005; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007); it is the least expensive which can be sent to a large number of respondents and can allow easy and quick data collection (Robinson, 1991; Bargiela-Chiappini; Brown, 2007; Nickerson & Planken, 2007). The reason for not using other research instruments such as interview is that although interview may play a compensation role for the limitations presented in the questionnaires and can help the researcher with additional information from the participants and confirm their responses in the questionnaires, it is not possible to set up meetings with the participants as they are scattered throughout Vienam, not to mention the fact that many of them are not comfortable to meet with a man (myself) who they know is two or three decades their senior. It is not easy to conduct interviews online or via telephone with the participants either as it is time-consuming and the information obtained from this channel cannot be claimed to be as reliable (cf. Brown, 2007).

The three questionnaires were designed as follows. First, each of the questionnaires was designed into two parts. The first part is to get the participants' personal background information, including their name and their phone number (if possible), their level of teaching (primary, lower secondary or upper secondary school), their gender, their teaching experience, and location of the school where they are working. For the second part, based on my experience as an experienced EFL teacher for quite a number of years, and on the studies by scholars such as Pullias & Young (1968, 1977), De Lopez (1994), Prodromou (1994), Tudor (1996), Widdowson (1999), Hedge (2000), Scrivener (2009), Harmer (2005), Keller (2011), Archana & Rani (2016), I developed a list of 45 items of teacher roles and a list of 45 items of teacher role-pertained responsibilities. Then modified after Kavaras-Dukas (1995, cited in Hedge, 2000), these 45 teacher roles and their pertained responsibilities were grouped into 9 basic concepts or general role categories: (i) source of expertise (5 items), (ii) management (11 items), (iii) source of advice (3 items), (iv) facilitation of learning (8 items), (v) responsibility sharing (4 items), (vi) care taking (2 items), (vii) Professional developing (7 items), (viii) assessing & evaluating (3 items), and (ix) example of behaviour (2 items). The list of 45 items of teacher roles is employed for two purposes: one (Appendix 1, Questionnaire 1) is to get information from EFL school teachers about how they identify teacher styles through the given 45 teacher roles, and the other (Appendix 3, Questionnaire 3) is to ask them to state what roles they have performed or are performing and what roles they haven't performed or are not performing. And the list of 45 items of teacher role-pertained responsibilities (Appendix 2, Questionnaire 2) is to explore how EFL school teachers rate the importance of teacher roles through these teacher role-pertained responsibilities. The rating is done on a five-point scale: **1 = Not at all important**, **2 = Not very important**, **3 = Important**, **4 = Very important**, and **5 = Totally important**. The three questionnaires were piloted by 10 EFL school teachers. The vetting process was employed to identify possible vagueness in the questionnaire items and to adjust both the language and format.

Three things should be noted here. First, there are more teacher roles and teacher role-pertained responsibilities than those provided in the questionnaires. Secondly, there may be more than one responsibility pertaining to a teacher role, but for the purpose of this study only one responsibility pertaining to a teacher role is selected. And thirdly, some of these roles may overlap, and the role categories and their pertained responsibilities are in no particular order of priority.

The participants

The participants involved in this research were primary, lower secondary and upper secondary teachers of English in schools throughout Vietnam. They were MA students in English language linguistics and English language teaching methodology at the University of Languages and International Studies – Vietnam National University, Hanoi (VNU ULIS). The majority of others were from different provinces in Vietnam who attended training workshops on the implementation of MoET's new ten-year English curriculum and textbooks. The total number of participants agreed to take part in the research were 366. The number of questionnaires completed and returned were 334 (91.2%). Of the 334 returned questionnaires, 300 (89.8%) were valid and were determined as data set for analysis and discussion. Of the 300 surveyed participants, 101 (33.6%) are primary teachers, 114 (38%) are lower secondary teachers, and 85 (28.3%) are upper secondary teachers, 280 (93.3%) are female, 20 (6.7%) are male, 116 (38.6%) have been teaching English for 1-10 years, 122 (40.6%) have been teaching English for 11-20 years, and 62 (20.6%) have been teaching English for over 20 years, 108 (36%) are from urban areas, 95 (31.6%) are from suburban areas, and 97 (32.4%) are from rural areas. Table 1 below provides the participants' main demographic profiles. (Percentage rounded to the nearest figure).

Table 1. Participants' main demographic profiles

Information	Details	Number (N=300)	Percentage
Level of teaching	*Primary*	101	*33.6*
	Lower secondary	114	*38.0*
	Upper secondary	85	*28.3*
Gender	*Female*	280	*93.3*
	Male	20	*6.7*
Years of teaching experience	*1 -10 years*	116	*38.6*
	11 – 20 years	122	*40.6*
	>20 years	62	*20.6*
School geographical location	*Metropolitan areas*	108	*36.0*
	Suburban areas	95	*31.6*
	Rural areas	97	*32.4*

Data collection procedure

Being a post-graduate lecturer, the general editor and a co-author of MoET's new ten-year English textbook series for schools in Vietnam, and an EFL teacher trainer gave me a relatively high degree of freedom to ask EFL MA students and EFL school teachers to take part in the research. Not surprisingly, most of the participants who attended my MA courses at VNU ULIS and training workshops for MoET's new ten-year English curriculum and textbooks agreed to be my survey respondents. The surveys were conducted after class and workshop time. The questionnaires were administered directly to the participants one at a time. Each survey questionnaire took about 30 minutes on average. In the completing process, the participants were well provided with explanations of the research, and they had opportunities to ask questions related to the items in the questionnaires they wanted the researcher to clarify. Those participants who could not complete their questionnaires could bring them home and handed them over to the researcher the next day.

The data collected were then analyzed quantitatively for the frequency and percentage of each role category and each role-pertained responsibility item, and for each rating scale as well as the mean score of the role items (in Questionnaire 2).

4. Findings and discussion

Objective 1: Findings relating to how Vietnamese EFL school teachers identify teacher styles from teacher roles

Question 1: What roles do Vietnamese EFL school teachers think are of traditional teacher style, and what roles do they think are of modern teacher style?

It should be noted here that the decision on whether a teacher role is of traditional or modern teacher style is not an easy task, for there are no unanimous answers on the part of the surveyed teachers to whether a teacher role belongs absolutely to a teacher style. To decide whether a particular teacher role belongs to a particular teacher style, therefore, we have to set a working principle for ourselves. In this research, we will use "majority rule" as the basis for determining what teacher role belongs to what teacher style. This means that when over 50% of the participants identify a teacher role as belonging to traditional teacher style, it is counted as the role of the traditional teacher style and vice versa. Based on this principle, we now turn to report on how Vietnamese EFL school teachers respond to the first research question. We will begin with reporting on how EFL teachers identify teacher style in the 9 general role categories. Then we will present in some detail how they respond to each role item in the Questionnaire.

General information on role categories

The results in Questionnaire 1 show that of the 9 role categories, 3 are identified as belonging to traditional teacher style (TTS) and 6 are reported belonging to modern teacher style (MTS). The 3 role categories identified as belonging to the TTS (sorted in ranking order) are "Source of expertise" (Category I) receiving the TTS−MTS ratio of 57.3%−42.7%, "Example of behaviour" (Category IX): 56.3%−43.7%, and "Management" (Category II): 50.2%−49.7%. The 6 role categories reported belonging to the MTS include: "Assessing & evaluating" (Category VIII) receiving the MTS-TTS ratio of 76.8%−23.2%, "Professional developing" (Category VII): 75.2%−24.8%, "Responsibility sharing" (Category V): 74.7%−25.3%, "Facilitation of learning" (Category IV): 67.8%−32.2%, "Care taking": 55.3%−44.7%, and "Source of advice": 54.7%−45.3%. Tables 2 and 3 summarize the information.

Table 2. Traditional role categories as identified by EFL school teachers

Role category	Teacher style	
	TTS (%)	MTS (%)
I. Source of expertise	57.3	42.7
IX. Example of behaviour	56.3	43.7
II. Management	50.2	49.7

Table 3. Modern role categories as identified by EFL school teachers

Role category	Teacher style	
	MTS (%)	TTS (%)
VIII. Assessing & evaluating	76.8	23.2
VII. Professional developing	75.2	24.8
V. Responsibility sharing	74.7	25.3
IV. Facilitation of learning	67.8	32.2
VI. Care taking	55.3	44.7
III. Source of advice	54.7	45.3

Role item information

A closer inspection of the teacher roles in the 9 role categories reveals four major findings as follows:

First, Vietnamese EFL school teachers identify more roles as belonging to the MTS than to the TTS. Of the 45 roles in the questionnaire, 12 are identified as belonging to the TTS and 33 as belonging to the MTS. The 12 roles identified as belonging to TTS include: "Teacher as authoritarian" (Item 12): 91.3% (N=274), "Teacher as source of knowledge" (Item 3): 79.7% (N=239), "Teacher as authority" (Item 13): 76.3% (N=229), "Teacher as parent" (Item 32): 69% (N=205), "Teacher as tutor" (Item 19): 60% (N=180), "Teacher as presenter of knowledge" (Item 2): 58.3% (N=175), "Teacher as explainer" (Item 5): 57% (N=171), "Teacher as language model" (Item 45): 57% (N=171), "Teacher as teacher and educator" (Item 1): 56% (N=168), "Teacher as example" (Item 44): 55.7% (N=167), "Teacher as controller" (Item 11): 53.3% (N=160), and "Teacher as manager" (Item 6): 51% (N=153). The information is summarized in Table 4.

Table 4. Roles identified as belonging to the TTS

Role	(%)		Role	(%)
12. Teacher as authoritarian	91.3		5. Teacher as explainer	57.0
3. Teacher as source of knowledge	79.7		45. Teacher as language model	57.0
13. Teacher as authority	76.3		1. Teacher as teacher and educator	56.0
32. Teacher as parent	69.0		44. Teacher as example	55.7
19. Teacher as tutor	60.0		11. Teacher as controller	53.3
2. Teacher as presenter of knowledge	58.3		6. Teacher as manager	51.0

The 33 roles reported belonging to the MTS are: "Teacher as syllabus designer" (Item 37): 90.3% (N=271), "Teacher as curriculum evaluator" (Item 41): 90% (N=290), "Teacher as textbook developer/ writer" (Item 38): 87.7% (N=263), "Teacher as textbook evaluator" (Item 42): 87.3% (N=262), "Teacher as modernizer" (Item 35): 85.7% (N=257), "Teacher as curriculum developer" (Item 36): 83% (N=265), "Teacher as social worker" (Item 16): 80.3% (N=241), "Teacher as friend" (Item 33): 79% (N=237), "Teacher as negotiator" (Item 28): 78.7% (N=236), "Teacher as learner" (Item 31): 78.3% (N=235), "Teacher as co-participant" (Item 30): 78% (N=234), "Teacher as empowerer" (Item 26): 74% (N=222), "Teacher as inspirer" (Item 23): 72.7% (N=218), "Teacher as motivator" (Item 24): 71.3% (N=214), "Teacher as stimulator" (Item 21): 71% (N=213), "Teacher as enabler" (Item 22): 69.7% (N=209), "Teacher as academic advisor" (Item 18): 68.7% (N=206), "Teacher as researcher" (Item 34): 67.3% (N=202), "Teacher as learning facilitator" (Item 20): 65.7% (N=197), "Teacher as developer of language skills" (Item 4): 64.7% (N=194), "Teacher as responsibility sharer" (Item 29): 64% (N=192), "Teacher as observer" (Item 9): 60.6% (N=182), "Teacher as organizer" (Item 7): 60% (N=180), "Teacher as involver" (Item 25): 59.7% (N=179), "Teacher as planner" (Item 8): 59% (N=177), "Teacher as rapport builder" (Item 27): 59% (N=177), "Teacher as counsellor" (Item 17): 55.7% (N=167), "Teacher as test/exam developer" (Item 39): 55.7% (N=167), "Teacher as monitor" (Item 10): 54% (N=162), "Teacher as learning assessor" (Item 14): 53.7% (N=161), "Teacher as learning evaluator" (Item 43): 53.3% (N=160), "Teacher as quality controller" (Item 15): 51.7% (N=155), "Teacher as test/exam preparer" (Item 40): 51.7% (N=155). Table 5 summarizes the information.

Table 5. Roles identified as belonging to the MTS

Role	Percent	Role	Percent
37. Teacher as syllabus designer	90.3	34. Teacher as researcher	65.7
41. Teacher as curriculum evaluator	90.0	20. Teacher as learning facilitator	65.7
38. Teacher as textbook developer/ writer	87.7	4. Teacher as developer of language skills	64.7
42. Teacher as textbook evaluator	87.3	29. Teacher as responsibility sharer	64.0
35. Teacher as modernizer	85.7	9. Teacher as observer	60.6
36. Teacher as curriculum developer	83.0	7. Teacher as organizer	60.0
16. Teacher as social worker	80.3	25. Teacher as involver	59.7
33. Teacher as friend	79.0	8. Teacher as planner	59.0
28. Teacher as negotiator	78.7	27. Teacher as rapport builder	59.0
31. Teacher as learner	78.3	17. Teacher as counsellor	55.7
30. Teacher as co-participant	78.0	39. Teacher as test/exam developer	55.7
26. Teacher as empowerer	74.0	10. Teacher as monitor	54.0
23. Teacher as inspirer	72.7	14. Teacher as learning assessor	53.7
24. Teacher as motivator	71.3	43. Teacher as learning evaluator	53.3
21. Teacher as stimulator	71.0	15. Teacher as quality controller	51.7
22. Teacher as enabler	69.7	40. Teacher as test/exam preparer	51.7
18. Teacher as academic advisor	68.7		

Second, there are role categories in which most or all roles are identified as belonging to the TTS. Here we find "Source of expertise" (Category I) in which 4/5 roles are of the TTS, and "Example of behaviour" (Category IX) in which both roles are of the TTS. In contrast, there are role categories in which most or all roles are reported belonging to the MTS. Here we find "Management" (Category II) in which 7/11 roles are of the MTS, "Source of advice" (Category III) in which 2/3 roles are of the MTS, "Facilitation of learning" (Category IV) in which all 8 roles are of the MTS, and "Responsibility sharing" (Category V) in which all 4 roles are of the MTS. Tables 6 and 7 summarize the findings described.

Table 6. Role categories having most or all roles of the TTS

I. Source of expertise	TTS	MTS
1. Teacher as teacher and educator	56.0 (N=168)	
2. The teacher as presenter of knowledge	58.3 (N=175)	
3. Teacher as source of knowledge	79.7 (N=239)	
4. Teacher as developer of language skills		64.7 (N=194)
5. Teacher as explainer	57.0 (N=171)	
IX. Example of bahaviour		
44. Teacher as example	55.7 (N=167)	
45. Teacher as language model	57.0 (N=171)	

Table 7. Role categories having most or all roles of the MTS

II. Management	**MTS**	**TTS**	**IV. Facilitation of learning**	**MTS**	**TTS**
6. Teacher as manager		51.0 (N=153)	20. Teacher as learning facilitator	65.7 (N=197)	
7. Teacher as organizer	60.0 (N=180)		21. Teacher as stimulator	71.0 (N=213)	
8. Teacher as planner	59.0 (N=177)		22. Teacher as enabler	69.7 (N=209)	
9. Teacher as observer	60.6 (N=182)		23. Teacher as inspirer	72.7 (N=218)	
10. Teacher as monitor	54.0 (N=162)		24. Teacher as motivator	71.3 (N=214)	
11. Teacher as controller		53.3 (N=160)	25. Teacher as involver	59.7 (N=179)	
12. Teacher as authoritarian		91.3 (N=274)	26. Teacher as empowerer	74.0 (N=222)	
13. Teacher as authority		76.3 (N=229)	27. Teacher as rapport builder	59.0 (N=177)	
14. Teacher as learning assessor	53.7 (N=161)		**V. Responsibility sharing**		
15. Teacher as quality controller	51.7 (N=155)		28. Teacher as negotiator	78.7 (N=236)	
16. Teacher as social worker	80.3 (N=241)		29. Teacher as responsibility sharer	64.0 (N=192)	
III. Source of advice			30. Teacher as co-participant	78.0 (N=234)	
17. Teacher as counsellor	55.7(N=167)		31. Teacher as learner	78.3 (N=235)	
18. Teacher as academic advisor	68.7(N=206)				
19. Teacher as tutor		60.0 (N=180)			

Third, most of the roles which are suggested by researchers such as Breen & Candlin (1980), Nunan (1991), Tudor (1993, 1996), De Lopez (1994), Widdowson (1999), Hedge (2000), Graves (2005), Harmer (2005), Keller (2011) and others as belonging to the learner-centred approach are identified as belonging to the MTS. Here we find such roles as “Teacher as counsellor” (Item 17), “Teacher as academic advisor” (Item 18), “Teacher as facilitator” (Item 20), “Teacher as stimulator” (Item 21), “Teacher as empowerer” (Item 26), “Teacher as negotiator” (Item 28), “Teacher as responsibility sharer” (Item 29), “Teacher as curriculum developer” (Item 36), “Teacher as syllabus designer” (Item 37), “Teacher as material/textbook developer/writer” (Item 38), “Teacher as curriculum evaluator” (Item 41), and “Teacher as material/textbook evaluator” (Item 42). In contrast, most of the roles which are said to belong to the teacher-centred approach are reported belonging to the TTS. Here we find such roles as “Teacher as source of knowledge” (Item 3), “Teacher as authoritarian” (Item 12), “Teacher as authority” (Item 13), and “Teacher as example” (Item 44).

Finally, a number of teacher roles which have not yet been classified in the literature as belonging to either of the two teacher styles are perceived by the EFL school teachers as belonging to the MTS. But a closer look at these teacher roles will reveal that they can be of the TTS as well. Here we find “Teacher as organizer” (Items 7), “Teacher as planner” (Item 8), “Teacher as assessor” (Item 14), “Teacher as quality controller” (Item 15), “Teacher as rapport builder” (Item 27), “Teacher as researcher” (Item 34), “Teacher as test/exam developer” (Item 39), “Teacher as test/exam preparer” (Item 40), and others.

Objective 2: Findings relating to how Vietnamese EFL school teachers rate the importance of teacher roles through teacher role-pertained responsibilities

Question 2: How do Vietnamese EFL school teachers rate the importance of teacher roles through teacher role-pertained responsibilities?

EFL teachers' rating of role categories

Overall it can be said that most of the role categories are very highly rated by Vietnamese EFL school teachers. Of the 9 role categories, "Facilitation of learning" (Category IV) tops the list: of the 8 teacher role-pertained responsibilities in this category (N=2,400), "Not at all important" and "Not very important" take up only 0.4% and 3.5% respectively, while "Important" accounts for 24%, "Very important" 36.1%, and "Totally important" 35.8%, with the mean of 4.03. Ranked second is "Source of expertise" (Category I): of the 5 teacher role-pertained responsibilities in this category (N=1,500), "Not at all important" and "Not very important" take up only 0.8% and 6.2% respectively, while "Important" accounts for 30.1%, "Very important" 27.6%, and "Totally important" 35%, with the mean of 3.89. Ranked third is "Example of behaviour" (Category IX): of the 2 teacher role-pertained responsibilities in this category (N=600), "Not at all important" and "Not very important" take up only 2.3% and 5.5% respectively, while "Important" accounts for 31.5%, "Very important" 35.3%, and "Totally important" 25.3%, with the mean of 3.76. Ranked fourth is "Management" (Category II): of the 11 teacher role-pertained responsibilities in this category (N=3,300), "Not at all important" takes up only 2.8%, "Not very important" 9.8%, while "Important" accounts for 30.4%, "Very important" 35.7%, and "Totally important" 21%, with the mean of 3.62. "Professional developing" (Category VII), "Source of advice" (Category III) and "Assessing & evaluating" (Category VIII) are roughly equally rated: of the 7 teacher role-pertained responsibilities in the category of "Professional developing" (N=2,100), "Not at all important" takes up 6.4%, "Not very important" 13.8%, while "Important" accounts for 31.6%, "Very important" 29.6%, and "Totally important" 18.6%, with the mean of 3.4; of the 3 teacher role-pertained responsibilities in the category of "Source of advice" (N=900), "Not at all important" takes up only 2.1%, "Not very important" 11.5%, while "Important" accounts for 43.1%, "Very important" 31.7%, and "Totally important" 11.1%, with the mean of 3.38; and of the 3 teacher role-pertained responsibilities in the category of "Assessing & evaluating" (N=900), "Not at all important" takes up only 3%, "Not very important" 13.5%, while "Important" accounts for 38.8%, "Very important" 32.6%, and "Totally important" 12%, with the mean of 3.37. "Responsibility sharing" (Category V) and "Care taking" (Category VI) are at the bottom of the list: of the 4 teacher role-pertained responsibilities in the category of "Responsibility sharing" (N=1,200), 6.7% of the respondents rated it as "Not at all important", 13.3% as "Not very important", while 36.5% rated it as "Important", 30.1% as "Very important", and 12.9% as "Totally important", with the mean of 3.29. And of the 2 teacher role-pertained responsibilities in the category of "Care taking" (N=600), 14.8% of the respondents rated it as "Not at all important", 25.1% as "Not very important", while 34.3% rated as "Important", and 21.3% as "Very important", while only 4.1% rated it as "Totally important", with the mean of 2.75. Table 8 provides a summary of the reported information.

Table 8. EFL teachers' rating of teacher role categories

Role category	**Not at all important**	**Not very important**	**Important**	**Very important**	**Totally important**	***Mean***
IV. Facilitation of learning	0.4	3.5	24.0	36.1	35.8	*4.03*
I. Source of expertise	0.8	6.2	30.1	27.6	35.0	*3.89*
IX. Example of behaviour	2.3	5.5	31.5	35.3	25.3	*3.76*
II. Management	2.8	9.8	30.4	35.7	21.0	*3.62*

Role category	Not at all important	Not very important	Important	Very important	Totally important	*Mean*
VII. Professional developing	6.4	13.8	31.6	29.6	18.6	*3.40*
III. Source of advice	2.1	11.5	43.1	31.7	11.1	*3.38*
VIII Assessing & evaluating	3.0	13.5	38.8	32.6	12.0	*3.37*
V. Responsibility sharing	6.7	13.3	36.5	31.1	12.9	*3.29*
VI. Care taking	14.8	25.1	34.3	21.5	4.1	*2.75*

EFL teachers' rating of traditional teacher roles

Cutting across the teacher style dimension (Questionnaire 1), more significant findings can be found when we look at how Vietnamese EFL teachers rate the importance of teacher roles through the traditional teacher role (TTR)-pertained responsibilities in this Questionnaire 2. It is expected that those teacher roles that were identified as belonging to the TTS would receive low ratings from the participants. But the results prove to be the opposite: of the 12 responsibilities pertaining to the 12 teacher roles which were identified as belonging to the TTS, 4 (33.3%) receive high ratings, 5 (41.6%) receive medium ratings, and 3 (25%) receive low ratings.

The 4 TTR-pertained responsibilities receiving high ratings are: "Teacher as teacher and educator" (Item 1) in which "Not at all important" receives no rating, "Not very important" takes up only 1% (N=3), "Important" accounts for 18.6% (N=56), "Very important" 21.7% (N=65), and "Totally important" 58.6% (N=176), with the mean of 4.38; "Teacher as presenter of knowledge" (Item 2) in which, like Item 1, "Not at all important" receives no rating, "Not very important" takes up only 2.3% (N=7), "Important" 30.3% (N=91), "Very important" 27.3% (N=82), and "Totally important" 40% (N=120), with the mean of 4.05; "Teacher as manager" (Item 6) in which, like Items 1 and 2, "Not at all important" receives no rating, "Not very important" takes up only 1.7% (N=5), "Important" 21.6% (N=65), while "Very important" accounts for 43.3% (N=130), and "Totally important" 33.3% (N=100), with the mean of 4.08; and "Teacher as example" (Item 44) in which, like Items 1, 2, and 3, "Not at all important" receives no rating, "Not very important" takes up only 3.7% (N=11), "Important" accounts for 29.6% (N=89), "Very important" 34.3% (N=103), and "Totally important" 32.3% (N=97), with the mean of 3.95.

The 5 TTR-pertained responsibilities receiving medium ratings include: "Teacher as language model" (Item 44) in which "Not at all important" takes up 4.7% (N=14), "Not very important" 7.3% (N=22), "Important" 33.3% (N=100), "Very important" 36.3% (N=109), and "Totally important" 18.3% (N=55), with the mean of 3.56; "Teacher as source of knowledge" (Item 3) in which "Not at all important" receives no rating, "Not very important" takes up 10.3% (N=31), "Important" 40.6% (N=122), "Very important" 33.3% (N=100), and "Totally important" 15.7% (N=47), with the mean of 3.54; "Teacher as tutor" (Item 19) in which "Not at all important" takes up only 2% (N=6), "Not very important" accounts for 11.6% (N=35), "Important" 39.3% (N=118), "Very important" 34.6% (N=104), and "Totally important" 12.3% (N=55), with the mean of 3.44; "Teacher as controller" (Item 11) in which "Not at all important" takes up 4.6% (N=14), "Not very important" 18.3% (N=55), "Important" 27.3% (N=82), "Very important" 36.3% (N=109), and "Totally important"

13.3% (N=40), with the mean of 3.35; and "Teacher as explainer" (Item 5) in which "Not at all important" takes up 4.3% (N=13), "Not very important" 17.6% (N=53), "Important" 44.7% (N=134), "Very important" 29.3% (N=88), and "Totally important" 4% (N=12), with the mean of 3.11.

And the 3 TTR-pertained responsibilities receiving low ratings consist of "Teacher as authoritarian" (Item 12) in which "Not at all important" accounts for 6.7% (N=20), "Not very important" 28.6% (N=86), "Important" 41% (N=123), "Very important" 20.3% (N=61), and "Totally important" 3.3% (N=10), with the mean of 2.85; "Teacher as authority" (Item 13) in which "Not at all important" takes up 13% (N=39), "Not very important" 25.3% (N=76), "Important" 37.6% (N=113), "Very important" 20.3% (N=61), and "Totally important" 3.7% (N=11), with the mean of 2.76; and "Teacher as parent" (Item 32) in which "Not at all important" takes up 27.7% (N=83), "Not very important" 34.6% (N=104), "Important" 21.6% (N=65), "Very important" 14.3% (N=43), and "Totally important" accounts for only 1.7% (N=5), with the mean of 2.28. Table 9 summarizes the information described.

Table 9. EFL teachers' rating of TTR-pertained responsibilities

(Responsibilities pertaining to) teacher roles[2]	**Not at all important**	**Not very important**	**Important**	**Very important**	**Totally important**	***Mean***
High rating						
1. Teacher as teacher and educator		1.0 (N=3)	18.6 (N=56)	21.7 (N=65)	58.6 (N=176)	*4.38*
6. Teacher as manager		1.7 (N=5)	21.6 (N=65)	43.3 (N=130)	33.3 (N=100)	*4.08*
2. Teacher as presenter of knowledge		2.3 (N=7)	30.3 (N=91)	27.3 (N=82)	40.0 (N=120)	*4.05*
44. Teacher as example		3.7 (N=11)	29.6 (N=89)	34.3 (N=103)	32.3 (N=97)	*3.95*
Medium rating						
45. Teacher as language model	4.7 (N=14)	7.3 (N=22)	33.3 (N=100)	36.3 (N=109)	18.3 (N=55)	*3.56*
3. Teacher as source of knowledge		10.3 (N=31)	40.6 (N=122)	33.3 (N=100)	15.7 (N=47)	*3.54*
19. Teacher as tutor	2.0 (N=6)	11.6 (N=35)	39.3 (N=118)	34.6 (N=104)	12.3 (N=37)	*3.44*
11. Teacher as controller	4.6 (N=14)	18.3 (N=55)	27.3 (N=82)	36.3 (N=109)	13.3 (N=40)	*3.35*
5. Teacher as explainer	4.3 (N=13)	17.6 (N=53)	44.7 (N=134)	29.3 (N=88)	4.0 (N=12)	*3.11*
Low rating						
12. Teacher as authoritarian	6.7 (N=20)	28.6 (N=86)	41.0 (N=123)	20.3 (N=61)	3.3 (N=10)	*2.85*
13. Teacher as authority	13.0 (N=39)	25.3 (N=76)	37.6 (N=113)	20.3 (N=61)	3.7 (N=11)	*2.76*
32. Teacher as parent	27.7 (N=83)	34.6 (N=104)	21.6 (N=65)	14.3 (N=43)	1.7 (N=5)	*2.28*

[1]EFL teachers' rating of modern teacher roles

Turning to how Vietnamese EFL teachers rate modern teacher roles (MTR), it is of interest of note that of the 33 pertained responsibilities whose roles were identified as belonging to the MTS, 8 (24.2%) receive very high ratings, 10 (30.3%) receive high ratings, 12 receive medium ratings (36.3%), and 3 (9%) receive low ratings.

The 8 MTR-pertained responsibilities receiving very high ratings are: "Teacher as stimulator" (Item 21) in which "Not at all important" receives no rating, "Not very important" takes up 1.7% (N=5), "Important" 13% (N=39), "Very important" 25.6% (N=77), and "Totally important" 59.6% (N=179), with the mean of 4.43; "Teacher as developer of language skills" (Item 4) in which "Not at all important" receives no rating, "Not very important" takes up 0.7% (N=2), "Important" 16.3% (N=49), "Very important" 26.3% (N=79), and "Totally

[1] It should be noted that the responsibilities pertaining to the teacher roles should be presented in this column. For reason of space, however, only teacher roles are presented.

important" 56.6% (N=170), with the mean of 4.39; "Teacher as motivator" (Item 24) in which "Not at all important" receives no rating, "Not very important" accounts for 1.3% (N=4), "Important" 13.6% (N=41), "Very important" 36.6% (N=110), and "Totally important" 48.3% (N=145), with the mean of 4.32; "Teacher as involver" (Item 25) in which "Not at all important" receives no rating, "Not very important" accounts for 1.7% (N=5), "Important" 15.7% (N=47), "Very important" 38.6% (N=116), and "Totally important" 44% (N=132), with the mean of 4.25; "Teacher as organizer" (Item 7) in which "Not at all important" receives no rating, "Not very important" accounts for 1.3% (N=4), "Important" 18.6% (N=56), "Very important" 41.7% (N=125), and "Totally important" 38.3% (N=115), with the mean of 4.17; "Teacher as planner" (Item 8) in which "Not at all important" receives no rating, "Not very important" takes up 2.7% (N=8), "Important" 17.3% (N=52), "Very important" 41.7% (N=125), and "Totally important" 38.3% (N=115), with the mean of 4.16; "Teacher as inspirer" (Item 23) in which "Not at all important" receives no rating, "Not very important" accounts for 3.3% (N=10), "Important" 18.6% (N=56), "Very important" 36.3% (N=109), and "Totally important" 41.7% (N=125), with the mean of 4.16; and "Teacher as enabler" (Item 22) in which "Not at all important" receives no rating, "Not very important" takes up 2.7% (N=8), "Important" 26.3% (N=79), "Very important" 25.6% (N=77), and "Totally important" 33.3% (N=110), with the mean of 4.02. Table 10 summarizes the information.

Table 10. MTR-pertained responsibilities receiving very high ratings

Responsibilities pertaining to teacher roles	**Not at all important**	**Not very important**	**Important**	**Very important**	**Totally important**	***Mean***
21. Teacher as stimulator		1.7 (N=5)	13.0 (N=39)	25.6 (N=77)	59.6 (N=179)	*4.43*
4. Teacher as developer of language skills		0.7 (N=2)	16.3 (N=49)	26.3 (N=79)	56.6 (N=170)	*4.39*
24. Teacher as motivator		1.3 (N=4)	13.6 (N=41)	36.6 (N=110)	48.3 (N=145)	*4.32*
25. Teacher as involver		1.7 (N=5)	15.7 (N=47)	38.6 (N=116)	44.0 (N=132)	*4.25*
7. Teacher as organizer		1.3 (N=4)	18.6 (N=56)	41.7 (N=125)	38.3 (N=115)	*4.17*
8. Teacher as planner		2.7 (N=8)	17.3 (N=52)	41.7 (N=125)	38.3 (N=115)	*4.16*
23. Teacher as inspirer		3.3 (N=10)	18.6 (N=56)	36.3 (N=109)	41.7 (N=125)	*4.16*
22. Teacher as enabler		2.7 (N=8)	26.3 (N=79)	37.6 (N=113)	33.3 (N=100)	*4.02*

The 10 MTR-pertained responsibilities receiving high ratings include: "Teacher as test/exam developer" (Item 39) in which "Not at all important" accounts for 2.3% (N=7), "Not very important" 4% (N=12), "Important" 25.3% (N=76), "Very important" 38.6% (N=116), and "Totally important" 29.7% (N=89), with the mean of 3.89; "Teacher as monitor (Item 10) in which "Not at all important" accounts for 0.7% (N=2), "Not very important" 2.3% (N=7), "Important" 31.6% (N=95), "Very important" 39% (N=117), and "Totally important" 26.3% (N=79), with the mean of 3.88; "Teacher as rapport builder" (Item 27) in which "Not at all important" and "Not very important" receive no rating, "Important" takes up 35.3% (N=106), "Very important" 41.3% (N=124), and "Totally important" 23.3% (N=70), with the mean of 3.88; "Teacher as learning facilitator" (Item 20) in which "Not at all important" and "Not very important" take up 1% (N=3) and 3% (N=9) respectively, "Important" accounts for 31% (N=93), "Very important" 39.6% (N=119), and "Totally important" 25.4% (N=76), with the mean of 3.85; "Teacher as observer" (Item

9) in which "Not at all important" and "Not very important" account for 0.7% (N=2) and 4.3% (N=13) respectively, "Important" takes up 29.3% (N=88), "Very important" 43.6% (N=131), and "Totally important" 22% (N=66), with the mean of 3.82; "Teacher as text/exam preparer" (Item 40) in which "Not at all important" and "Not very important" account for 0.7% (N=2) and 4.6% (N=13) respectively, "Important" takes up 30% (N=90), "Very important" 37.6% (N=113), and "Totally important" 26% (N=78), with the mean of 3.82; "Teacher as quality controller" (Item 15) in which "Not at all important" receives no rating, "Not very important" takes up 3.3% (N=10), "Important" 32.3% (N=97), "Very important" 45.6% (N=137), and "Totally important" 18.7% (N=56), with the mean of 3.80; "Teacher as learning assessor" (Item 14) in which "Not at all important" and "Not very important" take up 1.3% (N=4) and 3.7% (N=11) respectively, "Important" 35.6% (N=107), "Very important" 33% (N=99), and "Totally important" 26.3% (N=78), with the mean of 3.79; "Teacher as researcher" (Item 34) in which "Not at all important" receives no rating, "Not very important" takes up 4.3% (N=13), "Important" accounts for 35.3% (N=106), "Very important" 38% (N=114), and "Totally important" 22.3% (N=67), with the mean of 3.78; and "Teacher as counsellor" (Item 17) in which "Not at all important" and "Not very important" receive no rating, "Important" takes up 43.3% (N=130), "Very important" 40.3% (N=121), and "Totally important" 16.3% (N=49), with the mean of 3.73. Table 11 provides the reported information.

Table 11. MTR-pertained responsibilities receiving high ratings

Responsibilities pertaining to teacher roles	**Not at all important**	**Not very important**	**Important**	**Very important**	**Totally important**	***Mean***
39. Teacher as test/exam developer	2.3 (N=7)	4.0 (N=12)	25.3 (N=76)	38.6 (N=116)	29.7 (N=89)	*3.89*
10. Teacher as monitor	0.7 (N=2)	2.3 (N=7)	31.6 (N=95)	39.0 (N=117)	26.3 (N=79)	*3.88*
27. Teacher as rapport builder			35.3 (N=106)	41.3 (N=124)	23.3 (N=70)	*3.88*
20. Teacher as learning facilitator	1.0 (N=3)	3.0 (N=9)	31.0 (N=93)	39.6 (N=119)	25.4 (N=76)	*3.85*
9. Teacher as observer	0.7 (N=2)	4.3 (N=13)	29.3 (N=88)	43.6 (N=131)	22.0 (N=66)	*3.82*
40. Teacher as test/exam preparer	1.7 (N=5)	4.6 (N=14)	30.0 (N=90)	37.6 (N=113)	26.0 (N=78)	*3.82*
15. Teacher as quality controller		3.3 (N=10)	32.3 (N=97)	45.6 (N=137)	18.7 (N=56)	*3.80*
14. Teacher as learning assessor	1.3 (N=4)	3.7 (N=11)	35.6 (N=107)	33.0 (N=99)	26.3 (N=79)	*3.79*
34. Teacher as researcher		4.3 (N=13)	35.3 (N=106)	38.0 (N=114)	22.3 (N=67)	*3.78*
17. Teacher as counsellor			43.3 (N=130)	40.3 (N=121)	16.3 (N=49)	*3.73*

The 12 MTR-pertained responsibilities that receive medium ratings consist of "Teacher as learning evaluator" (Item 43) in which "Not at all important" takes up 0.6% (N=2), "Not very important" accounts for 6.7% (N=20), "Important" 36.6% (N=110), "Very important" 40.3% (N=121), and "Totally important" 15.6% (N=47), with the mean of 3.64; "Teacher as responsibility sharer" (Item 29) in which "Not at all important" takes up 2% (N=6), "Not very important" 4.7% (N=14), "Important" 38.3% (N=115), "Very important" 39.3% (N=118), and "Totally important" 15.7% (N=47), with the mean of 3.62; "Teacher as modernizer" (Item 35) in which "Not at all important" takes up 2.3% (N=7), "Not very important" 4.6% (N=14), "Important" 39.3% (N=118), "Very important" 37.3% (N=112), and "Totally important" 16.3% (N=49), with the mean of 3.61; "Teacher as learner" (Item 31) in which "Not at all important" takes

up 1.3% (N=4), "Not very important" 9.3% (N=28), "Important" 36.6% (N=110), "Very important" 35.2% (N=102), and "Totally important" 17.3% (N=52), with the mean of 3.58; "Teacher as co-participant/team member" (Item 30) in which "Not at all important" takes up 3.3% (N=10), "Not very important" 7.7% (N=23), "Important" 42% (N=126), "Very important" 31.6% (N=95), and "Totally important" 16.3% (N=46), with the mean of 3.48; "Teacher as curriculum developer" (Item 36) in which "Not at all important" takes up 3.7% (N=11), "Not very important" 20.3% (N=61), "Important" 30.6% (N=92), "Very important" 26.7% (N=80), and "Totally important" 18.6% (N=56), with the mean of 3.36; "Teacher as empowerer" (Item 26) in which "Not at all important" takes up 2.7% (N=8), "Not very important" 14.6% (N=44), "Important" 38.6% (N=116), "Very important" 32.7% (N=98), and "Totally important" 11.3% (N=34), with the mean of 3.35; "Teacher as curriculum evaluator" (Item 41) in which "Not at all important" takes up 6.7% (N=20), "Not very important" 10% (N=30), "Important" 38.3% (N=115), "Very important" 36.3% (N=109), and "Totally important" 8.6% (N=26), with the mean of 3.30; "Teacher as friend" (Item 33) in which "Not at all important" takes up 2% (N=6), "Not very important" 15.6% (N=47), "Important" 47% (N=141), "Very important" 28.6% (N=86), and "Totally important" 6.7% (N=20) with the mean of 3.22; "Teacher as social worker" (Item 16) in which "Not at all important" takes up 4.6% (N=14), "Not very important" 16.3% (N=49), "Important" 42.6% (N=128), "Very important" 28.7% (N=86), and "Totally important" 7.6% (N=23), with the mean of 3.18; "Teacher as textbook evaluator" (Item 42) in which "Not at all important" takes up 1.7% (N=5), "Not very important" 23.6% (N=71), "Important" 41.7% (N=125), "Very important" 21.3% (N=64), and "Totally important" 11.6% (N=35), with the mean of 3.18; and "Teacher as syllabus designer" (Item 37) in which "Not at all important" takes up 8.3% (N=25), "Not very important" 26.6% (N=80), "Important" 30% (N=90), "Very important" 20.6% (N=62), and "Totally important" 14.3% (N=43), with the mean of 3.06. The reported information is presented in Table 12.

Table 12. MTR-pertained responsibilities receiving medium ratings

Responsibilities pertaining to teacher roles	Not at all important	Not very important	Important	Very important	Totally important	*Mean*
43. Teacher as learning evaluator	0.6 (N=2)	6.7 (N=20)	36.6 (N=110)	40.3 (N=121)	15.6 (N=47)	*3.64*
29. Teacher as responsibility sharer	1.3 (N=6)	4.7 (N=14)	38.3 (N=115)	39.3 (N=118)	15.7 (N=47)	*3.62*
35. Teacher as modernizer	2.3 (N=7)	4.6 (N=14)	39.3 (N=118)	37.3 (N=112)	16.3 (N=49)	*3.61*
31. Teacher as learner	1.3 (N=4)	9.3 (N=28)	36.6 (N=110)	35.2 (N=102)	17.3 (N=52)	*3.58*
30. Teacher as co-participant/team member	3.3 (N=10)	7.7 (N=23)	42.0 (N=126)	31.6 (N=95)	15.3 (N=46)	*3.48*
36. Teacher as curriculum developer	3.7 (N=11)	20.3 (N=61)	30.6 (N=92)	26.7 (N=80)	18.6 (N=56)	*3.36*
26. Teacher as empowerer	2.7 (N=8)	14.6 (N=44)	38.6 (N=116)	32.7 (N=98)	11.3 (N=34)	*3.35*
41. Teacher as curriculum evaluator	6.7 (N=20)	10.0 (N=30)	38.3 (N=115)	36.3 (N=109)	8.6 (N=26)	*3.30*
33. Teacher as friend	2.0 (N=6)	15.6 (N=47)	47.0 (N=141)	28.6 (N=86)	6.7 (N=20)	*3.22*
16. Teacher as social worker	4.6 (N=14)	16.3 (N=49)	42.6 (N=128)	28.7 (N=86)	7.6 (N=23)	*3.18*
42. Teacher as textbook evaluator	1.7 (N=5)	23.6 (N=71)	41.7 (N=125)	21.3 (N=64)	11.6 (N=35)	*3.18*
37. Teacher as syllabus designer	8.3 (N=25)	26.6 (N=80)	30.0 (N=90)	20.6 (N=62)	14.3 (N=43)	*3.06*

And the 3 MTR-pertained responsibilities receiving low ratings include: "Teacher as academic advisor" (Item 18) in which "Not at all important" accounts for 5.3% (N=16), "Not very important" 23% (N=69), "Important" 46.6% (N=140), "Very important" 20.3% (N=61), and "Totally important" 4.7% (N=14), with the mean of 2.96; "Teacher as negotiator" (Item 28) in which "Not at all important" accounts for 20.3% (N=61), "Not very important" 31.6% (N=95), "Important" 30.3% (N=91), "Very important" 14.3% (N=43), and "Totally important" 3.3% (N=10), with the mean of 2.49; and "Teacher as textbook developer/writer" (Item 38) in which "Not at all important" takes up 26.6% (N=80), "Not very important" 31.7% (N=95), "Important" 30.6% (N=92), "Very important" 8.3% (N=25), and "Totally important" 2.6% (N=8) with the mean of 2.29. Table 13 provides a summary of the information.

Table 13. MTR-pertained responsibilities receiving low ratings

Responsibilities pertaining to teacher roles	Not at all important	Not very important	Important	Very important	Totally important	*Mean*
18. Teacher as academic advisor	5.3 (N=16)	23.0 (N=69)	46.6 (N=140)	20.3 (N=61)	4.7 (N=14)	*2.96*
28. Teacher as negotiator	20.3 (N=61)	31.6 (N=95)	30.3 (N=91)	14.3 (N=43)	3.3 (N=10)	*2.49*
38. Teacher as textbook developer/writer	26.6 (N=80)	31.7 (N=95)	30.6 (N=92)	8.3 (N=25)	2.6 (N=8)	*2.29*

Objective 3: Findings relating to what roles Vietnamese EFL school teachers have performed and what roles they haven't performed in their actual teaching

Question 3: What roles have Vietnamese EFL school teachers performed and what roles haven't they performed in their actual teaching?

EFL teachers' report on role categories performed and not performed

It is noticeable that the results found in our research are not similar to those found in Karavas-Dukas's (1995) research. Of the 9 role categories, "Example of behaviour" (Category IX) receives very high percentage of performance: 96.1%. This is followed by "Source of expertise" (Category I): 92.3%, "Management" (Category II): 81.2%, "Source of advice" (Category III): 81.2%, and "Facilitation of learning" (Category IV): 75.4%. The results of our research also indicate that there are 4 role categories receiving relatively low percentages of performance: "Care taking" (Category VI): 48.1%, "Professional developing" (Category VII): 45.6%, "Responsibility sharing" (Category V): 36.2%, and "Assessing & evaluating" (Category VIII): 30.5%. Table 14 summarizes the information.

Table 14. EFL teachers' report on role categories performed and not performed

Role category	Performed	Not performed		Role category	Performed	Not performed
IX. Example of behaviour	96.1	3.8		VI. Care taking	48.1	51.8
I. Source of expertise	92.3	7.7		VII. Professional developing	45.6	54.3
II. Management	81.2	18.7		V. Responsibility sharing	36.2	63.7
III. Source of advice	78.5	21.4		VIII. Assessing & evaluating	30.5	69.4
IV. Facilitation of learning	75.4	24.5				

EFL teachers' report on TTRs performed and not performed

The results obtained from Questionnaire 3 show that almost all TTRs are reported having been performed: of the 12 TTRs identified as belonging to the TTS, 10 (83.3%) are reported having been performed; and only 2 are reported not having been performed. It is of interest to note here that all the 10 TTRs reported having been performed by the

EFL teachers receive very high percentages of performance (from 98.7% down to 71.3%). Specifically, “Teacher as teacher and educator” (Item 1): 98.7% (N=296), “Teacher as manager” (Item 6): 97% (N=291), “Teacher as presenter of knowledge” (Item 2): 96.7% (N=290), “Teacher as language model” (Item 45): 96.6% (N=290), “Teacher as example” (Item 44): 95.6% (N=287), “Teacher as source of knowledge” (Item 3): 95.3% (N=286), “Teacher as controller” (Item 11): 80.6% (N=242), “Teacher as tutor” (Item 19): 75% (N=225), “Teacher as authoritarian” (Item 12): 72% (N=216), and “Teacher as explainer” (Item 5): 71.3% (N=214). Table 15 summarizes the information.

Table 15. TTRs reported having been performed and not performed by EFL school teachers

Role item	Performed	Not performed		Role item	Performed	Not performed
1. Teacher and educator	98.7 (N=296)	1.3 (N=4)		3. Teacher as source of knowledge	95.3 (N=286)	4.7 (N=14)
6. Teacher as manager	97.0 (N=291)	3.0 (N=9)		11. Teacher as controller	80.7 (N=242)	19.3 (N=58)
2. Teacher as presenter of knowledge	96.7 (N=290)	3.3 (N=10)		19. Teacher as tutor	75.0 (N=225)	25.0 (N=75)
45. Teacher as language model	96.7 (N=290)	3.3 (N=10)		12. Teacher as authoritarian	72.0 (N=216)	28.0 (N=84)
44. Teacher as example	95.7 (N=287)	4.3 (N=13)		5. Teacher as explainer	71.3 (N=214)	28.7 (N=86)

The 2 TTRs reported not having been performed are: “Teacher as authority” (Item 13) receiving the ratio of 50.3% (N=151) non-performance v. 49.6% (N=149) performance, and “Teacher as parent” (Item 32) receiving the ratio of 71.3% (N=214) non-performance v. 28.7% (N=86) performance. The information described is summarized in Table 16.

Table 16. TTRs reported not having been performed by EFL school teachers

Role item	Not performed	Performed
13. Teacher as authority	50.3 ((N=151)	49.6 (N=149)
32. Teacher as parent (mother/father)	71.3 ((N=214)	28.6 (N=86)

EFL teachers’ report on MTRs performed and not performed

Of the 33 teacher roles identified as belonging to the MTT, 22 (66.7%) are reported having been performed and 11 (33.3%) are reported not having been performed.

The 22 MTRs that are reported having been performed are: “Teacher as developer of language skills” (Item 4): 99.3% (N=298), “Teacher as planner” (Item 8): 98.3% (N=295), “Teacher as involver” (Item 25): 96.6% (N=290), “Teacher as rapport builder” (Item 27): 96.6% (N=290), “Teacher as organizer” (Item 7): 95.7% (N=287), “Teacher as quality controller” (Item 15): 95.7% (N=287), “Teacher as stimulator” (Item 21): 95.7% (N=287), “Teacher as test/exam developer” (Item 39): 95.7% (N=287), “Teacher as observer” (Item 9): 95.3% (N=286), “Teacher as motivator” (Item 24): 94.3% (N=283), “Teacher as monitor” (Item 10): 93.6% (N=281), “Teacher as test/exam preparer” (Item 40): 93.6% (N=281), “Teacher as learning assessor” (Item 14): 92.7% (N=278), “Teacher as counsellor” (Item 17): 90.3% (N=271), “Teacher as learning evaluator” (Item 43): 90.3% (N=271), “Teacher as enabler” (Item 22): 81.3% (N=244), “Teacher as academic advisor” (Item 18): 70.3% (N=211), “Teacher as researcher” (Item 34): 69.3% (N=208), “Teacher as friend” (Item 33): 67.6% (N=203), “Teacher as inspirer” (Item 23): 60.6% (N=182), “Teacher as modernizer" (Item 35): 60% (N=180), and "Teacher as learning facilitator" (Item 20): 53.3% (N=166). Table 17 summarizes the information reported.

Table 17. MTRs reported having been performed by EFL school teachers

Role item	Performed		Role category	Performed
4. Teacher as developer of language skills	99.3 (N=298)		40. Teacher as test/exam preparer	93.6 (N=281)
8. Teacher as planner	98.3 (N=295)		14. Teacher as learning assessor	92.7 (N=278)
25. Teacher as involver	96.6 (N=290)		17. Teacher as counsellor	90.3 (N=271)
27. Teacher as rapport builder	96.6 (N=290)		43. Teacher as learning evaluator	90.3 (N=271)
7. Teacher as organizer	95.7 (N=287)		22. Teacher as enabler	81.3 (N=244)
15. Teacher as quality controller	95.7 (N=287)		18. Teacher as academic advisor	70.3 (N=211)
21. Teacher as stimulator	95.7 (N=287)		34. Teacher as researcher	69.3 (N=208)
39. Teacher as test/exam developer	95.7 (N=287)		33. Teacher as friend	67.6 (N=203)
9. Teacher as observer	95.3 (N=286)		23. Teacher as inspirer	60.6 (N=182)
24. Teacher as motivator	94.3 (N=283)		35. Teacher as modernizer	60.0 (N=120)
10. Teacher as monitor	93.6 (N=281)		20. Teacher as learning facilitator	53.3 (N= 166)

The 11 MTRs reported not having been performed include: "Teacher as textbook developer/writer" (Item 38): 100% (N=300), "Teacher as curriculum developer" (Item 36): 99.7% (N=299), "Teacher as curriculum evaluator" (Item 41): 99.7% (N=299), "Teacher as syllabus designer" (Item 37): 99% (N=297), "Teacher as negotiator": 97.6% (N=293), "Teacher as social worker" (Item 16): 77.3% (N=232), "Teacher as empowerer" (Item 26): 77.3 (N=232), "Teacher as co-participant/team member" (Item 30): 59.7% (N=179), "Teacher as learner" (Item, 31): 58% (N=174), and "Teacher as responsibility sharer" (Item 29): 54.3% (N=161). Table 18 summarizes the information.

Table 18. MTRs reported not having been performed

Role item	Not performed		Role item	Not performed
38. Teacher as textbook developer/ writer	100 (N=300)		16. Teacher as social worker	77.3 (N=232)
36. Teacher as curriculum developer	99.7 (N=299)		26. Teacher as empowerer	77.3 (N=232)
41. Teacher as curriculum evaluator	99.7 (N=299)		30. Teacher as co-participant/team member	59.7 (N=179)
37. Teacher as syllabus designer	99.4 (N=298)		31. Teacher as learner	58.0 (N=174)
42. Teacher as textbook evaluator	99.0 (N=297)		29. Teacher as responsibility sharer	54.3 (N=161)
28. Teacher as negotiator	97.6 (N=293)			

There are three noteworthy points here. First, a closer examination of the items in Table 17 will reveal that quite a few of the 22 MTRs reported having been performed can be of TTRs as well. Here we can find "Teacher as organizer" (Item 7), "Teacher as planner" (Item 8), "Teacher as test/exam developer" (Item 39), "Teacher as monitor" (Item 10), "Teacher as test/exam preparer" (Item 40), etc. Secondly, many of the 11 MTRs reported not having been performed in Table 18 belong to what Western (English) language teaching scholars such as Nunan (1987, 1991), Tudor (1993, 1996), Widdowson (1999), Hedge (2000), Richards (2005), Richards & Rodgers (2001), and Graves (2005) refer to as the learner-centred approach in communicative language teaching. Here we can find "Teacher as textbook developer/writer" (Item 38), "Teacher as curriculum developer" (Item 36), "Teacher as syllabus designer" (Item 37), "Teacher as textbook evaluator" (Item 42), "Teacher as negotiator" (Item 28), etc. And thirdly, except for the 3 items (30, 31, and 29), the 8 other items reported not having been performed in Table 18 receive very high percentages of non-performance (from 73.3% - 100%).

Objective 4: Locating the current Vietnamese EFL school teachers on the traditional ↔ modern teacher style scale

Question 4: What style of teacher are Vietnamese EFL school teachers in this era of Industry 4.0?

We shall respond to this question by weaving together important findings obtained from the three survey questionnaires which are presented in sequence of "teacher role", "level of rating" (in terms of mean), and (roles) "performed" and (role) "not performed". Then based on the correlation between the interwoven findings we shall attempt to locate Vietnamese EFL school teachers on the traditional ↔ modern teacher style scale. The data is presented in Tables 19, 20, and 21 below.

Table 19. TTRs given high/medium/low ratings, performed/not performed

N^0	Traditional teacher role	High rating	Performed	Not performed
1	Teacher as educator	*4.38*	98.7 (N=296)	1.3 (N=4)
2	Teacher as presenter of knowledge	*4.05*	96.7 (N=290)	3.3 (N=10)
6	Teacher as manager	*4.08*	95.3 (N=286)	3.0 (N=9)
44	Teacher as an example	*3.95*	95.6 (N=287)	4.3 (N=13)
	Medium rating			
45	Teacher as language model	*3.56*	96.6 (N=290)	3.3 (N=10)
3	Teacher as source of knowledge	*3.54*	95.3 (N=286)	4.7 (N=14)
19	Teacher as tutor	*3.44*	75.0 (N=225)	25.0 (N=75)
11	Teacher as controller	*3.35*	80.6 (N=242)	19.3 (N=58)
5	Teacher as explainer	*3.11*	71.3 (N=214)	28.7 (N=86)
	Low rating			
12	Teacher as authoritarian	*2.85*	72.0 (N=216)	28.0 (N=84)
13	Teacher as authority	*2.76*	49.6 (N=149)	50.3 (N=151)
32	Teacher as parent	*2.28*	28.8 (N=86)	71.7 (N=214)

Table 20. MTRs given very high/high ratings and performed/not performed

N^0	Teacher role	Very high rating	Performed	Not performed
21	Teacher as stimulator	*4.43*	95.6 (N=287)	4.3 (N=13)
4	Teacher as developer of language skills	*4.39*	99.3 (N=298)	0.6 (N=2)
24	Teacher as motivator	*4.32*	94.3 (N=283)	5.6 (N=17)
25	Teacher as involver	*4.25*	96.6 (N=290)	3.3 (N=10)
7	Teacher as organizer	*4.17*	95.6 (N=287)	4.3 (N=13)
8	Teacher as planner	*4.16*	98.3 (N=295)	1.7 (N=5)
23	Teacher as inspirer	*4.16*	60.6 (N=182)	39.3 (N=118)

22	Teacher as enabler	*4.02*	81.3 (N=244)	18.7 (N=56)
High rating				
39	Teacher as test/exam developer	*3.89*	95.7 (N=287)	4.3 (N=13)
10	Teacher as monitor	*3.88*	93.6 (N=281)	19.3 (N=58)
27	Teacher as rapport builder	*3.88*	96.6 (N=290)	3.3 (N=10)
20	Teacher as learning facilitator	*3.85*	53.3 (N=166)	44.7 (N=134)
9	Teacher as observer	*3.82*	95.3 (N=286)	4.6 (N=14)
40	Teacher as test/exam preparer	*3.82*	93.6 (N=281)	6.3 (N=19)
15	Teacher as quality controller	*3.80*	95.6 (N=287)	4.3 (N=13)
14	Teacher as learning assessor	*3.79*	92.7 (N=278)	7.3 (N=22)
34	Teacher as researcher	*3.78*	69.3 (N=208)	30.6 (N=92)
17	Teacher as counsellor	*3.73*	90.3 (N=271)	9.6 (N=29)

Table 21. MTRs given medium/low ratings and performed/not performed

N^0	Teacher role	Medium rating	Performed	Not performed
43	Teacher as learning evaluator	*3.64*	90.3 (N=271)	9.6 (N=29)
29	Teacher as responsibility sharer	*3.62*	46.7 (N=119)	54.3 (N=162)
35	Teacher as modernizer	*3.61*	60.0 (N=180)	40.0 (N=120)
31	Teacher as learner	*3.58*	42.0 (N=126)	58.0 (N=174)
30	Teacher as co-participant/team member	*3.48*	40.3 (N=121)	59.7 (N=129)
36	Teacher as curriculum developer	*3.36*	0.3 (N=1)	99.7 (N=299)
26	Teacher as empowerer	*3.35*	22.6 (N=68)	77.3 (N=232)
41	Teacher as curriculum evaluator	*3.30*	0.3 (N=1)	99.7 (N=299)
33	Teacher as friend	*3.22*	67.6 (N=203)	32.3 (N=97)
16	Teacher as social worker	*3.18*	22.7 (N=68)	77.3 (N=232)
42	Teacher as textbook evaluator	*3.18*	1.0 (N=3)	99.0 (N=297)
37	Teacher as syllabus designer	*3.06*	0.6 (N=2)	99.4 (N=298)
Low rating				
18	Teacher as academic advisor	*2.96*	70.3 (N=211)	29.6 (N=89)
28	Teacher as negotiator	*2.49*	2.3 (N=7)	97.6 (N=293)
38	Teacher as textbook developer/writer	*2.29*	0 (N=0)	100 (N=300)

Table 19 shows that of the 12 TTRs, 10 (83.3%) (Items 1, 2, 6, 44, 45, 3, 19, 11, 5 and 12) are reported having been performed with very high percentages. Table 19 also indicates that generally there is a very strong correlation between what EFL teachers rate teacher roles as high and medium and what they report having performed these roles: all the 9 TTRs (Items 1, 2, 6, 44, 45, 3, 19, 11 and 5) rated as high and medium are reported having been performed. An exception is Item 12 (Teacher as authoritarian) where it is rated as low (mean=2.85), but is reported having been performed with a significantly high percentage: 72% (N=216).

Table 20 reveals that all 18 items of MTRs that are rated as very high and high are reported having been performed with very high and high percentages. Table 20 also suggests that there is a very strong correlation between "Very high rating" and "High rating" and very high percentages of "Performed": of the 18 items of MTRs, 15 (83.3%) which receive "very high rating" and "high rating" are reported having been performed with very high percentages (from 81.3% to 99.3%). Further, what seems to be of interest here is that many of these roles seem to be of both the TTS and MTS.

Table 21 presents a different picture: of the 15 MTRs that receive medium and low ratings, only 4 (26.6%) (Items 43, 35, 33, and 18) are reported having been performed. What is noticeable here is that the remaining 11 roles that are reported not having been performed belong to what modern (English) language teaching scholars such as Nunan (1991), Tudor (1993, 1996), Widdowson (1999), Richards (2005), Richards & Lockhart (1995), Richards & Rodgers (2001), Graves (2005), Scrivener (2009), and many others refer to as the learner-centred approach with 6/11 (54.5%) of them being given absolute or very high percentages: 100% (Item 38), 99.7% (Item 36), 99.7% (Item 41), 99.4% (Item 37), 99% (Item 42), and 97.6% (Item 28).

Now the question is "How should we situate the Vietnamese EFL school teachers on the traditional ↔ modern teacher style scale?" It seems premature to give a definite answer. However, the interwoven findings presented in Tables 19, 20, and 21 have said enough to justify a conclusion. The fact that 83.3% (10/12) of the TTRs (including 1 lowly rated) and 66.7% (22/33) of the MTRs (many of which can be of both TTS and MTS) are reported having been performed, and the fact that of the remaining 33.3% (11/33) of the MTRs (many of which belong to the learner-centred approach) only 36.3% (4/11) are reported having been performed, suggest that although we are living in the era of Industry 4.0, many of the Vietnamese EFL school teachers are still on the traditional side of the traditional ↔ modern teacher style scale.

5. Conclusion

Teachers play the most important role in the success of an educational system. They are an indispensable component in the teacher ↔ learner ↔ teaching material "eternal triangle" (Bolitho, 1990: 23). They are "many things" (Pullias & Young, 1968, 1977), and they do many things to help their students gain knowledge and develop skills, and to educate them to become good and responsible citizens (cf. Bộ Giáo dục và Đào tạo [MoET], 2018). In this study we have attempted to look specifically at one of the many things teachers do in their work which does not seem to have received adequate attention from EFL/ESL educational research: how Vietnamese EFL school teachers perceive their roles in this current changing world. As the term "Industry 4.0" has been increasingly gaining currency in EFL/ESL education, we have made an attempt to locate the Vietnamese EFL school teachers on the traditional ↔ modern teacher style scale as well. We have set an overarching aim and four guided objectives, and raised four related research questions. In response, we have employed three survey questionnaires to explore how Vietnamese EFL school teachers perceive their roles in terms of TTS and MTS, how they rate the importance of teacher responsibilities pertaining to the teacher roles, and what roles they have performed and what roles they haven't performed in their actual teaching. Weaving the results obtained from the statistical analyses together, we have been able to suggest the predominant style of the current Vietnamese EFL school teachers: they are more of the traditional teacher style than of the modern teacher style. The results of our study permit the following conclusions:

First, the surveyed Vietnamese EFL school teachers display a relatively good understanding of teacher roles: they can identify what teacher roles are of the TTS and what are of the MTS; they rate as high and medium most of the TTRs (9/12) and report having performed most of them (10/12); they rate as very high, high and medium most of the TTRs (30/33) and report having performed the majority of them (22/33); they are aware of their roles and of the trend in modern EFL education – the trend toward the learner-centred approach; they can recognize what roles are important to them at present and what roles are important to them in the years to come; they understand that besides traditional roles that are still maintained, there are new roles which the modern teacher should take. However, due to the pressure of various factors, particularly the current mismatch between EFL teaching and EFL testing (cf. Pham, 2016; Hoang, 2017) many of them still attach more special importance to traditional roles.

Secondly, at present many TTRs are still prevalent; the dominant EFL pedagogy in schools in Vietnam is still transmission pedagogy; and many Vietnamese school EFL teachers still communicate language knowledge. This explains why many English classrooms in schools in Vietnam are still crowded with non-communicative activities: teachers transmit language knowledge (with only one or two crippling language skills) to students and students have passively but happily to receive the knowledge presented to them as ‘correct’, and try to memorize the content presented and prepare to write down what they were taught in exam rooms.

Thirdly, along with the change in ELT methodology from traditional teaching methods to modern teaching ones there is a positive change in Vietnamese EFL school teachers’ perception about their roles to meet the demands of the present and those of the future. This is manifested in the fact that they rate highly and report having performed most of the TTRs and the majority of MTRs, and that they employ both traditional and modern teaching methods to solve two contradictory problems of learning and teaching English in Vietnamese schools: on the one hand they have to teach communicative English meet the demand of the renovation in the new communicative English curriculum, new foreign language proficiency standards, new English textbooks, new teaching methodology and new communicative testing formats (for details of these, see Bộ Giáo dục và Đào tạo [MoET], 2010, 2012a, 2012b, 2014, 2018; Hoang, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018); on the other hand they have to teach non-communicative English to satisfy the pressing need of “teaching for the test and teaching to the test” (see Hoang, 2017, 2018; for a world-wide view on this issue, see also Bachman, 1991; Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Shohamy, 2001; Hughes, 2003; and Alderson, 2004), helping their students pass non-communicative tests/exams which are still pervasive in the Vietnamese school system. This explains why some TTRs which are not highly rated (and even seem to be outdated in modern EFL pedagogy) such as “Teacher as source of knowledge” (Item 2), “Teacher as controller” (Item 11), “Teacher as authoritarian” (Item 12) are still reported having been performed with very high percentages. This also explains why some MTRs which are rated as high and medium such as “Teacher as responsibility sharer” (Item 29), “Teacher as curriculum developer” (Item 36), “Teacher as curriculum evaluator” (Item 41) and others are reported not having been performed.

Limitations and Recommendations

As this research attempts to study how EFL school teachers in Vietnam perceive their roles and to identify what style of teachers they are, the data sample collected and analyzed on 300 EFL school teachers is still small. The generalization of the results is, therefore, limited. Further, as the participants involved in this research provide information through questionnaires; the research, no matter how comprehensive it may be, still lacks EFL teachers' voices or opinions on their roles and why these roles were responded as they were. Interviews and a larger data sample size, therefore, should be added to maximize the reliability and validity of the research (cf. Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Attention should be drawn to the fact that the present context of learning and teaching English in schools in Vietnam is different from those of learning and teaching English in many other countries, particularly in Western Europe and North America. In Vietnam, most school students learn the same English course throughout the school system; the number of students learning an English course is not just a dozen or a hundred but some hundred thousand; students learn English not in a class but in some ten thousand classes. Decisions on English standards, curriculum design, course goals, syllabus contents, teaching materials, teaching methods, assessment procedures, and class schedules are made at different levels of management bodies such as MoET, provincial departments of education, district departments of education, and schools. The EFL school teachers' task is to carry out those decisions that have been made, helping students to learn English, and leading them up from one grade to the next in the general school system. If the students do not succeed, it is the teacher's fault for not presenting the materials clearly enough. In a number of situations, if the EFL teacher does group work, her colleagues of other subjects will feel that she is not really teaching at all, and the complaint that is often lodged is that her class is making noises which disturb the learning of the other classes. However, the results obtained from our research have suggested that the future of EFL learning will be different. Face-to-face learning will not be the only means for the teacher to transmit knowledge and skills. Some traditional teacher roles will surely "retain an undiminished authority" (Widdowson, 1987: 87; 1999: 189; see also Finocchiaro, 1974; Oak, n.d.); but some others will be replaced or complemented by newer modern ones in response to the world of advanced technology where man and machine align to enable new teaching possibilities, learning together and from each other will dominate, teachers will be more as facilitators, students will be more as independent learners, and teaching and learning will be built around shared learning (Tudor, 1993, 1996; Nunan, 1999; Harmer, 2005). It is, therefore, recommended that teacher role should be a legitimate component in all EFL teacher training and teacher professional development (PD) programmes in English teacher education departments/faculties in Vietnam to help EFL teachers be better familiarized with teacher roles (what they are and what roles should and should not be performed in their teaching contexts, etc.). It is also recommended that EFL school teachers should be given opportunities to exercise teacher roles, particularly those required in modern EFL/ESL education, so that they can perform their roles more effectively and appropriately in their teaching for the success of their students as they move along their "journey of learning" (Pullias & Young, 1968: 32) English – the most important means of international communication in the world of Industry 4.0.

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"TRUYỀN CẢM HỨNG VÀ THÀNH CÔNG CHO MỌI HỌC SINH": GIÁO VIÊN TIẾNG ANH Ở TRƯỜNG PHỔ THÔNG VIỆT NAM NHẬN THỨC NHƯ THẾ NÀO VỀ VAI TRÒ CỦA HỌ VÀ HỌ THUỘC KIỂU PHONG CÁCH GIÁO VIÊN NÀO TRONG KỈ NGUYÊN CÔNG NGHIỆP 4.0?

Hoàng Văn Vân

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Tóm tắt: Nghiên cứu này cố gắng làm nổi bật việc giáo viên tiếng Anh ở trường phổ thông Việt Nam nhận thức như thế nào về vai trò của họ, và họ thuộc kiểu phong cách giáo viên nào trong thế giới hiện tại đang thay đổi – thế giới của Nền công nghiệp 4.0. Nghiên cứu bao gồm một mẫu 300 giáo viên tiếng Anh phổ thông ở Việt Nam. Công cụ sử dụng để nghiên cứu là ba phiếu hỏi nhằm mục đích khám phá các khía cạnh khác nhau trong nhận thức của giáo viên về vai trò của họ. Dữ liệu thu thập được phân tích theo định lượng và được thảo luận chi tiết. Nghiên cứu thu được một số kết quả quan trọng, trong đó năm kết quả sau đây là nổi bật: (i) giáo viên tiếng Anh ở trường phổ thông Việt Nam thể hiện sự hiểu biết tương đối tốt trong việc xác định vai trò nào thuộc phong cách của người giáo viên truyền thống và vai trò nào thuộc phong cách của người giáo viên hiện đại; (ii) họ đánh giá ở mức cao và mức trung bình hầu hết các vai trò của người giáo viên thuộc phong cách truyền thống và báo cáo đã thực hiện hầu hết các vai trò đó; (iii) họ đánh giá ở mức thấp một số vai trò của người giáo viên thuộc phong cách truyền thống, nhưng báo cáo vẫn tiếp tục thực hiện những vai trò đó; (iv) họ đánh giá ở các mức rất cao, cao và trung bình hầu hết các vai trò thuộc phong cách của người giáo viên hiện đại, nhưng chỉ có 2/3 trong số đó được báo cáo là đã được thực hiện; (v) họ đánh giá ở mức trung bình nhiều vai trò thuộc phong cách của người giáo viên hiện đại còn lại, các vai trò thường được gọi trong giáo dục tiếng Anh như là một ngoại ngữ/như là một ngôn ngữ thứ hai là đường hướng lấy người học làm trung tâm trong dạy ngôn ngữ giao tiếp, nhưng dựa vào những thông tin đan kết lại thu được từ ba phiếu hỏi, nghiên cứu gợi ý rằng mặc dù thời đại Công nghiệp 4.0 đang là một thực tế, nhưng nhiều giáo viên tiếng Anh ở trường phổ thông Việt Nam dường như vẫn ở phía truyền thống trên thang phong cách giáo viên truyền thống ↔ hiện đại. Từ thực tế trên, nghiên cứu khuyến nghị rằng vai trò giáo viên phải là một thành phần trong tất cả các chương trình đào tạo và bồi dưỡng giáo viên tại các khoa đào tạo tiếng Anh ở Việt Nam để giúp giáo viên làm quen tốt hơn với những vai trò của họ, đặc biệt là những vai trò cần thiết trong giáo dục tiếng Anh như là một ngoại ngữ/như là một ngôn ngữ thứ hai trong kỉ nguyên hiện đại để họ có thể thực hiện hiệu quả hơn và phù hợp hơn các vai trò của mình trong dạy học vì sự thành công của học sinh trong "hành trình học" (Pullias & Young, 1968: 32) một công cụ giao tiếp mới.

Từ khóa: vai trò giáo viên, vai trò giáo viên truyền thống, vai trò giáo viên hiện đại, trách nhiệm liên quan đến vai trò của giáo viên, thang phong cách giáo viên truyền thống ↔ hiện đại

Appendix 1 (Questionnaire 1)

Dear teachers, thank you for agreeing to take part in our research. We highly appreciate your help in completing this survey questionnaire.

Your personal background:

1. You name: .... You phone number: ....
2. You are: ☐ a primary teacher ☐ a lower secondary teacher ☐ an upper secondary teacher
3. You are: ☐ male ☐ female
4. You have been teaching English for: ☐ 1-10 years ☐ 11-20 years ☐ over 20 years
5. You are teaching English in: ☐ rural area ☐ suburban area ☐ urban area

Which of the following teacher roles do you think are of the traditional teacher style and which ones are of the modern teacher style? [Please tick (√) the right box]

Teacher role	Teacher style	
	Traditional	Modern
I. Source of expertise		
1. Teacher as teacher and educator		
2. Teacher as presenter of knowledge		
3. Teacher as source of knowledge		
4. Teacher as developer of language skills		
5. Teacher as explainer		
II. Management		
6. Teacher as manager		
7. Teacher as organizer		
8. Teacher as planner		
9. Teacher as observer		
10. Teacher as monitor		
11. Teacher as controller		
12. Teacher as authoritarian		
13. Teacher as authority		
14. Teacher as learning assessor		
15. Teacher as quality controller		
16. Teacher as social worker		
III. Source of advice		
17. Teacher as counsellor		
18. Teacher as academic advisor		
19. Teacher as tutor		
IV. Facilitation of learning		
20. Teacher as learning facilitator		
21. Teacher as stimulator		
22. Teacher as enabler		
23. Teacher as inspirer		
24. Teacher as motivator		
25. Teacher as involver		
26. Teacher as empowerer		
27. Teacher as rapport builder		
V. Responsibility sharing		

28. Teacher as negotiator		
29. Teacher as responsibility sharer		
30. Teacher as co-participant/team member		
31. Teacher as learner		
VI. Care taking		
32. Teacher as parent (mother/father)		
33. Teacher as friend		
VII. Professional developing		
34. Teacher as researcher		
35. Teacher as modernizer		
36. Teacher as curriculum developer		
37. Teacher as syllabus designer		
38. Teacher as textbook developer/writer		
39. Teacher as test/exam developer		
40. Teacher as test/exam preparer		
VIII. Assessing & evaluating		
41. Teacher as curriculum evaluator		
42. Teacher as textbook evaluator		
43. Teacher as learning evaluator		
IX. Example of behavior		
44. Teacher as example		
45. Teacher as language model		

Thank you for your cooperation.

Appendix 2 (Questionnaire 2)

Dear teachers, thank you for agreeing to take part in our research. We highly appreciate your help in completing this survey questionnaire.

Your personal background:

1. You name: .... You phone number: ....
2. You are: ☐ a primary teacher ☐ a lower secondary teacher ☐ an upper secondary teacher
3. You are: ☐ male ☐ female
4. You have been teaching English for: ☐ 1-10 years ☐ 11-20 years ☐ over 20 years
5. You are teaching English in: ☐ rural area ☐ suburban area ☐ urban area

In your experience, which of the following responsibilities is

1. Not at all important? [Please tick (√) column 1]
2. Not very important ? [Please tick (√) column 2]
3. Important ? [Please tick (√) column 3]
4. Very important? [Please tick (√) column 4]
5. Totally important? [Please tick (√) column 5]

No	Responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5
I.	**Source of expertise**					
1	The teacher helps students to learn things they do not know or have not yet known and understand what they learn; and educates them to become good and responsible citizens.					
2	The teacher provides students with knowledge of English pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and English culture.					
3	The teacher helps students by providing them with a word/phrase or an expression when they are writing or tells students where to look for a book or a website.					

4	The teacher helps students to develop their English language skills such as listening, speaking, ….					
5	The teacher uses explaining as a way of conveying information to students.					
II.	**Management**					
6	The teacher organizes the classroom environment to maximize the students' learning. She gives instructions for students to get into pairs/groups.					
7	The teacher plans her lesson, monitors her teaching, and manages students' learning to ensure that her goals are accomplished.					
8	The teacher plans her lesson and structures learning activities for the students to practise.					
9	The teacher observes what students do in the classroom (particularly in their oral activities).					
10	The teacher goes around, listening to pairs/groups practising speaking about a topic.					
11	The teacher takes charge of the class and of the activity taking place in a way that is completely under her control.					
12	The teacher wants her students to strictly obey what she tells them to do.					
13	The teacher makes all decisions about what to do and what is to be learnt in the classroom.					
14	The teacher assesses her students' knowledge and skills; grades them, and gives feedback to them.					
15	The teacher controls and maintains the students' quality of language learning.					
16	The teacher stays behind after class and discusses with students their personal problems which are affecting their study.					
III.	**Source of advice**					
17	The teacher helps her students when they are in difficulties, and gives advice to them on how best to approach a task.					
18	The teacher advises students and their parents on what books or learning materials to buy.					
19	The teacher works with individuals or groups, pointing them in the direction they have not yet been able to do a task.					
IV.	**Facilitation of learning**					
20	The teacher helps students to discover their own ways of learning. She directs and supports students in learning for themselves as a self-explorer.					
21	The teacher arouses her students' interest in learning English.					
22	The teacher takes her lead from the students, seeing herself as someone whose job is to create the conditions that enable students to learn for themselves.					
23	The teacher inspires her students to discover themselves freely instead of making them abide by the fixed standards of the textbook.					
24	The teacher builds the classroom a climate that will motivate the students to learn English.					
25	The teacher involves the students actively and tries to find appropriate activities for the students to practise English.					
26	The teacher takes a little control over the lesson and lets the students make decisions about what they learn and how they want to learn it.					
27	The teacher creates a good, friendly relationship with and between students in and outside the classroom.					
V.	**Responsibility sharing**					
28	The teacher negotiates with students in making decisions with respect to both content of teaching and method of teaching.					

29	The teacher and students do the lesson together during class time (i.e. The teacher does not just teach and the students do not just learn).					
30	The teacher joins in students' activities not as a teacher, but as a participant. She and all her students in the class constitute a team in which she interacts with the team as a member.					
31	The teacher joins students' activities as a member of the group/class so as to know the difficulties the students experience.					
VI.	**Care taking**					
32	The teacher acts like a parent of students when teaching.					
33	The teacher chats with students as a friend during break time or joins picnics with the class.					
VII.	**Professional developing**					
34	The teacher makes an understanding of what English is, what it functions in communication. She studies the social, psychological, and personal factors that affect students' learning English, etc.					
35	The teacher understands the spirit of foreign language teaching and learning of the past, the present, and the future. She is a modernizer of the old and the unfamiliar, and a bridge between the old and the new.					
36	The teacher designs an English curriculum for the school/class she is teaching.					
37	The teacher designs an English syllabus (the contents of teaching) for the school/ class she is teaching.					
38	The teacher writes English textbooks or teaching materials for the school/class she is teaching.					
39	The teacher designs formative/progressive, end-of term/year tests/exams for the school/class she is teaching.					
40	The teacher bases herself on the prescribed test/exam formats to prepare tests/ exams to help her students to pass end-of term/year or final tests/exams.					
VIII.	**Assessing & evaluating**					
41	The teacher evaluates a curriculum (its design and implementation: facilities, teaching, learning, etc. to point out its strengths and weaknesses).					
42	The teacher evaluates a textbook or a teaching material (its design, content, its teaching and learning suitability, etc. to point out its strengths and weaknesses).					
43	The teacher evaluates or judges her students' success and failure to decide if they could be qualified move to the next grade.					
IX.	**Example of behaviour**					
44	The teacher sets an example for students to follow as she is aware that her behavior has a huge impact on students' personal development throughout their whole life.					
45	The teacher models language herself for students to follow such as saying a word, a phrase or a sentence for students to repeat it after her.					

Thank you for your cooperation

Appendix 3 (Questionnaire 3)

Dear teachers, thank you for agreeing to take part in our research. We highly appreciate your help in completing this survey questionnaire.

Your personal background:

1. You name: .... You phone number: ....
2. You are : ☐ a primary teacher ☐ a lower secondary teacher ☐ an upper secondary teacher
3. You are: ☐ male ☐ female
4. You have been teaching English for: ☐ 1-10 years ☐ 11-20 years ☐ over 20 years
5. You are teaching English in: ☐ rural area ☐ suburban area ☐ urban area

Which of the following teacher roles

1. have you performed or are you performing? [Please tick (√) the boxes in column 1]
2. haven't you performed or are you not performing? [Please tick (√) the boxes in column 2]

Role category/item	Role performed	Role not performed
I. Source of expertise		
1. Teacher and educator		
2. Teacher as presenter of knowledge		
3. Teacher as source of knowledge		
4. Teacher as developer of language skills		
5. Teacher as explainer		
II. Management		
6. Teacher as manager		
7. Teacher as organizer		
8. Teacher as planner		
9. Teacher as observer		
10. Teacher as monitor		
11. Teacher as controller		
12. Teacher as authoritarian		
13. Teacher as authority		
14. Teacher as learning assessor		
15. Teacher as quality controller		
16. Teacher as social worker		
III. Source of advice		
17. Teacher as counsellor		
18. Teacher as academic advisor		
19. Teacher as tutor		
IV. Facilitation of learning		
20. Teacher as learning facilitator		
21. Teacher as stimulator		
22. Teacher as enabler		
23. Teacher as inspirer		
24. Teacher as motivator		
25. Teacher as involver		
26. Teacher as empowerer		
27. Teacher as rapport builder		
V. Responsibility sharing		
28. Teacher as negotiator		
29. Teacher as responsibility sharer		
30. Teacher as co-participant/team member		
31. Teacher as learner		
VI. Care taking		
32. Teacher as parent (mother/father)		
33. Teacher as friend		
VII. Professional developing		
34. Teacher as researcher		
35. Teacher as modernizer		
36. Teacher as curriculum developer		

Role category/item	Role performed	Role not performed
37. Teacher as syllabus designer		
38. Teacher as textbook developer/writer		
39. Teacher as test/exam developer		
40. Teacher as test/exam preparer		
VIII. Assessing & evaluating		
41. Teacher as curriculum evaluator		
42. Teacher as textbook evaluator		
43. Teacher as learning evaluator		
IX. Example of behaviour		
44. Teacher as example		
45. Teacher as language model		

Thank you for your cooperation

AN INVESTIGATION INTO STUDENTS' EVALUATION OF AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS SYNCHRONOUS COMPUTER-MEDIATED COMMUNICATION ON LANGUAGE SKILLS DEVELOPMENT IN VIETNAMESE INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT

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Abstract: The study explored students' evaluation of and attitudes towards synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC) on language skills development after a fifteen-week semester of instruction, using quantitative and qualitative approach. One class of English level 3 of CEFR – Vietnamese standard (B1) participated in oral role plays and one class engaged in synchronous online discussions. The research participants filled out the pre- and post- questionnaires and the participants from the SCMC group were called for semi-structured interviews to obtain their evaluation and attitudes towards synchronous computer-mediated communication on language development. Analysis of the questionnaires and semi-structured interviews exposed that the fifteen-week semester English intensive course contributed to students' language skills development. They had positive attitudes towards SCMC and were contented with the activities in the computer lab. Remarkably, the SCMC group felt more confident in chatting in computer lab than the role play group. It showed that doing written online discussions would intrigue learners in their learning English. SCMC is thus shown to be a valuable addition to the foreign language classroom.

Keywords: synchronous computer-mediated communication, oral role plays, students' evaluation, attitudes, language skills development, foreign language classroom

1. Introduction

During the last decades, research on computer mediated communication (CMC) has shown an outstanding development on foreign language teaching and learning methodology using technology of which countless benefits have been proved through numerous world-wide research studies.

CMC has two modes: asynchronous computer-mediated communication (ASCMC) and synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC). Generally, asynchronous computer-mediated communication (ASCMC) takes place in time and place independence. Typically, the instructor and students discuss, give and get information or deliver materials through course web pages, posting of forum messages, or email messages. In contrast, synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC) represents real-time interactions. Usually, this means that the instructor and students meet in a text chat room, simultaneously, at a particular

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location in cyberspace or from any location that has Internet access and interact through typed statements or questions (Lavooy & Newlin, 2003). In this study, SCMC is used as synchronous online discussion or text chat or written chat interchangeably.

Previous research studies showed that there is a link between oral communication and online synchronous discussions. Online synchronous discussions not only improve written proficiency but also indirectly improve oral proficiency since writing in a computer-mediated environment resembles spoken language in terms of its interactional features (Beauvois, 1997b; Chun, 1994).

Considering the increasing use of technology in today's language classrooms in Vietnam, the current research is needed to examine students' evaluation of and attitudes towards SCMC on language skills development.

2. Literature review

2.1. CMC and language skills development

CMC's contribution to language skills development has constantly been proved since the early period in CMC's history. Various metalinguistic aspects of language development have been explored, including negotiation of meaning, sociolinguistic environment, and intercultural competence. Furthermore, numerous studies on interactionist approach as well as a sociocultural viewpoint to second language acquisition (SLA) have been conducted on negotiation of meaning and CMC (Chun, 2008). In addition, Kitade (2000)'s findings showed that CMC is a profitable environment for sociolinguistic development. This study concluded that interactional features of CMC facilitated encouraging conditions for developing positive attitudes towards language learning: no turn-taking competition, text-based interaction, and a lack of nonverbal cues.

Additionally, increasing in linguistic competence, both quality and quantity, among learners has also been stated in the study by Kern (1995). He revealed that CMC-supported learners created more language production than their friends in the face-to-face (FTF) group. Kern found that SCMC discussions produced between two and four times more turns, more sentences, and more words than the oral discussions. The research also showed that learners' language production was at a greater level of sophistication regarding grammatical accuracy and complexity.

Finally, in terms of language skills, both written and spoken skills are enhanced through various modes of CMC in language learning projects. In fact, there is a common tendency to associate CMC with the development of specific language skills (Levy & Stockwell, 2006). The hypothesis that SCMC may improve speaking proficiency has been tested by Payne and Whitney (2002), who found that participants in a text chat room have a significantly higher oral proficiency than those just spending time in traditional oral classes.

In short, it can therefore be seen that SCMC has been used widely in developing most language areas and skills, except for listening skills which are normally supported and developed through other forms of visual and audio technology. The text-based nature of SCMC brings about many meaningful applications in language education. This medium not only amplifies students' attention to linguistic forms (Wang, 2004), but also stimulates increased written production of the target language as well as creating a less stressful and more equitable environment for discussion (Nguyen, 2010).

2.2. Synchronous computer-mediated communication

A wide range of potential strengths of SCMC mode have been found in previous studies. SCMC enhances learning opportunities for students according to Berge (1995). SCMC not only provides more in-depth interactions on topics; it is also convenient and useful for students living long distances from the university, travelling frequently, having family obligations (childcare responsibility) or disabilities that affect mobility as in the study by Lavooy and Newlin (2003). Candace (2004) claimed that SCMC creates more spontaneous communication going back and forth, enhances learning intertests and interpersonal relationship. She adds that students are more engaging and have more equal distribution in asking and answering questions during communication processes. Candace also proved that there is a higher percentage of socio-emotional interactions; learners asked more personal questions and revealed more about their frustration or need for help with less hesitation. The students have stronger sense of immediacy to respond to peers' questions and spend less time to send messages (Candace, 2004). In addition, Khamis (2010) stated that text scripts can be always retrieved for later reference via SCMC which is a backbone of distance learning programs. His research proved that SCMC facilitates instructor-student and student-student interactions as well as provides natural byproducts of authentic communicative activities. In Watt's study, SCMC's benefit is that it is easier to provide immediate feedback to information seekers (Watts, 2016).

Likewise, the most common benefits that were found in research studies investigating the perceptions of SCMC are: reduced anxiety, increased and equalized participation among language students, and increased language output. Often, research studies report that these factors have an impact on one another, i.e., the reduced anxiety level that is prevalent in an SCMC environment leads to increased and equalized participation among students, which in turn leads to more language production. The question that arises is why learners experience a discussion in a computer lab so differently from an oral discussion in the classroom.

In order to capitalize these SCMC's advantages and explore its possible influences on classroom language learning, the present study investigates students' evaluation and attitudes towards SCMC on language skills development in Vietnamese institutional context.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Design

In order to achieve the aim of this study, a mixed approach was chosen. The researcher collected numeric details from quantitative data and specific information from qualitative data. Both quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed to explore students' evaluation and attitudes towards synchronous computer mediated communication between two groups of EFL learners: the face-to-face role play group (oral role play) and the SCMC group using synchronous online discussion (written chat).

3.2. Research question

This study is guided by the following research question: What are the students' evaluation of and attitudes towards SCMC on language skills development in Vietnamese institutional context?

3.3. Participants

The following table shows the students' self-rating English language ability reflected relatively traditional teaching and learning methodology. The students expressed more confidence in reading comprehension and grammar with the mean score of 3.87 than in listening and speaking with the mean score of 2.23, and 2.33 respectively in the 5-point scale with 5 indicating the strongest. Most participants self-rated their English language proficiency at moderate level or lower in all language skills and areas: listening: 96.7%, speaking: 100%, reading: 96.7%, writing: 96.7%, grammar: 86.7%, vocabulary: 96.7% and pronunciation: 93.3%.

Table 1. Self-rated English language proficiency between the two groups

Skills	Group	n	Mean	SD.	t	p
Listening	Role play	15	2.07	.961	-1.066	.296
	SCMC	15	2.40	.737		
Speaking	Role play	15	2.47	.640	1.214	.235
	SCMC	15	2.20	.561		
Reading	Role play	15	3.87	.516	.00	1.000
	SCMC	15	3.87	.352		
Writing	Role play	15	2.53	.743	-.887	.382
	SCMC	15	2.73	.758		
Grammar	Role play	15	3.93	.594	.574	.571
	SCMC	15	3.80	.676		
Vocabulary	Role play	15	2.67	.617	.581	.566
	SCMC	15	2.53	.640		
Pronunciation	Role play	15	2.53	.834	.00	1.000
	SCMC	15	2.53	.743		

Furthermore, as shown in Table 1, there was no significant difference between the two treatment groups regarding the language skills and areas mentioned ($p>.05$). The least similarity of the perceived language proficiency between the two groups was the speaking skill with the p value at .235, still far away from the significant level of .05. In general, both groups shared a similar level of perceived language competence, which made the selection of either group to be an SCMC class and the other, a control class less challenging and later comparisons between the two groups more confident. This would ensure the reliability of the research and help the researcher control confounding factors during treatment.

3.4. Instruments

In order to explore students' evaluation and attitudes towards SCMC on language development, the researcher used the following research instruments. First, the pre-treatment questionnaire was distributed to the two selected classes after the participants had been briefed on the purpose of the study, and had an opportunity to ask questions about what would be involved. The questionnaire included questions about students' demographic information and attitudes towards computer use for English learning, which helped to attain a better understanding of the students' individual, socio-cultural, and academic backgrounds prior to the treatment activities. Second, the post-treatment questionnaire was applied to explore students' attitudes towards the use of synchronous online discussions on the language development. The items on the questionnaires were adapted from surveys used in similar research studies (Kost, 2004; Nguyen, 2011) and chosen based on the current study's purposes. Both pre- and post-treatment questionnaires were piloted on ten students for revising any ambiguous questions.

In addition, an interview for SCMC group was developed to help the researcher collect more detailed, qualitative information by, for example, giving the reasons why participants have such evaluations and attitudes. The interview design of the current study was semi-structured to invite more profound thoughts about SCMC language skills classes. The students' English proficiency was rated insufficient to understand and answer all interview questions in English. Therefore, all the interviews were conducted in Vietnamese for analysis. All interviews were audio recorded and transcribed for evaluating students' reflections on and attitudes towards SCMC application in language classes. Notably, transcripts of the interviews were put into word documents and emailed to individual students to request any modifications.

3.5. Tasks in the lab

The students went to the computer lab for 4 contact hours per week to carry out the designed tasks. The researcher developed all the communicative web-based activities that the students completed in the computer lab, and sent them to the students via email. The activities usually consisted of a guided Internet-based information search, followed by an oral role play or chat depending on treatment group. The activity was preceded by an online vocabulary-reviewing exercise from the previous session to help the student revise and expand their vocabulary.

An example of a web activity is presented below:

City Break!

A brother and sister are going to spend a weekend visiting a big city with their parents. Discuss the different things they could do there and say which would be most enjoyable.

Make a list:

1. What kinds of activities do you want to do?

Look for these activities on the provided links and write down:

1. When and how do you want to do those activities?
2. Choose the most enjoyable thing you want to do and develop strong arguments to support your choice.

The most popular activities to do in a big city are: Go on a free walking tour, Explore the markets, Visit free museums and galleries, Hang out with the locals, Stroll around the park, Check out libraries, churches and cathedrals, Do window shopping, Go on a hop on hop off bus tour.

Now do oral role play/chat and discuss with your partner which activities you can do together in the city. What is the most enjoyable for you? You should both be happy with the decision!

The web activities were structured according to the same principles: two or three students worked together as a group whereby each had access to their own computer. The instructor assigned group members at their discretion; sometimes she paired students up according to their language levels, sometimes students asked the instructor to do so for them. Students read the assignment, which gave them step-by-step instructions of how to proceed and which topics to cover in their Internet search, and then clicked on one of the provided links. Approximately 50 minutes before the end of the lesson, the instructor asked students to engage in the assigned role plays based on the information they had found through their web search. While the SCMC group used the hangout program of Gmail to do their role plays in the time given, the oral role play group engaged in oral pair or group work and finally, they performed 2-3 role plays in front of the class at the very end of the lesson. As for the SCMC group, the instructor created a Hangout group of the entire class and pasted students' mistakes during chatting one by one. Responding to the mistake pasted by the instructor, students sent their correct sentence to the group window. The instructor moved to another mistake only when the posted mistake had been corrected.

3.6. Research procedures

The researcher carried out the following research procedures to reach the aim of the study.

Table 2. Overview of the research procedures

Pre-treatment measurement instruments	
1. Pre-treatment questionnaire	
While-treatment	
Role play group in the computer lab *Conducted by researcher* - Provide topics and links via email - Assign topic, instruct, explain and answer questions relating to the topic - Provide assistance by speaking to students - Feedback on mistakes while circling around *Performed by students* - Do web-based activities - Click on the provided links for topic-related information - Do oral role play - Correct mistakes - Present 2-3 role plays in whole group	Chat group in the lab *Conducted by researcher* - Provide topics and links via email - Assign topic, instruct, explain and answer questions relating to the topic - Provide assistance by sending messages - Feedback on mistakes while joining Hangout group *Performed by students* - Do web-based activities - Click on the provided links for topic-related information - Write chat messages - Read suggestions/feedback from instructor - Send correct sentences responding to posted mistakes
Post-treatment measurement instruments	
2. Post-treatment questionnaire 3. Semi-structured interview	

3.7. Data analysis

All the items of the pre- and post-treatment questionnaires were calculated and compared with the standard of Cronbach's Alpha using SPSS system. The post-treatment sets of questionnaire were rated on a five-point Likert scale. Mean scores of students' attitudes towards oral role plays and written chats were computed by treatment group, assigning the score of 5 to the highest rating ("strongly agree"), and the score of 1 to the lowest rating ("strongly disagree"), using SPSS system 23.0. Interview audio-recordings were transcribed and sent back to participants for clarification before analysis. The data gathered through triangulated means were then cross-analyzed in order to obtain an in-depth understanding of students' evaluation and attitudes towards SCMC on language skills development.

4. Findings and discussion

The post-treatment questionnaire was rated on a five-point Likert scale. Generally, most mean scores were slightly above or slightly below the "neutral" point (worth 3 points) which resulted in a very balanced picture. Interview audio-recordings were transcribed and sent back to participants for clarification before analysis in details and in depth of their attitudes towards and evaluation of SCMC on language skills development.

4.1. Students' evaluation of oral role play and SCMC on four language skills

The first several questions of the questionnaire asked students' evaluation of the treatment on their language skills. It was assumed that responses would point to positive effects of the oral role plays on speaking and listening skills, and to positive effects of the online discussions on reading and writing skills. The following table confirms these assumptions.

Table 3. Students' evaluation of oral role play and SCMC on four language skills

Treatment	Item	Mean	SD	t	p*
Role play	Doing role plays improved my ability to write in English.	3.73	.961	.000	1.000
SCMC	Using written chat improved my ability to write in English.	3.73	.884		
Role play	Doing role plays improved my ability to read in English.	3.87	.640	-.543	.592
SCMC	Using written chat improved my ability to read in English.	3.73	.704		
Role play	Doing role plays improved my ability to speak in English.	4.07	.799	2.729	.012
SCMC	Using written chat improved my ability to speak in English.	3.40	.507		
Role play	Doing role plays improved my ability to listen in English.	3.80	.775	3.523	.002
SCMC	Using written chat improved my ability to listen in English.	2.67	.976		

*Significant at p<.05

Many participants of SCMC group stated that online discussions provided them with opportunities to improve writing and reading skills in English (3.73). What is far more interesting, however, is that more than three fifths of the SCMC group also agreed that the online discussions improved their ability to speak (3.40). It seems to show that the hybrid nature of synchronous online communication, which combines the speed and informality of oral speech with written output, addresses language skills on either side of the spectrum. This finding corroborates with Chun's (1994) and Payne and Whitney (2002)'s studies. They both claim that language skills practiced in electronic discussions can be transferred to oral skills and that synchronous chat develops the same cognitive mechanisms as oral speech. The finding also shows that participants perceived they improved their listening skills over the course. It is obvious to learn that many participants of the role play group revealed that their listening skills were improved (3.80) because their speaking and listening skills were required during oral role plays, the CMC group also endorsed that they improved their listening skills. Participant 3127 in the post-interview uttered: "The most interesting thing during the course is listening to the instructor. I like listening to her a lot. Listening to her I can improve my listening skill". There were statistically significant differences between the two treatments regarding speaking and listening skills with p = .012 and .002 (p<.05).

4.2. Students' attitudes towards oral role play and SCMC

4.2.1. Attitudes

As the following table shows, both treatment groups seem to have positive attitudes using either oral role plays or synchronous online discussions in their English intensive class.

Table 4. Students' attitudes towards oral role play and SCMC in language skills classes

Treatment	Item	Mean	SD	t	p*
Role play	Doing role plays in the computer lab was a positive addition to English intensive class.	3.37	.516	1.043	.310
SCMC	Using chat in the computer lab was a positive addition to English intensive class.	3.83	1.125		
Role play	The role plays were too short.	3.07	.704	1.437	.162
SCMC	The chat sessions were too short.	3.67	.816		
Role play	I felt more confident participating in the role plays than in the regular class.	3.13	.915	1.538	.136
SCMC	I felt more confident participating in the chat than in the regular class.	3.60	.737		
Role play	I would have preferred to do an online chat instead of an oral role play.	3.13	1.125	1.381	.178
SCMC	I would have preferred to do an oral role play instead of the chat.	2.60	.986		
Role play	The time we spent on the role plays could have been used more productively as regular class time.	3.33	.900	.435	.667
SCMC	The time we spent on the chat could have been used more productively as regular class time.	3.20	.775		
Role play	I would have liked to do more role plays in small groups (instead of just with my partner).	3.20	.775	.215	.831
SCMC	I would have liked to chat more often in small groups (instead of just with my partner).	3.13	.915		
Role play	I enjoy written assignments more than role plays because they allow me to monitor my use of grammar and vocabulary, and to be creative and play around with the language.	3.53	.915	1.342	.190
SCMC	I enjoy oral role plays more than written assignments (e.g., essays), because they allow me to be creative and play around with the language.	2.93	.704		
Role play	Networked computers have positive contribution to language learning.	4.20	.676	.983	.334
SCMC		4.87	1.125		

The SCMC and role play groups evaluated the addition of chat and role play in computer lab as beneficial (3.83 vs. 3.37). Either group was quite content with the activities they did in the computer lab when asked about the time for doing role plays or chats as their mean scores were just a bit higher than neutral point. The SCMC group seemed to enjoy their chat sessions as they wished they could have more time to chat (3.67) compared to oral role play group (3.07). A comparison to the pre-treatment questionnaire furthermore supported these findings: The SCMC group felt more confident in chatting in computer lab than the role play group (3.60 vs. 3.13). Far more interesting when asked whether they would have preferred the other treatment, only 2.60 SCMC group preferred to do an oral role play instead of the chat, while 3.13 oral role play group preferred to chat instead of role play. It showed doing written online discussions would intrigue learners in their learning English. The majority of SCMC group emphasized the great contribution of networked computers to language learning (4.87). As observed in Table 4, the other items displayed a balanced picture between the two groups.

4.2.2. Anxiety

All participants experienced a high level of comfort in their classes. They did not feel very stressed when they had to perform oral role plays in the regular class or answer the questions, and they did not let pronunciation hinder their expressing themselves. At the same time, however, the students wished they had more time to "compose good English".

Table 5. Students' anxiety during oral role play and written chat

Treatment	Item	Mean	SD	t	p*
Role play	I often feel "put on the spot" when doing role plays in English and wish I had more time to compose "good English" when asked to do a role play.	3.07	1.033	-.650	.521
SCMC		3.40	1.242		
Role play	I usually do not feel stressed when answering a question or doing role plays in the regular class.	3.33	.976	.784	.439
SCMC		3.07	.884		
Role play	Having to worry about pronunciation made me feel a lot less comfortable in the role plays.	3.53	1.060	.000	1.000
SCMC	Not having to worry about pronunciation made me feel a lot more comfortable in the online discussions.	3.63	.990		

While the mean scores showed a good comfort level and little anxiety for both groups, it was interesting to note that the CMC group considered it slightly more helpful (3.63) not to have to pay attention to pronunciation when engaging in their online discussions. This response corroborated findings from other research studies (Abrams, 2003; Kost, 2004) where participants commented on the benefits of online discussions in which pronunciation was not an issue, thus freeing up cognitive energy for other aspects of the conversation. The role play group felt equally comfortable and not worried about pronunciation, which might be due to a low level of anxiety in the classes. Participant 3129 uttered in the interview: "I don't worry at all. When I see my friends' text on the screen, I reply. If I don't understand it, I ask again. It is just a practice hour, so I feel free to write what I want or wait for my friends to give their ideas".

4.2.3. Monitoring mistakes

A very interesting aspect of language practice was monitoring and noticing of mistakes. According to the participants' self-reported answers, students in the SCMC group reported their own monitoring the use of grammar and vocabulary (3.33) and noticing of other students' mistakes (3.53) when they conversed in the synchronous online discussions.

Table 6. Students' monitoring mistakes via oral role play and written chat

Treatment	Item	Mean	SD	t	p*
Role play	I monitored my use of grammar and vocabulary in the oral role plays in the lab more than I usually do in the classroom.	3.27	.704	-.196	.846
SCMC	I monitored my use of grammar and vocabulary in the chat messages more than I usually do in oral communication.	3.33	1.113		
Role play	I noticed other students' mistakes more when they presented their oral role plays in the lab than in oral communication in the regular class.	3.27	.884	-.772	.476
SCMC	I noticed other students' mistakes more when conversing in the chat than in oral communication in the regular class.	3.53	1.125		

As can be observed in Table 6, the oral role plays challenged students to monitor their own use of grammar or vocabulary and to notice other students' mistakes when they presented their role plays but with lower tendency (3.27). Participant 3121 said, "It is much easier for me to correct my friends' and my mistakes when looking at the text on the screen than speaking to friends. I also noticed my friends' wrong spellings. I like the correct part at the end of the session". Considering the fact that the online discussions lasted for only about 50 minutes per week, the positive reaction of the students seemed to point to a great but hardly exploited potential of SCMC discussions.

In general, both treatment groups had positive attitudes towards the use of synchronous computer-mediated communication on language skills development. The SCMC and role play groups evaluated the addition of written chat and oral role play in computer lab as beneficial. They were quite contented with the activities they did in the computer lab. Remarkably, the SCMC group felt more confident in chatting in computer lab than the role play group. It showed doing written online discussions would intrigue learners in their learning English. In addition, all participants experienced a high level of comfort in their classes. Finally, according to the participants' self-reported answers, students in the SCMC group reported their own monitoring the use of grammar and vocabulary and noticing of other students' mistakes when they conversed in the synchronous online discussions.

5. Limitations of the study and future research

This study investigated the students' evaluation and attitudes towards the use of synchronous computer-mediated communication on language development. The actual treatment including 4 contact hours in the computer-assisted classroom per week was too short to gain more conclusive results. Due to institutional constraints, a longer treatment phase was not possible for this study. However, in order to find more support for the indicated tendency, it would be necessary to replicate this study with a treatment which distinguishes the two groups more clearly, i.e., expanding the chat sessions to two or more lessons per week. A more longitudinal study, over two or more semesters, would also lend support to a clearer understanding of the phenomena under investigation.

Obviously, it is also difficult to draw conclusions about students' attitudes towards the use of SCMC in language classes based on only 30 participants whose language data were examined in this study. In order to obtain a more thorough representation, it is necessary to investigate the language data from a larger sample of learners, and not just 30 participants.

Based on the data collected from the questionnaire, it seems obvious that students enjoyed the chat sessions. For future research purposes, it would be important to follow up on these issues, for example by investigating the effect of synchronous online discussion on students' language skills development, or designing a more qualitatively oriented survey to investigate students' motivation and their attitudes towards the use of technology in a language class. Furthermore, it would also be interesting to explore these aspects in a larger context and to see how their attitudes and motivation levels would influence their learning of the foreign language. Additionally, the population of 30 participants is too limited to validate the quantitative data and to make the sample representative for the entire population. Future research is advised to collect data from a larger sample.

6. Conclusion

The goal of this study was to provide more insight into SCMC application in language skills classes. The result proved SCMC had great contribution to language development. The students had positive attitudes towards the use of technology in their language classes.

However, in order to shed further light on this issue, more studies investigating learners' language skills development with the use of SCMC are needed.

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NGHIÊN CỨU SỰ ĐÁNH GIÁ VÀ THÁI ĐỘ CỦA SINH VIÊN VỀ GIAO TIẾP ĐỒNG THỜI QUA TRUNG GIAN MÁY TÍNH ĐỐI VỚI VIỆC PHÁT TRIỂN KỸ NĂNG NGÔN NGỮ TRONG BỐI CẢNH GIÁO DỤC VIỆT NAM

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Tóm tắt: Nghiên cứu này điều tra thái độ và đánh giá của sinh viên về giao tiếp đồng thời qua trung gian máy tính đối với việc phát triển kỹ năng ngôn ngữ sau một học kỳ gồm 15 tuần, sử dụng phương pháp định lượng và định tính. Một lớp tiếng Anh bậc 3 (B1) tham gia đóng vai nói trực tiếp và một lớp tham gia thảo luận trực tuyến đồng thời. Đối tượng nghiên cứu hoàn thành phiếu điều tra đầu kỳ và cuối kỳ. Ngoài ra, người nghiên cứu cũng phỏng vấn nhóm thảo luận qua máy tính để điều tra thái độ và đánh giá về giao tiếp đồng thời qua trung gian máy tính đối với việc phát triển kỹ năng ngôn ngữ. Phân tích phiếu điều tra và phỏng vấn cho thấy khóa học tiếng Anh 15 tuần góp phần phát triển kỹ năng ngôn ngữ của sinh viên. Sinh viên có thái độ tích cực đối với việc sử dụng giao tiếp đồng thời qua trung gian máy tính và họ hài lòng với các hoạt động trong phòng máy. Nhóm thảo luận qua máy tính tự tin hơn nhóm đóng vai nói trực tiếp. Điều này cho thấy thảo luận trực tuyến đồng thời sẽ thúc đẩy sinh viên học tiếng Anh. Vì vậy, thảo luận trực tuyến đồng thời cho thấy nó có đóng góp có giá trị vào lớp học ngoại ngữ.

Từ khóa: thảo luận trực tuyến đồng thời, đóng vai nói trực tiếp, đánh giá, thái độ của sinh viên, kỹ năng ngôn ngữ, lớp học ngoại ngữ

APPENDIX A

PRE-TREATMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

You are participating in a research study investigating students' evaluation and attitudes towards synchronous computer-mediated communication on language skills development. By filling out this questionnaire, you grant consent for use of the information.

Please fully fill out the following questionnaire.

A. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION	
A1. Gender	Male Female
A2. Apart from native language, do you use other languages:	1. English 2. Chinese 3. French 4. Others, specify: ………
A3. Enrollment area:	1. Area 1 2. Area 2 3. Rural area 2 4. Area 3
A4. You started learning English at:	1. Grade 3 2. Grade 6 3. Grade 10 4. Others, specify:…………
A5. How would you rate your English skills and areas. Please circle: 1. Weakest; 2. Weak; 3. Moderate; 4. Strong; 5. Strongest.	Weakest Weak Moderate Strong Strongest Listening 1 2 3 4 5 Speaking 1 2 3 4 5 Reading 1 2 3 4 5 Writing 1 2 3 4 5 Grammar 1 2 3 4 5 Vocabulary 1 2 3 4 5 Pronunciation 1 2 3 4 5
B. ATTITUDES TOWARDS COMPUTER USE FOR ENGLISH LEARNING	
B1. Which purposes would you use computers for? *(more than 1 option is possible)*	1. Chatting 2. Email 3. Web surfing 4. English learning 5. Others, specify: ……………………………………
B2. Have you used **chat** in other English classes you have taken (apart from this class)?	1. Yes 2. No
B3. How often do you use chat rooms to communicate English with other people?	1. Always 4. Usually 2. Sometimes 5. Rarely 3. Never
B4. The use of Internet-connected computers can improve your English ability in: Please circle the best answer: 1. Strongly disagree (**SD**); 2. Disagree (**D**); 3. Neutral (**N**); 4. Agree (**A**); 5. Strongly agree (**SA**)	**SD D N A SA** Listening 1 2 3 4 5 Speaking 1 2 3 4 5 Reading 1 2 3 4 5 Writing 1 2 3 4 5 Grammar 1 2 3 4 5 Vocabulary 1 2 3 4 5 Pronunciation 1 2 3 4 5 Others, specify: …………………………………..

Thank you for your cooperation!

APPENDIX B

POST-TREATMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (ROLE PLAY GROUP)

Please answer the following questions honestly. The purpose of this questionnaire is to provide the researcher of this project with background information concerning your evaluation of and attitude towards the use of technology in a foreign language class.

Please put a cross (X) in the most appropriate cell, which corresponds to the five-level scale given below.

SD = Strongly disagree **D** = Disagree **N** = Neutral **A** = Agree **SA** = Strongly agree

No.	Statement	SD	D	N	A	SA
A. Students' self-evaluation of technology application on language skills development via role play						
A1.	Doing role plays improved my ability to write in English.					
A2.	Doing role plays improved my ability to read in English.					
A3.	Doing role plays improved my ability to speak in English.					
A4.	Doing role plays improved my ability to listen in English.					
B. Students' attitudes towards using technology via oral role play						
B1.	Doing role plays in the computer lab was a positive addition to English intensive class.					
B2.	The role plays were too short.					
B3.	I felt more confident participating in the role plays than in the regular class.					
B4.	I would have preferred to do an online chat instead of an oral role play.					
B5.	The time we spent on the role plays could have been used more productively as regular class time.					
B6.	I would have liked to do more role plays in small groups (instead of just with my partner).					
B7.	I enjoy written assignments more than role plays because they allow me to monitor my use of grammar and vocabulary, and to be creative and play around with the language.					
B8.	Networked computers have positive contribution to language learning.					
B9.	I often feel "put on the spot" when doing role plays in English and wish I had more time to compose "good English" when asked to do a role play.					
B10.	I usually do not feel stressed when answering a question or doing role plays in the regular class.					
B11.	Having to worry about pronunciation made me feel a lot less comfortable in the role plays.					
B12.	I monitored my use of grammar and vocabulary in the oral role plays in the computer lab more than I usually do in the classroom.					
B13.	I noticed other students' mistakes more when they presented their oral role plays in the lab than in oral communication in the regular class.					

Thank you for your cooperation!

APPENDIX C

POST-TREATMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (SCMC GROUP)

Please answer the following questions honestly. The purpose of this questionnaire is to provide the researcher of this project with background information concerning your evaluation of and attitude towards the use of technology in a foreign language class.

Please put a cross (X) in the most appropriate cell, which corresponds to the five-level scale given below.

SD = Strongly disagree **D** = Disagree **N** = Neutral **A** = Agree **SA** = Strongly agree

No.	Statement	SD	D	N	A	SA
A. Students' self-evaluation of technology application on language skills development via written chat						
A1.	Using chat improved my ability to write in English.					
A2.	Using chat improved my ability to read in English.					
A3.	Using chat improved my ability to speak in English.					
A4.	Using chat improved my ability to listen in English.					
B. Students' attitudes towards using technology via written chat						
B1.	Using chat in the computer lab was a positive addition to English intensive class.					
B2.	The chat sessions were too short.					
B3.	I felt more confident participating in the chat than in the regular class.					
B4.	I would have preferred to do an oral role play instead of the chat.					
B5.	The time we spent on the chat could have been used more productively as regular class time.					
B6.	I would have liked to chat more often in small groups (instead of just with my partner).					
B7.	I enjoy oral role plays more than written assignments (e.g., essays), because they allow me to be creative and play around with the language.					
B8.	Networked computers have positive contribution to language learning.					
B9.	I often feel "put on the spot" when doing role plays in English and wish I had more time to compose "good English" when asked to do a role play.					
B10.	I usually do not feel stressed when answering a question or doing role plays in the regular class.					
B11.	Not having to worry about pronunciation made me feel a lot more comfortable in the online discussions.					
B12.	I monitored my use of grammar and vocabulary in the chat messages more than I usually do in oral communication.					
B13.	I noticed other students' mistakes more when conversing in the chat than in oral communication in the regular class.					

Thank you for your cooperation!

APPENDIX D

POST-TREATMENT INTERVIEW (SCMC GROUP)

1. How would you describe the course? What are your feelings about the course?

2. Which language skills (speaking, writing, reading, listening) do you think you improved most during the course? How and Why?

3. What do you think about monitoring the use of grammar and vocabulary during chat sessions?

4. What do you think about noticing other students' mistakes during chat sessions? What did you do with found mistakes?

5. What do you think about writing text chat on language development?

6. What major changes do you perceive after the course?

7. Which would you prefer learning English: online chat or attend regular class? Why?

8. What do you think you will do to improve your English after this course?

Thank you for your cooperation!

A SKETCH OF THE VIETNAMESE LANGUAGE AND CULTURE FROM SOUTHEAST ASIAN PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract: As a Southeast Asian nation, Vietnam is a miniature of the languages and cultures of the region thanks to its possession of the most typical features of the languages and cultures of various Southeast Asian nations. Through description and comparison using an inter-disciplinary approach, the paper points out that due to Vietnam's special geographical position, its language and culture do contain phenomena which reflect the boundaries of linguistic and cultural features among different subregions in Southeast Asia. Therefore, Vietnam can be regarded as the intermediary for the linguistic and cultural interchange between the North and the South. In other words, from a cultural-linguistic perspective, Vietnam is considered a gateway or a hub of contact among East Asia, Southeast Asia and South Asia.**

Keywords: culture, language, Vietnam, Southeast Asia

1. Distinction between "the administrative Southeast Asia" and "the cultural Southeast Asia"

Vietnam is a nation in Southeast Asia (SEA). However, if a full understanding of the Vietnamese language and culture through the SEA lens is sought after, it is necessary to delineate the actual geographical boundaries of this region because the current conceptualization of SEA would not allow the entire dynamic history of the region's languages and cultures to be thoroughly grasped. Therefore, we believe that it is important to distinguish the two concepts of *the geo-administrative SEA* and *the geo-cultural SEA*.

1.1. The Administrative Southeast Asia

As of 2018, administratively, SEA is a geographical region of 11 states. The concept of SEA in current usage actually made its first appearance on the world political map after the Second World War (WW2) to indicate a specific region in the southeast of the Asian continent. Putting political institutions aside for the moment, nations in this region bear both common regional cultural-linguistic features and their own peculiarities. Nevertheless, historically and culturally speaking, prior to WW2, SEA physical territory was much larger with several subregions. In other words, it must have spanned over part of the territory south of China and part of the territory east of India. Technically speaking, this geographical region of the Asian continent is largely subject to a monsoon climatic regime. That is the reason why we once posited that that expanded

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geographical Southeast Asian region, which humanity researchers consider to be Southeast Asia, should be called *"the cultural SEA"* (Trần Trí Dõi, 2005, pp.15-29; 2011, pp.14-29) or *"the ethnic cultural SEA"* so as to be distinct from *the administrative SEA*.

1.2. The cultural SEA aligned with the development history of the regional culture

Physically, thanks to its monsoon natural climatic features, cultural SEA possibly covers a much larger geographical area than the current administrative SEA. In the view of various humanity disciplines, this cultural SEA space does contain both relative unity and subregional differences as a result of its history.

The natural boundary of the territory south of China, i.e. the northern subregion of the cultural SEA, almost coincides with the Chang Jiang River (otherwise known as the Yangtze River). This territory Before our Common Era (B.C.E.) was referred to in ancient Chinese documents as the land of the Bách Việt (Bǎiyuè 百越) inhabitants who spoke non-Sino languages (Trần Trí Dõi, 2017b, pp.41-53). The eastern part of the present India (including part of Bangladesh and Indian states east of the Ganga) is the western part of the cultural SEA. This geographical region was once believed to be the original birthplace of the Austroasiatic language family (Sidwell, 2010, p. 119). On such a scale, the cultural SEA is naturally distinct from adjacent regions thanks to major rivers, e.g. the Ganga (India) and the Chang Jiang (China), which possess crucial cultural values to the whole region both in history and at present, and assume critical geographical location both within and outside the cultural SEA.

With such boundaries, the cultural SEA occupies a much larger part of Asia than the present administrative SEA. In other words, this is an expanded SEA which deserves due attention from various humanity disciplines, including linguistics and cultural studies, and in fact, attention has been paid by various scholars in humanities. In Vietnam, for instance, from a cultural-archeological perspective, Hà Văn Tấn wrote, 'In prehistory and early history, the land south of the Yangtze should be regarded as belonging to the cultural SEA rather than East Asia' (Hà Văn Tấn, 1981, p.186). In a similar archeological vein, Trình Năng Chung analyzed the influence of Vietnam's Dong Son culture on Liangguang in south China (Trình Năng Chung, 2014, pp. 201-215). Meanwhile, in his writing about Vietnam's history and geography, Đào Duy Anh says that in China, 'the book *Độc sử phương dư kỷ yếu* by Cố Tổ Vũ published in 1667, volumes 106 to 112 on Guangxi, does contain an annex of geographical records on our country' (i.e. Vietnam). When explaining the history of Cổ Loa (古螺), a national capital in Vietnam's history, he also used Từ Tùng Thạch (徐松石, Xu Songshi)'s conclusions in the latter's study of geographical names in south China (1946) in his arguments.

According to such archeological, historical and geographical views, the cultural SEA is a vast area between the Indian and Chinese sub-continents, where different languages and cultures (including the Vietnamese language and Vietnamese culture) maintained regular contact and borrowed from one another, and such borrowings still remain.

Not only Vietnamese humanity scholars have proved that the cultural SEA, as Hà Văn Tấn calls it, includes 'the land south of the Yangtze River', but also foreign researchers in China and in the West, directly or indirectly, posit similar views of SEA. For instance, when describing "Hoa Sơn nhai bích họa (花山崖壁画)" (Hua mountain rock paintings), which Chinese cultural researchers believe to have existed around 2400 – 2600 years ago, the two Chinese scholars Hoàng Nhữ Huấn and Hoàng Hỷ (黄汝训-黄喆) comment that the images in those 'paintings' seem to depict 'not only the dances of Lạc Việt (雒越)'s inhabitants but also their ancient marital customs' (2005). *Hoa Sơn nhai bích họa* (Hua mountain rock paintings) are believed to have been made in the Qin-Han dynasties on a rock in the mountain range along the Ming Jiang River (the segment flowing through Ning Ming county of Sùng Tả (Chongzuo Shi) city, Guangxi province). Based on the two Chinese authors' assumptions, it is possible to posit that the dancers depicted in the Hua mountain rock paintings were close to Lạc Việt inhabitants who spoke non-Sino languages. Naturally, one would definitely associate non-Sino Lạc Việt people with a much larger cultural SEA (Trần Trí Dõi, 2017b, pp.41-53). If the identified date of the Hua mountain rock paintings that still remain in Ningming, Guangxi, were correct, the paintings would reveal that in ancient times, this area used to be the cultural area of non-Sino communities associated with SEA in the south today.

Another recent publication on language that is related to Vietnam's history by Kelley (2013) also reflects this view. From a multi-disciplinary approach, in which historical perspective is predominant, Kelly utilizes the use of languages in the whole area of south China and north Vietnam as supports to his argument. Specifically, while explaining the historical relation between the Viet community (who spoke a language of the Austroasiatic family) and the Thai (Tai) people (who spoke a language of the Tai-Kadai family) in prehistoric times in the cultural SEA, he posits that the author of *Đại Việt sử ký toàn thư (Complete Book of the Historical Records of Đại Việt)* written in the 15th century used borrowings from the Tai language. He writes, "In the 15th century a new Vietnamese dynasty, the Lê Dynasty, came to power after the Chinese were driven out in 1427. The Lê Dynasty needed to demonstrate its legitimacy, and it did so through various means" (Kelly, 2013, p. 82), and these means include words borrowed from Tai. Considering the author's explanation in the paper, it is possible for us to assert that Vietnam's cultural and historical issues can be inseparable from linguistic and cultural evolution in the territory south of China, i.e. part of the area we refer to as the cultural SEA.

Another Western researcher – the French scholar Ferlus, while discussing the name "Viet" from historico-etymological perspective, also shows an expanded human geography view in correspondence to the concept of the cultural SEA. In his article, he says, "in the *Sử ký* (Shijì 史記) by Tư Mã Thiên (Simă Qian 司馬遷, 145 - 86), there appears for the first time the compound Bách Việt (Băiyuè 百越) used by the Chinese people to refer to inhabitants south of the Yangtze (Yangzi 揚子) River. These characters were used as phonetic signs to record non-Sino words; therefore, the meaning of the compound cannot be the sum of each word's meanings, i.e. *băi* (bách 百) cannot be interpreted as "*trăm* (*họ/nước*)" (one hundred (families/countries)) and *yuè* (việt 越) as "cái qua (dùng trong chiến tranh)" (a weapon used in battles). The term *yuè* (việt 越) is also found in Hanshu 漢書/汉书, the historical record of pre-Han time (206 B.C.E. – 25 C.E.), including Vu Việt (Yúyuè 於越), Lạc Việt (Luòyuè 雒越), which is currently explained as "the Viet people whose totem is the *lạc* bird[1] (Ferlus, 2011, p.1). Ferlus'

[1] The bird often seen on Vietnamese bronze drums, like this . Original French: "Les Mémoires Historiques (Shǐjì 史記) de Sīmǎ Qiān司馬遷 (-145/-86) nous révèlent la première attestation

etymological explanation of the components of the Sino-Vietnamese phonetic cluster *Lạc Việt* on the basis of analyses of its relations to other languages in south China and SEA demonstrates that in his view, SEA cannot be constrained within the current administrative limits. It is clear that, to him, the geo-cultural region of Lạc Việt, including the Vietnamese language and the culture of the Viet (Nam) people, as recorded in ancient Chinese history books, must encompass the south of China, i.e. "south of the Yangtze River" and the present Southeast Asia. When offering our additional discussion on the concept of Lạc Việt (雒越) in pre-history, we did support this view of Ferlus by pointing out that several Austroasiatic languages in Southeast Asia still retain the etymological meaning of that ancient name when the Chinese used the character Lạc (*Luò* 雒) to phonetically record that non-Sino name (Trần Trí Dõi, 2017b).

The afore-mentioned linguistic, cultural and historical phenomena allow us to conclude that in its development, the cultural SEA has experienced perplexing changes. Thus, non-recognition of the geographical distinction between the current SEA and the cultural SEA in the past would likely prevent us from thoroughly understanding the region's cultural and linguistic features. Subsequently, it would be difficult to fully grasp the commonalities as well as peculiarities of the Vietnamese language and culture in the panorama of this vast geographical region. In other words, clear understanding of the distinction between the administrative SEA and the cultural SEA is crucial to one's investigation of the region's cultures and languages.

2. Indicators of Vietnam as a miniature of the cultural SEA

2.1. Vietnam as an agricultural geographical miniature of the cultural SEA

As has been argued, broadly speaking, the cultural SEA enjoys the monsoon climate, borders the Pacific on the east, the Indian Ocean on the south, the Ganga in India on the west, and the Chang Jiang in the south of China on the north. Such geographical boundaries encompass several major rivers which mostly originate in the northwest and flow southward, southeastward or eastward to the sea, forming well-known deltas in terms of area, fertility and prosperity, namely the vast Huanan (South China) delta of the Chang Jiang, the Pearl River (Zhujiang) delta in China, the Red River and the Mekong River deltas (in Vietnam and Cambodia), the Chao Phraya (Menam) and the Mae Klong deltas (in central Thailand), the delta of the Irrawaddy (Ayeyarwady) and Salween (or, officially, Thanlwin) rivers (Myanmar). Owing to such a climate and rivers, the cultural SEA is endowed with special social and natural features, the most important of which is rice cultivation, and Vietnam is among those typical subregions.

Such features are perhaps the most salient of the cultural SEA. Engaged in rice farming, inhabitants normally tended their land in close communities so that they could join

des Bǎiyuè (bǎiyuè 百越), expression par laquelle les Chinois désignaient les populations au sud du fleuve Yángzǐ. Les caractères utilisés sont des phonogrammes qui transcrivent des vocables non chinois; la signification de l'expression Bǎiyuè ne peut s'expliquer par le sens propre des caractères composants, ici bǎi 百 "cent" et yuè 越 "hache de guerre"... Le terme yuè 越 est également consigné par plusieurs expressions dans le Livre des Han (hànshū 漢書/ 汉书) qui couvre l'histoire des Han antérieurs (-206/-25): Yúyuè 於越 "Yue principaux", Luòyuè 雒越 (sino-viet: Lạc việt) "Yue des Lạc" hands together to fight against natural forces and disasters. This is the natural foundation for villages to use the same type of dialects amidst the mosaic of languages in Southeast Asia. In Vietnam, this is also possibly the socio-natural reason why each village may have its own institution, so much and so strong as "village rules wipe out the king's laws", and representing such institutions is normally a typical accent or 'local tongue' for each village or region.

Agricultural inhabitants in the past had no choice other than relying on weathers for their cultivation, so they had to plan their production seasonally to accommodate changing weathers. That seasonal nature of agricultural production led to periodical or repetitive cycles of crops within certain geographical areas. Work cycles are sandwiched with pauses for relaxation and festivals. Thanks to those periodical resting times, Southeast Asian inhabitants' festivals and holidays are organized almost at the same time, and that seems to determine rice-farming or fishing-related rituals and activities in those festivals, similar to the meaning of "original" or "starting point" of the Phù Đổng (扶 董) festival in Vietnam today (Trần Trí Dõi, 2013).

Also, the geographical features of the cultural SEA reveal that periodical cultivation may have driven inhabitants to migration, and such migration was also periodical but slow. Over time, sustained and regular migration led to interwoven communities, where language and cultural contact occurred both historically and non-historically. This is exactly the reason why interwoven communities make the linguistic picture both complicated and diverse like a mosaic (Trần Trí Dõi, 2015, pp.151-191).

2.2. Vietnam – a miniature of the cultural SEA in terms of ethnicity

It is apparent that ethnic groups in the cultural SEA share considerable cultural features, although they may live close to one another or quite a distance apart. For instance, cultural imprints of Austronesian speakers are found scattering at various degrees all over the land south of China, along the eastern coast of Southeast Asia, particularly the islands in Southeast Asia, which means Austronesian speakers spread over a vast geographical space. This can only be attributed to sustained migration which resulted in such a large spatial diffusion of Austronesian inhabitants.

However, this is not only the case with Austronesian speakers. It is the same with other language families as well, e.g. the Tai-Kadai, the Miao-Yao speakers. Possibly, a typical feature of the whole cultural SEA is different communities speaking languages of different families yet sharing similar cultures though distributing over various areas. Such a phenomenon can only be explained with historico-geographical reasons. In other words, it can be asserted that the geographical, cultural and social attributes of the region have undergone complicated historical changes until their presence state.

Another conclusion can be made out of the afore-mentioned fact: the language and cultural picture of the cultural SEA has several times been re-structured and overlapped. An example is various dialects of the Vietnamese language. Even adjacent villages can speak different accents. Furthermore, not merely their pronunciation, but also their vocabulary and even grammar, differ, i.e. phonetically, lexically, and syntactically (as evident in the use of modal particles at the end of questions in some local dialects in Thanh Hoa province). Thus, it is possible to posit that even two adjacent villages may speak two different languages rather than two variants of the same language. Similar socio-cultural features are also found in the cultural SEA territory south of China. Such linguistic disorder and overlapping make Haudricourt, a famous linguist, admit that it is difficult to identify the origins of a number of words shared between Austronesian and Mon-Khmer languages (Haudricourt, 1966, p.33).

Also, from another perspective, it is impossible not to mention the 'intermediary' location of the cultural SEA. Geographically, the cultural SEA lies between two larger sub-continents with flourishing ancient civilizations, i.e. India and China. Naturally, these two sub-continents have exerted, and will continue to exert, significant impacts on the current cultural SEA. In one way or another, therefore, the 'intermediary' location of SEA enables it to receive various dimensions of both linguistic and cultural impacts from India and China. Examples to support this avail. Consider the distribution of ancient scripts of the Tai-Kadai speakers in the region. It is common knowledge that Tai-Kadai speakers in the south (including the Thai, the Laos, the Lự in Vietnam, Thailand and Laos PDR; the Dai in Yunnan, China, amongst others) use ancient scripts of Indian traditions while the Tai-Kadai in the north (the Zhuang in China, the Tay-Nung in Vietnam) use ancient scripts in Chinese traditions (Trần Trí Dõi, 2009, pp.271-284; 2017a, pp.46-62). Ancient scripts of the Thai in Indian traditions in southern territory belong to Khmer or Mon types as Ferlus claims (Ferlus, 1999). By contrast, in the territory east of the Red River in Yunnan – Guangxi (China) and north Vietnam, ancient Tai-Kadai scripts adopt Chinese traditions, which are known as Nom characters. It is clear that the geographical 'intermediary' position of the cultural SEA is reflected in the use of ancient scripts by Tai-Kadai speakers, which deserves attention.

As analyzed, from geographical, socio-cultural perspectives, it is obvious that the cultural SEA has been inhabited by not only indigenous people but also migrants who speak languages of different families. Along with population mix, the region finds itself at the crossroad of two neighboring developed civilizations. Such socio-cultural circumstances have exerted their impacts on the languages and cultures of the cultural SEA, including the Vietnamese language and culture.

2.3. Shared SEA cultural features in Vietnam

To illustrate that Vietnam is a miniature of the cultural SEA, we will not provide all specific details but merely identify a few fundamental ones. In our view, these can be regarded as typical cultural invariants, or constants, known to humanity scholars. Following are some examples.

2.3.1. Tangible cultural invariants

On the basis of common agricultural civilization, SEA inhabitants in different subregions have created relatively uniformed ethnic cultures. Yet, apart from that uniformity, each locality presents its own peculiarities that make them diverse. Some tangible cultural constants found in Vietnam include:

First, *rice cultivation*, which I believe is the most salient feature of the cultural SEA. Inhabitants in this area live mostly on rice, which is cultivated on wet paddy fields and dry hill slopes. Buffaloes and oxen are domesticated as draft animals; similar tools are used; and irrigation systems work on the principle of gravity. Thus, suitable ecological environments for the cultural subregions that emerge are deltas, mountain valleys, and hill slopes. Also, part of the cultural SEA inhabitants are skillful on waters, i.e. in fishing and processing aqua-products in rivers, lakes, lagoons, coastal as well as offshore fishing grounds. Vietnam is rich in such cultural constants.

Along with rice cultivation and fishing, various handicrafts flourish, including textile and dyeing (silk, cotton, fibers from banana, pineapple, coconut, etc.), hand knitting, ceramics, lacquer, wood carving, jewelry, to name just a few. In other words, sophisticated handicrafts formulate another cultural constant of the inhabitants in the cultural SEA, including Vietnam.

Finally, *stilt houses*. Broadly speaking, the whole area tends to maintain the tradition of living in houses on stilts. Yet, there are a variety of types of stilt houses: those on slopes differ from those on flat land; those in dry land differ from those in swamps or wetlands; long stilt houses apparently differ from shorter ones. Living customs in different types of stilt houses also differ from one group to another, despite *e pluribus unum* – unity in diversity, e.g. the decoration of the rooftop all over Southeast Asia. Stilt houses are still preserved intact in Vietnam.

2.3.2. Intangible cultural commonalities

Amidst cultural diversity of various ethnic groups or states in the cultural SEA, shared intangible cultural features are fully present in Vietnam, including:

Language: communities in the cultural SEA are found to speak 5 different language families, namely Austroasiatic, Austronesian, Tai-Kadai, Miao-Yao, and Sino-Tibetan. Ethnic groups in different parts of Vietnam are also speaking languages of these 5 families (Trần Trí Dõi, 2015), which is also the case in Laos PDR, Thailand or Malaysia. Nevertheless, among those families, Austroasiatic is considered native of SEA in pre-history, although there remains controversy over its original geographical distribution. The fact that Austroasiatic speakers diffuse all over the cultural SEA demonstrates that this family is native in pre-history, and in Vietnam, Austroasiatic speakers also stretch along the country from north to south with the largest number of ethnic groups as well as individual speakers.

Next, *folk culture and beliefs*. The cultural SEA is rich with a variety of folk performances (e.g. water puppetry, dances with masks), and traditional music (with diverse instruments made of natural materials). This is also the region where family values and respect to the elderly & ancestors are appreciated, and festivals reflecting strong community and solidarity spirits among villages and ethnic groups are celebrated. It is common to witness those folk culture and beliefs respectfully preserved in the country. Examples include *gong* music of the Muong in the north or other ethnic groups in the Central Highlands, fish worshipping rituals and festivals in almost every village along the coast from north to south, village festivals in commemoration of their founding fathers or water sources such as Phù Đổng festival, Đền Hùng (Hung Temple) festival, buffalo-slaughtering festivals in the Central Highlands, amongst others. Thanks to such festivals, communities remain close-knit, and strong solidarity is maintained among individual villagers as well as different ethnic groups.

In the folk culture and beliefs in the

cultural SEA, women's role is socially recognized and respected. Vietnam enjoys a diversity of maternity worshipping beliefs and practices everywhere. In the north, there is a temple worshipping Mother Âu Cơ (Mother of the Nation) in Phu Tho, temples worshipping the Trung Sisters in Hanoi and other places, or Goddess Liễu Hạnh temples in Hanoi, Nam Dinh, and Thanh Hoa. In the central part of the country are Hon Chen temple in Hue, Po Naga tower worshipping Goddess Ana of the Cham people in Khanh Hoa, and in the south are Ba Den Mountain in Tay Ninh and Goddess Sam Mountain in An Giang. These are holy places where meritorious women or goddesses are glorified and celebrated among the folks.

Religions are another indicator of Vietnam as a miniature of the cultural SEA. On the basis of such native folk beliefs as animism, agricultural rituals as Phù Đổng festival, ancestralism as Hung Temple festival, Vietnam adopted, *inter alia,* Hinduism, Buddhism, Islam, Christianity, Taoism, like other states in the cultural SEA. This adds to the diversity and richness of the spiritual life of Vietnamese communities without complicating their daily life.

2.3.3. "Receiving" culture, or culture of adoption

In Southeast Asia there has been a long process of receiving cultural influences from the south (from India or the Arabic world), from the north (China or Japan), and from Europe, which substantially increases its cultural and religious diversity. This is also the case in Vietnam. Though sharing those regional features, Vietnam retains its own attributes for its national identity amidst the mosaic of the region. Archeological studies reveal that the Dong Son (東 山, Dongsan) civilization, which existed in North Vietnam from the first millennium B.C.E. to the second century C.E. (Hà Văn Tấn 1997, pp.759 – 760), witnessed the highest flourishment at equal pace of the cultures of ethnic groups in SEA. In that era, SEA culture remained non-Chinese and non-Indian. Later, ethnic cultures in this region gradually received influences from the two neighboring civilizations of India and China. Since the 2nd century C.E., these two civilizations exerted continuous influence on SEA for centuries, which altered the Dong Son culture so much that upon their arrival on this land, Europeans had to use the name *Indochina/Indochine* to call it.

It is known that Chinese civilization penetrated Southeast Asia from the basin south of the Yellow River, crossing the vast basin of the Chang Jiang to the Red River Delta in Vietnam. Such penetration was made through wars, together with the predominant "popularization' of the Chinese writing system, culture, socio-political and legal institutions, amongst others, to territories ruled by the Chinese. However, thanks to the sustainability of previous indigenous culture, and the vast social space of Dong Son Culture in SEA, such Chinese penetration seemed to have "stopped" at the territory of the Viet people in the Red River Delta. This is possibly the cultural reason why, after a thousand years under the rule of several Northern feudal dynasties, Vietnam managed to separate from such a rule, which was a mission impossible to the Zhuang neighbors in southern China.

While Chinese civilization's penetration into SEA occurred in a rolling manner, the penetration of Indian civilization took place through the construction of "cultural centers" or "cultural islands" with significant attraction to their vicinity. In other words, penetration from the north to SEA was made through territorial conquers for the purpose of "cultural diffusion" while that from the south was through the construction of factories and trade points along SEA coasts and islands which became Indian-style commercial zones with considerable influence on the cultural SEA. This is possibly the reason why the Thai community (in Thailand) and the Zhuang people in China demonstrate different responses to Buddhism.

Possibly, through a thousand years of Indianization and Sinization in such different manners, subregions in SEA bear various cultural imprints. While indigenous cultures in SEA subregions are still preserved, the northeastern part of the cultural SEA bears clearer Chinese cultural influences whereas Indian cultural traits are more visible in the southern part of the cultural SEA. Later, indigenous cultures in SEA were also subjected to Arabic and Western cultural impacts to various degrees. Amidst such differences among subregions of the cultural SEA, the subregion of Dong Son Culture, with its center being the Red River Delta in Vietnam, seems to be the boundary between the southern and northeastern parts of the cultural SEA.

3. Vietnam's treatment to cultural and linguistic borrowings

Thus, like other states in the cultural SEA, in its history, Vietnam has never lost its indigenous culture, thanks to which it could receive cultural influences from outside to make its own culture richer. Interesting evidence can be found in language – an arbitrary social phenomenon.

3.1. Indigenousness in Vietnamese language and culture

In order to understand Vietnam's selective choices of foreign cultural influence to enrich its own, it is important to realize the indigenousness of Vietnamese language and culture. Upon setting foot in the cultural SEA, it was natural that the first Europeans instantly felt Indian and Chinese cultures here. Nevertheless, when they could secure access to the cultural foundation of the region, especially its agricultural civilization, they realized its cultural indigenousness, which is reflected in several linguistic and cultural features of the region, including Vietnam. Hereafter are a few examples.

For instance, superstructurally, the North of Vietnam clearly features Indian or Chinese cultural influences, as shown in village institutions with Chinese Confucian hierarchy along with the presence of Indian-originated Buddhism. At a broader scale, however, such foreign influence is subject to indigenous cultural control. Despite very strong Confucian impacts, the petite peasant foundation of villages in North Vietnam did affect superstructural institutions of the feudal society. Owing to such multi-dimensional impacts, there remained different strongly Confucian customs and practices in Vietnamese villages. In other words, the petite peasant society did not allow the monopoly of Confucianism in their village institutions[2]. That is the reason why various Vietnamese feudal dynasties on the one hand appreciated Confucian examinations and appointments, and respected the harmony of Buddhism, Taoism and Confucianism together with other folk beliefs on the other

[2] Perhaps this is the reason why the Vietnamese have the proverb "Village rules wipe out the King's laws".

hand. Vietnamese Confucianism has been proved different from that in the North where it originated (Nguyễn Kim Sơn, 2012). It is not a coincidence that in the 10th century, when Vietnam gained its independence from Chinese feudal forces, amidst the then flourishment of Chinese culture which was learned by the people of Dai Viet, King Ly Cong Uan continued to take Buddhism as the national religion. Such a choice was partly governed by Vietnamese indigenous culture, and partly demonstrated the Ly's awareness of the counterweight of Indian culture to Chinese feudal culture.[3]

Linguistically, the SEA indigenousness of the Vietnamese language is clear. Historically, there is sufficient evidence in phonetic rules for linguists to confirm that Vietnamese is among indigenous Austroasiatic languages (Trần Trí Dõi, 2011). The Austroasiatic origin of Vietnamese allowed it to borrow a large number of words from other cultures, including Indian, Chinese and Western, so as to enrich itself. This is one of many reasons why researchers of Vietnamese proposed different ideas on the origin of the language in the cultural SEA.

It is very likely that thanks to the strong preservation of the SEA cultural foundation, Vietnam, especially during the Nguyen Dynasty, chose a development model pretty similar to the northern social institutions, which is different from the rest of SEA, yet such a choice could not prevent Vietnam from returning to its integration with SEA. The choice of development models for a state tends to be controlled by particular historical circumstances, but basically, it is the cultural background (i.e. the indigenous culture) of that state that determines its long-term development trend. By this we mean, culturally, Vietnam could only develop amidst the context of the cultural SEA.

3.2. Linguistic borrowing

The indigenousness of the cultures and languages of SEA as well as Vietnam is also related to the ability to receive and borrow, i.e. SEA languages and cultures, including Vietnamese, are both borrowers and lenders. As lenders, SEA languages and cultures affect those in adjacent territories whereas as borrowers, SEA languages and cultures are subject to impacts from neighboring languages and cultures. In other words, reception and borrowing occurred both ways.

Examples could be words possibly borrowed from Austroasiatic languages in the Chinese lexicon. In an article on the proper name of Cao Lỗ (皐魯), we found that the name was given to a general under the reign of King An Duong of the Kingdom of Au Lac (B.C.E.) at a much later time, around the 13th-15th centuries. This means that the name Cao Lỗ (皐魯) in Vietnamese history is a purely Sino-Vietnamese word to refer to Thần Nỗ, which is the Sino-Vietnamese pronunciation of the Chinese 神弩.

Along with this Sino-Vietnamese name are other forms in Vietnamese that are still preserved, e.g. Thần Ná/Thần Nỏ (all of which mean the God of the Bow). Among those non-Sino-Vietnamese variants that remain in Vietnamese, Ná is still used among various languages of the Mon-Khmer branch of Austroasiatic family. Ná is re-constructed by Sidwell as the phonetic form /*snaa/ in Proto West Bahnar group, as /*sənhaa/ in Proto Katu, and /hna^{c1}/ in Proto Southwest Thai of the Tai-Kadai group (Sidwell, 2003, p.65). This historical phonetic evidence leads to the position that "the object" that the Chinese language

[3] Compared to the choice of national religion in such neighboring countries as Laos PDR, Cambodia and Thailand.

borrowed and recorded as the character 弩 (Beijing pronunciation *nŭ*, Sino-Vietnamese pronunciation *nỗ*, re-constructed by Baxter & Sagart (2014) as *C.nˤaʔ-B) could possibly originate from the south, i.e. from languages of the Mon-Khmer branch of Austroasiatic family, which is the ancestor of the Vietnamese language. This is to say *ná* in Vietnamese and *nỗ* in Chinese may have shared the same origin. If so, originally, it was an Austroasiatic word before being borrowed into Chinese and written using a Chinese character. Subsequently, it was re-borrowed into Vietnamese, an Austroasiatic language. When it was re-borrowed, its Early Sino-Vietnamese phonetic form was *nỏ*, and later, it became the Sino-Vietnamese phonetic form of *nỗ* (Trần Trí Dõi, 2013a). This also means SEA languages and cultures are both lenders and borrowers.

Borrowings from Austroasiatic languages in Chinese can also be seen in the etymology of the concept of *Lạc Việt* (雒越) still in current use in Vietnam and China (Trần Trí Dõi, 2017b). It is likely that ancient Chinese used as many as 3 Sino characters 雒/駱/絡, which are all currently pronounced as "Lạc" in Sino-Vietnamese and "luò" in Beijing vernacular of the Chinese language, to refer to the non-Sino inhabitants south of the Yangtze River. These were the phonetic records of the Austroasiatic name of the land or its people. Reconstruction of Old Chinese by such linguists as Schuessler (2007) and Baxter & Sagart (2014) provides the semantic values of these words. It is highly possible that these Chinese characters which represent such an Austroasiatic word were used to refer to the particular inhabitants whose nomenclature remains in various SEA languages (Ferlus, 2011).

That the cultures and languages in SEA are borrowers can be more visible. For instance, the Sino-Vietnamese pronunciation of Chinese characters in the Vietnamese language analyzed by Nguyễn Tài Cẩn (1979) is a typical example of such borrowings. This can be explained in different ways, including the complete and sophisticated writing system – the most salient and crucial feature of the Chinese language, thanks to which Chinese customs, socio-political and legal institutions, *inter alia,* could be borrowed into the languages and cultures of various SEA states. Chinese characters were also borrowed by different ethnic groups in the cultural SEA such as the Zhuang, Tay, Nung, Yao, Viet to make their own writing systems (e.g. the Nom characters), which is another convincing evidence of the cultures and languages in Southeast Asia as borrowers.

To provide more evidence of borrowings from Chinese in several languages of the cultural SEA, we hereby present examples found in both the Tay and Viet languages in Vietnam. Words denoting "parts of the human body" borrowed from Chinese in Tay-Nung language demonstrate special treatment, which reflects the intermediary geographical location of the Tay-Nung speakers. A list of such basic words in Tay-Nung in comparison with Vietnamese, Tai Yo and Sino can be made as seen hereafter[4]:

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[4] Tay-Nung examples are taken from: (i) Hoàng Văn Ma - Lục Văn Pảo (2003). *Viet-Tay-Nung Dictionary*, 2nd edition (revised). Encyclopedia Publishing House. Hereafter referred to as *HVM-LVP Dictionary* for short; (ii) Vương Toàn – Hoàng Triều Ân (2016). *Tay-Viet Dictionary*. National Culture Publishing House. Hereafter referred to as *VT-HTA Dictionary*; (iii) Bac Kan Provincial People's Committee (2010). *Slon tiengr Tày (Learning the Tay language)*. Internal publication. Hereafter referred to as *Bac Kan Lexicon*. Thai examples are taken from *Tai Yo Vocabulary* provided by Sầm Công Danh, an individual of the Tai Yo group in Quy Chau. Meanwhile, Proto Tai-Kadai examples are cited from Li (1977).

Vietnamese		Tay-Nung			Thai		Chinese		English
Quoc ngu (current Romanized writing system of Vietnamese)	Sound	VT-HTA Dictionary	HVM-LVP Dictionary	Bac Kan Lexicon	Tai Yo Vocabulary	Proto Tai-Kadai (Li)	Chinese character	Beijing pronun-ciation	
đầu, trốc	dəw^{21} ʈok^{35}	hua/thua bẩu	hua bẩu	hua[5] bẩu	huə^{13}	*hua$_{A1}$	头, 頭	tóu	head
tóc	tɔk^{35}	phiôm	phjôm	phjôm	p^{h}om^{13}	*p^{h}om$_{A1}$	发	fà	hair
mặt	măt^{32}	nả	nả	nả	na:^{33}	*na:$_{C1}$	脸、 面	liǎn miàn	face
mắt	măt^{35}	tha/ha	tha	tha	ta:^{33}	*ta:$_{A1}$	眼	yǎn	eye
mũi	muj^{324}	đăng	đăng	đăng	daŋ^{13}	*daŋ$_{A1}$	鼻	bí	nose
tai	taj^{33}	xu	xu	xu	hu:^{13}	*hu:$_{A1}$	耳	ěr	ear
răng	*răŋ*^{33}	khẻo	khẻo	khẻo	hɛ:w^{33}	*k^{h}iaw$_{C1}$	牙、齿	yá chǐ	tooth
lưỡi	lɯɤj^{324}	lịn	lịn	lịn	lin^{53}	*lin$_{C2}$	舌	shé	tongue
tay	tăj^{33}	mừ/	mừ	mừ	mɯ:^{55}	*mɨ:$_{A2}$	手	shǒu	arm
chân	cân^{33}	kha	kha	kha	ha:^{13}	*k^{h}a:$_{A1}$	脚	jiǎo	leg

[1]The table shows that different forms of [hua^{33}], [t^{h}ua^{33}] and [bâw^{21}] are preserved in Tay-Nung to refer to the head whereas most other words exist in single forms, which are consistent across Tay-Nung, Tai Yo and reconstructed Proto Tai-Kadai by Li Fang Kuei (Lý Phương Quế). Such correspondence in Tay-Nung itself and among Tay-Nung, Tai Yo and reconstructed Proto Tai-Kadai seems to assert that the phonetic form [hua^{33}], and possibly even the variant [t^{h}ua^{33}], are pure Tai-Kadai, i.e. a descendant of the original whereas [bâw^{21}] is very likely to be a borrowing rather than pure Tai-Kadai, as seen in the case of [hua^{33}].

It seems that Tay-Nung has similar cases of borrowing to the words denoting the head in Vietnamese. Currently, Vietnamese has parallel forms of [ʈok^{35}] (written as *trốc* in *quoc ngu*) in some localities and [dəw^{21}] (written as *đầu* in *quoc ngu*) in popular Vietnamese, in which the local [ʈok^{35}] is believed to be the original Austroasiatic in Vietnamese (Trần Trí Dõi, 2011, pp.79-81) whereas the popular [dəw^{21}] is identified by researchers as the borrowed form of the Chinese 頭 [tóu] in the period of Archaic Viet-Muong AVM) (Trần Trí Dõi, 2011, p.141). As reconstructed by Baxter & Sagart (2014, p. 363), this Sino-originated word had its Old Chinese (OC) form of [*m-t^{ʕ}o] and Middle Chinese (MC) form of [*duw-D][6], which was borrowed into Vietnamese and called *Sino-Vietnamese* by Wang Li (王力, Vương Lực) (1948) and other Vietnamese scholars. The MC form [*duw-D] with the entering tone D reconstructed by the two scholars seems to prove that the currently popular Vietnamese form of [dəw^{21}] was actually borrowed in the MC period, similar to a whole class of Sino-Vietnamese words thanks to the contact between Vietnamese and MC.

Let us go back to the case of parallel forms of the words denoting the head in Tay Nung. As the phonetic form [hua^{33}] and the variant [t^{h}ua^{33}] are regarded as pure Tai-Kadai, it is

5 During his field trip in Bac Kan in 2017, the Japanese doctoral candidate Ayaka Sannuij (Osaka University) also reported that the local Tay-Nung dialect in Bac Kan had the word *đầu* pronounced as the sound written as *thua in quoc ngu.*

6 In W.H. Baxter & L. Sagart (2014), MC tones are symbolized as A (*bình*, even), B (*thượng*, rising), C (*khứ*, departing) and D (*nhập*, entering). We use the same symbols in this paper when citing MC examples.

highly likely that the phonetic form [bâw²¹] was borrowed. The comparison of the Sino-originated word [ɗəw²¹] ("đầu") analyzed above and the form [tóu] (頭/头) as well as other words denoting parts of the body in current Chinese reveals that the phonetic form [bâw²¹] in Tay-Nung was possibly borrowed from Chinese. Also, the comparison of the OC form [*m-tˤo] and the MC [*duw-D] can also lead to a possible conclusion that the form [bâw²¹] was borrowed into Tay-Nung from Chinese in the late OC period or in the early MC period.

The reason why we could come to such conclusions is the correspondence between the rhyme and initial consonant in Tay-Nung and the OC & MC forms reconstructed by Baxter and Sagart. Specifically, the rhyme [âw²¹] in [bâw²¹] in Tay-Nung possibly corresponds to the rhyme [*uw] in MC, similar to the rhyme [əw²¹] in [ɗəw²¹] (đầu) borrowed into Vietnamese in AVM period. The problem is the initial consonant [b] (voiced bilabial plosive) in Tay-Nung which finds no correspondence at all to both the initial consonants in the reconstructed OC [*m-tˤ] and MC [*d]. However, the OC form [*m-tˤ] reconstructed by Baxter and Sagart provides an indirect indication that in OC, the Chinese word [tóu] (头) could have been sesquisyllabic with the initial consonant cluster being a pre-syllabic element [*m-] (bilabial) combined with the consonant [-tˤ]. It is possible that this pre-syllabic bilabial element [*m-] resulted in the initial consonant [b] in [bâw²¹] in current Tay-Nung when it was borrowed from the OC [*m-tˤo] and monosyllabized.

The monosyllabization of sesquisyllabic words shown above is a process of change found in several Viet-Muong languages, a group that includes Vietnamese (Trần Trí Dõi, 2011a, pp.322-343). Vietnamese borrowed [ɗəw²¹] from Chinese while retaining [ʈok³⁵] in several dialects. Furthermore, in current Vietnamese, some cases make use of the same Early Sino-Vietnamese treatment as [bâw²¹] in Tay-Nung. For instance, the initial consonant [b] (as in *bến – wharf*) corresponds to the Sino-Vietnamese initial consonant [t] (as in 津 *tân – new*) whose reconstructed forms in both OC (*tsin {*[ts]i[n]}) and MC (*tsin-A) were an initial consonant which was either bilabial or dental. The Sino-originated syllable *bì* in *phân bì* (compare) has the Early Sino-Vietnamese initial consonant [b] corresponding to the Sino-Vietnamese initial consonant [t] in 比 (tỷ - compare) which was (*C.pijʔ) in OC and (*pjijX-B) in MC, and this is not unusual in Vietnamese. Thus, it is also possible that the initial consonant [b] in [bâw²¹] in Tay-Nung which was borrowed from Chinese corresponds to the Chinese initial consonant [t].

Thus, it is possible for us to infer that the word [bâw²¹] in Tay-Nung was borrowed from the Chinese 頭 [tóu] at the time when the ESV (Early Sino-Vietnamese) word class was formed in Vietnamese. Although they borrowed the same Chinese words from the basic group of words denoting parts of the human body, Tay-Nung and Vietnamese languages differ in their treatment of the initial consonant [b] and [ɗ] in Tay-Nung and Vietnamese respectively, which means the borrowed form [bâw²¹] in Tay-Nung is closer to the OC [*m-tˤo]. Considering the geographical residence of prehistoric inhabitants in the cultural SEA, it is clear that Chinese had earlier contact with Tai-Kadai communities in the north than speakers of Vietnamese, a language in the Austroasiatic family in the south.

4. Conclusion

Vietnam is a country in the cultural SEA, and is considered a miniature of the region's cultures and languages. Evidence for this can be found in the cultural and linguistic features in Vietnam which are representative of different states in SEA. Most typical is the rice-cultivating culture that is reflected in various dimensions of material and spiritual culture, and such reflection also varies from subregion to subregion in the whole region.

However, owing to its special geographical location, Vietnam marks the boundary of cultural and linguistic distinctions among different subregions, as seen in current linguistic and cultural phenomena in the country. In other words, Vietnam can be regarded as an intermediary hub for linguistic and cultural interchange between the north and the south of the Asian continent. Also, it retains its indigenousness while serving as the gateway for the north-south contact among East Asia, Southeast Asia and South Asia.

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VÀI NÉT VỀ NGÔN NGỮ VĂN HÓA VIỆT NAM QUA GÓC NHÌN ĐÔNG NAM Á

Trần Trí Dõi

Trường Đại học Khoa học Xã hội và Nhân văn, ĐHQGHN

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Tóm tắt: Là một quốc gia thuộc vùng Đông Nam Á, Việt Nam đồng thời cũng là một bức tranh thu nhỏ về ngôn ngữ văn hóa của khu vực. Những đặc điểm tiêu biểu nhất về ngôn ngữ văn hóa của nhiều quốc gia Đông Nam Á đều thấy hiện diện ở Việt Nam. Qua mô tả, so sánh và tiếp cận liên ngành, bài viết chỉ ra rằng do vị trí địa lý đặc biệt của Việt Nam, ở đây vẫn có những hiện tượng thể hiện ranh giới về nét khác biệt của ngôn ngữ văn hóa giữa những tiểu vùng khác nhau của Đông Nam Á. Do đó chúng thể hiện Việt Nam như là nơi trung chuyển của sự giao lưu về ngôn ngữ văn hóa giữa phía nam và phía bắc. Nói một cách khác, ở góc nhìn ngôn ngữ văn hóa, Việt Nam được coi như là cửa ngõ của sự tiếp xúc giữa các vùng Đông Á, Đông Nam Á và Nam Á.

Từ khóa: ngôn ngữ văn hóa, Việt Nam, Đông Nam Á

THE USE OF NOMINALIZATION IN EMI STUDENT WRITING - A LONGITUDINAL PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract: ESL student writing development has been a concern in second language research. However, most of the current studies focus on the development in the language teaching context. The context of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) has been under-represented, in which how EMI students' writing changes over time without teaching or explicit feedback on language has not been well-researched. This paper aimed at tracing the development of students writing in an EMI program in Vietnam. Particularly, the paper analyzed one particular aspect of syntactic complexity (i.e. nominalization), a construct considered important in developmental profiling of individuals (Lu, 2011; Vyatkina, 2013). Assignments from three EMI students were collected over three semesters and changes in their use of nominalization were closely investigated and developmental patterns were described. The results of the study inform ESL and SLA researchers and academics of how academic writing develops in a non-instructed environment and accordingly enable EMI program coordinators and designers to provide appropriate language supports to students during the course.[**]

Keywords: nominalization, syntactic complexity, writing, EMI, second language acquisition

1. Introduction

In recent years, English as a medium of instruction (EMI) has become a growing phenomenon all over the world. EMI has been increasingly implemented in universities, secondary schools and even primary schools, especially in Europe and Asia (Dearden, 2014). In Europe, EMI was used in up to 2400 undergraduate and master courses in more than 400 institutes in 2007, a 340% rise compared to 2002 (Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2012). In Asia, Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) summit in 2012 agreed on facilitating staff and student mobility across the region, which gave way to the establishment of a number of EMI courses (Kirkpatrick, 2014).

The growing significance of EMI has led to a large body of research in the field at both macro and micro levels. At macro level, the concept extends beyond methodology into policy-making and language planning in each country. Issues under consideration are the role of English in language policies (Chang, 2006; Coleman, 2010), the relationship between English and the local languages (Coleman, 2011b), the effectiveness of the EMI policies (Coleman, 2011a) and factors influencing EMI adoption (Crystal, 2011; Lo Bianco, 2010; Wilkinson,

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2012). However, Kaplan (2009) indicates that macro-level EMI research fails to approach the subtle changes and challenges facing each EMI stakeholder including teachers and students, which may lead to the failure of the macro language policy. In response to the need in the knowledge about EMI students learning process at a micro-level (Dang, Nguyen & Le, 2013; Kaplan, Baldauf & Kamwangamalu, 2011; Ramanathan & Morgan, 2007). This paper analyses a specific issue, namely, the development of syntactic complexity of student writing in EMI contexts.

2. Writing development in EMI contexts

ESL writing development is a fundamental concern in language acquisition research. Research in the field falls into two main streams, which are contrastive and cross-sectional studies and developmental and longitudinal ones. For the first group, a number of different criteria have been used for contrastive purposes such as comparison between native and nonnative speakers' writing (Mancilla, Polat, & Akcay, 2015), between learners of different levels of English competence (Parkinson & Musgrave, 2014) or between writings of different genres (e.g. Lu, 2011; Yoon & Polio, 2016). Although contrastive studies are overwhelming, they fail to trace authentic developmental patterns of learners, neither can they capture the individual learning process in a holistic manner. Accordingly, developmental and longitudinal ones are highly suggested by many researchers for variability and nonlinearity (Vyatkina, 2013). Research of this group such as Mazgutova and Kormos (2015) or Vyatkina (2013) can trace the individual developmental pathways and differences between learners who follow the same instructional sequences. However, these studies are mostly carried out in English as a second language (ESL) or English for academic purposes (EAP) context and the elements of EMI setting are often neglected. Therefore, the improvement of students' writing competence when English is not taught explicitly but only used as a vehicular language in learning other subject content is still an area worth investigating.

3. Syntactic complexity in ESL writing

In Applied Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition (SLA), syntactic complexity, accuracy, lexical complexity, and fluency (CALF) are standard criteria for assessing L2 writers' level of linguistic performance, development, and global proficiency in the target language. Syntactic complexity refers to the variation of syntactic structures that are produced and the degree of sophistication of such structures. While syntactic complexity is just one part of writing proficiency, it is an important indicator since the amount of embedding and use of certain structures can facilitate the expression of complex ideas and the complicated relationships among them (Beers & Nagy, 2009).

A large variety of complexity measures have been explored in numerous L2 writing development studies. Wolfe-Quintero et al. (1998) reviewed 39 studies of the field and identified over 30 indices proposed for characterizing syntactic complexity. These measures typically seek to quantify one or more of the following: length of production unit, amount of subordination or coordination, range of syntactic structures, and degree of sophistication of certain syntactic structures. The levels of measurement include sentence, T-unit, clause, and phrase.

The current study focuses on one particular syntactic structure which is noun phrase because it is considered one of the strongest measurements of syntactic complexity in writing at higher level of proficiency (i.e. intermediate and above). Biber et al. (2011) note that for both L1 and L2 learners, writing development tends to be from the clausal complexity associated with conversation to the nominal complexity associated with academic writing. Their suggested progression is "from finite dependent clauses functioning as constituents in other clauses, through intermediate stages of nonfinite dependent clauses and phrases functioning as constituents in other clauses, and finally to the last stage requiring dense use of phrasal (nonclausal) dependent structures that function as constituents in noun phrases" (Biber et al. 2011, p. 29). In other words, syntactic complexity is increasingly constructed in the process of nominalization as writers develop their academic writing.

For university students, the ability to pack meaning into noun phrases, and to make their text nominally rather than clausally complex, becomes increasingly important. While nominalization is rare in conversation, close to 60% of noun phrases in academic prose have a pre- or post-modifier (Biber et al., 1999). The extended noun groups make text denser and at the same time, enables knowledge to be reconstrued as being largely about things/nouns (and thus able to be frozen in time and examined) rather than as a tension between things and actions, as clausal expression construes meaning. Moreover, expansion in use of noun modifiers leads to expansion in meaning as more information could be easily compressed in the modification and this expansion, in turn, may contribute to difficulty in using them.

In short, the current study is a longitudinal one which aims to examine the development of student's writing competence in one specific aspect of syntactic complexity of nominalization in an EMI context.

4. Methodology

4.1. Research context

The study was carried out on an EMI program in a Vietnam university over 3 semesters from summer 2014 to summer 2015. While all students in the class are Vietnamese, the teachers are native speakers or Vietnamese teachers graduating from English speaking countries. English is the only language medium used in the course. The study started when the students entered their 3rd year and finished in their 4th year in university. During this time, the students were only enrolled in the content courses of their major (i.e. Business and Finance), and there were no English courses during this one year process. Their English proficiency was recorded as at A2, B1 and B2 (CEFR levels) before data collection time.

4.2. The datasets

For this exploratory investigation, one student was chosen randomly from each English proficiency group (i.e. A2, B1 and B2). For each of these three students, one assignment for a subject they were enrolled in each semester was selected based on the submission dates of the assignment. The assignments were respectively submitted in August 2014 (summer semester), December 2014 (winter semester) and July 2015 (summer semester). All of the assignments were in the form of essay and had more than 1,000 words. The coding symbols were as follows:

Case	A	B	C
English proficiency input	A2	B1	B2

Submitted time	A	B	C
August 2014	Assignment 1 – case A	Assignment 1 – case B	Assignment 1 – case C
October 2014	Assignment 2 – case A	Assignment 2 – case B	Assignment 2 – case C
July 2015	Assignment 3 – case A	Assignment 3 – case B	Assignment 3 – case C

The first assignment is a review of a music performance; for assignment 2, students were asked to write an essay about an environmental issue while assignment 3 is an evaluation of service encounters.

4.3. Analytical scheme

After the assignments were collected, they were analyzed to examine the development of noun phrase complexity. In the first phase, the numbers of basic and complex noun phrases were counted for comparison. In this system, basic noun phrases refer to the noun phrases with only determiners and the head noun and complex noun phrases include those with further elements as pre- and post-modifiers. The independent clauses were counted to calculate the number of noun phrases per clause. The second phase focused on the noun phrase modification. Although the modification of the noun phrases could be divided into 11 types following the research by Biber et al. (2011), this study only focused on four types of post-modifier which are typical to show students' competence of nominalization. The number of errors in each of these types were also counted to assess the students' accuracy in using these modifiers. The data analysis process was conducted on Nvivo 12 Plus.

The analytical scheme was as follows:

Type		**Example (highlighted part) taken from the data**
Basic noun phrase		*The deforestation*
Complex noun phrase	To-clauses as postmodifiers	Forest exploitation *to serve human life*
	-ed participle clauses as post-modifiers	a projection room *specifically designed to serve the workshop and the event for special customers*
	-ing participle clauses as post-modifiers	a lot of other instruments *producing music*
	Relative clauses as post-modifiers	new menu *which brings delicious meals, nutritious and suitable for Vietnam's income*
Independent clauses		*Forest is part important in the environment as well as human life*, but *in recent years the deforestation is becoming more difficult to control in Vietnam.* (2 clauses)

5. Results and discussions

5.1. The use of basic noun phrases vs. complex noun phrases

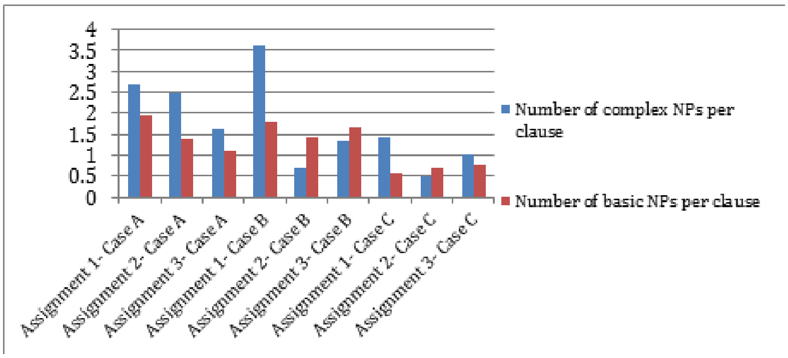
There is a slight difference in the use of basic and complex noun phrases by the three participants in their three assignments. This can be viewed in Table 1 and Graph 1.

Table 1: The use of basic NPs vs. Complex NPs.

Assignment	Complex noun phrases		Basic Noun phrases	
	References	Per clause	References	Per clause
Assignment 1 - Case A	75	2.678571429	55	1.964285714
Assignment 2 - Case A	74	2.466666667	42	1.4
Assignment 3 - Case A	105	1.640625	69	1.078125
Assignment 1 - Case B	80	3.636363636	39	1.772727273
Assignment 2 - Case B	26	0.702702703	52	1.405405405
Assignment 3 - Case B	105	1.346153846	129	1.653846154
Assignment 1 - Case C	67	1.425531915	26	0.553191489
Assignment 2 - Case C	12	0.5	17	0.708333333
Assignment 3 - Case C	114	1.027027027	87	0.783783784

References: the number of noun phrases in each writing

Per clause: the ratio of noun phrases in each independent clause.



Graph 1: Number of basic and complex NPs per clause

Graph 1 shows the tendency of choosing basic and complex noun phrases over time in different assignments among the three participants, which indicates the consistent choice of complex noun phrases over basic noun phrases by case A while the choice was less consistent in cases B and C. Although case B started out with greater preference for complex noun phrases, he/she ended up with a little more preference for basic noun phrases in the later two assignments.

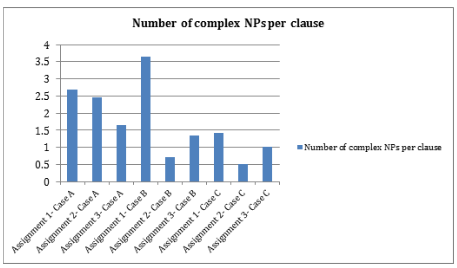
Putting their language proficiency into consideration, although case A had the lowest English proficiency level at the onset of data collection, he/she showed a consistent use pattern while the other having higher proficiency did not. This might be due to the fact that students did not get language instruction from the 3rd year and the one who were conscious about the need to improve his/her language proficiency (case A) would have paid more attention to the choice. This is different from Mazgutova and Kormos (2015), in which all students demonstrated a more advanced choice of syntactic repertoire.

5.2. Changes in the use of complex noun phrases

Overall, case A used more complex NPs than cases B and C with the average coverage of complex NPs in 3 assignments (calculated by words) of 0.523, 0.381 and 0.348 respectively.

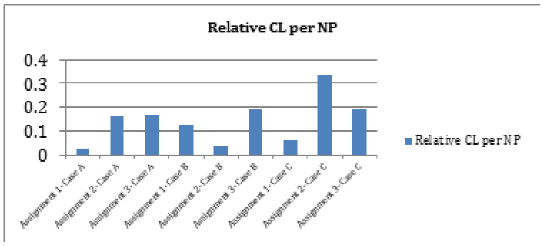
Graph 2 indicates the decreasing tendency in the density of complex NPs per clause. While there was a slight fall in the use of complex NPs by case A, those numbers in cases B and C observed a larger fluctuation. In case B, the number reduced dramatically from a relatively high ratio of approximately 3.63 in assignment 1 to only one fifth of this number in assignment 2 and then increased slightly to approximately 1.34 in assignment 3.

The reduction in the use of complex NPs in all three cases could be explained by the lack of language learning during the EMI courses. The students tend to focus more on content and idea expression and ignore the features of academic writing as this was not the requirement of the courses and no feedback on language use was given during this process. One noteworthy point is this fall was less significant in case A whose language proficiency was still low. This could be due to his/her conscious learning to reach the English requirement at the end of the program.



Graph 2: The number of complex noun phrase per clause

5.3. Changes in the use of relative clauses as postmodifiers



Graph 3: Relative clauses per NPs

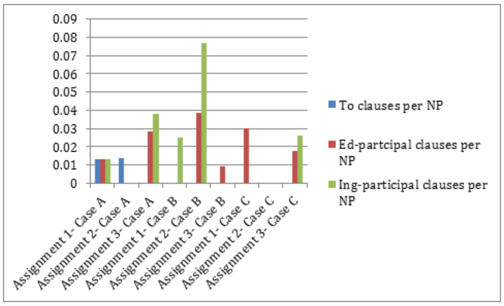
Graph 3 shows different uses of relative clause as post-modifers per NPs by the three cases in the assignments. Case C (with the highest proficiency level) used the most, followed by case B and finally case A, the one with lowest level of proficiency. However, only case A showed a stably increasing use pattern, from the ratio of 0.0266 for the first two assignments to 0.17 in the last assignment, nearly reaching those of the other two cases.

Case B and case C still showed fluctuations in the use of this particular syntactic unit, especially case C, who had the highest level of proficiency, showed a downward trend toward the end of the data collection.

This again reaffirms the assumption that the ones who are put in the position to improve language proficiency will consciously try to improve language during the course, while those with better English skills might not attempt to use the language feature, which is different from what Mazgutova and Kormos (2015) found.

5.4. Changes in the use of to- clause, -ed participle clause and -ing participle clauses as post-modifers

A similar situation could be found in the use of to-, -ed and -ing participle clauses as post-modifiers, which are the more difficult components of a complex noun phrase. Graph 4 illustrates the changes in using these post-modifiers. Case A used all three types of non-finite clauses as post-modifiers and with the upward trend towards the final assignment. Meanwhile, both cases B and C showed downward trends and only used -ed and -ing clauses.

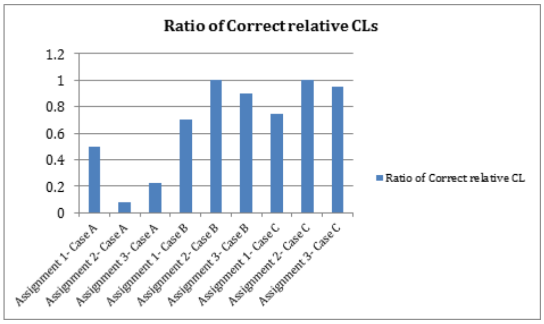


Graph 4: Changes in the use of to-, -ed and -ing clauses as post-modifiers

5.5. Correctness of nominalization

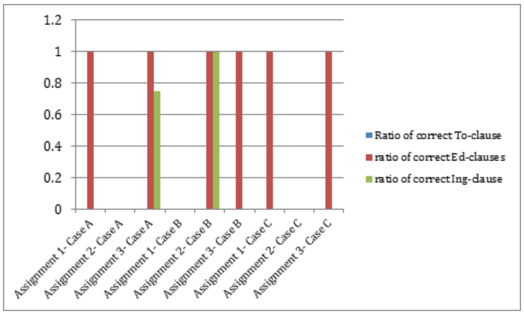
5.5.1. Correct use of relative clauses

Graph 5 compares the ratio of correct relative clauses as post-modifiers in three cases. Cases B and C, with higher proficiency level, showed a much higher and stable ratio of correct relative clauses in the three assignments. Moreover, the changes in these two cases also followed the similar patterns. The accuracy of these post-modifiers increased from assignment 1 to assignment 2 and slightly decreased in the last one. Meanwhile, case A, with the lowest proficiency level, had fluctuation in the correct use of relative clauses as post-modifiers. In the last assignment, case A only made 22.2% of correct relative clauses while those of case B and case C were 90% and 95% respectively.



Graph 5: Ratio of correct use of relative clauses as postmodifiers

5.5.2. Correct use of non-finite clauses



Graph 6: Ratio of correct non-finite clauses as postmodifiers

As mentioned earlier, case A was the only student who used to-clause as post-modifier. However, though case A attempted to use to-clause twice, each in assignment 1 and 2, both of these uses were incorrect. Regarding ed-clauses, interestingly, all cases used this type correctly in all assignments. For ing-clauses, of all attempts to use this post-modifier among the three students, only case A made mistakes with the ratio of accuracy at 75%.

Findings about the ratio of correct use of relative and non-finite clauses indicate that case A has lower level of correctness than cases B and C though A had more attempts to use those features. This supports findings from Nguyen, Do, Nguyen & Pham (2015) and Nguyen, Do, Pham & Nguyen (2018) about the role of corrective feedback in second language acquisition.

6. Conclusion and suggestions for further studies

6.1. Conclusion

The findings show that lower proficiency student attempted to use more academic language features (nominalization). Firstly, although the choices between basic and complex NPs were not significantly different, case A with the lowest level of proficiency showed consistent preference of complex NPs over basic NPs. Secondly, case A used more complex NPs than the others and showed only a slight decrease over time. In terms of both relative clauses and non-finite clauses as post-modifiers, case A showed more attempt to use various types and with an upward trend over the three assignments. These facts could be explained by the student's conscious learning to reach the output English requirement of the undergraduate program.

Despite his/her attempt to use more clauses in post-modifers, the lower proficiency learner was able to make fewer correct clauses, compared to higher proficiency ones. However, he/she had an upward trend towards correct use while higher proficiency ones showed more complex movements.

Furthermore, in contrast with Rogier (2012), there was unclear evidence of the students' language improvement during the EMI courses, particularly for the students with higher proficiency levels. In fact, some aspects in the variety and accuracy of academic features showed a downward trend including the decreasing density of complex NPs per clause, the fluctuations in the use of relative clause modifiers and the limited use of some types of non-finite clause modifiers. This might be due to the differences in the genre of measurements, Rogier (2012) used IELTS instead of students' academic assignments and familiarity of IELTS test format might be a reason for performance improvement in his study.

6.2. Suggestions for further studies

Firstly, the research had no control over the genres and levels of difficulty of the assignments. These factors, obviously, could influence the students' writing performance. Secondly, the examination of one specific feature of nominalisation is not enough to make conclusion about students' writing development. Therefore, further research should be carried out using more data and more syntactic complexity measurements with the consideration of genres and levels of difficulty for more holistic results.

Regarding the field of EMI, the study suggests that although entry level of language proficiency is important, there is a need to provide language support for the learners to maintain language proficiency and academic performance accordingly.

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NGHIÊN CỨU THEO THỜI GIAN VỀ VIỆC SỬ DỤNG DANH TỪ HÓA TRONG CÁC BÀI VIẾT CỦA SINH VIÊN CHƯƠNG TRÌNH GIẢNG DẠY BẰNG TIẾNG ANH (EMI)

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Tóm tắt: Phát triển kỹ năng viết của người học là một trong các mối quan tâm hàng đầu trong nghiên cứu về thụ đắc ngôn ngữ thứ hai. Tuy nhiên, các nghiên cứu trong lĩnh vực này thường tập trung vào đối tượng là người học của các lớp học tiếng Anh mà bỏ qua đối tượng là người học của các chương trình chuyên ngành giảng dạy bằng tiếng Anh (EMI). Bài báo này tập trung phân tích xu hướng phát triển kỹ năng viết của sinh viên trong một chương trình EMI ở Việt Nam, trong đó sinh viên không còn học các giờ thực hành tiếng mà chỉ dùng tiếng Anh để học các môn chuyên ngành khác. Cụ thể là, nghiên cứu chỉ ra sự biến đổi về độ phức hợp về cú pháp trong việc sử dụng danh từ hóa, một cấu trúc quan trọng thể hiện sự phát triển trong kỹ năng của người học (Lu, 2011; Vyatkina, 2013). Chín bài viết trong ba học kỳ của ba sinh viên được phân tích nhằm chỉ ra sự biến đổi và xu hướng phát triển trong việc sử dụng danh từ hóa. Kết quả nghiên cứu đóng góp cho lĩnh vực thụ đắc ngôn ngữ thứ hai một góc nhìn mới từ bối cảnh EMI, đồng thời đưa ra các đề xuất hỗ trợ về ngôn ngữ để các khóa EMI đạt hiệu quả cao hơn.

Từ khóa: danh từ hóa, độ phức hợp về cú pháp, kỹ năng viết, tiếng Anh như một công cụ giảng dạy, thụ đắc ngôn ngữ thứ hai

ENGLISH IDIOMS CONTAINING HUMAN-BODY PARTS AND THEIR VIETNAMESE EQUIVALENTS: A CASE STUDY OF TWO ENGLISH NOVELS AND THEIR VIETNAMESE TRANSLATION VERSIONS

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Abstract: The current paper focuses on investigating the semantic and syntactic features of idioms, including idioms containing human-body parts in the two English novels *"The Godfather"*, "*To Kill A Mockingbird"* and their Vietnamese translation versions. Using comparison and contrast method, the paper attempts to point out the equivalent and non-equivalent references of human-body-part idioms found in the two English novels and their Vietnamese translation. The research results will be useful for improving English teaching and learning, especially English idioms, as well as English-Vietnamese translation of idioms.

Keywords: idioms, equivalent, human-body parts, English-Vietnamese translation

1. Introduction

Idioms are an intriguing and common phenomenon in every language. They are used in everyday life and are usually employed to express ideas and concepts that cannot be compressed into one single word. Idioms always show the uniqueness of the way each nation perceives the outside world and reacts towards that world. They serve as quintessence in each language treasure; hence, studying idioms helps learners master a language in terms of not only lexicology but grammar as well. In addition, learning foreign idioms is one of the best ways to gain invaluable insights into different cultures and human psychology.

Among large quantities of idioms, idioms containing human-body parts account for a major part of both Vietnamese and English. Nonetheless, due to a certain gap in linguistic and literary perspectives these human-body-part idioms have not received enough attention from linguists in both languages. Therefore, it is of paramount importance to conduct a research entitled "English idioms containing human-body parts and their Vietnamese equivalents: a case study of two English novels and their Vietnamese translation versions". This research aims to spell out the syntactic and semantic features of English and Vietnamese idioms containing human-body parts, and then it applies translation strategies to point out the equivalence and non-equivalence between English and Vietnamese idioms containing human-body parts used in

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two selected English novels "*The Godfather"* (1969) and *"To Kill a Mockingbird"* (2015) and their Vietnamese translated versions *"Bố già"* (2017) and *"Giết con chim nhại"* (2017) respectively. As a practical part of the research, several strategies for learning and translating English idioms containing human-body parts into Vietnamese will be suggested.

Within the scope of this study, not all linguistic issues related to idioms will be covered, and only a limited number of idioms containing human-body parts from the selected data sources are mentioned.

2. Theoretical background

2.1. Overview of idioms in English

2.2.1. Definitions

In his well-known book *Idiom structure in English*, Makkai claims that idiom is, firstly, a unit realized by at least two words; secondly, from its component parts, one cannot deduce the meaning of the idiom; thirdly, idioms manifest a high level of disinformation potential; fourthly, idioms are institutionalized; in other words, they are conventionalized expressions (1972). From the etymological perspective of Linda and Roger Flavell, idioms are "anomalies of language, mavericks of the linguistic world" (2000: 6). They point out that "the best examples of idioms are very fixed grammatically and it is impossible to guess their meanings from the sense of the words that constitute them" (2000: 6). Regarding the meaning of idioms, Fowler et al. (1976: 533) define idioms as a "peculiarity of phraseology approved by usage though having meaning not deducible from those of the separate words". In conclusion, notwithstanding the variations in viewpoints among many researchers and linguists, idioms are commonly regarded as fixed expressions whose components are well-structured and hardly separable; and their meanings cannot always be worked out by combining the literal meaning of their individual words.

2.1.2. Classification of English idioms

Regarding semantic cohesion, Cowie (1998) and Moon (1998) classify English idioms into three classes with the motivation degree of their meaning, namely phraseological fusions, phraseological unities and phraseological combinations. Phraseological fusions have a very low degree of motivation, i.e. they can be completely non-motivated. Due to their high idiomaticity, the meaning of the whole idiom cannot be inferred from the meaning of its constituents, e.g. "*white elephant"* (an expensive but useless thing). Phraseological combinations are partially motivated idioms as their meaning can usually be perceived through metaphoric or metonymic denotation e.g. "*to come through something with flying colors"* (to win or accomplish something exceptionally well or very successfully). Phraseological combinations are obviously motivated idioms and are typically referred to as "collocations" such as "*to keep an/ one's eye on someone/ something*" (keep someone/ something under careful observation).

Based on structures, Arnold (1986: 172) classifies idioms according to parts of speech. This is also called syntactical classification. Thus, idioms are categorized into seven types as follows: nominal idioms such as "*the last straw*" (the final problem in a series of problems); verbal idioms such as "*to cut corners*" (to do something in the easiest, cheapest, or fastest way); adjectival idioms, e.g. "*hale and hearty*" (healthy and strong); adverbial idioms like "*on balance*" (after considering all aspects or opinions); prepositional idioms such as "*with regard to*" (as concerns; with respect to); conjunctional idioms like "*on the other hand*" (in a way that is different from the first thing mentioned) and interjectional idioms such as "*God bless you!*" (Good luck).

In terms of functions, Koonin (1970: 140) classifies idioms into four main categories: nominative idioms denoting objects, actions, qualities… such as "*a red letter day*" (a very important day); nominative-communicative idioms as verbal word groups that can be converted into a sentence such as "*to make waves*" (to cause wide impact on a group or society in general); interjectional idioms functioning as exclamational phraseological units to express feelings and emotions, e.g. "*get stuffed!*" ("go away"); and communicative idioms being similar to proverbs and concrete sayings, appearing as full sentences, e.g. "*never look a gift horse in the mouth*" (if someone offers you a gift, don't question it).

2.1.3. Typical features of English idioms

Syntactically, structural invariability constitutes the most vital feature of idioms. Arnold (1986) and Makkai (1972) claim three commonly accepted structural restrictions of English idioms. First, it is the restriction in substitution which contributes to the syntactic uniqueness of English idioms. For example, the idiom "*take with a grain of salt*" means "not to take what somebody says too seriously", but *"a grain of sugar"* does not make any sense at all. Nevertheless, there are some cases in which some components are variable such as *"to add fuel to the fire/ flames"* (to make an argument or bad situation worse), yet such situations are not very common in English. Not allowing addition of any sub-components to the fixed structure is the second limitation to idioms. In the idiom "*one's hands are tied*" (one does not have the ability to act, help or intervene) no other words can be added. Thus, *"one's big hands are tied"* is not an idiom but a free word group. Several uncommon exceptions of this kind are *"at a (single) stroke"* (with a single immediate action), *"to give something to someone on a (silver) platter"* (to let someone get something very easily). The third kind of restriction is grammatical uniformity. Many English learners use the word *"eye"* in plural form in the idiom *"to see eye to eye"* (to agree with each other) to become *"to see eyes to eyes",* which is a common mistake. Again, several idioms have a noun component with either plural or singular form, e.g. *"to add fuel to the flame/ flames", "to have string/ strings to your bow"* (to have more than one skill or plan that you can use if you need to) but in general, idioms have a rather fixed form in terms of grammar.

Semantically, figurativeness is one of the basic features of idioms. Cowie (1998) considers the meaning of idioms the chemical mixture of meanings of all components. In fact, his remark is quite well-founded as the meaning of idioms has been transferred compared to that of their components. For example, the idiom *"to cry over spilt milk"* conveys the intended meaning "to express regret about something that has already happened or cannot be changed" much better than its literal equivalent because it conveys a message that its literal components cannot. When we compare *"to cry over"* to "to regret" and *"spilt milk"* to "things that already happened in the past", the idiom seems to make more sense and can be easily perceived. Another semantic feature is that the meaning of idioms can vary from positive, neutral to negative one. There exists a large quantity of idioms having positive meanings like *"every cloud has a silver lining"* (be optimistic, even difficult times will lead to better days), *"on the ball"* (when someone understands the situation well). Some neutral idioms are *"best of both worlds"* (all the advantages), *"keep something at bay"* (to keep something away), just a few to name. However, many other idioms contain negative contents such as *"to feel a bit under the weather"* (to feel slightly ill) or *"to miss the boat"* (to miss a chance).

2.1.4. English idioms containing human-body parts

As previously mentioned, an idiom is generally seen as a colloquial metaphor and thanks to this metaphorical characteristic, idioms, including idioms which contain human-body parts, make languages colorful and rich, thus enabling them to effectively reflect human experiences and the ways people understand the world around them. Since human body is very familiar to human beings, idioms containing body parts are closely associated with the sensual aspects of human existence. Stoyanova (2009) claims that human-body-part expressions or somatic phrases are one of the most frequently-encountered idiom types in English.

Based on the objects of denotation, Stoyanova (2009: 3) classifies the somatic expressions into the following groups: (a) Somonymic lexis denoting parts of the human body (hand, neck, heart) such as "*from **head** to **foot**"* (all over the body), or "*dead from the **neck** up"* (extremely stupid); (b) Osteonymic lexis denoting parts of the skeletal system of human organism: "***skin** and **bones**"* (painfully thin)*, "to make no **bones** about something"* (try not to hide one's feelings); (c) Angionymic lexis denoting parts of circulatory system of the human organism *"in one's **blood**"* (part of one's genetic makeup*), "blue **blood**"* (a member of an upper-class family); (d) Splanchnonymic lexis denoting internal organs of the human body: "*at the top of one's **lungs**"* (to shout as loudly as one can), *"from the bottom of one's **heart**"* (sincerely); (e) Sensonymic lexis denoting sense organs of the human body: "*to be all **ears**"* (to be listening eagerly and attentively), *"the apple of somebody's **eye**"* (the person who someone loves most and is very proud of); (f) General body lexis refering to body such as "*in the **flesh***" (in person), *"to press the **flesh**"* (to shake hands with a lot of people).

The semantic features of English human-body-part idioms are no less important. They can express human passions and feelings or traits of human character. Accordingly, Stoyanova divides human-body-part idioms into several thematic groups (2009: 6): (a) Human emotions and feelings: human-body-part idioms can express emotions such as delight, happiness, joy as in "*to carry somebody off his/her **feet***", love or passion such as "*to win somebody's **hand***". On the other hand, human-body-part idioms can express strong feelings of resentment and hopelessness "*to wring one's **hand***" or exhaustion and tiredness "*to be dead on one's **feet***"; (b) Traits of human characters: these human-body-part idioms are based on positive and negative features of human nature. The concept of laziness can be conveyed by *"to fold one's **hands**"*, cowardice can be mocked at by the expression *"to get cold **feet**"*, while bravery can be admired by "*to get oneself in **hand**"*. The ability to react quickly can be highlighted by *"to think on one's **feet**"*. To demonstrate psychological stability, the idiom "*to find one's **feet**"* can be deployed; (c) Features of different phenomena: This group of human-body-part idioms covers various aspects of life such as cognitive approach or personal and impersonal relationships. For example, a concept of unity and peace may be expressed by *"to be at logger **heads** with somebody",* challenge and concession can involve the expression *"to gain the upper **hand**",* attempt and violence can be rendered by "*to fight **hand** in **hand***", for power and influence one can use "*to have long **hands***", "or "*a hidden **hand***". In sum, English human-body-part idioms are very rich in their meanings, from human desires and feelings or qualities of human characters.

2.2. Overview of idioms in Vietnamese

2.2.1. Definitions

From the viewpoint of Nguyễn Thiện Giáp (1996), idioms are fixed phrases with both completeness and figurativeness in meaning. Besides the intellectual content, they always contain certain attitudes like appreciation, respect, disdain or disgust. Sharing a similar definition of idiom, Hoàng Văn Hành (2004) claims that idioms are complex combinations of stable structures which are complete and figurative in meaning, commonly used in daily interactions, especially in spoken language. Mai Ngọc Chừ and his associates support the same idea that idioms are fixed phrases with complete structures and meanings which are symbolic and expressive (1997).

From the above linguists' opinions, it can be concluded that idioms are fixed terms (fixed phrases) that are relatively stable in form, used to name things, qualities, and actions. The general meanings of idioms go beyond the meanings of their equivalent expressions in terms of refinement and figurativeness.

2.2.2. Classification of Vietnamese idioms

According to Nguyễn Đình Hiền (2018) and Hoàng Thị Yến (2017), based on structure, Vietnamese idioms can be divided into three following types: First, symmetrical idioms are the idioms containing two symmetrical parts with an "axis" in the middle. Most Vietnamese idioms have an "even number" of components. Supposing A, B, C, D are four components of the idiom, there is a symmetry between AB and CD, in which "A and C" belong to the same scope of meaning, or the same part of speech, and so do "B and D". For instance, the idiom *"học trước quên sau"* (easily forget what one has learnt) has the following structure:

A	B	C	D
Học	trước	quên	sau
learn	before	forget	after

"Easily forget what one has learnt."

In this example, *"học"* and *"quên"* are both verbs and belong to the same scope of meaning while *"trước"* and *"sau"* belong to another scope of meaning. If A and C are repeated, the structure will become:

A	B	A	D	
Một	lòng	một	dạ	(stay loyal)
Bách	chiến	bách	thắng	(be invicible)

However, a proportion of Vietnamese idioms can also contain an "odd number" of components and the symmetry between two parts is still retained. In these idioms, the verbs in the middle are "axes" of the idioms, e.g. *"cá lớn **nuốt** cá bé"* (the great fish eats the small), *"mồm miệng **đỡ** chân tay"* (a long tongue is a sign of a short hand).

Second, comparative idioms (similes) are stable combinations originating from representative comparisons. Despite their derivations from comparisons, comparative idioms still retain structural distinctions and they are composed of full form: ***A như B*** such as *"đen như mực"* (to be as black as ink), *"chậm như rùa"* (to be too slow); or simplified form with comparative word: ***(A) như B*** such as *"(anh em) như tay với chân"* (to have a close tie), *"(được lời) như cởi tấm lòng"* (one feels relieved when saying his/ her restrained thoughts out loud); and simplified form without comparative word: ***A (như) B*** like *"thẳng (như) ruột ngựa"* (to be straightforward), *"mắt (như) lợn luộc*" (with eyes wide open).

The third type is ordinary idioms which are neither symmetrical nor comparative, and are usually fixed phrases such as *"con dao hai lưỡi"* (a matter always has two sides) and *"múa rìu qua mắt thợ"* (never offer to teach fish to swim*)*; or subject-verb structures such as *"cờ đã đến tay"* (to seize an opportunity when it comes).

2.2.3. Typical features of Vietnamese idioms

One syntactic feature of Vietnamese idioms is their fixedness. Vietnamese idioms are a combination of fixed words with a relatively high degree of stability. As a communication tool of any community, such forms of language are created, refined and manipulated to become idioms with a high level of inflexibility. For instance, the idiom *"đen như cột nhà cháy"* (to be black as coal; very dark) is established through practical experiences and observations of people in a relatively long time. It uses the comparative word *"như"* to compare the characteristic "black" of something with fixed object *"cột nhà cháy",* but not *"cột nhà gỗ"* or *"cột nhà bếp"*. However, in some other cases, although the idioms have reached a high level of invariability, one can still change the whole structures or even the fixed terms a little bit. For example, the idiomatic expression *"châu chấu đá xe"* (to throw a straw against the wind; to attempt to do something futile) has several variations such as *"châu chấu đá* ***voi****"* or "*châu chấu* ***đấu*** *voi"* (Nguyễn Xuân Hiếu and Trần Mộng Chu, 1960). Despite the fixed characteristic of Vietnamese idioms, a proportion of them have undergone changes in form but their general meanings have not been altered very much. The reduplication and symmetry of Vietnamese idioms are expressed in terms of phonetic harmony of constituent elements. It has an effect of creating a rhythm, therefore creating an attraction that makes it easy to read and remember as well as leaving a deep impression in the recipient's heart. Some examples are *"mắt tròn mắt dẹt"* (to be very surprised or scared), *"khéo chân khéo tay"* (to be skillful at doing something), *"sức dài vai rộng"* (to be strong and healthy).

Regarding semantic features, a huge quantity of Vietnamese idioms is multi-meaningful, but of all these meanings, the figurative meaning is of paramount importance. When it comes to figurative meanings, a number of approaches are deployed to express the meanings of idioms such as metaphor, metonymy, rhetoric, comparison (simile), and exaggeration For example, with the idiom "*bắt cá hai tay*", people can understand it literally: each hand tries to catch a fish, and as a result, they cannot catch any fish. However, Vietnamese people have commonly put this idiom into a broader context to refer to people with "double" thoughts desiring to have/ do many things at the same time (Hoàng Văn Hành, 2004). Along with the content of wisdom, shades of appreciation and attitudes are usually integrated into each idiom such as respect, approval, disagreement, disregard, sympathy, just a few to name. For example, the idiom "*nói thánh nói tướng*" not only expresses the concept of "brag/ boast" but also the attitude of disapproval and depreciation, etc.

2.2.4. Vietnamese idioms containing human-body parts

As a constituent part of Vietnamese idioms, Vietnamese idioms containing human-body parts have all syntactic features of idioms in general, but with regard to meaning, Nguyễn Thị Phương (2009) points out that according to Vietnamese folk concept, human-body-part idioms can be classified based on the scope of symbolization as follows: (a) Scope of appearance is commonly associated with organs and body parts such as *"mình"* (body), *"da"* (skin), *"tóc"* (hair), *"mặt"* (face) such as "***tóc** bạc **da** mồi*" (to show signs of old age) and "***mặt** búng ra sữa*" (to look very young); (b) Scope of wisdom is commonly associated with organs like "*lòng*"/"*tâm*" (heart), *"ruột"* (gut) and *"bụng"/"dạ"* (stomach), for example *"khẩu xà **tâm** phật"* (to have an evil tongue but a kind-hearted mind) and "***ruột** để ngoài da"* (to be care-free); (c) Scope of emotion: This arena is commonly associated with digestive organs such as *"lòng"* (heart), *"ruột"* (gut), *"dạ"* (stomach) and *"gan"* (liver). Idioms containing them may denote positive emotions such as happiness and satisfaction like *"mát **lòng** mát **dạ**"* and *"nở từng khúc **ruột**"* (to be very satisfied) or negative emotions such as sadness, anger and hatred as in "***ruột** đau như cắt"* and *"bầm **gan** tím **ruột**"* (to be extremely disappointed); (d) Scope of will is often associated with ***"lòng"*** (heart), ***"gan"*** (liver), ***"tâm"*** (mind), ***"lưng"*** (back), and ***"vai"*** (shoulder). These organs can symbolize both strong will-power as in *"bền **gan** vững chí"* (to be resolute and persisten), and weak will-power in "*nản **lòng** nhụt chí"* (to be discouraged).

From the perspective of culture, human-body-part idioms also manifest Vietnamese cultural uniqueness more vividly than any other linguistic units (Nguyễn Đình Hiền, 2018). Vietnam is basically an agricultural country, so images used in Vietnamese are closely connected with agricultural activities that are carried out manually such as *"**chân** lấm **tay** bùn"* (arduous manual work), *"bán **mặt** cho đất bán **lưng** cho trời"* (to work outside in all weather conditions), *"**dạ** đá **gan** vàng"* (to have iron constitution), *"chung **lưng** đấu **cật**",* (to have an iron will as a community). In addition, Vietnamese idioms containing body parts vividly reflect the country's customs, norms and lifestyles, namely long-established and honorable traditions as in *"uống **máu** ăn thề"* (to vow to be brothers), *"chôn **rau** cắt rốn"* (birthplace), social phenomena as in *"một **cổ** hai tròng"* (to have two burdens at the same time), *"đeo mo vào **mặt**"* (to be ashamed), *"bắt cá hai **tay**"* (to make use of), or family relationship in *"**đầu** bạc **răng** long"* (to live together till death), *"khác **máu** tanh **lòng**"* (to be from diferrent origins. All of them have made a great contribution to depicting a genuine but lively picture of the community and the natives.

2.3. Translation theory

2.3.1. Translation methods

In his book *"A Textbook of Translation"*, Newmark defines translation as "a craft consisting in the attempt to replace a written message and/or a statement in one language by the same message and/or statement in another language" (1988: 7). According to him, the central problem of translating has always been whether to translate "literally or freely", so Newmark suggests different translation methods as follows:

Source language (SL) emphasis	**Target language (TL) emphasis**
Word-for-word translation	Adaptation
Literal translation	Free translation
Faithful translation	Idiomatic translation
Semantic translation	Communicative translation

Regarding SL emphasis, for word-for-word translation and literal translation, the lexical words in source language of both methods are translated singly and out of context. However, the main dissimilarity between them is that in word-for-word translation, all words are converted singly by their original syntactic structures of the SL while in literal translation, SL grammatical constructions are translated into their closest counterparts in the TL. The distinction between "faithful" and "semantic" translation is that the former is inflexible and dogmatic, while the latter is more flexible, admits the creative exemption to full fidelity and accepts the translator's intuitive empathy with the original.

Regarding TL emphasis, adaptation is the "freest" way of translation. It is deployed largely for literary texts in which the themes, characters and plots are frequently preserved; the SL culture is converted to the TL culture. On the same translation-method category, free translation replicates the content without the form of the SL or it is a paraphrase much longer than the SL, which is often wordy and pretentious. Communicative translation, being is fairly straight and conventional, aims to render the precise contextual meaning of the Source Text (ST) in such a way that both content and language are satisfactory and understandable to the readership. A semantic translation, on the other hand, inclines to be more complex, more detailed, more ST-focused, and chases the thought-processes rather than the speaker's intent.

2.3.2. Translation equivalence

Translation equivalence is one of the core matters of the translation process. It is a term used to denote the perfect relationship that a reader would expect between the ST and Target Text (TT). Nida and Taber (1969) separate two types of equivalence: *formal equivalence* and *dynamic equivalence*. While dynamic equivalence is focused on the equivalent effect, formal equivalence is aimed at the message itself. They state that "formal correspondence distorts the grammatical and stylistic patterns of the receptor language, and hence distorts the message, so as to cause the receptor to misunderstand or to labor unduly hard" (1969: 201). Despite the detailed study of both types of equivalence, Nida and Taber then give preference to the dynamic equivalence, because it gives more chances for the translators to modify the form of words so as to achieve the same force of meaning, which proves to be more useful during the translation procedure.

Stepping away from Nida and Taber's ideas of recipient-oriented translation and changes the vision of equivalence in translation, Newmark develops ideas that translation is "rendering the meaning of a text into another language in the way that the author intended the text" (1988: 5). He considers "equivalence effect" an essential intuitive principle, but he also emphasizes that it is the desirable result, rather than the aim of any translation.

From all the above-mentioned viewpoints, it can be concluded that seeking an equivalent or approximate correspondence for all the variables may seem a challenging and very difficult task in translation.

3. Translation of idioms

Because each language has its own way of expressing things, idioms are always language- and culture-specific. An idiom in one language may not exist in some other language, or that language may have a very different idiom to convey the same meaning. This is the reason why the translation of idioms at times proves to be rather strenuous and problematic.

First of all, the translator needs to identify idioms in a given text. This is of principal importance, because meanings of idioms should never be understood literally. Then the translator must also be able to "use idioms fluently and competently in the TL" (Larson, 1984: 116). Larson claims the significance of the ability to use TL idioms naturally because that ensures that the translator's production of smooth and lively

TL text as well as preservation of the ST stylistic features. The final difficulty is finding a TL expression with the same meaning in spite of the fact that, very often, an idiomatic expression in one language does not always have equivalence in another language.

Newmark highlights that idioms should “never be translated word-for-word” (1988: 125) and Ingo states that “translating an idiom literally is rarely successful, and should therefore be avoided at all costs” (1990: 246).

A number of English learners (Amir, 2012; Gabriella, 2016; Sanna, 2010) have done research into the translation of idiom and applied the theories on idiom translation to practicing translating idioms in literary works. Generally, they have discussed translation loss, especially during the translation of idioms because, according to them there is an unavoidable loss of meaning when the text includes expressions which are unique and peculiar to the SL culture. Holding the same view, Nida and Taber (1969) emphasize that idioms generally suffer a variety of semantic adjustments in translation, as an idiom in one language rarely has the same meaning and function in another language. The translator should, therefore, make every attempt to find an equivalent TL idiom for a SL idiom; otherwise, the idiom should be translated with a “normal”, non-idiomatic expression which carries the similar meaning.

With respect to body part idioms, plenty of theses and dissertations have been done so far, some of which are *“Comparative Analysis of English and French body idioms”* by Martina (2013); *“Chinese translation of English human body idioms based on the fuctional equivalence theory”* by Fang (2013). Besides presenting theories related to human-body-part idioms, these studies primarily clarify similarities and differences between English body idioms and those of other languages (French and Chinese) and suggest some ways to find equivalent idioms containing body parts.

In Vietnam, although several studies on human-body-part idioms have been implemented such as those of Nguyễn Thị Phương (2009), Nguyễn Thị Bích Liên (2012), and Nguyễn Trung Kiên (2013), they are restricted to listing, comparing and contrasting English human-body-part idioms with Vietnamese ones; and finding Vietnamese equivalence of English human-body-part idioms as well as translating them into Vietnamese, especially when comparing two English novels and their Vietnamese translation versions, have not been paid much attention to. This is a gap which this study would try to fulfill.

4. Methodological framework

4.1. Research materials

With a view to implementing the study as objectively as possible, a pilot study was deployed in the first step. A variety of materials such as bilingual magazines, novels, short stories and dictionaries were used as reference sources; and English and Vietnamese idioms containing human-body parts from these sources were carefully collected and counted. In the current study, somatic idioms were collected from two classic novels: *“The Godfather”* (TGF) (1969) and *“To Kill a Mockingbird”* (TKAMB) (2015). In Vietnam, their translated versions *“Bố già”* (BG) (2017) by Ngọc Thứ Lang and *“Giết con chim nhại”* (GCCN) (2017) by Huỳnh Kim Oanh and Phạm Viêm Phương respectively are appreciated by linguists and have become familiar to readers, so they would be used as contrastive versions of the two original novels. Besides, several other sources were also used as reference sources such as bilingual magazines, novels, short stories, dictionaries, and some articles on the Internet.

4.2. Research methods

The current paper chooses triagulation as a guideline to achieve the research aims, particularly, the triangulation of qualitative, quantitative and comparative research methods are mainly used. While qualitative methods provides the current researcher with in-depth and rich data, quantitative methods presents numourous quantity of data embedding with statistic features for preliminary interpretation. The study also took a largely qualitative research, which is complemented by descriptive analysis which dealt with the contents of the selected novels and their Vietnamese versions. The quantitative analysis quantified the frequency of the deployment of human-body-part idioms from the data sources. Then, based on the statistical findings in each data source, the study was generally designed as a comparative investigation. According to Gast's comparative approach (2011), both English and Vietnamese idioms were broken down into their lexical and semantic components then compared and contrasted. Comparative processes were conducted when English was considered as the base language and Vietnamese as the compared language. The current study also refered to Tran Thi Ngan's (2017) evaluation of the translation of a film as the guideline when processing the selected data. The final goal of these mixed methods is to categorize the similarities and differences between English and Vietnamese idioms containing human-body parts in terms of their syntactic and semantic features.

4.3. Data collection and analysis

Based on the aforementioned methodology, this study was conducted under the following procedures: after English idioms containing human-body parts and their Vietnamese translations were carefully collected from the research materials, the features of these idioms were discussed with a view to seeing how frequently they appeared in the selected literary works as well as identifying the similarities and differences between English somatic idioms and their Vietnamese versions. Then, Lâm Quang Đông's suggested translation steps (2015: 8-9) were deployed as a guideline for synthesizing and evaluating the ways translators practice translating these types of idioms. To make it brief and succinct for readers to follow, some charts and tables were presented, in which statistics of body parts appearing in idioms were calculated and edited in the form of figures and percentages. Also in this step, the study provided some explanations on the English idioms that can be then substituted by a Vienamese non-idiomatic counterpart with the information not covered by the English idioms, namely periphrasis (paraphrases) or calque (borrowed words).

5. Findings and discussions

5.1. The frequency of English idioms containing human-body parts in TGF and TKAMB and their Vienamese equivalents in BG and GCCN

Order	Body parts	Vietnamese meanings	Number of idioms containing body parts	Percentage (%)
1	Eye	Mắt	14	13.21
2	Hand	Tay	12	11.33
3	Head	Đầu	10	9.43
4	Heart	Tim, tâm	8	7.54
5	Foot/feet	Chân	8	7.54
6	Face	Mặt	7	6.61
7	Blood	Máu	5	4.73
8	Arm	Cánh tay	4	3.78
9	Nose	Mũi	4	3.78
10	Heel	Gót chân	3	2.83
11	Shoulder	Vai	3	2.83
12	Nerve	Dây thần kinh	3	2.83
13	Bone	Xương	2	1.89
14	Brain	Não	2	1.89
15	Ear	Tai	2	1.89
16	Gut	Ruột	2	1.89
17	Finger	Ngón tay	2	1.89
18	Tooth/teeth	Răng	2	1.89
19	Mind/ Eyebrow/ Cheek/ Tongue/ Neck/ Throat/ Limb/ Belly/ Stomach/ Knee/ Flesh/ Muscle/ Skin	Tâm/ Lông mày/ Má/ Lưỡi/ Cổ/ Họng/ Chi/ Bụng/ Dạ dày/ Đầu gối/ Thịt/ Cơ/ Da	1 each	0.94/ each
Total	**31**	**31**	**106**	**100**

Table 5.1: English idioms containing human-body parts in TGF and TKAMB and their Vienamese equivalents in BG and GCCN

Table 5.1 above illustrates the number and percentage of English human-body-part and somatic idioms used in the two original novels. It should be borne in mind that some idioms containing two identical body parts such as *"**arm** in **arm**"* and *"**head** to **head**"* were only counted as one idiom; for idioms containing two interdependent body parts such as *"**eyes** pop out of **head**"*, the main body parts would represent the whole idiom; with idioms containing two independent body parts like *"from **head** to **foot**"* and *"fight **foot** and **nail**"*, the first body part would represent the whole idiom; idioms appearing more than once would be counted as one idiom. Looking at Table 5.1, it is noticeable that in two novels alone, a variety of human-body parts are referred to (31 body parts); there are a large number of English human-body-part idioms with a total of 106 ones. In TGF, there are 70 idioms while in TKAMB, 36 different idioms are mentioned. However, not all body parts are utilized equally.

In terms of frequency, all body parts mentioned can be divided into four groups. The first group includes body parts that are most frequently used in humans' daily activities like *"eye"*, *"hand"* and *"head"*.

They account for more than a third of the total number of idioms (34%). "*Foot", "heart", "face", "blood", "arm"* and *"nose"* constitute the second group with body parts appearing relatively frequently in two novels (26%). The third group consists of body parts which appear in low frequency, including "*bone", "gut", "finger", "tooth/ teeth", "ear", "brain", "nerve", "heel"* and *"shoulder"* (20%). Some of them are internal organs such as "*bone", "gut", "brain"* and *"nerve"* while some are external parts that are less frequently used, namely *"finger", "ear", "heel"* and *"shoulder"*. The last one includes idioms with the lowest frequency of appearance, most of which are composed of internal organs such as "*muscle", "flesh", "stomach", "belly", "tongue",* and *"mind"* (12%).

The majority of idioms in two novels contain one body part (97 idioms), e.g. *"lose one's **head**", "hate one's **guts**", "hit the nail on the **head**",* to name a few. There are nine idioms containing more than one somatic component, among which there are five idioms containing two identical body parts, namely *"**head** to **head**", "**arm** in **arm**", "to grin from **ear** to **ear**", "to tear someone **limb** from **limb**"* and *"an **eye** for an **eye**"*.

5.2. The meaning of English idioms containing human-body parts in TGF and TKAMB and their Vienamese equivalents in BG and GCCN

5.2.1 The meaning of English idioms containing human-body parts in TGF and TKAMB

When integrated into idioms, body parts are rarely understood literally, but figuratively instead. The two most frequently deployed methods of using somatic idioms in TGF and TKAMB are metaphor and metonymy. Regarding such figures of speech, body parts often represent:

- ***Cognition and wisdom***: Some body parts of this group can be *"head", "mind", "brain", "nerve", "mind", "heart"* and *"eye". "Head"* and *"brain"* account for a considerable number of idioms within this scope of meaning. They symbolize the spirit and rational intellect with both positive meaning such as "*have **brains***" (to have reason)*,* "*keep one's **head***" (to stay calm); and negative meaning as "*knock **heads*****"** (to argue), "*lose one's **head***" (to lose control). Additionally, some other body parts also represent intellect awareness and mindfulness, namely "*eye*" in "*have an **eye** on something*" (to remain alert and watchful for someone or something), "*nose*" in "*have a **nose** for something*" (to have an intuitive ability to detect or excel at something), *"mind"* in "*keep your **mind** on something*" (to keep paying attention to something), "*ear*" in "*in a pig's **ear***" (nonsense).

- ***Feelings and emotions***: When it comes to feelings and emotions, *"heart"* is usually the first thing to cross one's mind. *"Heart"* is considered the center of human feelings and the symbol of passions and affections of the human souls, ranging from sincerity as in "*from the bottom of one's **heart***" (in a very sincere and deeply felt way) to painfulness in "*break one's **heart***" (to overwhelm someone with sadness). Apart from that, people often use internal organs like *"gut", "blood", "bone", "nerve"*... when referring to negative feelings such as "*hate one's **guts***" (to hate someone very much), "*make one's **blood** boil*" (to be very angry), "*in cold **blood***" (in a cruel way), "***bone**-shaking*" (violently). Besides, a small number of idioms of this group contain body parts such as *"eye"* in "*knock one's **eyes** out*" (to astonish and delight someone), *"eyebrow"* in "*raise one's* ***eyebrows***" (to be surprised), *"nose"* in "*turn up one's nose at something*" (to look down on something), *"cheek"* in "*turn the other* ***cheek***" (to ignore someone/something), *"teeth"* in "*set one's* ***teeth*** *on edge*" (to upset someone), *"face"* in "*make a* ***face***" (to produce an expression on one's face), and *"head"* in "*shake one's* ***head***" (to refuse).

- ***Will-power***: The literal meanings of some organs are transferred metaphorically to express human will such as *"nerve"* in "*have the* ***nerve*** *to do something*" (to have courage), *"gut"* in "*to have* ***guts***" (to have courage), "*head"* in "*hold up one's* ***head***" (to be proud), *"face"* in "***face*** *up to*" (to confront), *"foot"* in "*fight* ***tooth*** *and* ***nail***" (to fight hard) and *"skin"* in "*grow a thick* ***skin***" (to be able to ignore others' criticisms).

- ***Behaviors and manners towards others***: They can be willingness to help such as "*give/ lend someone a* ***hand***" (to help someone), kindness as in "*warm-****hearted***" (to be kind and loving), unfriendliness as in "*keep/ hold someone at* ***arm****'s length*" (to distance from someone), seriousness as in "*keep a straight* ***face***" (to try not to laugh), irritation as in "*set one's* ***teeth*** *on edge*" (to upset someone)), disregard as in "*raise one's* ***eyebrows***" (to be surprised), deception as in "*lead someone by the* ***nose***" (to lead someone by coercion).

5.2.2. The Vietnamese equivalence of English idioms containing human-body parts in BG and GCCN

After English human-body-part idioms in two classic novels *"The Godfather"* and *"To Kill a Mockingbird"* and their Vietnamese versions are compared and contrasted, it is remarkable that there are four groups of Vietnamese translated equivalents of English human-body-part idioms as follows:

Absolute equivalence: The first group includes English human-body-part idioms translated into Vietnamese idioms with the same meanings while the body parts kept unchanged. These English somatic elements have their virtually absolute equivalence in Vietnamese. This way of translation appears in a very small number in two translated versions. For example:

His mouth was slightly open, and he looked at Jem **from head to foot**. (TKAMB: 555)

→ Miệng ông ta hé mở, và ông ta nhìn Jem **từ đầu đến chân.** (GCCN: 573)

It is noticeable that the Vietnamese idiom *"từ* ***đầu*** *đến* ***chân****"* is an absolute equivalent of *"from* ***head*** *to* ***foot****"* in terms of semantics, lexicology and structure. All elements in the SL idiom are retained, even the word order, i.e. two somatic nouns *"head"* and *"foot"* are translated into *"đầu"* and *"chân"* respectively; two prepositions *"from"* and *"to"* are translated into *"từ"* and *"đến"* respectively. Another outstanding point is that *"head"* and *"foot"* are not figuratively expressed, i.e. *"đầu"* and *"chân"* are simply understood as two familiar body parts.

This translation strategy might seem to be very ideal in nature; nevertheless, such ideal matches in more sophisticated somatic idioms can rarely be achieved because other aspects, such as register, style, or rhetorical effect, must be considered as well.

Here are some more examples of this kind of absolute equivalence:

Body parts	English idioms	Meaning	Vietnamese equivalents
Head	Shake one's head	To refuse	Don Corleone shook his head. "I trust these two men with my life. They are my two right arms." (TGF: 20) → Ông Trùm lắc đầu: "Không được. Hai thằng này không những là phụ tá mà còn là con cháu trong nhà" (BG: 16)
Face	Show one's face	To make an appearance	However, rest assured that if the young man shows his face here I shall immediately report his presence to the authorities (TGF: 199) → Tuy nhiên xin các ông cứ yên tâm nếu anh chàng các ông đang tìm có ló mặt ra thì tôi sẽ lập tức báo ngay cho nhà chức trách (BG: 196)
Eyes	Keep one's eyes open	To remain alert and watchful for someone or something	The most humble of men, if he keeps his eyes open, can take his revenge on the most powerful (TGF: 9) → Còn mở mắt ra được thì còn có ngày một thằng hèn yếu nhất có quyền rửa hận một tay thế lực nhất (BG: 8)
Eyebrow	Raise one's eyebrows	To elicit surprise or offense	Uncle Jack raised his eyebrows and said nothing (TKAMB: 154) → Chú Jack nhướn mày và chẳng nói gì (GCCN: 159)

***Partial equivalence with same meanings but the elements of body parts removed/ changed*:** The second group includes English human-body-part idioms converted into Vietnamese idioms with the same meanings but the body parts are *removed, replaced* or *combined with new ones.* With respect to the first sub-group of English human-body-part idioms translated into Vietnamese idioms with the same meanings and the body parts totally removed, take the following version as an example:

Her mother too had always been a little disinterested in her, holding her **at arm's length**. (TGF: 200)

→ Cũng như chồng, ít khi bà gần gũi con gái, đối xử với cô theo kiểu **kính nhi viễn chi.** (BG: 192)

There is a likelihood that when people have an intimate relationship, they will get in touch so close to each other's bodies. Hence, *"at **arm**'s length"* indicates a certain distance in communication and interaction between two people. However, the body part *"arm"* in the English idiom is removed totally in the Vietnamese idiom and replaced by an idiom originated from a Confucius's saying: *"Vụ dân chi nghĩa, kính quỷ thần nhi viễn chi, khả vị tri hĩ"*, which means "to do the people good, although you show respect for ghosts/ spirits (respectable and superior people), do not flatter them, but should stay away from them, that is considered sensible" (Hy Vọng & Lê Trai, 2016). In *"kính nhi viễn chi",* there are some Sino-Vietnamese elements: *"kính"* means *"to respect"* and *"viễn"* means "to stay away from". Nowadays, in Vietnamese, the overall meaning is either "to show respect to someone to their face but in reality keep away from him/her" or "to keep away from someone in an ironic and sarcastic way". In this situation, it is understood with the latter meaning (the mother-in-law treats her daughter-in-law with indifference and neglect). It can be said that while cultures using English language tend to view things from physical perspective, Oriental cultures, including Vietnamese one, pay more attention to cultural factors that are influenced by old traditions and norms.

The prime example for translating English human-body-part idioms into Vietnamese ones with the body parts replaced by a new one is the sentence:

"This speech of the Detroit Don was received with loud murmurs of approval. He had **hit the nail on the head**" (TGF: 247).

→"Mọi người ồn ào đồng tình với bài phát biểu của ông trùm Đơtroit. Hắn đã **nói đúng tim đen**" (BG: 238).

In this example, *"Head"* is translated into *"tim"* (heart) and *"hit the nail"* into *"nói đúng"* (to say something exactly). Once again, like the example mentioned above, this English idiom borrows the practically visual image of *"hitting a nail on the **head**"* to describe an action requiring high precision, whereas Vietnamese expressive style emphasizes the metaphoric symbolism, in which the Vietnamese view *"tim"* (heart) as the place of hidden thinkings, intentions and emotions (tim đen). This version seems to be appropriate as it conveys the intended meaning but still sounds natural to readers in terms of culture at the same time.

However, a more popular way to translate somatic idioms of this group is to find partly equivalent Vietnamese somatic idioms in which another body part is *added*. In this way, the meanings of idioms are retained while the degree of vividness in describing persons, things and situations is significantly enhanced. One example is the following version:

Chao ôi, khi thần tượng xuất hiện **bằng xương bằng thịt** thì còn gì thê thảm cho bằng. (BG: 148)

→ But **seeing them now in the flesh** I was like seeing them in some horrible makeup. (TGF: 159)

When people in English speaking nations want to express the idea *"see someone physically"*, they use *"see someone in the **flesh**"*. The Vietnamese also use the image *"flesh"* (thịt) to express the same idea, but they combine it with a very close image to *"flesh"* - *"xương"* (bone) - to make up the idiom *"bằng xương bằng thịt"*. A remarkable point is that this Vietnamese idiom is a symmetric one, with a symmetry between *"xương"* and *"thịt"*. That the word *"bằng"* is repeated twice creates a rhythmic effect for the whole expression, so it sounds very Vietnamese when this sentence is read out loud. A similar case is that the SL idiom *"racked their **brains** for"* (TGF: 256) is translated into *"điên đầu vắt óc"* (BG: 247). In this case, the word *"đầu"* (head) is added to *"óc"* (brain), *"rack"* is transferred into two elements *"điên"* and *"vắt"*, thus making up a symmetry idiom *"điên đầu vắt óc"* (*điên* corresponds to *vắt* while *đầu* corresponds to *óc*). Generally speaking, notwithstanding an addition of a new somatic component, this translated version sounds satisfactory because not only does it convey the original meaning in the SL idiom but also makes sure that the new style and register are suitable to the receptors.

Consider the following examples of the partial equivalence with same meanings but the elements of body parts removed/changed:

Body parts	English idioms	Meaning	Vietnamese equivalents
Ear	Grin from ear to ear	To have a broad, enthusiastic smile	She grinned from ear to ear and walked toward our father, but she was too small to navigate the steps (TKAMB: 478) → Nó cười toe toét miệng và đi tới chỗ bố tôi, nhưng nó quá nhỏ không thể hướng về phía những bậc thềm (GCCN: 483)
Throat	Clear one's throat	To make a coughing sound in order to attract attention	He seemed uncomfortable; he cleared his throat and looked away (TKAMB: 302) → Ông ta có vẻ không thoải mái; ông ta hắng giọng và nhìn chỗ khác (GCCN: p.307)
Shoulder	Take that load off one's shoulders	Relieve someone of some of his/her load	What if that, finally, was too much for him, and he made Michael his successor, knowing that Michael would take that load off his shoulders, would take that guilt?" (TGF: 380) → Nếu cụ đã đuối hơi rồi và cho Maicơn nối nghiệp vì biết nó sẽ gỡ gánh nặng này cho cụ, chịu tội thay cho cụ, thì sao? (BG: 378)

***Partial equivalence with literal meanings of body parts*:** The third group includes English somatic idioms translated into Vietnamese phrases/set expressions literally with the same meanings. This way of idiomatic translation can be called "translation by paraphrase". The translated versions can be divided into two sub-groups: *literal paraphrase* and *figurative paraphrase.*

With respect to *literal paraphrase*, there can be named a huge number of examples because when an equivalent idiom to the SL idiom cannot be found or when it is necessary to simplify an idea, this is one easy way to translate English idioms. Take the following sentence as an example:

"The main one is, if I didn't I couldn't **hold up my head** in town, I couldn't represent this county in the legislature" (TKAMB: 148)

→"Lý do chính là, nếu bố không làm được bố không thể **ngẩng cao đầu** trong thị trấn này được, bố không thể đại diện hạt này trong cơ quan lập pháp" (GCCN: 154)

The Vietnamese version employs the faithful translation method, in which the translated idiom reproduces the accurate contextual meaning of the source idiom and still retains its grammatical structure, lexical elements and word order. To be more specific, *"hold up"* is faithfully translated into *"ngẩng cao"* and *"head"* into *"đầu", "ngẩng cao đầu"* in Vietnamese has the same meaning with that in English, which is "to behave proudly; to maintain one's dignity". Consequently, the Vietnamese idiom is completely faithful to the intention and the text-realization of the original texts.

On the other hand, *figurative paraphrase* does not rephrase the English idioms literally or word-by-word, but aims to find the hidden messages and then re-express them by using metaphorical words/phrases. For instance, the word "brains" in the sentence *"Fontane **had some brains** after all"* (TGF: 147) is translated into *"đầu óc"*, becoming *"Thì ra Giôuni (Phôntêin) cũng là đứa **có đầu óc**"* (BG: 138). *"Brain"* in both cultures stands for intelligence, reason and wisdom. While the American writer says it directly and literally, the two Vietnamese translators add one more stage of transferring the writer's intended meaning into metaphorical meaning, thereby re-expressing it in Vietnamese properly. This is far more readable and understandable than the translated version *"có não"*, which sounds very unnatural and strange to Vietnamese readers.

Below are the examples of this kind of equivalence:

Body parts	English idioms	Meaning	Vietnamese equivalents
Shoulder	Have/get a good head on one's shoulders	To be sensible and intelligent	Mister Jem, I thought you was getting' some kinda head on your shoulders (TKAMB: 414) → Cậu Jem, tôi nghĩ cậu có cái đầu biết suy nghĩ trên vai cậu chứ (GCCN: 419)
Hand	Throw up one's hands	To submit or give up	At the end of the eight hours Don Corleone had thrown up his hands in a helpless gesture (TGF: 44) → Bố Già mới chán nản đưa hai tay lên than van với đông đủ cử toạ (BG: 42)
Heart	At the heart of someone	The most important part of something	But he decided to strike right at the heart of the enemy (TGF: 217) → Nhưng đã đánh là phải đánh trúng tim địch thủ (BG: 215)

Non-equivalence: The last group contains translated versions in which English human-body-part idioms do not have equivalence in Vietnamese; consequently, translation loss is unavoidable even if translators make great efforts to translate them. For example, the idiom *"stick my **neck** out"* (to risk incurring criticism or anger by acting or speaking boldly) is removed as can be seen in the translated version as in the example:

"I'm a lawyer. Would I **stick my neck out**? Have I uttered one threatening word?" (TGF: 45)

→ Xin đừng quên nghề tôi là luật sư! Một con nhà luật mà…áp lực? Mà lại buông lời hăm dọa ai sao? (BG: 40)

The explanation for this can be that the author intends to focus on the sentence coming afterwards *"Have I uttered one threatening word*?", so there is no need to translate the sentence mentioned above. However, in other cases, although the English human-body-part idioms are not translated into the Vietnamese versions, the translators use "compensation" phrases so that their meanings are preserved. For instance, Mario Puzo wrote that:

I was in love with him for three years. I used to come down to New York whenever he sang at the Capitol and **scream my head off**. (TGF: 30)

The idiom *"to scream one's **head** off"* means "to scream out to one's full capacity", so in general, this idiom can be used to describe someone's excitement, enthusiasm or even fear. Yet, Ngọc Thứ Lang, with his marvelous taste in literature, omitted that idiom and expressed it as:

Anh biết không, em mê Johnny từ 3 năm nay lận! Có Johnny trình diễn ở Capitol thì **thế nào cũng phải đi nghe**. (BG: 28)

It is noticeable that the English idiom *"scream one's **head** off"* is not eliminated totally, because it is replaced by *"thế nào cũng phải đi nghe"* in the Vietnamese version. The idea of "to scream very loudly when one is scared or excited" is removed but the literary effects are intensified and create the aftertaste for readers. Instead of translating the idiom into *"Anh biết không, em mê Johnny từ 3 năm nay lận! Có Johnny trình diễn ở Capitol thì lần nào em cũng **hét hò ầm ĩ cả**"* (the reserachers' translated version), the translator expresses the opposite, i.e. despite difficulties or being busy, the character still arranges to go for Johnny's show. The suggested version *"hét hò ầm ĩ cả"* is not a bad idea, as it uses the faithful translation method, but the shade of expression is rather limited and its artistic effect is not as much as that of "*thế nào cũng phải đi nghe*", which means "I have to go and see him whatever happens". The outstanding point of this sentence lies in the phrases *"thế nào cũng phải"* (whatever happens) that underlines the character's enthusiasm and eagerness for the singer's performance.

Below are the examples of this kind of no equivalence:

Body parts	English idioms	Meaning	Vietnamese equivalents
Blood	Bad blood	Tension and disdain due to past disagreement/ transgressions	It gets rid of the bad blood (TGF: 121) → (No equivalence)
Bone	Make one's bone	To solidify one's reputation (usually in a criminal organization)	And then after he had "made his bones" he had received a good living from the Family, a percentage of an East Side "book" and a union payroll slot (TGF: 82) → Sau khi lập đầu danh trạng, gã được trả lương rất khá, ăn phần trăm của đám bao thầu đánh cá bên East Side và được ăn chia với các nghiệp đoàn (BG: 80)
Eye	Bat an eye	To cease looking at someone or something.	Miss Stephanie said Atticus didn't bat an eye (TKAMB: 434) → Cô Stephanie nói bố Atticus thản nhiên như không (GCCN: 439)

6. Implications

Based on the research results, several strategies for learning and translating English idioms containing human-body parts into Vietnamese are suggested below:

The first strategy involves using an idiom of similar meaning and form, which means using an idiom in the target language with approximately the same meaning as the source language idiom and that idiom contains equivalent lexical items. In this sense, equivalent lexical items mean that body parts in the source language are retained and translated into equivalent body parts of the target language, and other components have their own equivalence in the target language. For example, "***hand** in **hand***" can be translated into "***tay** trong **tay***". In some other cases, body parts are kept unchanged but several elements are added to the English components or transformed, which can been seen in "*with all one's **heart***" → "*thành **tâm** thành ý*" when "*thành ý*" is added.

Using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form is the second strategy which is based on the possibility of finding an idiom in the target language with a similar meaning to that of the source language idiom or set expression, but containing different lexical items. In other words, either sourse language somatic elements are *removed totally, replaced by,* or *combined with new body parts*. Here are some examples of this kind: "***heart** and soul*" → *tràn đầy sinh lực* when "*heart*" is removed; "*lose **heart***"→ *nản **lòng** nhụt chí* where "*lòng*" (mind) replaces "*heart*"; or "*close one's **eyes***" → *nhắm **mắt** xuôi **tay*** wher "*tay*" (hand) is added.

Paraphrasing is the third type of translation strategy drawn from the research. Literal paraphrasing is characterized by the preservation of English human-body parts in Vietnamese idioms and the literal expression of the English idioms as can be seen in "***face** up to*" → "*sợ phải đối **mặt***". With the figurative paraphrasing, the translation process is more complicated when the translator has to understand the symbolic meanings of the English idioms and re-express them without the original somatic words such as in "*Scout's got to learn to keep her **head*** → "*(Scout phải học cách)* ***giữ bình tĩnh***".

Last but not least, omitting is the translation strategy applied mostly in the sentence or paragraph level. The reason for this phenomenon is that when an idiomatic expression is omitted, most of the time, there is a *"loss"* in terms of meaning. This kind of loss can be either *total* or *compensable*. Here is an example: *"I'm a lawyer. Would I **stick my neck out**?"* → *"Xin đừng quên nghề tôi là luật sư! Một con nhà luật mà…áp lực?* (Non equivalence).

7. Conclusion

The current paper has dealt with two primary issues: describing the syntactic and semantic features of English and Vietnamese idioms containing human-body parts and then working out the similarities and differences between English and Vietnamese idioms containing human-body parts used in two selected English novels "*The Godfather"* and *"To Kill a Mockingbird"* and their Vietnamese translated versions *"Bố già"* and *"Giết con chim nhại"* respectively. The review of literature provides theoretical background on English and Vietnamese idioms, including human-body-part ones, and the translation theories. Despite the differences in defining, classifying and characterizing them, many researchers and linguists share the same view about idioms that they are well-structured phrases with a high degree of inseparability and an unlikely possibility of deducing the whole meaning of that idiom from their components. The main tools deployed throughout the survey are contrastive analysis and sampling method. After collecting all human-body-part idioms in the two English novels and their Vietnamese versions, the reserachers find out that the English idioms containing humam body parts have different types of Vietnamese equivalents such as absolute equivalent where both the meanings and the elements of human-body parts are kept, or partially equivalent where either the meaning or the elements of human-body parts are maintained. However, the research results also point out that in several cases no Vietnamese equivalents to the English idioms containing human body parts are found in the selected data.

In short, it is expected that readers of this paper will, to some extent, draw out useful experience for themselves to enrich their idiom vocabulary and facilitate their translation competences. As cultural barriers among languages are still in existence, the translators should equip themselves with suitable and effective strategies for translating idioms in general and somatic idioms in particular from English into Vietnamese.

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THÀNH NGỮ TIẾNG ANH CÓ CHỨA TỪ CHỈ CÁC BỘ PHẬN CƠ THỂ VÀ TƯƠNG ĐƯƠNG TRONG TIẾNG VIỆT: NGHIÊN CỨU TRƯỜNG HỢP VỚI HAI TIỂU THUYẾT TIẾNG ANH VÀ BẢN DỊCH TIẾNG VIỆT

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Tóm tắt: Bài báo tập trung nghiên cứu đặc điểm cấu trúc và ngữ nghĩa của thành ngữ nói chung và thành ngữ có chứa từ chỉ các bộ phận cơ thể người nói riêng trong hai tiểu thuyết tiếng Anh *The Godfather* & *To Kill A Mockingbird* và bản dịch tiếng Việt tương đương. Sử dụng phương pháp so sánh và đối chiếu, bài báo chỉ ra thành ngữ tiếng Việt tương đương và không tương đương của thành ngữ tiếng Anh có chứa từ chỉ các bộ phận cơ thể trong các tác phẩm này. Kết quả nghiên cứu sẽ giúp ích nhiều trong dạy và học tiếng Anh, đặc biệt là thành ngữ tiếng Anh, cũng như quá trình dịch thành ngữ tiếng Anh sang tiếng Việt.

Từ khóa: thành ngữ, tương đương, bộ phận cơ thể, dịch Anh-Việt

A REVIEW OF THEORIES AND RESEARCH INTO SECOND LANGUAGE WRITING ASSESSMENT CRITERIA

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Abstract: As language assessment in Vietnam is being intensively attended to by the Ministry of Education and Training and is actually critically transformed, criterion-referenced assessment has gradually been a familiar term for language teachers, assessors and administrators. Although the name of the approach has been extensively used, most teachers of English at all levels of language education still face the challenge of identifying "criteria" for writing assessment scales. This paper attempts to provide a reference for teachers and researchers in second language writing concerning on the major development in the field in defining this construct of "writing competence". The paper focuses more on the existing and published literature globally on English writing teaching approaches, research and practices. These contents are reviewed and summarized into two major strands: the product-oriented considerations and the process-oriented considerations.

Keywords: writing assessment, writing teaching approaches, criteria, product-oriented writing assessment, process-oriented writing assessment

1. Introduction

For over a hundred years, writing assessment has been considered a significant field, with the increasing participation of researchers and practitioners from many other fields. They contribute voices to sharpen the traditional paradigms and introduce new paradigms of writing assessment. They introduce new theoretical and practical models for writing assessment, both of which hold critical values for the teachers in service. This paper is going to summarize the major findings in this dynamic field to inform the assessment practices of writing teachers in Vietnam in the contexts of substantive assessment reforms in the orientation of standard-based, competence-based and criterion-based assessment.

2. A brief history of writing assessment

Each period in writing assessment history has been dominated by particular assumptions about assessment methods, technical quality and writing competence. Looking through the lens of assessment methods, Yancey (1999) identifies three overlapping paradigms of writing assessment namely *objective testing, holistic scoring, and portfolio/ performance assessment*. The first era of writing assessment was named objective testing paradigm, in which parametric tests were the reigning educational assessment tool, and the word "writing examination" meant answering selected-response questions

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in either standardized or locally developed tests (Ruth & Murphy, 1988). Reliability was then supposed to suffice for validity. In short, in this period of writing assessment, testing was separated from classroom activities (Huot, 2002) and had no power (Yancey, 1999). In the second paradigm of writing assessment, direct writing assessment and criterion-referenced test interpretation were the most widely discussed issues. Writing assessment was argued to be more direct than multiple-choice tests, that writing skills could only be assessed with real writing products and that students' mistakes in writing should be investigated to inform followed-up instruction. The development of the holistic method for essay scoring by the educational measurement scholars also emerged, leading to improvements in rater consistency. In the third paradigm, assessing writing means discovering and assessing those processes of self expressing; writing should be assessed through many samples of writing produced at different time and under no pressure, in such forms as projects, portfolios, etc.

It can be summarized that the current context of writing assessment is when the popularity of cognitive learning theory, the attention to learners' and teachers' roles in the classrooms and the development of appropriate assessment methods provide the exact aids for the writing assessment communities to achieve better validity in assessment. On balance, the co-existence of the new and old paradigm in writing assessment can be advantageous, since an application of different methods is bound to bring about the most accurate results in assessment. That there is no single best way to do assessment has become a verity after many ups and downs in assessment history (Brown, 1998). However, the existence of multiple paradigms requires from the assessment instrument developers the more critical consideration of relevant theories and practices before making hypotheses of their constructs. The following discussions on product-oriented written language production and process approach in writing reflect essential theoretical concerns in defining writing competence as a product and as a process.

3. Writing as a product and as a process

3.1. Writing product considerations

In the emergence of the third paradigm in writing assessment, so many different definitions of writing competence have been developed that one author's definition is not general enough for others (Camp, 1993a; White, 1995). One well-structured model of textual construction was proposed by Grabe and Kaplan (1996) based on their review of written language nature, writing studies and popular hypotheses on textual features. Writing ability in this model has seven interacting areas of knowledge:

- syntactic structures;
- semantic senses and mapping;
- cohesion signalling;
- genre and organisational structuring to support coherence interpretations;
- lexical forms and relations;
- stylistic and register dimensions of text structure;
- non-linguistic knowledge bases, including world-knowledge.

Within each of these interacting components are series of other sub-components which also interact with each other. The authors then group these sub-components into four more explicit parts:

elements of text structure, *a theory of coherence*, *a functional-use dimension of text*, and the *non-linguistic resources*. Elements of text structure include grammatical features (at sentential level in the forms of semantics and syntax) and some functional features (at both sentential and inter-sentential level in the form of coherence and cohesion). Coherence has a special position in this model, as the authors consider it not only as a textual feature, but also from the reader's perspective, i.e. whether a text is coherent depends not only on the writer's use of cohesive devices but also on the reader's interpretative systems, including their knowledge and their opinions of the relevance of ideas. The balance between textual features and top-down processing is the special point the authors of this model want to propose in contrast to other authors' claims for the privilege of one of them (such as Halliday and Hasan's claim (1976) for cohesion). *Functional-use dimensions* relate to how the textual features are combined to make a text, such as the logical organization and stylistic features (shown at interpersonal level in the form of stances and postures), which address the appropriateness between texts and writers' goals, and the relation between the writers' attitudes to the readers, the subject, the context, world knowledge, etc. Some examples of stances are personal – interpersonal, distance – solidarity, superior – equal, oblique – confronted, formal – informal, etc.

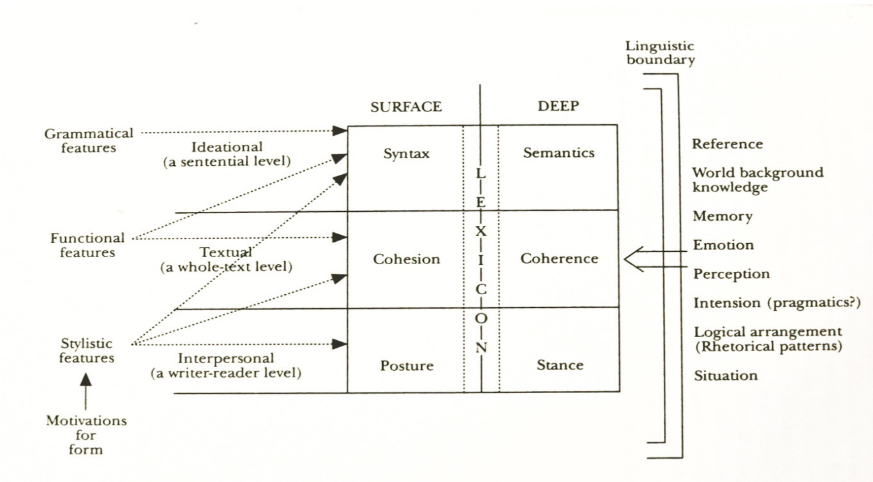

Figure 1: Model of Textual Production (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996)

According to Figure 1, grammatical, functional and stylistic features in a written text are affected by motivation for form and constrained by eight types of non-linguistic knowledge: reference, world knowledge, memory, emotion, perception, intention, situation, logical arrangement. The non-linguistic features may be revealed in the use of lexicon and have strong influence on all the three sets of linguistic features of texts.

Based on a large literature of writing studies and hypotheses, this model aims to clarify the properties of a written text for real use (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). This purpose seems to have been successfully fulfilled because writing teachers and researchers can easily obtain necessary information on what should be assessed in a writing product, as well as on the linkages between those areas of knowledge. However, the model only provides the foundation for writing researchers to make hypotheses on writing production knowledge.

3.2. Writing process considerations

The writing process models by Flower and Hayes (1981), Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) and Grabe and Kaplan (1996) presented below offer general definitions of the writing process.

Flower and Hayes' model of writing process (1981) (Figure 2) is most frequently discussed in writing-process literature. The authors developed a cognitive process model which assumes that writing includes many distinctive, goal-directed and hierarchical cognitive processes. As seen in Figure 2, the most important element of the model is the rhetorical problem, such as a writing assignment at school, because if student writers cannot understand the problem, they cannot write anything to solve the problem. They need to identify the topic, the audience and their goals in writing. After this initial representation, they deal with constraints such as the amount of text produced, their own knowledge in their long-term memory, and their plans for writing. The process of actual writing starts with planning (the act of building the internal representation: generating ideas, organizing ideas and most importantly, goal setting). Flower and Hayes strongly emphasize goal setting as a continuous phase running through the writing process and as a crucial feature of a creative writer. After planning, the writers move into translating or putting their abstract representations into visible letters. This stage requires them to integrate understanding of all linguistic demands from functional to syntactic. Later, in revising, the writers evaluate what they have written and consider keeping or revising it, which may trigger another cycle of planning, translating and reviewing. It is important to note that in this model, the three main stages of writing are no longer represented as a linear process. By this, and by stressing that writers differ in their composing strategies, Flower and Hayes have made great contributions to the process-oriented approach in the field of writing. In a later revision of the model (Hayes & Flower, 1987), their argument of the differences in writers' composing processes is even further clarified, when their study found that expert writers composed differently from novice writers in some aspects:

- they take more aspects of the rhetorical problem into consideration;
- they approach these aspects at greater depth;
- they respond to the problem with a fully developed image of what they want to write. They are therefore more creative in solving the problems OR answering the questions;
- they reassess their goals and revise them in the process of writing.

This model, as well as later works of the same authors on the writing process, is well recognized for making a complete representation of the writing process and delivering an influential message on its non-linearity (Weigle, 2002). However, they have paid inadequate attention to the writers' linguistic knowledge and the influence of external facets on students' writing processes (Kaplan & Grabe, 2002; Shaw & Weir, 2006; Weigle, 2002).

The differences between skilled and unskilled writers in terms of composing processes have been more specifically discussed in the work of Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987). The two different models of writing processes proposed by the two authors are appreciated for coherently covering a wider range of research than previous models (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). Also, the models confirm the existence of differences between skilled and unskilled writers and bring into clearer focus the problem-solving skills which are required in complicated writing tasks (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996).

The knowledge-telling model (Figure 3) used by less skilled writers is built on the assertion that these writers ignore the more complicated problem-solving strategies skilled writers use. They choose to solve the rhetorical problem through a context-free monologue with their internal knowledge. They only consider the rhetorical problem (topic and genre) in terms of what they know, then write what they know down, examine the text produced and use it to generate new texts. This process works well in writing about simple and familiar topics such as narratives of personal experience because the writers' familiarity with the topics helps them arrange ideas in their mind and hence improves the coherence of their writing.

The knowledge-transforming model (Figure 4) was developed to make up for the disadvantages of the knowledge-telling model in explaining for writers' behaviours in complicated rhetorical problems. These problems always call for higher level thinking skills than memory retrieval and often appear in academic writing assessment. In confronting the task, the writers analyse, set goals for writing and plan the solutions for both content and rhetorical problems. Then there is an interactive stage between content problem solving and rhetorical problem emerging, and vice versa. This stage lasts until both sets of problems seem to be resolved, and the writers then continue with the knowledge-telling model: retrieving solutions from their memory to tell and write. Interestingly, the knowledge-tranforming model also includes the knowledge-telling model because the skilled writers also may use the simpler model in some circumstances. For example, in coping with a task they have met before and the problems they have solved before, they only need to follow the steps in the knowledge-telling model. From this aspect, the complementarity of the two models is unarguable (Shaw & Weir, 2006).

In general, the skilled writers plan longer, produce more detailed pre-writing notes. They consider goals, plans and audience alongside content problems in writing. Their revision covers not only textual elements but also the organisation of the text. They also make use of main ideas as guides for planning and integrating information (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987).

Despite their advantages, Bereiter and Scardamalia's models fail to explain the influence of contexts in the writing process, as presented in Hayes and Flower (1987). The authors also did not describe the cognitive development underlying the transformation from knowledge-telling to knowledge-transforming, making it difficult to determine if a writer is in a middle proficiency level between skilled and less skilled (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996)

To suggest a solution for the problems of previous models, and to complement their model of textual production (Figure 1), Grabe and Kaplan (1996) developed a writing process model which considers both external contexts and writers' internal processing. In their model, the situation and performance output are integrated to form the external social context for the writing task. Internally, all the processes of writing happen within the writers' verbal working memory. Based on the contextual features, the writers set goals for writing and generate the first representation of the task which they think fit well with the goals. This internal goal setting is metaphorically referred to as the "lens" to look at the writers' products and processes. After goal setting, a circle of metacognitive and verbal processing of linguistic knowledge, world knowledge and online processing assembly (the monitoring of information generated from the other two kinds of knowledge) is triggered and functions in the interaction with the established goals. Only some parts of these components are used in creating the internal processing output, which is compared to the established goals and may be revised as necessary before becoming the textual output in the performance. Even then, this textual output can be compared once again to the goals and another circle of internal processing starts. Writing goals in this model are really important "rulers" for the writer to assess his production at any stage in the process, an idea similar to Hayes and Flower (1987). As regards the differences between writers at different levels of proficiency, besides those in the two previous models, Grabe and Kaplan add that skilled writers:

- review and reassess plans on a regular basis;
- come up with more types of solutions for rhetorical problems;
- plan more perspectives in writing;
- revise according to the goals rather than just language segments;
- own a variety of writing strategies in all stages of writing.

In a condensed comparison, Grabe and Kaplan (1996)'s model is clearer than Hayes and Flower's (1981) and Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987) models in terms of the cognitive and metacognitive processes in writing.

3.3. Summary

The models of writing processes and writing products presented in this section have been constructed based on a large reservoir of research results and theories and are still being validated. In the current paradigm, an important point for writing researchers in the validation of models is the need to focus on both product and process writing knowledge. To paraphrase, promoting an enabling process-oriented approach does not imply that the product approach is disenabling.

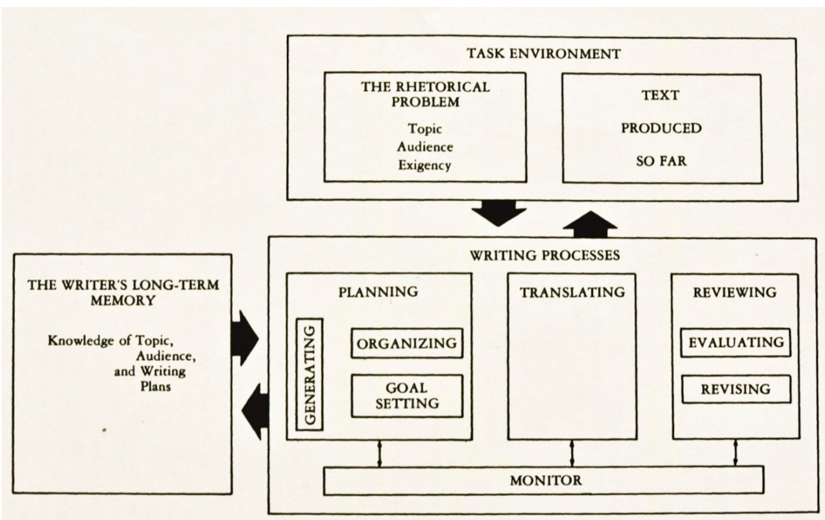

Figure 2: Process of Writing (Flower & Hayes, 1981)

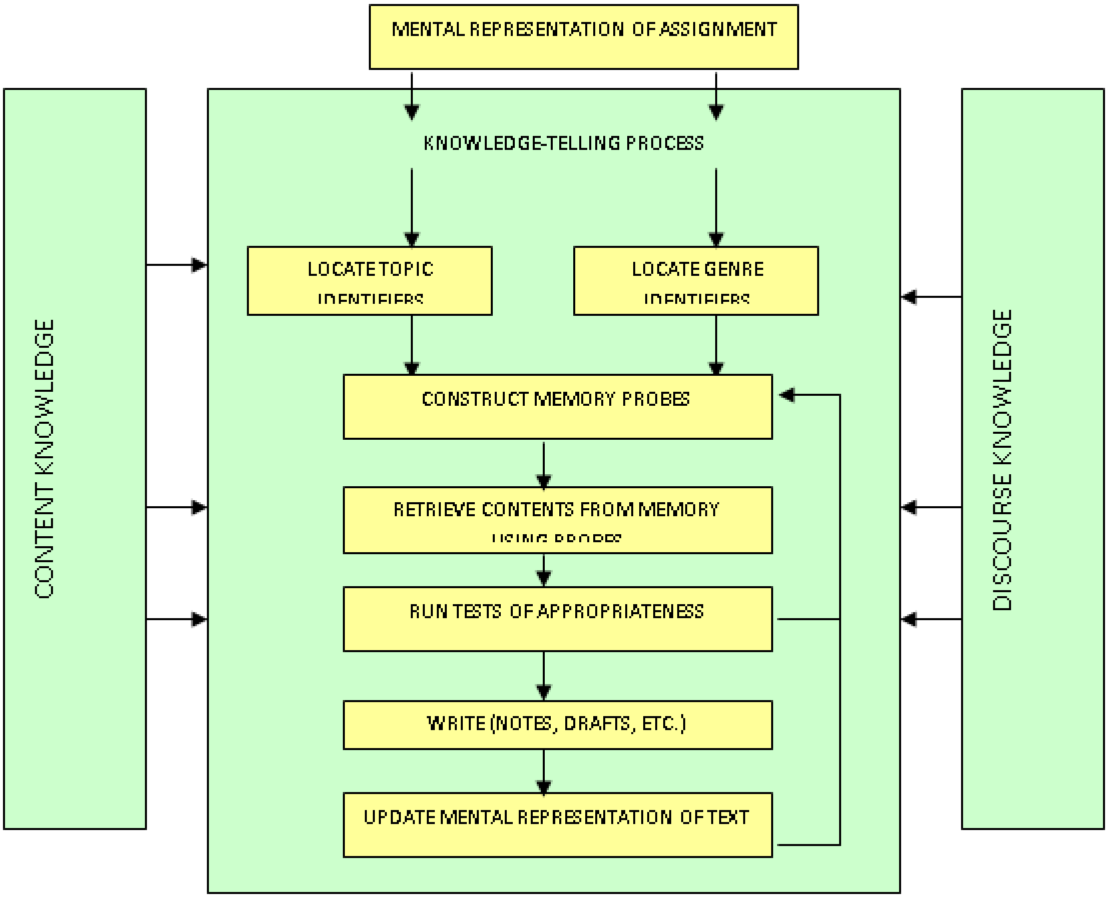

Figure 3: Knowledge-telling Model of the Writing Process (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987)

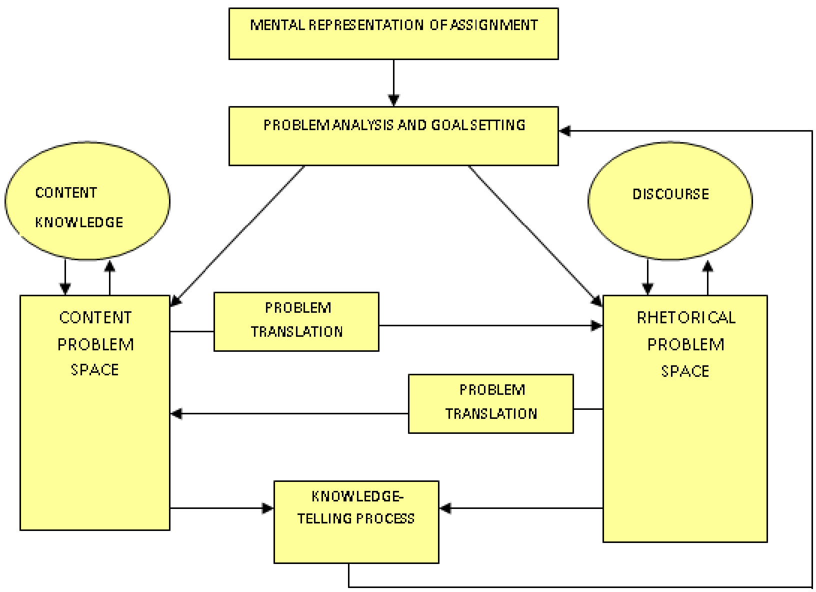

Figure 4. Knowledge-transforming Model of the Writing Process
(Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987)

4. Research on L2 writing products and process

This section provides an overview of the extent to which available research and practices in second language (L2) writing assessment have validated the above mentioned theories of textual productions and writing processes. It is expected that the results of the research can illuminate the short list of criteria which should be employed for measuring students' writing performances.

The section is organized into two areas of writing knowledge which necessarily contribute to a theory of writing (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996): L2 writing production knowledge and L2 writing processes (including L2 writing strategies). Research results on the relation of each type of knowledge to L2 writing proficiency is presented first, followed by a description of currently used L2 writing assessment indicators.

4.1. Research on L2 writing products

Defining what writing ability means is essential to defining the purposes of teaching and assessing writing. In general, the assessment instruments represent what their developers define as the construct they want to measure. This section reviews the research work on factors which affect L2 students' writing ability in three areas of language knowledge: text structure elements, textual knowledge, and sociolinguistic knowledge. These three areas represent current research work in L2 writing production knowledge.

4.1.1 Research on grammatical knowledge/ elements of text structure

Despite the increasing popularity of composing process research, L2 studies on the elements of text structure are still dominant in the literature (Silva & Brice, 2004). Research by Second Language Acquisition (SLA) researchers in this area often involves the analysis of three important textual features: accuracy, complexity, and fluency.

<u>Accuracy</u>

Linguistic units ranging from **T-units** (a grammatical construction with one independent clause (a simple sentence) and/or its related subordinate clauses (a complex sentence), **phrases, clauses, sentences, etc.** are the oldest criteria to judge students' writing accuracy. The majority of papers and studies on linguistic accuracy have been done by composition researchers (Haswell & Wyche-Smith, 1994). The most reliable textual prediction of writing quality was **clause length, T-unit length and the number of clauses per T-unit, the number of subordinate clauses** (Huot, 2002; Veal, 1974). However, studies about the relation between T-unit features and writing competence provided inconsistent results. The calculation of T-units and clause length therefore is not enough (Ruth & Murphy, 1988). The links between **verbal diversity, verb choice, grammatical complexity, freedom of errors and writing quality** were found to be strong (Greenberg, 1981; Grobe, 1981; Witte & Faigley, 1983). Composition researchers were also able to point out other syntactic features which discriminate students' writing quality significantly, including the **increased use of adjectives, nominal complexity, free modifiers, sentence adverbials, relative clauses, finite adverbial clauses, stylistic word-order variation, passives, complex noun phrase subjects, tenses and modes,** and **unmodified noun phrases** (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996).

The accuracy of the produced language has also been the focus of studies in SLA, L2 writing assessment and L2 writing instruction.

According to Polio (1997), measures can range from holistic scales, error-free units, error-count without classification to error-count with classification. Holistic scales address such indicators as vocabulary, spelling, punctuation, syntax or word forms, which are measured at semantically different levels. Error-free units, including **error-free T-units** and **error-free clauses**, are more objective. Error count without classification involves calculating the ratio of errors and error-free units. Error count with classification seems to be the most advantageous measure for solving the previous problem. Studies on accuracy measures could provide some indications for L2 writing assessment researchers. For example, Brown (2002) investigated the influence of sentence-level errors (sentence structures and grammar/mechanics) on untrained ESL raters' holistic ratings of ESL students by comparing their scores on the original and the corrected essays. The analysis showed a significant difference in the two sets of holistic scores, and a high correlation between the analytic scores for the two types of sentence-level features with the holistic scores. Sentence structures and grammar/mechanics are therefore thought to affect holistic scores. Kennedy and Thorp (2007) found that writers at lower band scores in the IELTS tests made more **lexico-grammatical errors**. Higher-scored IELTS scripts were also found to have fewer **mechanical errors** (Mayor et al., 2007). Vocabulary in L2 academic writing is another instance. The accurate retrieval **of sufficient and diverse vocabulary** is one of the first requirements for success in academic writing and its lack may lead to negative rater judgments. Moreover, **word form accuracy** and **word choice diversity** significantly affect L2 intermediate students' writing scores. Ferris (1994), for example, found that advanced ESL students demonstrated greater use of some lexical categories (emphatics, hedges) and difficult syntactic construction (stative forms, participial construction, relative clauses, adverbial clauses, etc.). Among textual features, the lower proficiency writers use more lexical repetitions as cohesive devices, while the higher proficiency group chose lexical and referential cohesion devices (synonyms, antonyms, etc.). The more advanced students also use more passives, cleft sentences, and topicalizations. Vocabulary range (including idiomatic language) and grammatical accuracy are also proved to be successful predictors of IELTS band scores by (Banerjee, Franceschina, & Smith, 2007; Kennedy & Thorp, 2007).

Complexity

Besides accuracy, SLA and L2 writing researchers also examine the complexity of text structure elements. The importance of lexical and grammatical complexity/sophistication in deciding students' writing quality/scores has been emphasized in numerous studies (Hinkel, 2003; Mayor, Hewings, North, Swann, & Coffin, 2007; Reid, 1993; Vaughan, 1991). Grammatical complexity measures include **t-unit complexity ratio**, the **number of verb phrases per t-unit**, the **number of dependent clauses per t-unit**, etc. Lexical complexity measures include the **ratios between word types over the number of words**, **between sophisticated words and the total number of words**, or between **the number sophisticated words and the number of word types**. In these studies, sophisticated words are often identified by referring to a standard list, such as the Academic Word List (Coxhead, 2000). The best grammatical complexity measures are the **number of clauses per T-units** and the **number of dependent clauses per T-unit** (Wolfe-Quintero, et al., 1998). Other measures such as **passives, articles, relative clauses,**

complex nominals may also be important structures relative to developmental levels.

In investigating the effect of vocabulary on writing proficiency, Zareva, Schwanenflugel and Nikolova (2005) offered sophisticated insight into the role of different aspects of lexical knowledge. Macro-level features of lexical knowledge include three dimensions (quantity, quality, and metacognitive awareness) which can be further categorized into six variables (**vocabulary size, frequency effects, word associations, nativelike associations**, etc.). A vocabulary test was completed by 64 native and ESL students divided into three proficiency groups. The results show that vocabulary quantity and quality can predict native, L2 advanced, and L2 intermediate students' language competence levels. The most important strength of this study is the wide range of examined vocabulary features while the most obvious weakness is the take-home vocabulary test, which may lead to students' reliance on other reference materials.

Complexity measures have been subjected to a number of criticisms, such as its sensitivity to length. Longer texts are often considered more complicated than shorter ones according to these measures, which is not always correct. Moreover, similar to studies on accuracy, studies on grammatical and lexical complexity show inconsistent results (Knoch, 2007; Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki & Kim, 1998). For example, Banerjee, Franceschina, and Smith (2007) could find no relation between **syntactic complexity** and IELTS band scores. Nevertheless, Laufer (1995) was able to detect a significant relationship over time with an analysis of word type/ sophisticated word ratio. In IELTS studies, Mayor et al. (2007) found that the **complexity of sentence structures** is among the best indicators of writing band scores.

<u>Fluency</u>

One important aspect of language production besides accuracy and complexity is fluency. Fluency has been defined variously but generally, it is the comfort of language production. English-as-a-second-language (ESL) students often pay attention to accuracy at the expense of fluency and meanings (Knoch, 2007).

Fluency is most frequently measured by the **number of words/structures** the students produce, the ratios of production units (Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki & Kim, 1998) or the **number of reformulations and self-corrections** (Knoch, 2007). Specifically, measurement may include the number of clauses, sentences, T-units, or ratios of these linguistic units to the text (Chenoweth, 2001). The best indicators of proficiency are **the ratios of T-unit length** and **error-free T-unit length and clause length**, which linearly increase with proficiency levels across studies (Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki & Kim, 1998). Among these measures, a serious criticism of the ratio measures of frequency is the failure to take the students' writing process into consideration (Chenoweth & Hayes, 2001). From these ratios, it is hard to imagine how the writers have managed to make their writing fluent. The relations between the number of revisions and writing experience and between the number of revisions and writing proficiency have also been proved positive (Chenoweth & Hayes, 2001). In other words, students' proficiency in writing could be revealed by their frequency of revisions.

Length of writing has been considered an important indicator of writing proficiency by Bereiter and Scardamalia (1980). An investigation into IELTS scripts scored from

4 to 8 has revealed that students with score 4 struggled to reach the word limit, while students at score 6 find the word limit feasible, and students with score 8 always exceed it (Kennedy & Thorp, 2007). In the same study, students with higher scores were found to have written longer paragraphs and sentences. Another study on IELTS students which reached similar conclusions on the importance of length is by Mayor et al. (2007), who found longer clauses in higher rated essays. However, opposite results have also been found. Wofle-Quintero (1998)'s analysis of 18 uncontrolled-time writing studies found that only 11 studies found a significant relationship between length and writing development.

Summary of research results on text elements

The studies show the influence of accuracy, fluency and complexity in discriminating L2 students' writing development and writing quality. These results also present a large resource to validate the L1 and L2 Communicative language competence (CLC) models which have already been established. They must therefore be considered by L2 writing assessment researchers when designing their instruments.

4.1.2 Research into textual knowledge (cohesion, coherence)

The common thread in composition and applied linguistic research into writing quality, which runs through from the holistic scoring paradigm to the modern assessment paradigm, is the shift from small syntactic units to global syntactic features, or textual knowledge. In this section, the research on these global foci is presented, and various methods of assessing them are discussed.

Firstly, cohesion refers to "the explicit linguistic devices used to convey information, specifically the discrete lexical cues to signal relations between parts of discourse" (Reid, 1992, p. 81). In other words, cohesive devices include visible linguistic units which connect grammatical units and lexical units. The most popular classification of cohesive devices which L2 writing researchers use in their studies, also the one which most emphasizes the role of cohesion in language production, was given by Halliday and Hasan (1976), who regarded cohesion as the most important feature which defines a text as a text. It "refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text" (p. 4) but is expressed by lexicogrammatical devices, including reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, lexical reiteration, and collocations.

Studies in L1 student essays have found that high-rated essays are generally more cohesive than low-rated ones, especially through the use of reference devices and conjunctions. Lexical cohesion is the most popular type of devices (Witte & Faigley, 1981) but lower-scored essays tend to use more **repetitions** (Witte & Faigley, 1983) and higher-scored essays tend to use more **collocations** and **synonyms** (Crowhurst, 1987). However, other L1 studies could not reach these results; for example, there was no correlation between cohesive density and quality (McCulley, 1983). The relation between cohesion and L1 writing quality is therefore inconclusive.

L2 writing studies show more consistent results. For example, Wenjun (1998) studied how six Chinese ESL students' writing quality was affected by their use of cohesive devices. They found that students of high proficiency do produce more cohesive texts than those with lower proficiency. The ESL students were able to improve their cohesiveness given successful rhetorical transfer and sufficient exposure to authentic texts. Kennedy and Thorp (2007) reached more detailed results when comparing IELTS writers at different writing band scores: lower-scored students often used obvious transitional signals (such as *however, firstly, secondly*) while higher-scored ones had more indirect ways to link ideas and were able to avoid repetitions. Banerjee, Franceschina and Smith (2007) had similar findings on the use of cohesive devices of students at different band scores in the IELTS test. Thus, cohesion seems to be an essential indicator in the measurement of L2 students' writing ability.

Coherence is one of the most controversial issues in L2 writing assessment. It is considered an elusive, fuzzy concept, with a large number of definitions. Generally, Grabe and Kaplan (1996) stated that coherence occurs not only at the textual level through the creation of a semantic map for the ideas but also depends on the readers. Researchers choose different means to assess coherence according to the characteristics they wish to integrate into their definition (Todd, Thienpermpool, & Keyuravong, 2004). As early as in the 19th century, coherence was limited to the use of **sentence connections** and **paragraph structure**. Later measures went beyond sentence limits to texts. Coherence can be defined in terms of **cohesion** and **organization patterns** (Kintscha & Dijk, 1978) and **metadiscourse markers** (Crismore, Markannen, & Steffensen, 1993). As another example, **topical structural analysis,** which involves the analysis of the themes and rhemes of each sentence and how they are connected in the structure of sentences, has been proposed (Lautamatti, 1987) and is still widely used. However, concerns have been voiced for the validity of this approach (Todd, et al., 2004).

Studies on coherence measures show more consistent results than those on textual element measures. In a study on 12 ESL students' essays, for example, Intaraprawat and Steffensen (1995) investigated the difference between good and bad ESL writers' use of **transitional signals (**logical signals, **exemplification signals**, **reminders, sequencers, topic shift signers)**. They found a significant difference between the two groups of learners in using exemplification signals (code glosses) and purpose signals (illocution markers). Kennedy and Thorp (1999) contributed that **organization, argument development and exemplifications** were coherence aspects which could differentiate students' writing scores in IELTS writing test.

Summary of research results on textual features

In contrast to the inconsistent results of L1 writing studies on the role of cohesion and coherence in distinguishing students, L2 writing researchers are able to draw consistent conclusion. Cohesion and coherence measures should obviously be included in the assessment of L2 writing ability.

4.1.3 Research into sociolinguistic knowledge

In terms of reader-writer interactions, L2 writing research mostly focuses on the influence of writing styles on writing quality. Knoch (2007, 2008) reviewed this issue thoroughly. Academic writing styles can be more objectively measured through the analysis of **metadiscoursal markers**, including hedges (epistemic certainty markers), certainty markers (emphatics or boosters), attributers, attitude markers, and commentaries (Crismore et al., 1993). EFL writers were found to be more direct by using fewer **hedging devices** than native ones. Similarly, Kennedy and Thorp (2007) found that IELTS writers with high proficiency used more **hedging, attitude markers, attributors, boosters**, and **commentarie**s than those at lower levels. Similar findings on IELTS writers' stylistic choice were found by Mayor et al. (2007). These writers seem to be confident in their language ability enough to interact with the audience. For another group of ESL writers, Intaraprawat and Steffensen (1995) reached almost similar results. Thus, besides supporting findings by L1 researchers (Crismore et al., 1993), these results added that students at higher proficiency tended to target the audience more while those at the lower end are more prone to use connectives as the main cohesive device. The use of first personal pronoun as the subject in the writing, and second personal pronoun as the object have also been discussed as other indicators of academic styles. Research results (Hyland, 2002; Mayor, et al., 2007; Shaw & Liu, 1998) are inconsistent regarding whether L2 writers are more personal or objective as their writing improves.

In summary, there is still limited research on the sociolinguistic knowledge of writing other than on academic styles. This does not indicate that it is not an important type of knowledge. Regarding its importance, it should be a fertile field for research in the future.

Summary of research results on writing products

So far, this section has presented an overview of traditional research in L2 writing production. As Cumming (2001b) concludes, the summarized research findings suggest (rather than "confirm") that student writing proficiency is connected with the complexity of syntax and morphology, the range of vocabulary, the command of rhetorical forms, the control of cohesion and coherence, the use of stylistic devices, amongst others.

4.1.4 L2 writing product assessment criteria in use

In addition to research results, the criteria used by important L2 testing services in writing assessment practices also serve as important hints for the components of an L2 writing construct. With the emergence of the current writing assessment paradigm, these components have undergone great changes.

The earliest testing organization to reform was the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). The ACTFL guidelines have been revised (Breiner-Sanders, Swender, & Terry, 2001). The list of writing indicators can be seen in Figure 5.

Changes to the TOEFL test format carried in itself multiple changes of test construct, including the integration of writing skills with other major skills. This can be observed from the changes in a comparison of the writing assessment indicators in the old (Education Testing Service, 2011b) and new instrument (Education Testing Service, 2011a). Figure 2.9 shows that the new instrument is far more complicated and detailed. Content criteria were not mentioned in the old instrument except for the term "addressing the task", but have been described quite thoroughly in the new one with such aspects as unity, clarity, arguments, and progression. More attention is paid towards syntactic accuracy and complexity than towards range and diversity as before. In terms of textual knowledge, the old instrument only mentioned organization of ideas, while the new one adds the use of examples, explanations, cohesive devices, etc.

Hawkey and Barker (2004) reported the attempt to create a common instrument for the ESOL (Cambridge English for Speakers of Other Languages) and IELTS tests at the

University of Cambridge. First, the criteria used in scoring five ESOL tests and the IELTS test (University of Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate, 2005) were described (as in Figure 5) and regrouped. They are then applied to an extensive corpus of writing scripts of students from different levels of proficiency. The derived four-level draft scale is reported to be applicable for IELTS writing scripts which have received band scores from 3 to 9 in earlier ratings. The criteria on the common instrument can be seen in Figure 5.

The University of Cambridge has also revised their IELTS rating rubrics (S.Shaw & Falvey, 2008). This was done in a highly empirical study involving a thorough literature review, reiterative discussions with experts and sophisticated quantitative validation procedures (Generalizability Theory, Item Response Theory). Apparently, validity and reliability are being seriously reconsidered by the testing system. The results show that in writing task 1, the instrument contains four groups of criteria: task achievement (task requirement fulfillment, idea development, purpose targeting, format, tone, clarity, illustration, information appropriation), coherence and cohesion (overtness of cohesion devices, paragraphing, sequencing, progression, primary and secondary transition, repetitions, clarity of ideas in each paragraph, references), lexical resources (range, sophistication of control, errors, commonality of vocabulary, precision, formation, communication influence, mechanics, collocation) and grammatical range and accuracy (structure range, errors, appropriation of structures, communication influence). In writing task 2, the three later groups of criteria are the same as in task 1, while the first is changed into task response (response completion, position development, support, focus, generalization, relevance, and format). It is apparent that the revised instruments of the IELTS tests include far more criteria than the old versions (see Figure 5), and the principles underlying the writing assessment have been specified more thoroughly.

Tests	CPE	CAE	FCE	PET	KET	CELS	IELTS	Draft common ESOL instrument	TWE	iBT T1	ACTFL01
Criteria											
Topic								development		progression	variety, development
Resourcefulness		X									
Coverage		X	X	X							
Content	X	X	relevance, originality,			X	relevance, arguments			argument	ideas
Unity								X		X	
Clarity										X	X
Sentence structure							X	length	X, variability	variety, usage	variety
Grammatical structure	Range			range	X	range		X			X
Syntax											variety
Time frames, moods, aspects											X
Vocabulary range	X	X		X		X				Variety	variety
Vocabulary				X	X		X	order, complexity	choice, variability	choice, form	specialization
Idiomtimacy								X		X	
Coherence							X			X	transition,
Elaboration				X			support	X		Examples, Explanation	
Organization	X	X	X	X		X	logical	X	X	X	X, prioritization
Links			X			X		X		connections	transitions
Cohesion	X	X	X				X	X			X, devices,

Criteria \ Tests	CPE	CAE	FCE	PET	KET	CELS	IELTS	Draft common ESOL instrument	TWE	iBT T1	ACTFL01
General impression	Sophisti-cation of language	Natural-ness	task realization		Message communication			comprehension	Language use, task addressing, goals	Topic/task addressing	
Style								X			X, variation
Register and format	X	X	X			X					
Audience target	X	X	X				X	X			X, approximation
Presentation			X								
Accuracy			X			X	X				X
Errors	X	X		X		X	X	X	X	X	X
Fluency							X				X
Length						X		X			X
Complexity				X			X				
Mechanics					X	X					X
Distortion						X				digression	
Format											X
Functions											X
Genres											X

Figure 5. Criteria in Common ESL/EFL Writing Assessment Instruments. X represents that the indicator is used in the test.

Although the criteria vary from one test to another, the table can provide some generalizations of what all the test developers deem to contribute to writing quality. The writing performance indicators vary in different assessment contexts. For example, the ACTFL aims to assess writers' overall ability rather than a one-test writing ability, so they include in their assessment instrument the capability to write with a variety of topics, genres, and functions, which other test instruments do not. Also, unlike any others, the ACTFL highlight students' specialized vocabulary in writing. As another example for the relation between context and assessment criteria, the instruments of both IELTS and TOEFL iBT writing tests include the formation of arguments because both tests require students to write argumentative essays. Interestingly, these variations can serve both as illustrations for the versatile applications of well-established theories in practice and as considerations for designing other studies and forming new theories in L2 writing.

Noticeably, besides the three core areas of text structure knowledge, textual knowledge and sociolinguistic knowledge, one important group of criteria is related to the writing content (topic, content, unity, clarity, resources, coverage, etc). This may relate to the research findings in rater-behaviour studies that raters are strongly concerned with content and organization (Huot, 1990). However, "content" has different meanings in each test. Depending on the contexts, it may include other criteria such as unity, resourcefulness, coverage, and clarity. Furthermore, research on the impact of writing content on writing quality is rather limited in L2 writing assessment (excluding content-based courses) (Knoch, 2007). Two studies involving IELTS scripts by Kennedy and Thorp (2007) and Mayor et al. (2007) found that students at lower levels tend to write incomplete arguments, fail to elaborate their answers, and produce categorical organization of ideas and paragraphs while higher level students interact with the readers better via a range of rhetorical devices (rhetorical questions, hedging, boosters, downtoners). More studies on content criteria are needed to confirm these results.

Syntactic features are paid equally enormous attention to by all test developers, the primary features being grammatical structure, sentence structure, vocabulary range/diversity and choice. Other aspects which come into focus are word order, word complexity, the use of idioms, the use of time frames and other grammatical aspects. Coherence and cohesion are mentioned in all instruments, but they are often accompanied by more specific indicators such as the use of transitions, links, elaborations (types of elaborations), organization, logic and development. The range of criteria to assess sociolinguistic knowledge in these instruments, which includes writing styles, audience-targeting skill and writing registers, is wider than in corresponding research. Apart from the criteria which apparently relate to specific areas of product-oriented writing knowledge, the instruments also include other more global criteria of accuracy (either directly or indirectly via "errors"), mechanics, fluency (mostly in terms of length), and general impression.

In general, textual structure elements and textual structure are still the main concerns of instrument developers in constructing definitions of L2 writing competence. The criteria for assessing textual features clearly outnumber those for assessing content and sociolinguistic knowledge.

4.2. Research on L2 composing process

The increasing popularity of the process approach in L2 writing research is described in many profound historical reflections. The most important reflectioners to whom this study owes considerable interpretative support are Kraspels (1990), Grabe and Kaplan (1996), Larios et al. (2002), Silva and Brice (2004) and Matsuda (2003). The exponential rise of studies in L2 writing may be the most important point in all the reflections. This section presents the key L2 composing research results and discusses how useful they are to studies on writing.

4.2.1 General composing process

It has been shown in the early years of L2 writing assessment that L2 writers' composing competence, writing strategies and behaviours can explain their success in writing, rather than their linguistic competence (Raimes, 1985; Zamel, 1984). More recent and more process-oriented studies, such as Sasaki (2000, 2002), found similar results that expert writers plan much longer and with more details and more thorough linguistic preparation, plan their organization better (including several local plans), refine the expressions in their mind before writing, and make fewer pauses than novice ones. Sasaki also stressed that global organization is a difficult skill which may take a less skilled writer a long time to acquire.

Multiple studies reveal that skilled writers can monitor their composing strategies flexibly while unskilled writers' popular pattern is to add new ideas at any stage. However, there are cases when it is hard to clearly define a common profile of composing behaviours for a group of L2 writers (Raimes, 1985).

In line with the theory, audience and purpose orientations are found to be discriminative indicators of writing ability as seen from the results in a number of different studies (Raimes, 1987; Zamel, 1984).

4.2.2 Planning

Planning has apparent effects on fluency and complexity, while having an inconsistent influence on accuracy (Foster & Skehan, 1999). In other words, planning may lead to a trade-off between accuracy and complexity. Larios, Murphy and Marín (2002) reviewed 65 studies on composing processes and concluded that skilled students are more attentive to readers and write for the readers more than the unskilled students. They also have more planning activities, plan according to the goals, and plan in advance as well as when necessary during the writing process. Another comprehensive report of the effects of different types of planning on fluency, accuracy, and complexity has been made by Ellis (2009). Planning activities with different features could lead to a range of subtle effects on writing quality. In other words, the studies on planning are no longer limited to one generally defined planning activity, but have expanded to various sub-strategies in this sub-process. As regards the relation between planning and ESL/EFL writing proficiency, which is not unanimously defined, recent studies showed inconsistent results. Tavokoli and Skehan (2005), for example, reported the positive effects of planning on low proficiency writers' fluency but not on advanced writers, while Mochizuki and Ortega (2008) found no effects of planning for their low proficiency subjects.

4.2.3 Formulating/ text producing

According to a report by Larios, Murphy and Marín (2001; 2002), this part of the writing process has received the least research attention. In formulating written texts, skilled writers integrate their knowledge of textual elements and textual knowledge and control their attention to both. Unskilled writers also pay attention to various areas of knowledge, but they are possibly restricted to structural units of language instead of more global features. Due to this focus on forms, they spend less time on online planning and revising. Inconsistent results were reached regarding the content produced by unskilled writers. In the first place, some studies stated that these students limited their ideas to personal experience, followed a rigid sequence of idea development, and wrote shorter texts than skilled writers (counted as an aspect of formulation). However, other studies rejected these differences. Similar inconsistencies can be found with the studies on pauses during the writing process. So far, it has been agreed that formulating contains many smaller processes of problem solving, on-line planning, on-line revising, adding resources, etc; each varies in time and occurrence in different writers. In their study of formulation, Larios, Marín and Murphy (2001) found that L2 proficiency can determine the dominance and position of formulation in the writing process, with lower proficiency students formulating longer and more frequently at the early stage in the writing process than higher proficiency ones. In other words, higher proficiency students formulate less and at a later stage of their composing process. The strong theoretical arguments and well-defended measures make the results of this study remarkably significant; however, other similar studies are needed so that formulating/text producing can be better understood and can deserve its position in the writing process.

4.2.4. Revising

This is the most well-researched stage in the composing process (Bergh & Rijlarsdam, 2001). The research results are abundant. Larios, Murphy and Marín (2002) reported that skilled writers distinguish well between revision and writing skills. These students were not as concerned with syntax as with idea, intersentential and paragraph levels. They were conscious of the opportunities they could have in revising drafts and therefore did not stop at revising mechanical mistakes. They can also detect more problems and have more resources to solve the problems than less skilled writers (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2001). In contrast, unskilled writers do not take revising and editing serious (Raimes, 1985). They are often held back by syntactical revision during the writing process. This may be due to limitations in their linguistic knowledge or the pressure to finish writing in a short time. In general, with quite consistent findings, revising seems to be the sub-process which best discriminates students' writing ability.

4.2.5. Research on writing learning strategies and L2 writing proficiency

Besides the knowledge of the writing process, L2 writing researchers also study processing skills in writing, which have been mentioned as essential in the theory of writing by Grabe and Kaplan (1996). This metaknowledge includes three categories: personal knowledge, task knowledge, and strategic knowledge (Devine, Railey, & Boshoff, 1993). In terms of task and strategic knowledge, studies have yielded consistent results. Specifically, skilled writers are more flexible in their attitude to the tasks of writing. They are more conscious in taking risks with writing complicated structures, as well as in understanding all the skills writing involves. Strategic competence in writing was even found to be the means to acquire better task and personal knowledge (Kasper, 1997). In contrast, unskilled writers are unmotivated and limited their skills to the writing of grammatically correct sentences. They may not be conscious of their problems and weaknesses in either syntactic or textual knowledge, leading to a lack of confidence in experimenting with new knowledge. In terms of personal knowledge (knowledge held by writers about themselves), studies show various results. Some studies report that skilled writers are more motivated while unskilled writers are not satisfied or happy with writing. Others report an equal level of motivation for both groups. This result has been explained by the limit of time students are allowed to write, which drives all students into the same negative attitude to writing.

In general, considering the research results, it seems that most of what Flower and Hayes (1981), Hayes and Flower (1987), Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) and Grabe and Kaplan (1996) modelled about the writing process has been supported. The main stages of the composing processes, as well as their complicated occurrence and time allocation, are confirmed. Research results also suggest differences in the ability to plan, revise, edit, search for expressions and attend to ideas between students of different writing levels (Cumming, 2001b). The control of the stages is found to be most indicative of student writing ability. Inconsistent results were only found in certain aspects of the subprocesses. Furthermore, the subprocesses can be ranked along a continuum of difficulty in acquisition (Larios, Murphy & Marín, 2002). This means that some are less difficult for L2 students to acquire than others.

However, as regards methodological issues, results from L2 writing process research should be considered with care. First, the studies are quite limited in their instruments due to the greater time requirement (Polio, 2003). Most studies rely on a small number of subjects (Cumming, 2001b; Krapels, 1990; Raimes, 1985). In addition, the method of judging, the criteria to judge the proficiency of students, the time allowance for writing, the contexts of assessment (ESL or EFL) and the samples of writing products are not similar across studies (Cumming, 2001). Many researchers also failed to provide reliability estimates, which used to be the most serious criticism of writing assessment (Larios, Murphy & Marín, 2002). Moreover, despite recent geographical growth, there is still a serious lack of research in EFL settings outside the United States (Polio, 2003; Silva & Brice, 2004) and the mismatch between product-focused assessment practices and the process-oriented research is still apparent (Huot, 1996). These features serve as important warnings for L2 writing researchers to be careful with the generalization and the practicality of results. Whether a positive or negative relation is found between composing process(es) and writing quality, it is reckless to suggest the adoption or omission of certain processes for certain groups of L2 students. The range of writing strategies and processes are wide, and students acquire differently from different processes of learning (Polio, 2003).

5. Conclusion

The paper begins with an introduction of the developments in writing assessment, including the shift of paradigms. The second part of the paper narrows the discussion to the essential issues in L2 writing assessment, including theoretical models on the construct of writing competence and L2 writing competence, and the current research results which support or dismiss those models. It is apparent from the discussed contents that L2 writing assessment is a complicated, multidisciplinary, fast-growing field and that the teachers and researchers not only have to read broadly and critically but also to continually update their knowledge to understand the dynamics of the field. Also, L2 writing assessment is obviously developing in the same direction as general writing assessment in the performance-based and process-oriented approach, besides the traditional product-oriented approach. The wide variety of research focus in writing assessment and the differences in the amount of empirical evidence for each research focus should be taken into consideration by teachers and researchers in L2 writing assessment contexts such as Vietnam, so that they can better formulate their writing tests or assignments.

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RÀ SOÁT CÁC CƠ SỞ LÝ THUYẾT VÀ NGHIÊN CỨU VỀ TIÊU CHÍ CHẤM MÔN VIẾT TRONG ĐÁNH GIÁ TIẾNG ANH NHƯ NGÔN NGỮ THỨ HAI

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Tóm tắt: Đánh giá năng lực ngôn ngữ đã nhận được sự quan tâm ngày càng sâu rộng tại Việt nam trong những năm gần đây và đang được thay đổi tích cực. Trong bối cảnh đó, đánh giá theo tiêu chí đã trở thành một khái niệm quen thuộc với giáo viên, người đánh giá cũng như các nhà quản lý giáo dục. Mặc dù vậy, hầu hết giáo viên tiếng Anh ở các cấp đều vẫn gặp khó khăn khi phải xác định các tiêu chí có thể sử dụng trong thang đánh giá môn viết của họ. Bài viết này nhằm mục đích cung cấp một nguồn tham khảo cho giáo viên và các nhà nghiên cứu có quan tâm tới đánh giá môn viết trong lĩnh vực viết như ngôn ngữ thứ hai trong nhiệm vụ xây dựng thang đánh giá năng lực viết theo tiêu chí. Nội dung của bài viết tập trung vào cơ sở lý thuyết đang tồn tại và đã được xuất bản trên thế giới về các đường hướng dạy viết tiếng Anh, các lý thuyết, các nghiên cứu và thực hành đánh giá viết bằng tiếng Anh. Các nội dung chính này được tổ chức theo hai hướng chính: dựa trên sản phẩm viết, và dựa trên quá trình viết.

Từ khóa: Đánh giá môn viết, hướng tiếp cận dạy viết, tiêu chí đánh giá môn viết, đánh giá sản phẩm viết, đánh giá quá trình viết

EXPLORING TEXT-IMAGE RELATIONS IN ENGLISH COMICS FOR CHILDREN: THE CASE OF "LITTLE RED RIDING HOOD"

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Abstract: The present panorama of communication features the co-employment of language and other semiotic resources. This paper addresses this fledging field, multimodal discourse analysis, by investigating a genre targeted at children. Specifically, it studies how meanings in comics for children are constructed both verbally and visually. The data for the study is one comic - *Little Red Riding Hood,* which is presented via colored images and verbal texts in English. The analysis was based on Unsworth's (2006) framework to explore the interplay of the two semiotics in the construction of the ideational contents. The results reveal that this comic displays both *Expansion* and *Projection* relations with nearly equal occurrence frequencies; however, within each type, the subtypes are vastly different with *Verbal* being the most predominant, which can be deemed as one of the typical features of the genre in focus. Regarding *Expansion, Concurrence* and *Complementarity* have nearly the same high percentage while *Enhancement* has a lower proportion. Theoretically, the findings concerning a complete full-length comic contribute to the literature on multimodal texts for young learners. The findings also have practical implications for the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language as to how to exploit the free online kid-targeted multimodal resources to engage the young learners in literary works in general and to develop their English proficiency in particular.

Keywords: systemic functional linguistics, multimodal discourse analysis, inter-semiosis, text-image relations, comics

1. Introduction

The idea of multimodality can be traced back as early as the 4th century B.C. when classical rhetoricians emphasized the potential effects of voice, gesture, and expression in the art of public speaking. However, it was not until the publications of O'Toole (1994) and Kress & van Leeuwen (1996) that the term '*Multimodal discourse*' became technically established and this field has increasingly attracted research. The subjects of research are various, ranging from academic discourse such as mathematical discourse (O'Halloran, 2004; Nhat, 2017b), or textbooks (Salbego, Hberle, & Balen, 2015; Silva, 2016; Unsworth & Ngo, 2014, 2015), to discourse for entertainment purposes such as music videos (Brady, 2015), graphic novels (Rajendra, 2015), or advertisings (Hien, 2015; Na, 2015), to name just a few. Of particular pertinence to this line of investigation are the picture books, especially those for children (Nhat, 2017a; Tien, 2016; Unsworth, 2014; Wu, 2014). Painter, Martin & Unsworth (2013) claim:

> *Children's picture books can be recognized as a key means of apprenticeship into literacy, literature and social values, which in turn means that how they are constructed to*

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> *accomplish these ends is an important educational question. Since most of the space in picture books is given over to the pictures, it is reasonable to suppose that the visual component of the books, quite as much as the verbal, is crucial in this apprenticeship*. (p. 1).

This study focuses on a novel genre, namely comics for children. The research question is: *How are the two semiotic resources – verbal text and images – are co-deployed in a comic to impart meanings to young readers?* This choice is both theoretically and practically motivated. Theoretically, the analysis will provide empirical findings in this relatively new area of investigation, and to our best knowledge, no study in the same direction on the same or similar data has been reported up to now. The practical significance of the analysis lies with the long-standing values of comics as a source of entertainment and morals to children. In addition, the widespread technological advances necessitate research into online resources, which may serve as free sources for children, especially those in under-resourced social and educational backgrounds. In this paper, an overview of the literature closely relevant to this present study will be presented - Unsworth's (2006) framework on image-language relations and the genre of comic. The research methodology will then follow to delineate the data and the analysis of data. Then, the major findings will be presented and discussed. The paper will be concluded with the implications for the teaching of English as a foreign language to young learners and for further studies.

2. Theoretical background

The 'Grammar of Visual Design' developed by Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) accounts for the independent contributions of language and image to the meaning of multi-semiotic texts. More recent research has been concerned with the interactive role of image and verbiage in the construction of meaning in school science materials (Kress, 1997; Lemke, 1998; Martinec & Salway, 2005; Roth et al., 2005; Unsworth, 2004, 2006). Both Kress (1997) and Lemke (1998) focus on the "functional specialization" principle in relation to the role of images and verbiage in science texts, and they have not explicated an inter-semiotic framework of image and text. The illustrations for their descriptions are also limited. Kress's (1997) discursive account deals with a page of a textbook on electronics and Lemke (1998) provides a discussion of the meaning-making resources of a scientific article. Another related work is the analysis of the Brazilian school science textbooks by Roth and colleagues (Roth et al., 2005). In this study, some discussion seems to be more interpersonally than ideationally oriented and they are concerned with the relationship of the caption to the main text rather than the image-text relations. Martinec and Salway (2005) specify a system of logico-semantic relations between images and text with a focus on advertisements and online news sites and galleries.

Drawing on the related works, Unsworth (2006) represents a comprehensive account of the interaction of language and images in school science materials in the form of books and websites. Like Martinec and Salway (2005), he has derived the framework from Halliday's (1994) account of logico-semantic relations. The description is confined to the construction of ideational meaning and is summarized in the network shown in Figure 1.

Within EXPANSION, there are *concurrence*, *complementarity,* and *enhancement*. Concurrence refers to ideational equivalence between image and text. This image-text concurrence is described more delicately in terms of four subcategories: *Clarification* is synonymous to 'viz', 'to be precise' as the image clarifies or explains the text. *Exposition* refers to the concurrence or equivalence of the meanings represented in the alternative modes. *Exposition* emphasizes meanings in the different modes. *Exemplification* obtains when either the image or the text is more general. In *exemplification* the image may be an example of the content in the text or the text may include an example of what is depicted in the image. *Homospatiality* might be thought of as word-pictures where two different semiotic modes co-occur in one spatially bonded homogenous entity. One example shows an image of a campfire with the heat arising from the fire visually appears in curved lines, representing the word 'hot' (Figure 2).

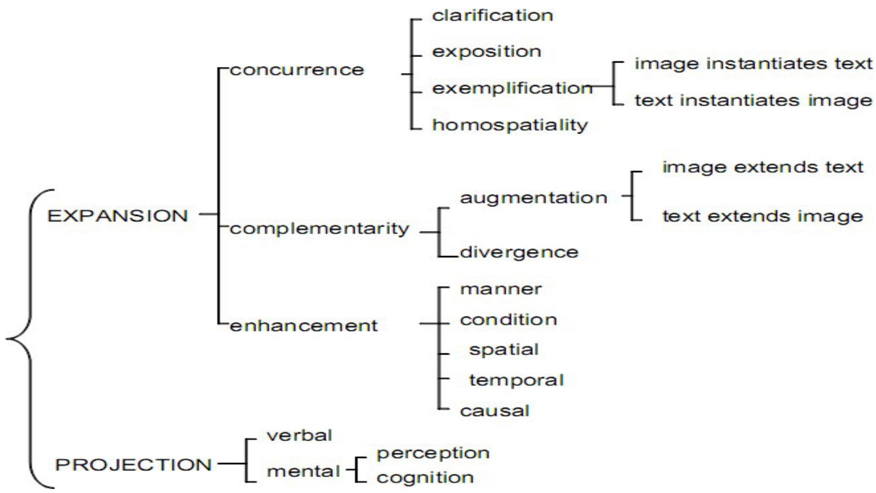

Figure 1: Framework of image-language relations in the construction of experiential meaning (Source: Unsworth, 2006, p. 1175)

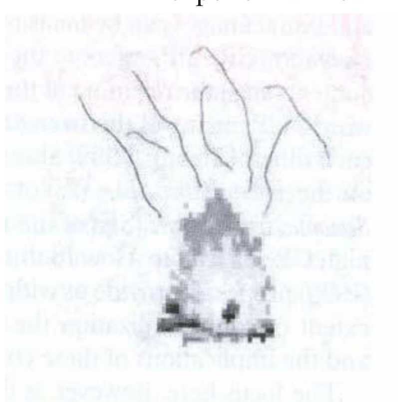

Figure 2: Homospatiality: 'hot'

(Source: Unsworth, 2006, p. 1184)

Ideational complementarity refers to the situations where "what is represented in images and what is represented in language may be different but complementary, and joint contributors to an overall meaning that is more than the meanings conveyed by the separate modes." (Unsworth, ibid., p. 1185). Complementarity includes augmentation and divergence. Augmentation refers to cases where each mode provides meanings 'additional to and consistent with' those provided in the other mode. In other words, Augmentation involves an image adding new meanings to those conveyed by the text or the text extending ideational content represented in the image. Divergence refers to the instances where the ideational contents of text and image are at variance. Unsworth notes that ideational divergence is clearly important in children's literary picture books and school science materials.

Unsworth (ibid.) identifies enhancement relations of place, time, condition, manner and cause between images and verbiage. For instance, in Figure 3, the image of the merry-go-round is an illustration of what readers might see if they 'look around'. That is, the verbiage constructs the condition and the image the consequence.

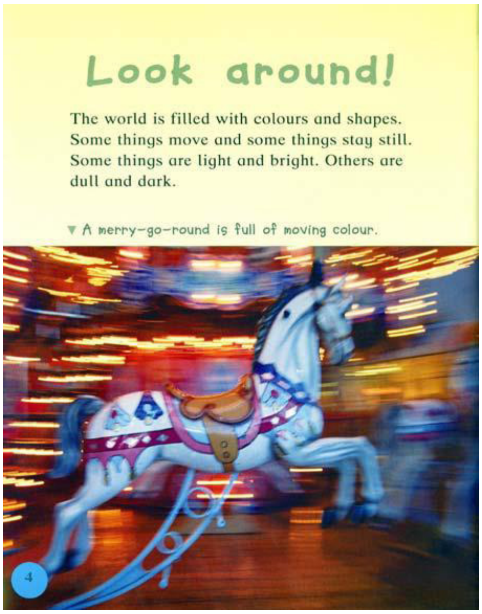

Figure 3. Verbiage/Image relations of Condition/Consequence

(Woodward, 2005; re-produced in Unsworth, ibid., p. 1195)

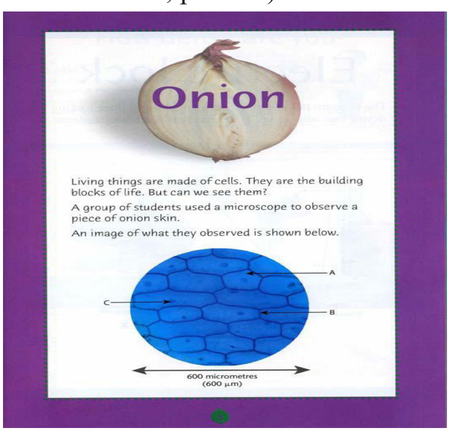

Figure 4. An image representing perception through a microscope

(Source: Unsworth, ibid., p. 1200)

Projection refers to either a 'locution', which represents the quoting or reporting of wording, or an idea, which represents the quoting or reporting of thought. Whereas the former is referred to as *Verbal,* the latter, *Mental.* The speech or thought bubbles in cartoons are the typical realizations of these categories. Regarding the *Mental* relation, Figure 4 is provided to illustrate what can be regarded as a form of perception. As explicated by Unsworth, the image with the labels 'A', 'B' and 'C' depicts what can be seen when the onion peel is observed through a microscope.

3. Methodology

This exploration is primarily a descriptive research to yield an account of the image-text relations in the comic analyzed. To address the research question, we employed both the qualitative and quantitative methods. The qualitative method was first used to identify the types of text-image relation in the comic; then, the data was quantitatively analyzed to arrive at the occurrence frequency of these correlations between the two modes.

3.1 Data description

The comic which serves as the data for this study is *Little Red Riding Hood*, downloaded from *Learn English – Read Comic Online.* This website is aimed to provide free access to classical, popular literature written in English to young readers. It is an online version of the *Classics Illustrated Junior*. This comic book series was originally published by Famous Authors, Ltd (The Gilberton Company, Inc.); it consists of seventy-seven fairy and folk tale, myth and legend adaptations of literary classics such as *Aladdin and His Lamp, Snow White, Beauty and the Beast, Cinderella, Goldilocks and the Three Bears, The Sleeping Beauty, Pinocchio, Rapunzel,* etc. *Classics*

Illustrated Junior debuted with an adaptation of *the Grimm Brothers', Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs* in 1953 and was a huge success, reaching its peak with a monthly circulation of 262,000 in 1960. The comics' success introduced classic literature to a large audience of young people for decades.

Of seventy-seven fairy and folk tales and myths, we decided to choose *Little Red Riding Hood* because of its enormous popularity and the moral it imparts. An additional reason is that the verbal text features both monologues and dialogues, which enables an all-round description of the text-image relations where both expansion and projection unfold. The data is well in line with the concept *comic*. Although phrased slightly differently, a comic is always defined as comprising two modes – text and images. According to McCloud (1993, p. 9), comics are "*juxtaposed pictorial and other images in deliberate sequence, intended to convey information and/ or to produce an aesthetic response in the viewer*". As defined by Mey (1994), a comic (also known as comic strip(s)) "*is a narrative form which combines written text in the usual sense and pictorial elements into an inseparable unity*". Groensteen (2013, p. 9) defines a comic "*as a visual and narrative art, [comics] produce meaning out of images which are in a sequential relationship, and which co-exist with each other spatially, with or without text".*

Little Red Riding Hood comprises twenty-nine numbered full pages from the original printed book. Each full page may display from one to four panels (illustrated in Figure 5). By '*panel'*, we mean a unit consisting of a picture and an accompanying text (McCloud, 1993). As can be seen from the illustrations, for each panel, the pictorial element is separately framed, within which there is the accompanying text with the first letter in bold. There are eighty-six panels altogether.

Figure 5: Samples of numbered full pages

Data analysis

The unit of analysis is the panel. In this comic, each panel well corresponds to the unit of analysis proposed by Unsworth (ibid. p. 1174) as consisting of "*an image and all the verbiage related to it by ideational content*". Unlike language, such units are not linear, as he puts it:

The multidimensionality of the two modalities - verbiage as 1-D on a 2-D page, image as 2-D or more on a 2-D page - allows the reader to make multiple passes between the image and its related verbiage, in a way that is probabilistically related to the sequencing of meaning by the producer. Thus, an intermodal unit of analysis consists of all the intermodal cycles that a reader can make between an image and its related text. There may be multiple recursive 'intermodal passes' made between verbiage and image for a given unit of analysis - one pass for each of the simultaneous systems in the network that represents the potential intermodal relations for the unit of analysis (p. 1174).

Based on Unsworth's network, 169 text-image relations were identified; a majority of panels present two relations. Each relation was categorized in terms of both type – *Expansion* or *Projection*, and subtypes – *Concurrence*, *Complementary,* or *Enhancement*, and *Verbal* or *Mental.* The types and subtypes of relation were then statistically analyzed to arrive at the picture of occurrence frequencies.

4. Findings and discussion

4.1 Findings

An in-depth analysis of 86 panels yielded 169 text-image relations. Generally, the comic displays both *Expansion* and *Projection* relations, with all of their subtypes - *Concurrence, Complementarity, Enhancement, Verbal* and *Mental* (Table 1). As can be seen from Table 1, there is no significant difference between the proportions of *Expansion* and *Projection* (50.9% vs. 49.1%); by contrast, the percentages of the subtypes within each type are vastly different. In the total of 169 relations found in the data, *Verbal* ranks the first, followed by *Concurrence* and *Complementarity*. *Enhancement* and *Mental* are the lowest.

Table 1: Occurrence frequencies of image-text relations

Types of relation	***Expansion***			***Projection***	
	Concurrence	***Complementarity***	***Enhancement***	***Verbal***	***Mental***
No.	36	35	15	81	2
%	**21.3%**	**20.7%**	**8.9%**	**47.9%**	**1.2%**
	50.9%			**49.1%**	

Regarding *Projection, Verbal* takes an overwhelming proportion, with 47.9%, while *Mental* makes up just 1.2%. The typical realization of the two, as Martinec & Salway (2005) suggest, is that locutions are enclosed in speech bubbles as in Figure 6 and ideas in thought bubbles as in Figure 7.

Figure 6. Projection of wording

Figure 7. Projection of thought

The huge number of verbal relations features the comic, enabling the dialogues between the characters throughout the story.

As for *Expansion* relations, *Concurrence* and *Complementarity* are far more prevalent than *Enhancement.* This suggests that the two modes are complement and joint contributors to the overall meaning of this comic. In terms of *Concurrence, Exposition* relation ranks the first with 16%; *Clarification* comes next at 4.7%; *Exemplification* is the lowest with 0.6%; and none is accounted for *Homospatiality*. This means that in order to reinforce the contents, the visual and verbal components are simultaneously utilized to restate or reformulate meanings rather than to exemplify, clarify or explain meanings.

Figures 8 and 9 may serve as illustrations for Expansion relation in the data. The text in Figure 8 reads "One day, she decided to sew her granddaughter a red riding hood". The image displays an old lady sitting on the chair sewing a red cloth, which can be understood that she is sewing a red riding hood. The process depicted in the image is the same as that mentioned in the caption text. The relation depicted in Figure 9 is *Clarification,* where the image clarifies the verbal text. The verbiage in this figure reads: "And someone was very happy to see her, although it wasn't grandma". What we can see from the image is the wolf peeping at Little Red Riding Hood through the curtain and whispering happily "Aha! Here she comes." Without the image, in this case, the reader cannot know that "someone" refers to the wolf and "her" refers to Little Red Riding Hood.

Figure 8: Image-text relation exposition

Figure 9: Image-text relation as clarification

In addition to being simultaneously used to reinforce meanings, each mode is also alternatively manipulated to provide additional meanings to what is represented in the other mode. This is achieved through *Complementarity*, the subtypes of which, *Augmentation* and *Divergence*, however, have different proportions, with 16% and 4.7% respectively. The instances of image extending text are more frequent than those of text extending image, unfolding the facilitating role of images in this genre – to make it easy for children to understand the content of the comic. Examples of each case are discussed below for further explanation.

In Figure 10, the information of the wolf and Little Red Riding Hood walking down the path is not only provided in the text but also in the image. Besides, the rest of the text provides more information - the wolf's wondering of how he could beat Little Red Riding Hood to grandma's house and his idea for doing this. Figure 11 is an illustration of image extending the text. What is depicted here is not only the grandma's opening the door but also the wolf's using Little Red Riding Hood to avoid being defeated by the woodsman.

Figure 10: Text extends image [I – 24]

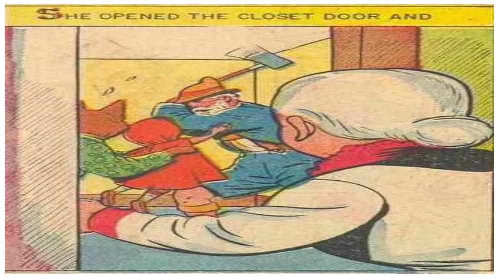

Figure 11: Image extends text [I – 82]

Finally, the findings provide the evidence that the texts and the images in the comic analyzed also complement each other through *Enhancement*, where one mode provides meanings to expand the other circumstantially. Four subtypes of *Enhancement*, namely *causal, temporal, spatial* and *condition* are found. The number of *temporal* and *causal* relations are nearly the same (3.6% and 3% respectively); *Spatial* and *condition* relations make up only a small proportion (1.8% and 0.6% respectively). Take Figures 9 and 10 for example. In Figure 12, the image just depicts the action of the wolf putting grandma into the closet, down onto the chair; still, the readers can decode when that action happens by referring to the temporal circumstance "a few minutes later" in the accompanying text. Therefore, in this panel, the text enhances the image in terms of time. Similarly, Figure 13 illustrates an instance of causal enhancement. The verbiage reads "you're not escaping so easily, my dear" and the image depicts the wolf locking the door, which can be interpreted as the reason why Little Red Riding Hood is not going to escape easily.

Figure 12: Text enhances image temporally

Figure 13: Text enhances image causally

4.2 Discussion

Comics play a vital role in children's lives thanks to their educational and spiritual values. Their captivating values are imparted via both the images and the accompanying verbal texts. This study is to explore the manipulation of these two semiotics in the construction of the ideational content of the popular classic *Little Red Riding Hood*. The results disclose some noticeable findings, revealing an insightful picture of this comic, typically designed for young readers. Firstly, there is no significant difference in the occurrence frequency between the two general categories of relation - *Expansion* and *Projection* - in the comic analyzed. Secondly, regarding the subtypes of *Projection,* there is the predominance of *Verbal* relation over *Mental*.

In order to captivate the children's attraction and facilitate their understanding, the images and the verbal texts are co-contextualized in skillful ways. The images are purposefully employed to work in tandem with the verbal texts, rather than merely to exuberantly illustrate the verbiage. The visual clues assist and increase the amount of comprehension. The re-expression of meanings alternates with the extension of meanings throughout the story. Besides, approximately half of the inter-semiotic relations identified lie with *Verbal*. The large proportion of this kind can result from the belief that to children of a very young age, texts seem not to be as captivating as images; therefore, presenting utterances in the speech bubbles can enhance more effectiveness on children than embodying them in the narrative blocks. Moreover, the substantial proportion of *Verbal* relations enables the dialogues between the participants throughout the story to be conveyed in an easy way for young children to appreciate the literary work. Thus, this can be counted as a typical feature of this comic. The comic convention of speech balloons, as well as the facial expressions in the images, provides opportunities for young readers to better understand the spoken language and identify the mood of the characters depicted.

The findings of this study are contradictory to those of another closely-related study, which is also concerned with discourse for children. In Tien's (2016) study on 100 English nursery rhythms in the widely-circulated *Mother Goose*, the finding shows that *Concurrence* and *Complementarity* are overwhelmingly deployed, leaving *Projection* as well as all the other subtypes marginally significant. The difference is significant, reinforcing the fact that whether or not a type of text-image correlation is employed, or to what extent each is employed, is educationally and recreationally motivated. Because *Mother Goose* is aimed to instill very short literary lines in young children, thereby first drawing them to the wonders of the verbal world, the images and the texts are predominantly co-employed to construct the same ideational contents. In the meantime, in the comic analyzed, both the general categories of relation tend to be equally employed to impart meanings. It is through both enhancement and projection that the story unfolds, engaging the young readers' interest, facilitating their comprehension, and developing their language proficiency.

A key impetus for this study lies with the potential pedagogical benefits of comics as one way to compensate for the low frequency of exposure to light reading in formal teaching English as a foreign language in many under-resourced contexts in Vietnamese. Though the practice of multimodality in the classrooms in Vietnam seems to be preoccupied with other mediums such as video, films, and web pages, these free accessible resources as comics seem to elude many Vietnamese educators. It is our view that given such a wide range available, this genre needs the recognition it truly deserves. Then, an understanding of the role of images and texts in contributing meanings to develop the contents on the part of the teacher, tutor, or parent can help maximize the full potential of this genre to facilitate the children's first steps on their road to reading literary works in English. The popularity of comics among children supports this medium to be used as pedagogical materials to stimulate a love for reading literature texts in English in a non - threatening way. With a powerful blend of text and image, graphic literary works are certainly highly stimulating, beneficial and thought provoking (Rajendra, 2015). From the perspective of Howard Gardner's multiple intelligences theory, comics are beneficial to students with varied strengths. Whereas the verbal components are an obvious advantage for students with linguistic intelligence, the vibrant images in these works may enhance spatial intelligence. These engaging classics can serve as tools of tremendous benefits to those who are strong in interpersonal intelligence when acted out or role-played through proper instructional strategies. With careful planning, the development of vocabulary, grammatical and communicative competences can also be boosted. The comic versions of these stories can also serve a stepping stone to the original versions, to more comics and graphic novels as well as non - fictional genres.

5. Conclusions

Unsworth (2006, p. 1165) states that "*today both language and images are integral to the texts we use. As well as making meanings separately, language and images combine to make meanings in new ways in contemporary texts*". Sharing the same idea, Moore & Dwyer (1994) emphasize that the combination of visuals and language makes communication more effective than words alone. To contribute to this fledging field of study, this study explores the interaction of these two semiotics in constructing the ideational meanings in a genre typically for young children. The data is a complete full-length comic, an adaptation from the popular classic *Little Red Riding Hood*. Unsworth's (2006) framework of image-language relations was applied to depict the picture of the correlations between texts and images in this sample. The findings reveal that in this comic the two semiotics support each other in different ways to attractively contribute to the contents of the story, which would prove to be much less captivating in the absence of either mode, given the targeted readers. Attention needs to be paid to the contribution of both semiotics to the construction of contents to gain a full understanding of how the story unfolds.

Given the increasing advances of multimedia and growing role of English as a lingua franca, the significance of the findings is apparent. An understanding of the role of the other meaning-making resources other than language as well as their co-relations will certainly benefit anyone interested in making best use of the similar online resources to imbue a love for light reading in children and to develop young learners' English proficiency. Nowadays, kids can be immersed in English easily anywhere anytime by watching cartoons, listening to music in English or taking online English courses, etc.; of these, comics in English, especially when they are simplified from popular classics like those on *Classics Illustrated Junior*, prove to be potentially worthwhile. Reading English comics is considered a great way for kids to get interested in and excited about learning English. Inge (1990, p. 17) emphasizes that *"[t]he comics, however, not only serve to introduce the child to reading and give him his first taste of independent comprehension; they have also enriched the English language in innumerable ways through popular phrases, word coinages, and the revival of archaic usages*.". The use of comics as supplementary resources in the teaching of English as a foreign language has long been established. Comics complement reading through their rich illustrations. Given the open accessibility of these comics for children on the Internet, they can be harnessed to have young learners of English expose to the target language in an engaging way.

There are obvious limitations in this study. The most apparent limitation of this study is the size of the data, which involves only one comic. We hope that further research in the same lines will be conducted with a larger corpus to see whether or not the findings reported in this study can be generalized to the whole genre in focus, particularly the online resources. A similar closely-related fruitful area to investigate is the interplay of the text and image in the short comics which are mostly limited to one or two pages in the coursebooks of English as a foreign language and how to make them most effective to the development of the learners' English proficiency. Another limitation in methodological design lies with the identification of the relations, which is consistently based on Unsworth's framework. As noted by Unsworth, this 'initial tentative network of ideational meanings in image-verbiage relations is likely to require further development.' (Unsworth, ibid., p.1200). A combination of some related systems of text-image relations could have yielded a more detailed and diverse account of the relations underlying the comic analyzed. Finally, the last decades have seen the increasingly prominent role of images in not only fiction but also non-fiction materials for children in the pre-teenage years. Children are readily surrounded with a diversely multimodal environment. We hope that this preliminary study may serve as a stepping stone to further studies on the practical implications of multimodal discourse within the Vietnamese educational context.

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KHẢO SÁT QUAN HỆ HAI PHƯƠNG TIỆN HÌNH ẢNH VÀ NGÔN NGỮ TRONG TRUYỆN TRANH TIẾNG ANH DÀNH CHO THIẾU NHI: TRƯỜNG HỢP "CÔ BÉ QUÀNG KHĂN ĐỎ"

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Tóm tắt: Trong bức tranh giao tiếp ngày nay, nhiều phương tiện tạo nghĩa khác thường được phối hợp sử dụng bên cạnh ngôn ngữ. Bài viết này tiếp cận hướng nghiên cứu mới mẻ này, *Phân tích diễn ngôn đa thức*, với đối tượng khảo sát là một thể loại dành cho thiếu nhi. Cụ thể, công trình này khảo sát xem nội dung một câu chuyện được xây dựng như thế nào bằng hai phương tiện ngôn ngữ và hình ảnh. Dữ liệu nghiên cứu là truyện tranh *Cô bé quàng khăn đỏ*, với phần lời bằng tiếng Anh. Mối quan hệ giữa hai phương thức được phân tích dựa trên khung lý thuyết của Unsworth (2006). Kết quả phân tích cho thấy trong truyện tranh này tác giả sử dụng cả hai loại quan hệ *Mở rộng* và *Phóng chiếu*, với tần suất xấp xỉ bằng nhau; tuy nhiên, các tiểu loại trong mỗi loại lại có tỷ lệ khác biệt lớn. Trong số các tiểu loại, quan hệ *Phát ngôn* có tỷ lệ lớn nhất, chiếm gần một nửa tổng số các mối quan hệ xuyên suốt cả truyện tranh. Đây có thể được xem như là một nét đặc trưng của thể loại diễn ngôn này. Trong các tiểu loại thuộc quan hệ *Mở rộng*, quan hệ *Đồng nhất* và *Bổ sung* có tần suất sử dụng gần bằng nhau, và lớn hơn nhiều so với quan hệ *Tăng cường.* Về lý luận, kết quả nghiên cứu đóng góp những số liệu làm cơ sở cho những nghiên cứu tiếp sau về truyện tranh cũng như các thể loại văn học khác dành cho thiếu nhi dưới ánh sáng của lý thuyết phân tích diễn ngôn đa thức. Những kết quả nghiên cứu cũng là những đóng góp vào các định hướng khai thác các nguồn tài liệu tiếng Anh trực tuyến vào thực tiễn phát triển năng lực tiếng Anh cho lứa tuổi thiếu nhi.

Từ khóa: Ngôn ngữ học chức năng hệ thống, truyện tranh, phân tích diễn ngôn đa thức; quan hệ giữa hình ảnh và ngôn từ, quan hệ giữa các phương thức

PROBLEMATIZING LEXICO-GRAMMATICAL EQUIVALENCE IN ARABIC-ENGLISH TRANSLATION

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Abstract: This study deals with the concept of grammatical equivalence in Arabic-English translation. It investigates the problems that encounter student translators (STs) while translating grammatical constructions from Arabic into English. It is based on a parallel corpus of the translations of five groups of STs at the Department of English, Faculty of Arts, Taiz University, Yemen. The STs are doing their final year and by the time of the administration of the tasks, they had already studied 4 translation courses. The study concluded that the structural and morphological differences between Arabic and English have created various problems for the STs. Following Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG), the grammatical problems at the ideational, interpersonal, textual and logico-semantic metafunctions were identified. The study concluded that the STs encountered various problems in terms of transitivity, modality, thematic structures, logical dependency and logico-semantic relations between the clauses. Those problems have not only affected the stylistic and grammatical aspects of the target texts, but they have sometimes yielded a meaning different from the one intended by the author(s).

Keywords: Translation, equivalence, grammatical, Arabic, English, Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG), clause, student translators (STs)

1. Introduction

Teaching some translation modules for students pursuing a degree in English Language and Translation at a number of Yemeni universities has brought to our attention a number of problems encountered in Arabic to English translation. In fact, many studies have investigated problems involving the translation of some grammatical structures such as passivization, modality, relativization, conjunction, etc. However, most of those studies are based on a comparative/contrastive analysis of artificial decontextualized Arabic sentences and their translations and not on empirical studies that use various genres and text types.

This study is mainly concerned with the grammatical problems that encounter student translators (STs) while translating texts from Arabic into English. It is based on the researcher's PhD thesis (Mohammed, 2011). It is also a part of an ongoing cross-sectional empirical project that aims to investigate the problems encountered by student translators (STs), novice translators (NTs) as well as more experienced translators (Ts). In addition to elicitation tasks, which were mainly used in the researcher's PhD thesis, Thinking Aloud Protocols (TAPs), Translog keyboard capturing, audio recording and playback and eye-tracking are employed in the project.

Arabic and English belong to different language families. As a result, there are very significant differences between the two languages at the grammatical level.

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Morphologically, Arabic is categorized as an inflectional, derivational and templatic language (Alasmari et al., 2016). English, however, shows only some of those features (Shamsan & Attayib, 2015). Syntactically, Arabic is a null-subject or a theme pro-drop language. Even though the subject pronouns are omitted, the meaning of a sentence can be determined from the grammatical context. Arabic also differs from English in terms of tense, aspect, grammatical gender, number, etc. Those differences in addition to the prolificacy of free word-order in Arabic are likely to pose several translation problems to the STs. In their attempt to achieve what we may call the ideal equivalence/correspondence of a grammatical form, STs are more inclined to translate a text literally and thereby they make several errors. Grammatical equivalence is sometimes hardly attainable. In what follows, we will briefly summarize the literature on the concept of equivalence in general and grammatical equivalence in particular.

2. Grammatical Equivalence

Equivalence is a key concept in translation studies. It has been a matter of heated discussion among philosophers, linguists, and translation theorists. Their debate has produced many dichotomies. A major contribution to the theory of equivalence came from Nida (1964) who argued that equivalence can be formal or dynamic. As he was interested in Biblical texts, he emphasized that translating in the context of Bible "consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style" (Nida & Taber, 1969: 12).

Catford (1965) adopted a linguistic-based approach to translation. He argued that defining the nature and conditions of translation equivalence is one of the main tasks of translation theory. In his view, translation is "the replacement of textual material in one language (source language SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (target language TL)" (Catford, 1965: 27). He differentiated between textual equivalence and formal correspondence. The former is "any TL text or portion of text which is observed on a particular occasion to be the equivalent of a given SL text or portion of text" (Catford, 1965: 27) and the latter is "any TL category (unit, class, structure, element of structure, etc. which can be said to occupy, as nearly as possible, the same 'place' in the "economy" of the TL as the given SL category occupies in the SL" (Catford, 1965: 27). An adverb, for example, should be translated by an adverb.

Halliday (2001) emphasized the significance of context and register variables in translation. He adopted 'a principle of hierarchy of values' the translators should follow:

Equivalence at different strata carries differential values; ... in most cases the value that is placed on it goes up the higher the stratum - semantic equivalence is valued more highly than lexicogrammatical, and contextual equivalence perhaps most highly of all; but ...these relative values can always be varied, and in any given instance of translation one can reassess them in the light of the task (Halliday, 2001: 17).

Baker (1992) suggested a more detailed distinction on the concept of equivalence at the following levels: equivalence that may occur at word level and above word level, equivalence at the grammatical level, Textual Equivalence and Pragmatic Equivalence. In this paper, we will mainly focus on grammatical equivalence that refers to the diversity of grammatical categories across languages. Baker (1992) noted that grammatical rules may vary across languages and this may pose some problems in terms of finding a direct correspondence in the target language. As a result, the translator might be forced either to add or to omit information in the target language (Baker, 1992: 82). Baker dealt particularly with five grammatical categories: number, gender, person, tense/aspect, and voice.

Exact equivalence is not always attainable because languages do not always use identical elements to express the same reality. STs need to know that the concept of equivalence "is usually intended in a relative sense – that of closest approximation to source text meaning" (Hatim & Mason, 1990: 8). Translation is, therefore, not a process of mechanical substitution of source language words with similar words in the target language. Halliday (1967) put it clearly that translation is a process of three stages:

> ... (a) item for item equivalence; (b) reconsideration in the light of the linguistic environment and beyond this (it is almost an afterthought) to a consideration of the situation; (c) reconsideration in the light of the grammatical features of the target language where source language no longer provides any information (Newmark, 1991: 65).

Thus, translation is a communicative act which requires the use of "the common target patterns which are familiar to the target reader" for this use "plays an important role in keeping the communication channels open" (Baker, 1992: 57). Hence, instead of sticking literally to the text, translators can add, delete or change/shift forms to produce the communicative effect of the original text.

3. Review of Literature

There are relatively few empirical studies that dealt with the concept of grammatical equivalence or the translation of some morphological and syntactic constructions from Arabic into English and vice versa. Some of these studies will be summarized below:

Abdellah (2007) investigated the problems that encounter Arab students of English while translating Arabic endophora. The study concluded that students mistranslate the plural inanimate Arabic pronoun with the singular inanimate English pronoun. The study also showed that the error is more common in cases where the pronoun is cataphoric rather than anaphoric. In addition, the error was spotted more frequently in cases where the pronoun is distant from its antecedent.

Gadalla (2006) discussed the problems involving the translation of Arabic imperfect verbs. The study revealed the significance of understanding the contextual references of Arabic imperfect construction before translating them into English.

Bounaas (2009) investigated the errors made by university students in translating the accompaniment complement (المفعول معه) from Arabic into English. The findings revealed that the absence of the accompaniment complement equivalent in English and the students' misunderstanding of its meaning lead to inappropriate translations.

Al-Ghazalli (2013) investigated the translation of implicit negation from Arabic into English. By implicit negatives, the author means sentences that are semantically negated by the presence of some adverbials, quantifiers, conjunctions, particles, etc. The study concluded that the linguistic differences between Arabic and English have made the translation of such constructions difficult.

Translators are sometimes forced to translate Arabic implicit negatives into English explicit negatives.

Abdelaal and Md Rashid (2016) dealt with grammar-related semantic losses in the translation of the Holy Qura'n, with special reference to Surah Al A'arāf (The Heights). The study showed that semantic losses occur in translating grammatical aspects such as conjunctions, syntactic order, duality, tense, and verbs.

Khafaji (1996) discussed the translation of passive voice from English into Arabic. The study concluded that only 25% of the passive verbs of the English source text (ST) were replaced by passive verbs in Arabic. Khafaji (1996) emphasized that Arabic is not a passive-avoiding language, but it utilizes various alternative avenues due to the rich morphological system of the Arabic verb and the relatively free word order of its sentences.

Khalil (1993) analyzed the problems involving the Arabic translations of English agentive passive sentences. A major problem encountered by Arab translators while translating such constructions has been the literal translation of the English by-agentive phrase into an Arabic equivalent by-agentive phrase. Such a rendition is not acceptable in standard Arabic and it is practiced under the influence of translation from European languages or due to the fact that such constructions are widely used in the Arab media.

Alqinai (2013) conducted a study on punctuations in Arabic and English and their translational implications. The study concluded that English punctuational marks are either deleted or substituted by Arabic lexical insertions in some cases. The study also concluded that the translation of such marks is likely to force the translator to realign meaning and reorder structure with a view to retaining the function of missing punctuation marks in the target text (TT).

Hence, the typological differences between Arabic and English make the achievement of plausible grammatical equivalence very challenging for STs as well as professional ones. Problems are likely to arise at different morphological and syntactic levels and they are not confined to the areas discussed in the afore-mentioned studies. The present study is therefore different from the above studies in that it attempts a taxonomy of those problems based on authentic texts that represent various genres and text typologies. In a sense, this study is an error analysis of STs' errors. However, instead of using traditional approaches and taxonomies such as Burt & Kipersk, (1974), Corder (1967) and Richards (1971), it adopts a different approach to the identification and analysis of translation errors/problems based on Halliday's Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG). We agree with Halliday et al. (1964: 119) that error analysis is useful for the construction of a purely descriptive framework to look at the analysis and notation of errors. Halliday et al. (1964) recommended that after the collection of errors, the diagnosis of such errors can be done either descriptively or comparatively. The two methods are employed in this study. An SFG classification of translation errors/problems will transcend the limitations of traditional morphosyntactic error analysis. The use of semantic metafunctions in the analysis of translation errors/problems is likely to change the way teachers, editors and revisors of translation analyze and interpret errors.

4. Theoretical Framework

The taxonomy proposed in this study is based on a multifaceted conceptual framework drawing on insights from Halliday's SFG (Butt et al., 2000; Eggins, 2004; Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Martin & Rose, 2003). SFG, according to Matthiessen (1995), views language as resource of several levels, namely, context, semantics, lexicogrammar, and phonology/graphology. The context level is an extra-linguistic level, and it includes both context of situation and context of culture. The context of situation refers to what is going on in the specific situation in which the text occurs and it can be analyzed through a register analysis of field, tenor, and mode. Field refers to what is being written about. Tenor refers to the social relationships involved in the text/speech. Mode refers to the form or channel of communication.

According to Halliday (1994: 35), a distinctive meaning is construed through three strands of meaning or metafunctions: ideational, interpersonal, and textual. The ideational metafunction is about the natural world and is concerned with clauses as representations. The interpersonal metafunction is concerned with clauses as exchanges. In other words, it deals with the social world, the relationship between text producer and text receiver. The textual metafunction, however, deals with the verbal world, and it is concerned with the clauses as messages. The metafunctions comprise the discourse semantics of a text and they are realized by the lexicogrammar. Besides, each metafunction is associated with one register variable (Eggins, 2004: 78) as follows:

- the field of a text is associated with ideational meaning, which is realized through transitivity patterns (verb types, active or passive structures, participants in the process, etc.);

- the tenor of a text corresponds to interpersonal meaning, which is realized through the patterns of modality (modal verbs and adverbs such as hopefully, should, possibly, and any evaluative lexis such as beautiful, dreadful);

- the mode of a text is associated with textual meaning, which is realized through the thematic and information structures (mainly the order and structuring of elements in a clause) and cohesion (the way the text hangs together lexically, including the use of pronouns, ellipsis, collocations, repetition, etc.) (Munday, 2001: 91).

In brief, each metafunction is realized through a particular system and those systems are associated with the situational aspects of register (Halliday, 1978, 1994). Kim (2007: 7) diagrammatically presents this correlation as in Figure 1.

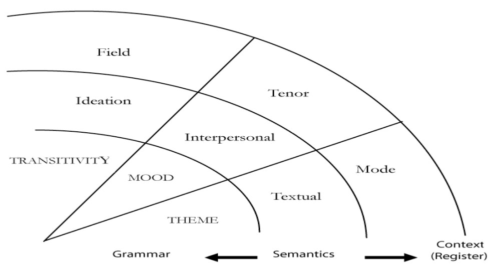

Figure 4.1 Grammar, Semantics and Context (Kim, 2007: 7)

In this study, we focus mainly on the lexico-grammatical stratum, which is defined by Matthiessen as follows:

> **Lexicogrammar**: Resource for wording meanings, that is, for realizing (expressing) them by means of structures and 'words' (more strictly, grammatical and lexical items), or wordings. Lexicogrammar includes lexis (vocabulary) as well as grammar in one unified system; lexis is interpreted as the most specific (delicate) part of grammar. Grammar includes morphology as well as syntax; the two are not stratally distinct (Matthiessen, 1995:5).

Syntactic structure in SFG is traditionally based around five grammatical units: sentence, clause, group, word, and morpheme. Those units are hierarchical in the sense that a textual sentence is likely to be made of a clause or a number of clauses, a clause complex. By the same token, a clause includes at least one phrase and more normally a (multivariate) phrase complex. Likewise, a phrase is likely to include smaller units such as a single (head) word or a word complex; and a word may comprise a morpheme or a morpheme complex (see Morley, 2000 for more details). As Droga and Humphrey (2003: 17) pointed out,

> It is the larger 'chunks' of language (like clauses, word groups and phrases) that form meaningful message structures. These larger units are the grammatical structures used to package or organize the resources of the language system in a way that helps us achieve the various purposes for which we use language.

Therefore, a clause in SFG is the minimum meaning unit. Clauses are further divided into functional constituents for each metafunction. The ideational meaning can be realized through the transitivity system, which consists of three functional constituents: Participant, Process, and Circumstance. Interpersonal meanings can be realized through the mood system, which includes subject and finite relations. Likewise, theme-rheme and subordination-coordination relations are essential for the analysis of the textual function or thematic meaning (for detailed descriptions of these concepts see (Butt et al., 2000; Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004).

A fourth sub-function is suggested by Halliday and it is known as the logico-semantic metafunction. In our analysis, logico-semantic problems will be discussed under the textual metafunction because Halliday (1994) "includes conjunction – the explicit signaling of logico-semantic relations between clauses in the textual metafunction, which would mean that it should correlate with mode" (Ghadessy, 1999: 105).

Thus, SFG can enable us to identify the problems the STs experience at the various metafunctional levels as well as the stratification and rank vectors. The application of SFG gives more systematic interpretation "why one expression sounds natural and another does not. It is the assumption of SFG that it should be possible to find such explanations, even if they are not obvious or easy to formulate" (Kim, 2007: 30).

5. Methodological Procedures

This study used elicitation tasks as the main tool for collecting data. Seven short texts representing several text types/genres were selected from the translation materials used by instructors of the Department of English, Faculty of Arts, Taiz University. STs did the tasks in normal classroom conditions over a period of three months and they had access to different bilingual and monolingual dictionaries. The total number of STs who participated in the study is 25. They have been in their final year of study. They were selected as subjects for this study based on their sound language skills. In addition, they have been studying English for ten years. At the time of conducting the elicitation tasks, the students had finished four obligatory modules (168 credit hours) in Arabic-English translation and vice-versa.

To allow them sufficient time to do the elicitation tasks, the selected texts were of suitable length to fit within the three-hour duration of the lecture.

With reference to the students' academic performance of the previous year, we observed that they were academically on par. Based on this observation and the fact that group work is the most preferred method used by STs at Taiz University, we divided the students into five groups, five STs each. Group work was also employed in the study because it is based on the transformational approach to learning process, and it can be very beneficial to students. It is a learning-centred approach that focuses on collaborative learning and exploration of the translation process (Davies, 2004: 14).

Each group was asked to get their translations typed to facilitate the process of marking and compiling our parallel corpus. The translations of the STs were marked using *Markin 4* software and a detailed feedback on each elicitation task was given to each group of STs on a weekly basis as is shown in Figure 2 below.

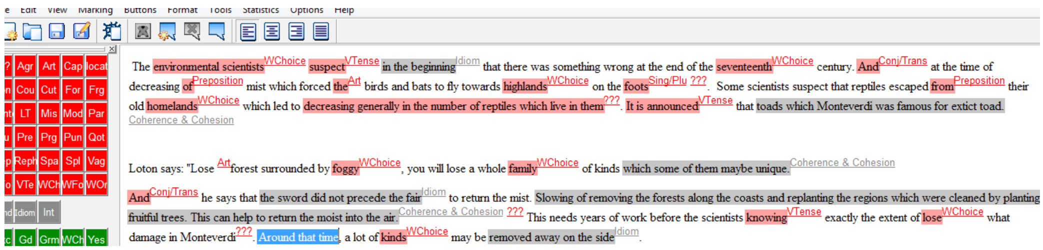

Figure 2. An example of a revised translation as marked in *Markin 4*.

All typed translations were collected from the STs and aligned with the source texts as is shown in Figure 3 below.

Translation 3	Translation 2	Translation 1	النص الأصلي
The environmentists doubt in the beginning that there is a wrong thing in the late seventies	The environmental scientists suspect in the beginning that there was something wrong at the end of the seventeenth century.	The scientists of environment had doubts in the beginning that there was a thing that was not right in the end of the seventies.	ساور علماء البيئة الشك بادئ ذي بدء في إن هنالك شيئا ما على غير ما يرام في أواخر السبعينات
They have observed a change in the system of the wildlife in Monteverdi.	when they observed a change in the habits of wild life in Monteverdi.	when they noticed change in habits of the wild life in Montverde.	عندما لاحظوا تغير في عادات الحياة البرية في مونت فردي
In the time when the mist or the fog shrinks, the birds and bats were forced to fly high	And at the time of decreasing of mist which forced the birds and bats to fly towards highlands on the foots	In the time in which the fog decreased, the birds and the bats were forced to flying towards higher places of highlands.	و في الوقت الذي تقلص فيه الضباب أجبرت الطيور و الخفافيش على الطيران نحو ارتفاعات أعلى بشكل مطرد على السفوح
Some scientists doubt that some reptiles escaped of their homes.	Some scientists suspect that reptiles escaped from their old homelands.	The scientists doubt that some reptiles escaped from their old homes.	و يشك العلماء في إن بعض الزواحف قد فرت من مواطنها القديمة
As a result of this, the number of reptiles decreased.	which led to decreasing generally in the number of reptiles which live in them.	That leads to the general decrease in the number of reptiles living in it.	مما أدى إلى ضمور عام في عدد الزواحف القاطنة فيها
The toad was declared in Monteverdi that was extinct.	It is announced that toads which Monteverdi was famous for extinct toad.	The Ulgum that was found in Montverde only was declared extinct.	و تم إعلان العلجوم الذي كانت مونت فردي تنفرد به منقرضاً .

Figure 3. A snapshot of the parallel corpus

Then, we used *Quirkos*, a computer-assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) for the coding and analysis of the corpus. The prefoliation of problems across different grammatical systems (i.e., transitivity, modality, theme-rheme) necessitates the use of a software to keep track on the categories in the translations of the five groups of STs. A mere alignment of the translations is hardly sufficient. *Quirkos* provides a graphical interface in which the nodes or themes of analysis (main problems in our context) are represented by bubbles as in Figure 4.

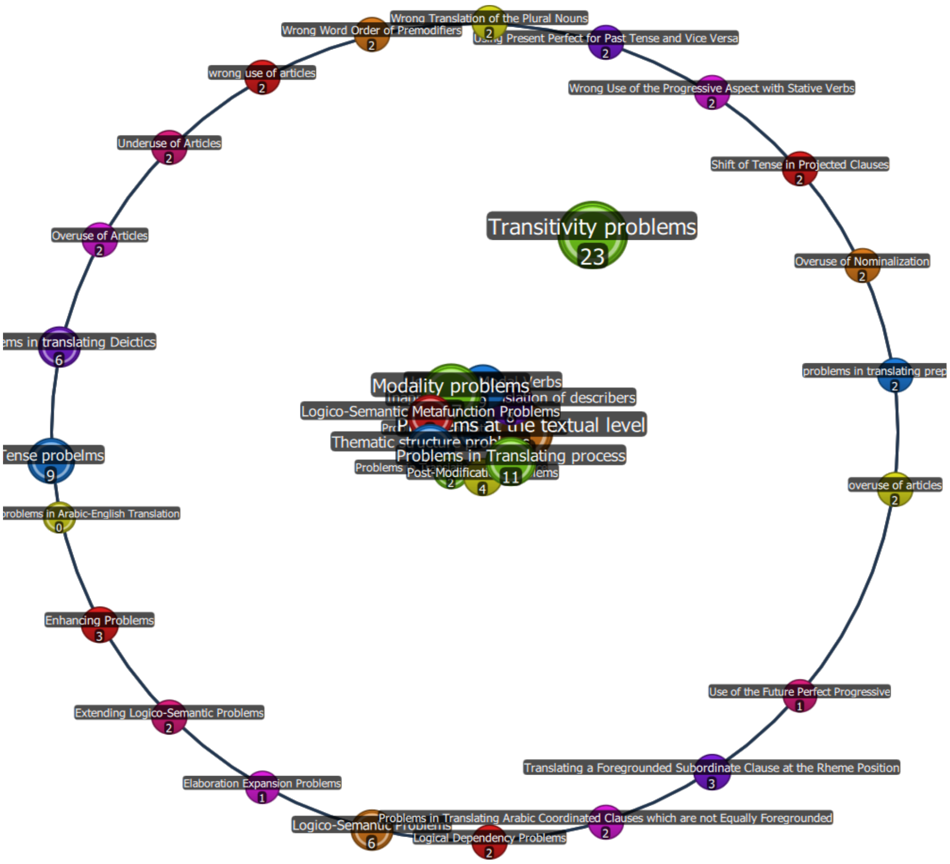

Figure 4. A *Quirkos* codifications of the translation problems in the parallel corpus

In our qualitative analysis of the examples given in the data analysis subsection in (6), we have followed the following procedures:

i - All problematic clauses and clauses complex were identified.

ii - Writing the source text in which a problem under investigation occurs and italicizing it.

iii - Transliterating the text.

iv - Giving the STs' translation(s) of the same text (i.e. the target text) with special focus on the problematic part under investigation.

v - Suggesting a more apt translation.

vi - Giving a critique on the STs' translation.

Therefore, the focus is on the grammatical problems in Arabic-English translation based on a corpus of authentic translated texts not from samples artificially composed.

6. Data Analysis

This subsection deals with the grammatical problems the STs encountered at the ideational, interpersonal, textual and logico-semantic metafunctions.

6.1 Transitivity Problems

According to Butt et al., (2000:52), the ideational metafunction of language is represented in grammar by clauses which consist of smaller experiential groups patterned to signify who did what to whom under what circumstances. The STs have experienced problems while translating some constituent functions of the experiential metafunction as shown below:

6.1.1. Problems in Translating Premodifications

A clause is divided into a participant, a process, and a circumstance. The participant(s) in a process is (are) realized in the grammar by nominal groups. The structure of premodification in a nominal group can be reflected by one of four groups: deictics, numeratives, epithets, and classifiers. Premodifications in a participant have posed some problems to the STs as follows:

6.1.1.1. Problems in Translating Deictics

Among the different categories of deictics, articles have posed several problems to the STs. Three types of problems recur:

6.1.1.1.1. Overuse of Articles

While translating the elicitation tasks, the STs have sometimes overused the articles, as shown in the following examples[1]:

(1a) has been translated as (1b) but (1c) is more appropriate.

(1a)	*fa*	*fī*	*l-waqt*	*taqallaṣ*	*fīhi*	*l-ḍabāb*	*ujbirat*	*l-ṭuyūr*
	And	in	the time	decreases	in it	the fog	forced	the birds

wa	al-khafāfīsh	ʿalā	l-ṭayrān.
and	the bats	on	the flying

(1b)	At the time of decreasing the fog, the birds and the bats were forced to fly.
(1c)	…birds and bats have been forced to fly.

The use of *the* in (1b) is unwarranted because the writer gives a general remark about birds and bats.

Another example is given in (2b).

(2a)	*tatahāwā*	*l-kutub*	*wa*	*l-aṭbāq*	*wa*	*l-ḥullī*	*min*
	fall	the books	and	the plates	and	the trinkets	from

ʿalā	l-rufūf.
on	the shelves

(2b)	*The* books, plates and jewelry on the shelves went up.
(2c)	Books, plates, and knick-knacks….

In this context, the writer does not refer to specific books, plates or knick-knacks and thus the use of the demonstrative deictic *the* is unwarranted.

6.1.1.1.2. Underuse of Articles

The STs have underused the articles in several instances. They have translated, for example, (3a) as (3b), while (3c) is more grammatically appropriate.

[1] In each case (xa) is used to refer to the original text, (xb) to the STs' translation and (xc) and in a few instances (xd) to the alternative translation(s) given by us. In each case, the original text is also followed by a literal translation.

(3a)	*lāḥaẓū*	*taghyīr*	*fī…*
	noticed they	change	in
(3b)	they notice change.		
(3c)	they noticed *a* change…		

The STs have incorrectly underused the indefinite article *a* that functions as a non-specific pointer in (3b).

6.1.1.1.3. Wrong Use of Articles

Sometimes the STs have incorrectly used articles as reflected in (4b) and (5b) respectively.

(4a)	*ka*	*wathīqah*	*min*	*wathā'iq*	*majlis*	*al-amn.*
	as	a document	from	documents	council	the security
(4b)	…as a document of *a* Security Council documents.					
(4c)	…as a document of the Security Council.					

The use of *a* in (4b) is wrong. The text refers to the Security Council affiliated to the United Nations and thus the demonstrative deictic *the* should be used.

(5a)	*An*	*tafqid*	*ghābah*	*yaksūhā*	*l-ḍabāb, …*
	That	you lose	forest	covers it	the fog
(5b)	Lose a forest surrounded by *a* fog, …				
(5c)	Lose a forest covered with fog, …				

In (5b), the STs have incorrectly used the indefinite article *a* before the uncountable noun *fog*. Thus, the STs have experienced problems in rendering articles which may be attributed to the structural differences between Arabic and English. While English has two articles, Arabic has only one article, i.e., *al* which, like *the,* is used to express definiteness. Its absence, however, is a sign of indefiniteness. However, the cause for such problems may not be solely attributed to this factor. Tan (2004: 5) points out that people at large "de-emphasize the role of articles, thinking that it is immaterial to the meaning of a sentence […] The fact, however, is that, under circumstances, the choices or use of an article will affect the meaning of a sentence".

6.1.1.2. Wrong Word Order of Premodifiers

Sometimes more than one premodifier can occur before the noun head. In such a case, the normal order can be *deictic numerative epithet classifier* (Butt et al., 2000: 53). This sequence of premodifiers can be problematic to STs as is clear from (6a) which has been translated by some STs as (6b).

(6a)	*quwwāt*	*Amrīkiyyah*	*khāṣṣah*
	forces	American	special
(6b)	*American special* forces.		
(6c)	special American troops.		

In (6b), the classifier precedes the epithet, which is wrong. The problem is more serious when more than two modifiers appear in a clause. This problem may also be attributed to the fact that Arabic, unlike English, does not restrict the order of modifiers in a clause.

6.1.1.3. Wrong Translation of the Plural Nouns

One of the problems that the STs have encountered while translating noun heads is that some nouns are either singular or plural in Arabic but only singular in English. The STs, for instance, have translated (7a) as (7b) but (7c) is more accurate.

(7a)	*…al-ʿatād*	*al-ḥāsūbī*
	the equipment (plural)	the computerized
(7b)	computer *equipments*	
(7c)	computer equipment	

The STs have rendered *al-ʿatād*, that is always plural in Arabic, as *equipments*, which is wrong. *Equipment* is an uncountable singular noun in English and thus it does not have a plural form.

6.1.2 Process Problems

Process is typically realized in English and Arabic grammar by verbal groups which "models the experience of eventness – whatever is happening, acting, doing, sensing, saying or simply being" (Butt et al., 2000: 55). The STs have experienced some problems while translating the process of a clause as follows:

6.1.2.1. Tense Problem

Processes can be regarded as "phenomena that unfold in time and hence have a tense system" (Matthiessen & Halliday, 2009). The STs have faced several problems in the rendition of the tense systems as is clear from the examples below:

6.1.2.1.1. Using Present Perfect for Past Tense and Vice Versa

The translation of the present perfect can be very confusing. The STs, for instance, have translated (8a) as (8b), while (8c) is more appropriate.

(8a)	*ʿāsha*	*qarāwiyyū*	*Sīnjādārah*	*wa*	*Ghurbāndārah*	*bi-*	*Salām*
	lived	villagers	Singadarah	and	Gorbandarah	with	peace

nisbī	ʿalā	l-jabal	al-ajrad	nafsih	wa	l-wāqiʿ
relative	on	the mountain	the barren	itself	and	located

shimāl	Kābūl	mundhu	zaman	ajdād	ajdādihim.
North	Kabul	since	time	grandfathers	grandfathers their

(8b)	Singadarah and Gorbandarah villagers *lived* peacefully on the barren mountain itself since the age of their forefathers.
(8c)	The villagers of Sinjadarah and Gorbandarah *have lived* in relative peace…since the time of their great grandfathers.

What the writer wants to convey is that the residents of the two villages have lived in relative peace during the time of their forefathers and they have continued to live in harmony for years and perhaps for centuries. However, the use of the simple past in (8b) implies that the two villages lived peacefully in a specific time period which came to an end. Thus, it is more apt to use the present perfect in this context rather than the simple past tense.

6.1.2.1.2. Wrong Use of the Progressive Aspect with Stative Verbs

Some verbs are stative in that they describe a state or condition as opposed to material verbs which are dynamic. These verbs are rarely used in the present continuous. The STs, however, have sometimes used stative verbs in the progressive, as is clear from the following examples:

(9a)	*wa*	*mā*	*tadrī*	*nafs*	*mādhā*	*taksib*	*ghadan*
	and	never	know	soul	what	earns	tomorrow
(9b)	No soul *is knowing* what will earn tomorrow…						
(9c)	No soul *knows* what it will earn tomorrow.						

In (9b), the STs have incorrectly used the progressive aspect with the mental process verb *know*. Likewise, *see* is also a stative verb which the STs have incorrectly used in (10b).

(10a)	*lākinnanī*	*arā*	*fī*	*Kull*	*ʿayn*	*min*	*ʿuyūnikum*	*arā*
	but I	See	in	Every	eye	from	eyes your	I see

l-qawmiyyyah	al-ʿArabiyyah	tanṭaliq.
the nationalism	the Arab	coming forth

(10b)	…but I am *seeing* the Arab Nationalism shining of your eyes.
(10c)	…but I *see* Arab Nationalism in your eyes.

Here, the STs have incorrectly used the progressive aspect with the perception mental process verb *see.* The clause can be best rendered as (10c).

6.1.2.1.3. Use of the Future Perfect Progressive

Another problem the STs have experienced is the use of the future perfect progressive in English. (11a) has been translated by the STs as (11b), but (11c) is more accurate.

(11a)	*Wa*	*lākin*	*bi-*	*ḥulūl*	*dhālik*	*al-waqt*	*fa*	*inna*
	and	but	by	the coming	that	the time	then	surely

l-ʿadīd	min	al-anwāʿ	yumkin	an takūn	qad	uzīḥat	jāniban.
the several	from	the species	perhaps	may be	indeed	put	aside

(11b)	…but at that time many kinds *may go aside*.
(11c)	…but by that time, many species *will/may have gone by the wayside*.

Here, the text intends that some species will be extinct before ecologists even realize the extent of the great damage that has afflicted Monteverdi. Thus, the use of the future perfect as in (11c) is more apt in this context as it implies the completion of the action.

6.1.2.1.4. Shift of Tense in Projected Clauses

While reporting what someone else said or thought at a different time from the present, the STs have experienced difficulty in rendering the tense. The STs, for instance, have translated (12a) as (12b), but (12c) sounds more accurate.

(12a)	*fa*	*fī*	*l-qaryah*	*al-mujāwirah*	*akhbaranā*	*ʿashrat*	*rijāl*
	and	in	the village	the nearby	told us	ten	men

ākharīn	bi-annahum	jāhizūn	li-	l-inḍimām	ilaynā.
other	that they	ready	to	joining	us

(12b)	In the next village, someone told us that ten other men *are* ready to join to us.
(12c)	In a nearby village ten more men told us they *were* ready to join us.

Although there is no shift in mood choice between (12b) and (12c) as both are declarative, the tense choice undergoes a radical change. The tense choice should be made "in relation to the context of the report, not of the original speech events" (Thompson, 2004:210). It is, therefore, more appropriate to use the simple past rather than the present in the projected clause.

6.1.2.2. Overuse of Nominalization

Nominalization can be defined as the change of a process into a nominal. It is a transitivity feature that backgrounds "the process itself - its tense and modality are not indicated - and usually not specifying its participants, so that who is doing what to whom is left implicit" (Fairclough, 1993:179). Sometimes, the STs have inappropriately nominalized a clause where an event or happening can be appropriately packaged as a process rather than a participant, as is clear from the following examples:

(13a) has been translated as (13b) but (13c) is more suitable.

(13a)	*lākin*	*maʿa*	*Istimrār*	*al-qaṣf*	*al-Amrīkī*	*Hunāk*
	but	with	continuation	the bombing	the American	There

dalāʾil	ʿalā anna	l-daʿm	al-shaʿbī	li-Ṭāliban	fī
proofs	on that	the support	the people	to Taliban	in

Ghurbāndārah	wa	Ghayrihā	ʿalā	imtidād	Afghānistān	bi-lā shak
Gorbandarah	and	others	on	along	Afghanistan	undoubtedly

ākhidh	fī	l-tabakhkhur.
taking	in	the evaporating

(13b)	But with the continuation of the American bombing, there are indications that the folk support to Taliban in Gorbandarah and in other villages along Afghanistan is becoming evaporation.
(13c)	But there are indications that as American bombing continues, grass-roots support for the Ṭaliban in Ghurbāndārah and similar villages throughout Afghanistan is undoubtedly evaporating.

The excessive use of nominalization in (13b) is inappropriate in this context. It would be more appropriate to keep the process of the clause, instead of using the thing as an established fact. Although it is not wrong to use nominalization here, it weakens the clarity of the translated text.

6.1.3. Post-Modification Problems

A post-modification's function is to qualify the thing in more detail. It is functionally labeled as a *qualifier* and it gives more details about the thing by means of a clause or a prepositional phrase. A post-modification clause does not have an independent status as a clause because it functions as a qualifier within a group and it is called an embedded clause.

6.1.3.1. Problems in Translating Embedded Clauses

While translating post-modification from Arabic into English, the STs have faced certain problems in translating embedded clauses in general and defining relative clauses in particular[1]. (14a), for example, has been translated as (14b) but (14c) is more accurate.

[1] Not all relative clauses are embedded clauses. Examples of such clauses will be discussed later under the logico-semantic problems.

(14a)	*wa*	*yatazaḥzaḥ*	*aʿdā’*	*ʿAbd al-Qayyūm*	*al-sābiqīn*	*li- tawfīr*
	and	budge	enemies	ʿAbd al-Qayyūm	the former	to provide

makān	al-ṣadārah	qurb	miṣbāḥ	al-kīrūsīn	al-waḥīd	fī
place	the central	near	lamp	the kerosene	the single	in

wasaṭ	al-ghurfah.
middle	the room

(14b)	The former foes of Abdul-Qayoam moved to give him the best place *which is near the only light in the middle of the room…*
(14c)	ʿAbd al-Qayyūm’s former enemies budge to give him pride of place *by the single kerosene lamp in the middle of the room.*

In (14b), the use of the prepositional embedded clause ‘near…’ sounds natural. However, the overuse of the relative clause ‘which is …’ to qualify ‘the pride of place’ looks odd in this context.

6.1.3.2. Problems in Translating Circumstance

The function of a circumstance in a clause is to illuminate the process in some way. It may locate the process in time or space or suggest how the process occurs (Butt et al., 2000: 56). English, as well as Arabic, construct a model of circumstance in two ways: the adverbial groups and the prepositional phrase. In fact, prepositions, whether they occur in the circumstance or in the process (i.e., in phrasal verbs) can be very challenging for the translators. The STs have experienced problems in translating prepositions[1] in the elicitation tasks. In some cases, they have underused and overused prepositions. In other cases, they have used the wrong prepositions. (15a), for example, has been translated as (15b), but (15c) is more accurate.

(15a)	*fa*	*dakhala*	*fī*	*l-naʿsh*	*wa*	*taghaṭṭā*	*bi- l-shurāʿ.*
	then	he entered	in	the coffin	and	covered himself	with the sheet
(15b)	He entered *in* the coffin.						
(15c)	…entered the coffin/got into the coffin.						

In (15b), the preposition *in* has been overused. As opposed to (15a), in which the use of the preposition *fī*, the equivalent of *in*, can be used after the verb *dakhala,* ‘entered’ in (15b) does not need a preposition in this context. *Enter into*, however, can be used as a phrasal verb in the sense of ‘taking part’ or ‘engage’ (e.g. ‘enter into a contract’), but not in the sense of ‘having a shelter inside something’.

An example of the use of wrong preposition is given in (16b).

[1] Prepositions, whether they occur in the circumstance or part of the process (i.e., in phrasal verbs), pose the same problems in Arabic-English translation.

(16a)	*wa qad*	*itahama*	*sīnātūr*	*ʿalā l-aqall*	*Ūriyū*	*bi- l-khiyānah.*
	And indeed	accused	senator	at least	*Ūriyū*	with the treason
(16b)	At least one senator had accused Arui *with* disloyalty.					
(16c)	One senator, at least, accused Orio *of* treason.					

The use of *with* after *accused* is wrong in (16b). *Accused of* is a more accurate and idiomatic phrasal verb.

6.2. Modality problems

Problems at the interpersonal metafunction are not as prevalent as ideational problems. The scarcity of interpersonal problems may be attributed to the nature of the texts under investigation. In fact, the texts under investigation mostly use declarative clauses with different types of processes but very few model finites. However, this does not mean that the texts are devoid of interpersonal roles or the translated texts have not included interpersonal problems. The STs have faced the following problems:

6.2.1. Use of the Modal Verbs

Halliday (1994) states that modality is a resource that sets up a semantic space between *yes* and *no*, a cline running between positive and negative poles (Martin & Rose, 2003: 48). Sometimes the STs have translated the modal verb in such a way that the translation has led to a shift of interpersonal meaning. (17a), for example, has been translated as (17b), but (17c) preserves the interpersonal meaning better.

(17a)	*Wa*	*yaqūl*	*Lūtūn,*	*"ikhsar*	*ghābah*	*yaktanifuhā*	*al-ḍabāb*	*fa*
	And	says	Loton	lose	forest	covered with	the fog	then

takhsar	ʿāʾilah	kāmilah	min	al- anwāʿ	baʿḍuhā	qad	yakūn
lose	family	entire	from	the kinds	some	may	be

farīd	min	nawʿih."
rare	from	kind its

(17b)	Loton says, "losing a covered forest with fog, losing whole family from different kinds, some of which is unique.
(17c)	"Lose a cloud forest and you will lose a whole family of species, some of which may be unique," says Loton.

The finite of the clause *qad yakūn farīd min nawʿih* calls for an indication of modality of probability or possibility, and it should be rendered as such in English. However, the STs have incorrectly translated it as a factual statement by using *is* as the finite of the clause in (17b). In other words, the modality of the original text that has been used to negotiate information (Martin & Rose, 2003: 48) has been rendered as an assertive fact in (17b), while it should be rendered as an argument that allows an element of doubt. This shift of modality creates a wrong message in the target text.

Similarly, the STs have translated (18a) as (18b), but (18c) is more appropriate.

(18a)	*…inna*	*ʿadāwāt*	*al-ʿaqd*	*al-māḍī*	*yanbaghī*	*an tantahī*	*qarīban.*
	Surely	enmities	the decade	the last	must	end	soon
(18b)	The hostility of the last decade *should* be ended soon.						
(18c)	…the enmities of the last decade *must be* ended soon.						

In (18a), *yanbaghī* implies certainty or logical necessity and compulsion. Thus, *must* is more appropriate in this context than *should* which, although it expresses an obligation, such obligation may not be fulfilled (Leech & Svartvik, 1994: 164). In other words, arguing that 'something must be the case' is more assertive than 'something should be the case' because modality in the former occupies a higher position in the scale of positive polarity than the latter (Martin & Rose, 2003: 49). For the speaker, all Afghans are obliged to reconcile and get rid of all the enmities of the last decade.

Another example is given in (19b).

(19a)	*wa*	*hādhihi*	*l-qābiliyyah*	*li -l-taʿallum*	*min*	*al-khibrāt*
	and	this	the capacity	for the learning	from	the experiences

al-sābiqah	tuṭīḥ	li- jamīʿ	al-ḥayawānāt	an tatakayyaf	maʿā	ʿālam.
the previous	enable	for all	the animals	to adapt	with	world

muʿaqqad	wa	dāʾīm al-taghyīr.
complex	and	ever-changing

(19b)	This capability to learn from previous experiences *may enable* the animals to adapt with changing and complex world.
(19c)	This aptitude to learn from previous experiences *enable*s all animals to adapt to a complex and ever-changing world.

While the Arabic clause expresses a factual statement, the STs have used the modal *may* which suggests possibility and uncertainty.

6.2.2. Inappropriate translation of describers

Appraisal emotional adjectives and adverbs have been sometimes inappropriately translated by the STs as we see in (20-22).

(20a)	*Al-māʾ*	*sāʾil*	*lā*	*laun*	*lahu*	*wa lā*	*ṭaʿm*	*wa lā*	*rāʾiḥa*
	the water	liquid	no	colour	for it	and no	taste	and no	smell
(20b)	Water is a liquid which does not have any color, or tastes or smell.								
(20c)	Water is a colorless, tasteless and odorless liquid.								

In (20b), the STs have rendered the three describers as a relative clause that qualifies the word *sāʾil*. The use of the three describers in (20c) seems more idiomatic in this context. Similarly, the expression *wasaṭ sakanī* in (21a), has been translated as a relative clause, even though the use of the expression *habitual medium* is a plausible equivalent describer to the Arabic expression.

(21a)	*yaʿshaq*	*al-insān*	*al-taghyīr*	*wa lau*	*wajda*	*wasaṭ*	*sakanī*
	love	the man	the change	and if	find	medium	habitual

ʿla	ḍahr	al-marīkh	la-sakanah
On	board	the Mars	lives in it

(21b)	Man loves to change and if he finds *a place in which he can stay* on Mars, he will live there.
(21c)	Man loves change. Should he find *a habitable medium* on Mar, he would settle there.

Similarly, *qarīr al-bāl* in (22a) can also be better rendered as an adverb (i.e., *peacefully*) rather than a prepositional phrase (i.e., *with a peace of mind)*.

(22a)	*Nām*	*al-rajl*	*qarīr*	*al-bāl*	*baʿda ʿan*	*sāʿda*	*jarahu*
	slept	the man	peace	the mind	after	helped	his neighbor
(22b)	He slept *with a peace of mind* after he helped his poor neighbor.						
(22c)	Having helped his poor neighbor, the man had slept *peacefully*.						

6.3. Thematic Structure Problems

In so far as the thematic structure is concerned, the basic problems encountered by the STs are:

6.3.1 Translating a Foregrounded Subordinate Clause at the Rheme Position

One of the theme-rheme problems that the STs have faced is the translation of a foregrounded subordinate clause at the rheme position. Subordination in Arabic and English is a type of syntactic cohesion between clauses that do not bear equal status at both the syntactic and propositional levels. From a syntactic point of view, a subordinate clause is incapable of standing as a separate sentence and from a propositional perspective, it has a secondary informational content; it either modifies, amplifies, or forms part of the dominant proposition expressed by the main clause.

In both Arabic and English, subordinate clauses at the rheme position are usually expected to "convey information which is both backgrounded and relatively unpredictable" (Dickins et al., 2002: 122). But this is not always the case because a subordinate clause at the rheme position may convey information that is not only unpredictable but also foregrounded. The translation of such type of clauses has posed certain problems to the STs as is obvious from the following examples:

(23a)	*Inna*	*l-tarjamah*	*al-āliyyah*	*aw*	*MT*	*kamā*	*yurmaz*
	Surely	the translation	the machine	or	*MT*	as	referred

ilayhā	aḥyānan	hiya	min	ʾakthar	furūʿ	ḥaql	al-dhakāʾ
to it	sometimes	it is	from	the most	branches	filed	the intelligence

al-iṣṭināʿī	takhallufan	idh	yakfī	wurūd	ism	ʿalam	fī
the artificial	underdeveloped	since	suffice	occurrence	noun	proper	In

l-naṣṣ	ʾaw	baʿḍ	taʿbīrat	muṣāgha	bi-ʿināyah	li-taḍlīl
the text	or	some	expressions	crafted	with care	to mislead

barāmij	al-tarjamah	bi-shakl	tāmm.
programs	the translation	in shape	complete

(23b)	The automatic translation or MT, as indicated sometimes, is the most underdeveloped branch of artificial intelligence field, *when* it is enough the mention a name in the text, or some phrases formed carefully, to mislead the automatic translation programmes totally.
(23c)	Machine translation, or MT as it is commonly known, is one of the most underdeveloped fields of artificial intelligence. A proper name or a few well-formed phrases are sufficient to mislead the MT software completely.

Here, the subordinate clause at the rheme position (*idh yakfī …*) is not only unpredictable but also foregrounded. It gives clear evidence of the failure of MT to cope with the capabilities of human translators. In (23b), the STs have inappropriately backgrounded the clause with *when*, which hardly makes sense in this context. It would be more appropriate if the subordinate clause at the rheme position is relayed as a separate clause in English as in (23c).

6.3.2 Problems in Translating Arabic Coordinated Clauses which are not Equally Foregrounded

In fact, Arabic uses coordinating conjunction extensively in a text. The use of coordination implies that the propositions given by the relevant clauses are foregrounded and equal. However, it may happen that a coordination clause serves a propositionally-backgrounded function. This type of clauses could be problematic in translation. (24a), for example, has been translated as (24b) but (24c) is more acceptable.

(24a)	*wa*	*istamarra*	*nuzūl*	*al-ghayth*	*wa*	*hādhā*	*l-rajul*	*al-thānī*
	and	continued	fall	the rain	and	this	the man	the second

yaẓunn	annahu	waḥdahu	fī	ẓahr	al-sayyārah	wa	fajʾatan	yukhrij
thinks	that	alone	in	board	the car	and	suddenly	takes out

hadhā	l-rajul	yadahu	min	al-naʿsh.
this	the man	hand his	from	the coffin

(24b)	The rain continued to fall and the second man is thinking he is alone on the back of the car, suddenly the man got his hand out to check whether it stopped or still raining…
(24c)	While it continued to rain, the second passenger thought he was alone in the truck and all of a sudden the man in the coffin …..

Although (*wa istamarra nuzūl al-ghayth*) and (*wa hādhā al-rajul…)* are coordinated clauses, they are not equally foregrounded. In (24b), the STs have foregrounded the two clauses in their translations on the misconception that they hold equal status. In this context, the fact that it continued to rain is well-known to the reader. Therefore, introducing the clause with the subordinating conjunction *while* as in (24c) looks more natural in English.

6.4. Logico-Semantic Metafunction Problems

The STs have sometimes translated clauses in such a way that the logical metafunction between clauses is disturbed. That is, the relation between clauses is illogical. According to Halliday & Matthiessen (2004: 373), two dimensions within clauses should be considered: logical dependency and logico-semantic relations. The former is concerned with whether a clause is dependent on or dominates another and the latter is concerned with the conjunctive relations between clauses. Problems at the logico-semantic metafunction can be categorized under two sub-headings:

6.4.1. Logical Dependency Problems

A common logical dependency problem encountered by the STs is the inappropriate use of parataxis. Parataxis and hypostasis is one of the pairs that "have come to play a major role in Halliday's later model of grammar- and especially in the framework that he uses for analyzing text-sentences in IFG" (Fawcett, 2000: 26). Parataxis simply means "putting" the clauses "side-by-side with no obvious cohesive links" (Fawcett, 1997: 96). The STs have sometimes unjustifiably underused cohesive devices. In other words, they tend to use parataxis where hypostasis is necessary. (25a), for instance, has been translated as (25b) whereas (25c) is more acceptable.

(25a)	*wa*	*min*	*al-ẓalām*	*yaẓhur*	*shakhṣ*	*bi-ʿimāmah*	*wa*
	and	from	the darkness	appears	person	with turban	and

ka-annahu	*taʾkīd*	*ʿalā*	*tanabbuʾāt*	*Bīgh.*	*Innahu*	*ʿAbd alQayyūm*
as if	confirmation	about	predictions	Beigh	It is	*ʿAbd alQayyūm*

wa aḥad	*mawālīd*	*al-qaryah*	*wa*	*bi- ṣuḥbatih*	*zawjatah*	*wa*
and one	natives	the village	and	with his company	wife his	and

Ibnahu	*dhū*	*al-sanawāt*	*al-arbaʿah*	*li-l-inḍimām*	*li- taḥāluf*
son his	Of	the years	the four	for joining	for coalition

al-shimāl.	*Wa*	*yatazaḥzaḥ*	*aʿdā*	*ʿAbd al-Qayyūm*	*al-sābiqīn*
the north	and	move	foes	*ʿAbd al-Qayyūm*	the former

li-tawfīr	*makān*	*al-ṣadārah*	*lahu*	*qurb*	*miṣbāh*	*al-kirusīn*
for providing	place	the pride	for him	near	lamp	the kerosene

al-waḥīd	*fi*	*wasaṭ*	*al-ghurfah*	*wa yajlib*	*Lahu*	*Khādim*	*al-shāyʾ*
the single	In	middle	the room	and brought	to him	servant	the tea

wa	*l-khubz*	*wa*	*yaqūl...*
and	the bread	and	says he

(25b)	From darkness someone appears by turban. It was emphasis for Beigh's predications. He is Abdul-Qauoam; he is 25 years old. He came with his wife and his daughter … they came to enter the alliance north. The enemies of Abdul Al-Qauoam budge to ensure a place for him near alone gaslight in the middle of the room. The servant brings him tea and bread.
(25c)	As a confirmation to Beigh's predictions, a person with a turban appeared from the darkness. It is ʿAbd al-Qayyūm, a 25-year-old and one of the locals who came with his wife and four-year-old child to join the Northern Alliance. His former enemies shift on their cushions to give him pride of place beside the single kerosene lamp in the middle of the room; a servant serves him tea and bread.

While (25a) includes eight connectives. The STs' version is almost devoid of any connectives. They have split the text and underused the connectives including 'and' throughout. This inappropriate use of parataxis disturbs the logical dependency relation between the clauses, and it gives the impression that all clauses are equal syntactically (i.e., all are dominant clauses) and informationally (i.e., all are foregrounded) while some clauses are dependent on others. An appropriate translation would read as (25c), where one hypotactic connective and three paratactic ones have been used.

6.4.2. Logico-Semantic Problems

Two basic logico-semantic relations exist between clauses: expansion and projection (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 377). In case of expansion, one clause expands on the meaning of another in various ways. It may elaborate, extend, or enhance the other clause(s). In projection, on the other hand, "one clause projects another in the sense that it indicates that the other clause is a 'second-order' use of language; i.e., that, in the prototypical cases what is said in the projected clause has already been said somewhere else" (Thompson, 2004: 203). Examining the clauses in combination in the translations of the STs has highlighted the following problems:

6.4.2.1. Elaboration Expansion Problems

An example of this logico-semantic problem can be found in (26a), which has been translated by the STs as (26b) but (26c) is more accurate.

(26a)	*wa*	*Tamma*	*iʿlān*	*al-ʿuljūm*	*Bīfu Berīglenes*	*wa-*
	and	completed	announcement	the toad	*Beefo beriglenes*	and

kānat	Montverdī	tatafarrad	bi-hi	munqariḍ
was	Montverdi	unique	in it	Extinct

(26b)	And it was announced that the bright toad was extincting *which Montverdi was unique with*.
(26c)	The golden toad (Bufo Periglenes), *which was unique to Montverdi*, has been declared extinct.
(26d)	The golden toad (Bufo Periglenes) has been declared extinct; it was unique to Montverdi.

In (26a), the expanding logico-semantic relation between clauses is one of elaboration. Although (*kānat Montverdi tanfarid bi-hi*) does not add any essentially new element to the message, it gives more information

[4] The common problem in translating projection is the inappropriate use of the tense in the projected clause which has been discussed under the process problems in 6.1.2.

about the golden toad. Although the STs have retained the relationship, they have used the hypotactic elaboration clause or the non-defining relative clause incorrectly. While the non-defining relative clause should immediately follow the participant (i.e., the golden toad) and thus it represents a kind of interpolation, suspending the dominant clause temporarily, the STs have translated it in such a way that the elaboration seems to refer to the whole of the preceding clause. It would be more acceptable had the STs maintained the elaboration relation as in (26c) or paratactically as in (26d).

6.4.2.2. Extending Logico-Semantic Problems

Extending logico-semantic relations in Arabic clauses have caused some problems to the STs. The overuse of 'and', for example, has created several problems for them. This is partly because English and Arabic have different connective systems. Arabic, for example, tends to have long sentences connected by a basic connective such as *wa*, *thumma* and *fa* or by a secondary connective like *ḥaythu*. While translating such connectives, the STs have sometimes overused these connectives by translating them literally and thus the translations seem very exotic to the target reader as is clear from the following example:

(27a)	*Wa*	*yaqūl*	*inna*	*al-sayf*	*Lam*	*yasbiq*	*al-ʿadhl*
	and	says he	surely	the sword	Not	precede	the blame

li-	iʿādat	al-ḍabab	fa	ibṭāʾ	izālat	al-ghābāt	ʿalā imtidād
to	restore	the fog	and	slowing	removing	the forests	along

al-sawāḥil	wa	iʿādat	zirāʿat	al-manāṭiq	allatī
the coasts	and	repeating	planting	the areas	which

tamma	tanẓīfuhā	bi- ashjār	muthmirah	yumkin	an yusāʿid
completed	clearing them	with trees	fruitful	can	to help

fī	iʿādat	al-ruṭūbah	ilā	l-hawāʾ	wa	sa-yataṭallab	al-amr
in	restoring	the moisture	to	the air	and	will require	the matter

sanawāt	Min	al-ʿamal	qabl an	yaʿlam	alʿulamāʾ	bi l-ḍabṭ
years	from	the work	before	know	the scientists	exactly

madā	fadāḥat	mā	sayakūn	ʿalayh	al-ḍarar	bi- Montverdi.
extent	great	what	be	on it	the damage	on Montverdi

wa lā-kin	bi- ḥulūl	dhālik	al-waqt	yumkin	an takūn	l-ʿadīd
but	the coming	that	the time	may	have been	several

min	al-anwāʿ	qad	uzīḥat	jāniban.
from	the species	indeed	brushed	aside

(27b)	{And} he says the time is not over to get back the fog. The slowing of removing the forests along of beaches {and} the replacing the areas which had been cleaned with fruitful trees may help to return the humidity to the air. {And} this thing will require long years of work before the scientists know exactly the level of damage that caused in Montverdi but by that time a lot of kinds could go aside.
(27c)	Time is not over, he says, to restore the clouds. Decreasing deforestation along the coastal areas {and} replanting cleared areas with fruit trees could help to restore moisture to the air. However, it will take years of work before scientists realize how severe the damage will be to Montverdi. By that time, several species may have gone by the wayside.

In so far as conjunctions are concerned, the STs have replaced each *wa* in Arabic with *and* in English which clashes with the English discourse and thus the translation seems exotic to the target reader. For the cohesion of the text, only the second *and* in (27b) should be retained.

6.4.2.3. Enhancing Problems

An enhancing clause specifies an aspect of the dominant clause such as time, reason, condition, etc. In function, it can be similar to adjuncts. The STs have also faced some problems while translating clauses that enhance others. (28a), for example, has been translated as (28b) but (28c) is more accurate.

(28a)	Lam	*taṣilanā*	*al-silaʿ*	*al-maṭlūbah*	*maʿa*	*annakum*
	did not	arrive us	the items	the ordered	although	you (pl.)

afadtumūnā	bi-khiṭābikum	al-muʾarrakh […]	bi-wusūl	ṭalabinā
informed us	in letter your	dated	with arrival	order our

raqam […]	wa qad	awshaka	al-shahr	al-ḥālī	ʿalā	l-intihāʾ.
number	and indeed	about	the month	the present	to	end

(28b)	The goods requested did not arrive yet, *while* you said in your letter dated … that our order was sent and this month is about to end.
(28c)	*Although* our order no. x was acknowledged in your letter dated … and it is almost month-end, the products have not yet arrived.

In (28a), the first clause expands on the meaning of the second through enhancement. That is, the first clause adds specification concerning the concessive aspect of the dominant clause. Thus, this relation may be signaled by a conjunction such as ‘although’. However, in (28b) the STs have used *while* that can function as a hypotactic extension, rather than a hypotactic enhancement conjunction.

7. Conclusion and Possible Extensions

It is clear from the analysis given above that the STs have experienced several stratification and rank problems and have used many words, phrases, and syntactic forms, which are either wrong or inappropriate. They have experienced problems while translating some constituent functions of the experiential metafunction. While translating the participants of a clause, one of the problems that were found is the translation of articles. Apart from the wrong use of articles, STs have sometimes overused and underused them. Arabic does not have any indefinite articles and it excessively uses the definite articles.

The use of more than one modifier before a noun head in a clause can also be problematic. Arabic, unlike English, does not restrict the order of modifiers in a clause. In addition, number creates some problems for the STs in cases where a noun head is either a singular or plural in Arabic but it is only singular in English.

While translating the process of a clause, STs encountered several problems in translating tenses. That is attributed to the cross-linguistic variation in tense systems between Arabic and English. Although the Arabic perfect and imperfect tenses are remarkably parallel to the English past and present, the two languages differ significantly in terms of aspect. Verbs in English have two aspects: the perfect aspect and the progressive aspect. The present perfect which describes an action that started in the past and continued into the present is expressed in Arabic by the present tense. The preposition *mundhu* is used to specify at which point in the past the action started. This interprets why the STs sometimes wrongly translated the present perfect as a simple past. As far as the progressive aspect is concerned, the present is used in Arabic for both continuous and habitual actions and states.

Sometimes, the STs' inclination towards overgeneralization has led to some hypercorrection errors such as the use of the progressive aspect with stative verbs like 'knowing' and 'seeing'. The use of the progressive and perfect aspects such as future perfect progressive is even more problematic. Arabic uses the simple present in such cases as well. Futurity is expressed in Arabic by using some prefixes such as س or a particle such as *saufa* سوف. The STs have also encountered a problem in the rendition of tense in projected clauses. In addition, the STs have inappropriately nominalized a clause where an event or happening can be appropriately packaged as a process rather than a participant.

Another transitivity problem encountered by the STs is the translation of post-modification in a clause. A prepositional embedded clause has sometimes been translated as a relative clause especially in contexts where the prepositional clause can be part of a covert relative clause.

Prepositions in the circumstance of a clause also pose some problems to the STs. Although Arabic and English prepositions share some characteristics in common, they differ in both number and usage. Whereas there are only a few prepositions in Arabic, English has more than thirty prepositions. Besides, only a few Arabic propositions have exact equivalents in English. A preposition like *fī* can be translated as 'in', 'on', 'at', 'into', or 'inside'.

At the interpersonal metafunction, the STs encountered some problems in the rendition of modality. Sometimes the STs have translated the modal verb in such a way that the translation has led to a shift of interpersonal meaning. Such problems may occur because there are no modal auxiliaries in Arabic. Instead, Arabic uses some modal phrases and modelized expressions. In addition, the dynamics of power relationships are very different (Harris et al., 1997). Similarly, appraisal emotional adjectives and adverbs have been sometimes inappropriately translated by the STs.

At the textual level, the STs faced some problems in the translation of foregrounded subordinate clauses at the rheme position. Such clauses have been literally translated as subordinate clause even though the use of coordination clauses is more apt. By the same token, not all coordinated clauses are equally foregrounded, and they sometimes need to be translated as subordinate clauses.

In so far as the logico-semantic metafunction is concerned, the STs have sometimes translated clauses in combination (clause complexes) in such a way that the logical relation between clauses is disturbed. A common logical dependency problem encountered by the STs is the inappropriate use of parataxis. The STs have sometimes unjustifiably underused cohesive devices. In other words, they tend to use parataxis where hypostasis is necessary. STs are fully aware that Arabic tends to use coordinated connectives such as ‘and’ excessively and the literal translation of such connectives will make the translation very awkward. However, underusing connectives including ‘and’ is equally problematic.

The STs have also encountered certain problems in translating the expanding logico-semantic relation of elaboration as in the translation of non-defining clauses. Similarly, extending logico-semantic relations in Arabic clauses have caused some problems to the STs. Coordination through the use of connectives such as *wa*, *thumma* and *fa* is more frequently employed than subordination in Arabic. The STs have sometimes overused these connectives by translating them literally and thus the translations seem very exotic to the target reader. The STs have also faced some problems while translating clauses that enhance others.

We may safely argue that most of the above problems are attributed to negative interference from Arabic. In most cases the STs’ choice was guided by the structures of Arabic expressions. Had the STs paid equal attention to what is natural in such contexts in English, these incorrect or infelicitous expressions could have been easily avoided.

In short, it is not enough to identify whether there is a grammatical form or structure in the target language that is equivalent to that in the source language. It is also necessary to find out whether they are used in the same environment. If the formally equivalent expression of the target language is not used in that language the way it is used in the source language, the translator needs to establish what exactly can be used in its place. A translator should never undervalue the significance of those structural forms even if they do not lead to a shift in ideational metafunction. Structure does matter in translation. Its function, according to Berg (2009: 23), is “the gluing together of small units to form larger ones”. It is parallel to “the concrete that is used to build houses from bricks” (Berg, 2009: 23).

It is worthwhile to mention that the taxonomy provided in this study is not exhaustive. It is based on a parallel corpus of translations of a number of texts. Larger and more coherent corpora will be needed to verify the taxonomy provided and to find out additional problems. A quantitative study examining the frequency of errors/problems among STs is also needed.

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NGHIÊN CỨU TƯƠNG ĐƯƠNG TỪ VỰNG - NGỮ PHÁP TRONG DỊCH Ả RẬP - ANH

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Tóm tắt: Nghiên cứu này làm rõ khái niệm tương đương ngữ pháp trong dịch Ả Rập – Anh. Nghiên cứu tìm hiểu các vấn đề mà sinh viên học dịch gặp phải trong quá trình dịch các cấu trúc ngữ pháp từ tiếng Ả Rập sang tiếng Anh. Nghiên cứu dựa trên khối liệu là các bài dịch của năm nhóm sinh viên học dịch tại Bộ môn tiếng Anh, Khoa Nghệ thuật, Đại học Taiz, Yemen. Các nhóm sinh viên này đang học năm cuối khi làm các bài dịch sử dụng trong nghiên cứu này, và họ đã học bốn khoá dịch. Nghiên cứu kết luận rằng sự khác biệt về cấu trúc và hình thái giữa tiếng Ả Rập và tiếng Anh đã gây nhiều khó khăn cho sinh viên. Dựa theo ngữ pháp chức năng hệ thống (SFG), các vấn đề ngữ pháp liên quan đến siêu chức năng ý niệm, liên nhân, văn bản, và mối quan hệ logic-ngữ nghĩa được nhận diện. Ngoài ra, nghiên cứu kết luận rằng sinh viên gặp nhiều vấn đề về tính chuyển tác, tình thái, cấu trúc đề, sự phụ thuộc về logic, mối quan hệ logic-ngữ nghĩa giữa các cú. Các vấn đề này không chỉ ảnh hưởng đến khía cạnh ngữ pháp và phong cách của bản dịch, mà đôi khi còn tạo ra nét nghĩa khác với ý đồ của tác giả trong bản gốc.

Từ khoá: dịch, tương đương, ngữ pháp, tiếng Ả Rập, tiếng Anh, Ngữ pháp chức năng hệ thống,cú, sinh viên học dịch

COMPETITIVENESS ANALYSIS ON VIETNAM TOURISM IN RELATION WITH ASEAN COUNTRIES AT PRESENT

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Abstract: This paper aims at analyzing aspects that are affecting the competitiveness of Vietnam tourism in relation with other Southeast Asian (ASEAN) countries. The issues to be addressed are as follows: (1) the international tourist market share of Vietnam in ASEAN; (2) Vietnam's position in competitiveness ranking by the World Economic Forum (WEF); (3) Effectiveness of tourism in Vietnam in relation to ASEAN countries.

Keywords: ASEAN tourism, Vietnam Tourism, competitiveness

1. Introduction

It is a positive outlook of GDP's growth in Southeast Asia during 2018-2022 that shows the countries' average growth rate of 5.2%.[2] As a result of the establishment of the ASEAN Economic Community, the contribution of tourism to their national income has increased. Statistic shows that Japan, Korea and China are the top source markets (ADB, 2017, p. 69). Tourism has created many jobs and become a driving force for the economic development of ASEAN countries. According to the WEF's Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report, most ASEAN countries are ranked over the 50th out of more than 130 countries surveyed, which reflects that the regional countries focus on tourism development.

One of the strengths of the region's destinations is their reasonable tour prices. According to the cost of living index,[3] the most affordable ASEAN destinations in the world are led by Cambodia, Indonesia and Vietnam. In addition, the region benefits from having top hotels at competitive prices in China, Indonesia and Malaysia for less than 100 USD/night. This price competitiveness is quite impressive in comparison with such high-income neighboring destinations as Japan, Singapore, and South Korea. However, many ASEAN countries are facing gaps in infrastructure development, including air, road and tourism facilities and ICT readiness. In addition, regional countries that encountered political instability reduced their

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[1] The cut-off date is 31 October 2017. ASEAN growth rates are the weighted averages of those of the individual economies. Source: OECD Development Centre, MPF-2018 (Medium-term Projection Framework). For more information on the MPF, please see www.oecd.org/dev/asia-pacific/mpf.htm.

[2] Based on Numbeo's cost-of-living index compared to New York City. This is a consumer price index, including grocery, restaurant, transportation and common supporting services.

competitiveness in safety and security index (WEF, 2017, p. 15).

Since 2010, the number of international tourists has grown three-fold from 5 million to more than 15 million in 2018. Tourism industry, generated 620 trillion VND (26.75 billion USD) in total tourist revenue, up 110 billion VND (4.75 billion USD) compared to 2017. In 2018, international arrivals to Vietnam reached 15.5 million, up 2.7 million compared to 2017, while domestic tourists grew by 6.8 million compared to 2017, to an estimated 80 million in 2018. In this paper, we assess the competitiveness of Vietnam tourism among ASEAN countries in the various aspects of World Economic Forum's competitiveness index described below in the links with comparison of international arrivals, revenue and heritage in ASEAN countries through years. Accordingly, we locate the position of Vietnam competitiveness among ASEAN countries.

2. Literature review

Tourism industry plays an important role in economy, employment and prosperity of countries as it offers opportunities for on-spot exports, female and youth workers, medium and small enterprises, and culture exchanges among others. In the supply side of this industry, it is notable that many tourism products, which are throughout the value chain, can be creatively formed. It has a strong effect on local economy. In the demand side, the global demand for travel and tourism is currently booming, especially in ASEAN countries. In the next decade (2018-2028), the worldwide demand for tourism is expected to increase nearly 4% annually, faster than the global economic growth (WTTC, 2018, p. 1)[3]. Southeast Asia international tourist arrivals in 2017 reached 120.4 million (accounting for 9% of the global figure), which shows significant demand (UNWTO, 2018, p. 5), and the region's share in global demand is expected to grow by 10.3% by 2030 (or 187 million visitors) (UNWTO, 2011, p. 34).

The government of Vietnam visions tourism as a strategic and driving force of socio-economic development. The Politburo resolution No. 08-NQ/TW dated 16/1/2017 set the objectives which develop tourism into a spearhead industry and Vietnam into a leading destination in Southeast Asia, through a focus on, *inter alia*, (i) developing tourism infrastructure, (ii) strengthening tourism promotion, (iii) generating a favorable environment for tourism businesses, (iv) developing tourism human resources, and (v) improving State management of the tourism sector. Currently, Vietnam is developing a national tourism strategy to 2030, vision to 2050 and an action plan that guide activities and investments to achieve the 2030 targets and to drive the development of the tourism sector over the coming decades.

Vietnam, however, is not alone in this pursuit to leverage economic opportunities from tourism, and will have to contend for market share with proactive regional competitors. Eager to capitalize on the rapidly-increasing outbound travelers to the region, many countries in Southeast Asia are prioritizing tourism in their economic development agendas, setting lofty visitor number targets, and formulating sector strategies and investment plans. Thailand is finalizing its National Tourism Development Plan 2017-2021, Indonesia is preparing Integrated Tourism Master plans for the development of 10 high-priority destinations, and in the Philippines, the government

[3] https://www.wttc.org/-/media/files/reports/economic-impact-research/archived/regions-2018/world2018.pdf, retrieved on 20 May 2019

is finalizing the new National Tourism Development Plan (NTDP 2016-2022). In this fiercely competitive environment for visitors, Vietnam will have to be strategic in focusing on the market segments where it has a competitive edge, resist the temptation to prioritize the quantity of visitors over their economic yield, and be cognizant of the implications of the pace and composition of its tourism growth for the sustainability of the sector and its impacts on the environment and natural and cultural assets (World Bank, ITDR, 2018, p. 2).

3. Methodology

This article is completed by the method of desk study to collect, analyze, and synthesize secondary data. Research materials, survey reports and situation reports by individuals and organizations within ASEAN countries are collected and synthesized. The data derived from biennial WEF report in 2017 were produced from 2016 data base. Likewise, the data that are collected from ASEAN secretariat were also updated in 2017. Therefore, it has a slight lateness to date, however, the figures are used as a tool to review Vietnam tourism industry's competitiveness and can be a thermometer to track our progress over time and broaden outlook for the future. In Tables 12 and 13, the avarage number is calculated based on the 3 latest consecutive years of 2014, 2015, and 2016.

4. The international tourist market share of Vietnam in ASEAN

In 2016, the total number of international tourist arrivals to ASEAN is 116 million. Table 1 shows that the five countries which receive less international tourist arrivals are the Philippines, Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar, and Brunei Darussalam. Vietnam ranks the 5th among ASEAN countries, accounting for 8.62% of international tourist arrivals. The destinations that have steady growth in the region with the largest tourist market shares in 2016 are Thailand, Malaysia, Singapore, and Indonesia.

Table 1: International tourist arrivals to ASEAN nations in 2016 in comparison to it is in the region

No.	Country	Arrivals (million)	Share (%)
1	Thailand	32.53	28.04
2	Malaysia	26.76	22.49
3	Singapore	16.4	14.14
4	Indonesia	11.52	9, 93
5	**Vietnam**	**10**	**8.62**
6	Philippines	5.97	5.15
7	Cambodia	5.01	4.21
8	Laos	4.24	3.66
9	Myanmar	2.91	2.51
10	Brunei Darussalam	0.22	0.02

At present, the average growth rate of international visitors to Viet Nam is impressive with 7.15% in the period of 2007 - 2016. (Figure 1)

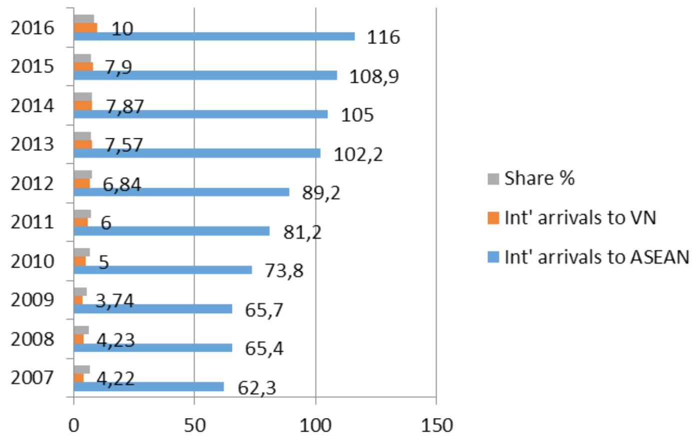


Table 2: Shares of international tourists to Vietnam in total of that to ASEAN

Year	**Share (%)**
2007	6.77
2008	6.47
2009	5.69
2010	6.78
2011	7.39
2012	7.67
2013	7.41
2014	7.50
2015	7.25
2016	8.62

Figure 1. The share of international tourist arrivals to Vietnam in ASEAN from 2007 to 2016

5. Vietnam's position in the competitiveness ranking by the World Economic Forum (WEF)

According to WEF, the 2017 competitiveness index of Vietnam increased 8 positions, ranked at 67th out of 136 surveyed countries (in 2016).

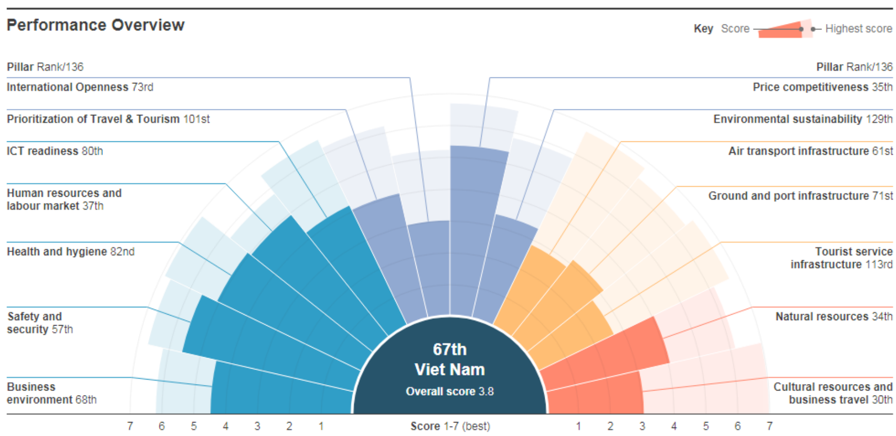


Figure 2: Overview of Vietnam tourism competitiveness (WEF 2017)

Table 3: ASEAN countries competitiveness		
No.	**Country**	**Index**
1	Singapore	13
2	Malaysia	26
3	Thailand	34
4	Indonesia	42
5	**Vietnam**	**67**
6	Philippines	79
7	Laos	94
8	Cambodia	101

In comparison with other ASEAN countries in Travel and Tourism competitiveness in 2016, Vietnam is at the fifth rank after Singapore, Malaysia, Thailand, and Indonesia (Table 3).

Table 4: Human Resources and labor market

No.	Country	Score
1	Singapore	5.6
2	Malaysia	5.2
3	Thailand	4.9
4	**Vietnam**	**4.9**
5	Philippines	4.8
6	Indonesia	4.6
7	Laos	4.6
8	Cambodia	4.1

In terms of *Human Resources and Labor Market,* Vietnam is only behind Singapore, Malaysia and Thailand (Table 4); To other highly competitive factor as *Natural resources,* Vietnam ranks only after Thailand, Indonesia, and Malaysia (Table 5)

Table 5: Natural Resources

No.	Country	Score
1	Thailand	4.9
2	Indonesia	4.7
3	Malaysia	4.1
4	**Vietnam**	**4**
5	Philippines	4
6	Cambodia	3.2
7	Laos	3
8	Singapore	2.4

For *Cultural resources* and *Safety and Security,* Vietnam is ranked the third, which are the most competitive strengths in the region. (Tables 6 and 7) In particular, the *ICT readiness* of Vietnam rose 17 positions compared to its index in 2016, ranking the 80th, after Singapore, Malaysia and Thailand. (Table 8)

Table 6: Cultural resources

No.	Country	Score
1	Indonesia	3.3
2	Singapore	3.1
3	**Vietnam**	**3**
4	Malaysia	2.9
5	Thailand	2.8
6	Philippines	1.9
7	Cambodia	1.6
8	Laos	1.3

Table 7: Security and Safety

No.	Country	Score
1	Singapore	6.5
2	Malaysia	5.8
3	**Vietnam**	**5.6**
4	Laos	5.4
5	Indonesia	5.1
6	Cambodia	5.1
7	Thailand	4
8	Philippines	3.6

Table 8: ICT Readiness

No.	Country	Score
1	Singapore	6.1
2	Malaysia	5.2
3	Thailand	4.8
4	**Vietnam**	**4.2**
5	Philippines	4
6	Indonesia	3.8
7	Cambodia	3.6
8	Laos	3.1

In general, ASEAN countries are facing with *health and sanitation* issues. Singapore and Malaysia are the leading ASEAN countries in this area. Vietnam ranks the third in eight countries (Table 9). The poor in *Ground and air transport infrastructure* will definitely affect the quality and capacity of the destination. The strong growth of tourism will lead to difficulties in the waste and wastewater treatment, causing the risk of environmental degradation, economic loss, and local people's life quality decrease. In Tables 10 and 11, Vietnam ranks the fifth out of eight countries examined.

Table 9: Health and hygiene

No.	Country	Score
1	Singapore	5.5
2	Malaysia	5.2
3	**Vietnam**	**5**
4	Thailand	4.9
5	Philippines	4.8
6	Indonesia	4.3
7	Lao	4.3
8	Cambodia	4

Table 10: Land transport Infrastructure

No.	Country	Score
1	Singapore	6.3
2	Malaysia	4.4
3	Indonesia	3.2
4	Thailand	3.1
5	**Vietnam**	**3.1**
6	Philippines	2.5
7	Lao	2.4
8	Cambodia	2.4

Business environment is a concern for Vietnam, which is only at higher ranking than Cambodia and the Philippines. In addition, Vietnam's *tourist service infrastructure* is the lowest ranking in comparison to ASEAN countries. (Table 13)

Table 11: Air transport infrastructure		
No.	Country	Score
1	Singapore	5.3
2	Thailand	4.6
3	Malaysia	4.5
4	Indonesia	3.8
5	**Vietnam**	**2.8**
6	Philippines	2.7
7	Lao	2.1
8	Cambodia	2.1

Table 12: Business Environment		
No.	Score	Country
1	Singapore	6.1
2	Malaysia	5.4
3	Thailand	4.7
4	Laos	4.7
5	Indonesia	4.5
6	Vietnam	4.4
7	Philippines	4.3
8	Cambodia	3.7

Table 13: Tourism service infrastructure		
No.	Score	Country
1	Thailand	5.8
2	Singapore	5.4
3	Malaysia	4.7
4	Laos	3.5
5	Phili ppines	3.4
6	Indonesia	3.1
7	Cambodia	2.9
8	Vietnam	2.6

Table 14: UNESCO World Heritage Sites in ASEAN		
No.	Country	Number of Heritage
1	Indonesia	8
2	Vietnam	8
3	Philippines	6
4	Thailand	5
5	Malaysia	4
6	Laos	2
7	Cambodia	2
8	Singapore	1
9	Myanmar	1
10	Brunei Darussalam	0

6. Vietnam tourism performance in relation to ASEAN countries in terms of important market segments (marine, urban, culture and eco-tourism)

Tourism benefits from the natural and cultural destinations, including the World Heritage sites.

Indonesia and Vietnam are the two leading countries with the highest number of UNESCO World Heritage Sites in the 10 ASEAN countries. Indonesia has four cultural heritages, four natural heritages; Vietnam has five cultural heritages, two natural heritages and one mixed heritage; Thailand has three cultural heritages, two natural heritages. (Table 14)

ASEAN Marketing Strategy presents its focus which includes comprehensive themes and is relevant to the global trend, namely, gastronomy, health care, culture and heritage; and natural and adventure (ASEAN Secretariat, 2017, p. 12). In 2017, the *total revenue* generated from tourism in Vietnam is 541,000 billion VND (23 billion USD), in which the most tourists' expenditure is on food and beverage and accommodation, and transportation, followed by other expenses such as shopping, sightseeing, and others (Figure 3).

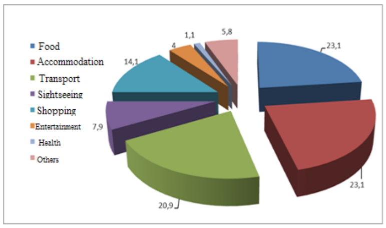


Figure 3: Shares of total tourism revenue in 2017 *(Source: VNAT)*

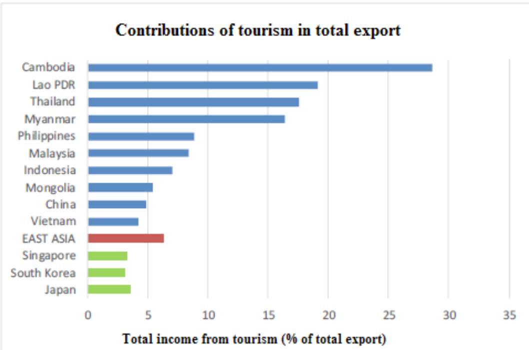
In the past four years, Thailand witnesses the most impressive growth in terms of international visitors, which surpassed Malaysia by 2015 and 2016 with the annual increases of 20.6% and 8.9% respectively. In particular, although Thailand is not completely in outstanding role to Malaysia in terms of arrivals, it generated higher revenue compared to Malaysia and Singapore, being the regional leading destination with nearly 45 billion USD in 2015 and 50 billion USD in 2016. Though Vietnam ranked at the 4th position in terms of tourist arrivals, it takes the 5th position on the revenue list and only covers 16.54% in comparison with Thailand in 2016. In the period of 2014-2016, Thailand accounts for major share of visitors of 23.6%, 27.45% and 28.10% respectively compared to the region. The average rate of 3 years is 26.38%. At the same time, the number of international visitors to Vietnam in ASEAN was 7.58%, 7.29% and 8.63% respectively. The 3-year average is 7.83%, which covers 29.7% to Thailand's (Table 12, 13).

No	Country	**Table 15: International tourist arrivals to ASEAN countries**							
		(1000)				**Shares in ASEAN (%)**			
		2010	**2014**	**2015**	**2016**	**2014**	**2015**	**2016**	**3-year average**
	ASEAN	73,800	105,000	108,900	116,000				
1	Thailand	15,936	24,810	29,923	32,588	23.63	27.48	28.09	25.55
2	Malaysia	24,577	27,437	25,721	26,757	26.13	23.62	23.07	24.87
3	Singapore	9,161	11,864	12,052	12,913	11.30	11.07	11.13	11.18
4	Indonesia	7,003	9,435	9,963	11,520	8.99	9.15	9.93	9.07
5	**Vietnam**	**5,050**	**7,960**	**7,944**	**10,013**	**7.58**	**7.29**	**8.63**	**7.44**
6	Philippines	3,520	4,833	5,361	5,967	4.60	4.92	5.14	4.76
7	Cambodia	2,508	4,503	4,775	5,012	4.29	4.38	4.32	4.34
8	Myanmar	792	3,081	4,681	2,91	2.93	4.30	2.51	3.62
9	Laos	1,670	3,164	3,543	3,315	3.01	3.25	2.86	3.13
10	Brunei	214	201	218	219	0.19	0.20	0.19	0.20

No.	**Country**	Table 16: International tourism revenue by ASEAN countries (million USD)			
		2010	**2014**	**2015**	**2016**	**3-consecutive year average**
1	Thailand	20.104	38.418	44.922	49.871	44.404
2	Singapore	14.178	19.134	16.563	18.386	18.0 28
3	Malaysia	18.115	22.595	17.584	18.074	19.418
4	Indonesia	6.958	10.261	10.761	11.349	10.790
5	**Vietnam**	**4.450**	**7.410**	**7.350**	**8.250**	**7.670**
6	Philippines	2.645	5.030	5.272	5.139	5.147
7	Cambodia	1.519	2,953	3,130	3,207	3,097
8	Myanmar	72	1,613	2,101	2,177	1,964
9	Laos	382	642	581	540	588
10	Brunei	---	79	140	---	110

(UNWTO, 2017, p. 9)

To most countries in ASEAN, tourism is one of the main on-spot export sectors and the main source of foreign currencies. Cambodia is a leading country which generates high-income from international tourists, accounting for 29% of the total national export income value in GDP. The total contribution of tourism in GDP of Indonesia is 6.2%.



Source: World Development Index (WDI) 2017

7. Observations

Based on the above analysis of tourism competitiveness and performance, the observations are made as follows.

Although Cambodia, Myanmar, and Laos achieved the average growth rate of 4.3%, 3.6% and 3.1% in terms of international visitors for three years inclusively, the number still accounts for only a small fraction in the region. The Philippines and Indonesia are the two closest competitors to Vietnam with strong growth both in terms of volume and revenue. Though the Philippines is currently ranked below Vietnam, the potential, opportunities and the diversity of tourism development and products are not less competitive. According to the World Bank updates on tourism development in developing countries in East Asia, in Vietnam, the number of domestic tourists is four to nine times higher than that of international visitors. Nevertheless, this number is 25 times in Indonesia, and 50 times in the Philippines (World Bank Group, 2017, p. 89). Though Vietnam witnessed positive growth in tourist arrivals in the past two years, it is still behind other tourism developed countries in the region such as Thailand, Malaysia and Singapore in terms of the absolute numbers of visitors and revenue. Indonesia has a slightly higher number of tourist arrivals than Vietnam, but its revenue is considerably higher than Vietnam.

The issues that Vietnam tourism is facing in the situation of rapid tourism growth is the infrastructure and tourism facilities, as it has to ensure sustainable development when Vietnam ranked the 8th out of eight countries reviewed in tourism infrastructure (WEF). In addition, the *ground and air transport infrastructure* of Vietnam is also a constraint, requiring a master plan and close coordination between the tourism and the transport sector. The issue of business and institutional environment which facilitates businesses is still a gap that Vietnam needs to fill in.

In conclusion, many of the advantages of Vietnam tourism are highlighted by international organizations in ASEAN such as *natural and cultural resources, ICT readiness, human resources and labor market* for tourism development. In order to maintain the growth momentum and enhance the position of tourism in the ASEAN region, Vietnam needs to give prioritization to the satisfaction of the needs of the key markets, overcome weaknesses in *infrastructure* and favorable policies for businesses, improve environmental quality standards, eco-friendly tourism products, and enhance the participation of local communities in tourism.

8. Recommendations

Vietnam witnesses the encouraging increase of international arrivals in recent years and enjoys economic benefits from this booming tourism activity. However, the tourism quality must be shifted rather than the quantity of tourism, and the sector development should be strengthened in a more environmentally, culturally, and socially sustainable manner. Therefore, some recommendations which are based on the above observations are as follows:

- Diversification of products and marketing strategies: Product development and diversification should focus on eco-friendly tourism offerings and be increasingly targeted at higher-spending visitor source markets.

- Strengthening tourism human resources and local economy linkages: The supply of skilled tourism labor should be grown faster to keep up with accelerating demand. The sufficient quantity of local workers should be in line with the various goods and services offered as the two sides of a coin.

- Improvement of tourism infrastructure: The quality of tourism infrastructure must meet higher standards in line with the orientation of developing more eco-friendly tourism products.

- Tourism destination management: Strategic coordination of destination planning and product development should be highlighted.

If we have proper and strategic view on development oritentation, avoiding mass tourism, and follow the trend of maintaining environmental, cultural, and social sustainability, the results will be invaluable as it ensures the right measures, effective monitoring and evaluation, and sustainable economic growth for decades to come.

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PHÂN TÍCH NĂNG LỰC CẠNH TRANH CỦA DU LỊCH VIỆT NAM TRONG MỐI LIÊN HỆ VỚI CÁC QUỐC GIA ASEAN HIỆN NAY

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Tóm tắt*:* Bài báo này phân tích các khía cạnh ảnh hưởng tới năng lực cạnh tranh của du lịch Việt Nam trong mối liên hệ với các quốc gia Đông Nam Á (ASEAN). Các vấn đề được đề cập bao gồm: (1) thị phần khách du lịch quốc tế của Việt Nam trong ASEAN; (2) Thứ bậc của Việt Nam trong bảng xếp hạng năng lực cạnh tranh của Diễn đàn Kinh tế Thế giới (WEF); (3) Hiệu quả của du lịch Việt Nam trong mối tương quan với các quốc gia ASEAN.

Từ khóa: du lịch ASEAN, du lịch Việt Nam, năng lực cạnh tranh

A RELEVANCE-THEORETIC ANALYSIS OF *YEAH* AS A DISCOURSE MARKER

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Abstract: The paper attempts to explain English native speakers' use of the discourse marker *yeah* from a relevance-theoretic perspective (Sperber & Wilson, 1995). As a discourse marker, *yeah* normally functions as a continuer, an agreement marker, a turn-taking marker, or a disfluency marker. However, according to Relevance Theory, *yeah* can also be considered a procedural expression, and therefore, is expected to help yield necessary constraints on the contexts, which facilitates understanding in human communication by encoding one of the three contextual effects (contextual implication, strengthening, or contradiction) or reorienting the audience to certain assumptions which lead to the intended interpretation. Analyses of examples taken from conversations with a native speaker of English suggest that each use of *yeah* as a discourse marker is able to put a certain type of constraints on the relevance of the accompanying utterance. These initial analyses serve as a foundation for further research to confirm its multi-functionality as a procedural expression when examined within the framework of Relevance Theory.

Keywords: Relevance Theory, *yeah*, discourse marker, contextual effects, constraints on relevance

1. Introduction

1.1. Rationale

Relevance theory (RT) developed by Wilson and Sperber in 1986 is an inferential approach to the study of human communication. Its purpose is to elaborate on a Gricean claim that human communication is characterized by "the expression and recognition of intentions" (Wilson & Sperber, 2004, p. 607). RT's major claim is that cognitive processes in human beings are supposed to obtain as great "cognitive effect" as possible while making as little "processing effort" as possible (Sperber & Wilson, 1995, p. vii).

RT has been adopted by many linguists such as Blakemore (1992), Jucker (1993), Carston (1993) and Schourup (2011) as their framework to account for a variety of phenomena in human communication. One of their common interests is the application of RT in explaining the use of discourse markers to maximize the relevance in verbal communication. The term "discourse marker" is not a new concept in linguistics. However, there has been much dispute over not only the functions but also the categorization of these linguistic elements (Jucker, 1993), and RT also has its own approach to this issue.

1.2. Purposes

Within the framework of RT, a number of discourse markers have been analyzed, for example, *well* by Jucker (1993), *now* by

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Schourup (2011), Singaporean *lah* and *meh* by Vivien (2006) and discourse connectives by Blakemore (2002). Even in the field of language translation, the meaning of discourse markers (*well*) is also based on the maximum contextualization of the token (Ngô Hữu Hoàng, 2010). RT has been claimed to provide a rational explanation for the use of those markers in all of the verbal communication settings under investigation. Therefore, the application of RT in analyzing other discourse markers seems to be a promising approach.

Besides, although there has been a great deal of research on discourse markers which uses RT as their guidance, it seems that none of them has touched the issue of token *yeah*. From the available literature, *yeah* has mostly been explained within Conversation Analysis (Drummond & Hopper, 1993; Wong, 2000). This gap has triggered my motivation to produce a research paper to explain the use of *yeah* within the framework of RT.

1.3. Scope

This is a small-scale study which aims to test the applicability of RT in explaining the uses of *yeah*. Therefore, data collected from a 10-minute interview with one native English speaker has been used for analysis though there was another non-native speaker participant. The length of the interview was to ensure the production of a sufficient number of the token *yeah*s for analysis. The reason for the choice of the native speaker's data for analysis is that native speakers' choice of a linguistic element is appropriate for the function it is aimed to realize while non-native speakers are likely to develop fossilization in discourse marker use (Trillo, 2006).

2. Literature review

Yeah as a discourse marker

The token *yeah* has been the topic of interest to many linguists (Drummond & Hopper, 1993; Wong, 2000; Fuller, 2003). In one of the papers (Trillo, 2006), *yeah* is categorized in the group of acategorical discourse markers. According to Trillo, discourse markers in general have been discourse grammaticalized to include a pragmatic aspect in order to serve "interactional purposes" and become part of a system which "constrains the relevance of the proposition it introduces" (p. 641). This view has some similarity with that proposed by RT, strengthening the possibility that *yeah* can be analyzed within the framework of RT. There are possibly four major uses of *yeah* that have been documented in previous studies, each of which is briefly described in the following part.

- Turn-initial *yeah* as a continuer

A story-recipient uses *yeah* as a signal to the speaker that the hearer is still paying attention to the flow of the story and does not have the intention of assuming speakership. The "minimal response" *yeah* acts as an encouragement for the speaker to continue his extended speaking turn (Fuller, 2003, p. 29). Therefore, it is called "a continuer" (Wong, 2000, p. 41).

- Turn-initial *yeah* as an agreement marker

Although researchers have disagreement about this use of *yeah* as a discourse marker (Drummond & Hopper, 1993; Fuller, 2003), it may still be worth investigating within RT. *Yeah* in these cases serves as an affirmative answer to a Yes-No question, being a second-pair part to an adjacency pair (Drummond & Hopper, 1993; Wong, 2000). It is often free-standing and is not included in any other units of utterance; however, it can occur "approximate to a current telling" and may be used by either the speaker or the hearer of the story. However, sometimes confusion occurs between this use and the continuer use (Drummond & Hopper, 1993).

- Turn-initial *yeah* as a turn-taking marker

The story recipient uses *yeah* to signal his intention to begin his turn in the conversation so that the current speaker leaves the speakership for him to take over. The recipient starts his turn with *yeah* and continues with further talk and gains the speakership instead of remaining a "passive hearer" (Wong, 2000, p. 44). The shift in speakership is often accompanied by a "shift in the topic" as introduced by the new speaker after the use of *yeah* (Wong, 2000; Fuller, 2003, p. 37).

- Turn-medial yeah as a pause/disfluency/repair marker

Wong (2000, p. 61) states that this use of *yeah* in native speakers is rare and seems to "mark failure of the search" for an appropriate linguistic item to use in a certain circumstance. However, it appears that there is something that RT has available to explain for this kind of disfluency. Therefore, this use of *yeah* is still included herein.

It should be noted that the examples in the discussion of *yeah* within RT framework may not strictly distinguish *yeah*s in the above categorization as *yeah* can sometimes serve more than one function in a particular circumstance (Drummond & Hooper, 1993, Fuller, 2003).

Principles of relevance

As aforementioned, RT is to account for human communication by explaining cognitive processes. RT considers utterances as inputs to human inferential processes through which the cognitive environment of the hearer is modified (Sperber & Wilson, 1995). In order to interpret an utterance, a hearer first has to decode the message which is represented by "linguistically encoded logical form" and then contextualizes it and builds hypothesis about the speaker's intention (Wilson & Sperber, 1993, p. 1).

There are two central principles on which RT is founded – the Cognitive Principle of Relevance and the Communicative Principle of Relevance. The first one states that "human cognition tends to be geared to the maximization of relevance" (Wilson & Sperber, 2004, p. 610). An input is said to be relevant to the hearer only when it interacts with the available background, and he has to "yield conclusions that matter to him" (p. 608). Such conclusions, then, are said to have a "positive cognitive effect" (referred to as *contextual effect* hereafter). In order for a contextual effect to be achieved, the context for an utterance interpretation must be gradually and constantly changing, contributing to the greater contextual effects achieved in the communication (Sperber & Wilson, 1995). Contextual effect is thus said to be a necessary condition for relevance. The degree of relevance, however, is also decided by the effort which people have to make in processing information (Wilson & Sperber, 2004).

The second principle involves communication, claiming that "every ostensive stimulus conveys a presumption of its own optimal relevance" (Wilson & Sperber, 2004, p. 612). It means that the set of assumptions that the communicator intends to make manifest to his audience must be relevant enough "to be worth the audience's processing effort" and "the most relevant one compatible with communicator's abilities and preferences" (p. 612). The assumptions are said to be manifest to a person if and only if he is capable of "representing it mentally and accepting its representation as true or probably true" (Sperber & Wilson, 1995, p. 39). In fact, this principle deals with the effect achieved and effort required during the inferential process. A stimulus is worth paying attention to only when it appears to be more relevant than any other stimulus available to the audience, costing the audience the least effort in his attempt to process it. With regard to the communicator, he is expected to try to make as clear as possible the evidence not only for the cognitive effect he wants to achieve in his audience but for "further cognitive effects" which enable him to accomplish his goals (p. 257).

As can be seen, RT revolves around the attempt of a communicator to guarantee the greatest *contextual effect* achieved and the least *processing effort* made in communication in a given context.

Contextual effects

Context in RT is defined as "a subset of the individual's old assumptions" which is combined with new assumptions to produce contextual effects in the processing of such new assumptions (Sperber & Wilson, 1995, p. 132). Contextual effect is the result of the contextualization of the new information in the set of old information available to the hearer.

Contextual effect is achieved when a context is modified and improved. However, not all modifications will result in an effect. According to Sperber and Wilson (1995), in order for a contextual effect to be achieved, the new and old assumptions (information) must be related to each other in some way, not just a duplication or unrelated addition. These relations form three types of contextual effects as presented below.

- Contextual implication

Contextual implication is seen as an addition of the newly presented information to the old information drawn from an existing representation of the world in which both types of information are regarded as premises in a synthetic implication (Sperber & Wilson, 1995). In RT, assumptions derived from encyclopedic memory are seen as old information whereas those emerging from perception or linguistic decoding are new information which then will become old information for the processing to yield further contextual implication. Sperber and Wilson call contextual implication a synthesis of old and new information, suggesting that the interpretation of an utterance (new information) is affected by the particular context (set of old information) in which it is processed.

- Strengthening

Strengthening is a kind of contextual effect which results from the fact that the newly presented information provides further evidence for the old information, helping to consolidate the old assumptions. There are two types of strengthening – the dependent and independent strengthening.

In dependent strengthening, the strength of the conclusion depends on both the added information and the available context (Sperber & Wilson, 1995). If both premises (old and new assumptions) are certain, then the conclusion is certain. If one of the premises is certain and the other one is not, the strength of the conclusion is that of the weaker premise. If neither of the premises is certain, the conclusion will inherit the strength which is lower than that of the weaker premise.

In independent strengthening, a conclusion is "independently implied by two different sets of premises" (Sperber & Wilson, 1995, p. 112). It is said that the strength of an assumption already existing in human cognition will be affected by the occurrence of the same assumption which is built on a different set of premises. In this case, the strength of the conclusion is greater than the strength of each individual set of premises.

- Contradiction

This kind of contextual effect results from "a contradiction between new and old information", which leads to the elimination of false assumptions (Sperber & Wilson, 1995, p. 114). If two assumptions are found to contradict each other and their strengths can be compared, the weaker assumption will be eliminated. If it is impossible to compare them, human cognition will try to search for "further evidence for or against one of the contradictory assumptions" (p. 115). However, if the new assumption is eliminated, there will be no important contextual effect. Contextual effect is achieved only when the old assumption is displaced by the new assumption.

It can be seen that various interactions between the new information and the context in which it is processed can lead to different types of contextual effects which subsequently result in different types of relevance of an utterance in communication.

Constraints on relevance

It is said that linguistic expressions which have procedural meaning can guide the hearer in the process of utterance interpretation by making the context become as small as possible so that the processing effort is reduced. Such procedures are claimed to have certain "constraints on relevance" (Blakemore, 1987).

According to Wilson and Sperber (1993), there are two criteria to define a procedural expression. The first one is that "procedures cannot be brought to consciousness", which makes it very difficult to judge whether two procedural expressions are synonymous or not. The second one is that procedural expressions cannot combine with other expressions to form "semantically complex expressions" (Blakemore, 2006, p. 564). From this point of view, it is likely that *yeah* can be considered a procedural expression.

Procedural encoding has been applied to explain the use of a variety of discourse markers in constraining the context for utterance interpretation (Blakemore, 1987). They are analyzed as encoding one of the three types of contextual effects. The three following examples illustrate how discourse markers can constrain the selection of context for utterance interpretation.

Example 1: (a) Peter has passed the exam. (b) *After all*, he is a good student.

By using *after all*, the speaker has suggested the inferential route that the hearer has to take in order to interpret the above utterance. In this route, the proposition expressed in (b) is a premise for the deduction of the proposition expressed in (a). The speaker, therefore, is indicating that (b) is relevant as it has strengthened the assumption which has already existed in (a).

Example 2: (a) I know where the restaurant is. (b) *So* we do not need the GPS.

Unlike the above example, the use of *so* in example 2 suggests that the inferential route the hearer is expected to follow is considering (b) a conclusion derived in an inference in which the proposition expressed in (a) plays the role of a premise. The speaker is indicating that (b) is relevant as it has yielded a contextual implication by combining with the existing assumption in (a).

Example 3: (a) I have a lot of homework to do, (b) *but* I'm still going to the concert.

In this example, the relevance of (b) is guaranteed in the fact that it contradicts and eliminates an assumption presumed to have been made manifest by (a) which may be "*I need to finish the homework before doing anything else*". The inferential route in the third example leads the hearer to the elimination of the existing assumption made in (a); therefore, it has produced the contradiction type of contextual effect.

However, there are also some cases in which the meaning of a discourse marker does not lead to the activation of contextual effects but encodes a signal that the hearer can "go ahead with the inferential processes involved in the derivation of cognitive effects" (Blakemore, 2002, p. 147). For example, the inclusion of *well* in an utterance indicates the speaker's guarantee of the cognitive effects that will be achieved if his utterance is processed. Blakemore calls this "reorienting the hearer to a context of assumptions which will yield the intended interpretation" (p. 144). This reorienting process may result from the speaker's belief that the hearer may not recognize the relevance of a contextual assumption which he should have recognized. For example:

A: Today is so cold and it's June.

B: *Well*, it's the winter now in Australia.

The use of *well* in B's utterance is to encourage A to recognize the assumption about the time of winter in Australia which B believes that A does not recognize at all. In this case, A's utterance is treated as evidence that A believes that June is the summer time everywhere in the world.

In other cases, reorienting happens when the speaker expects that the hearer should know the constraints that the speaker's preferences and capabilities have imposed on the level of relevance attempted. For example:

A: Did you finish your homework?

B: *Well*, not yet.

The use of *well* in B's answer may not be considered to lead to the most relevant assumptions from the hearer's point of view; however, it still leads to the derivation of further assumptions which are relevant if the speaker's preference is taken into account. The relevance is constrained by the speaker's desire that he is not such a lazy student and there would be some reasons for his not completing the homework.

As can be seen, procedural expressions play a significant role in constraining the relevance of the utterance containing them. These expressions can help either yield the intended cognitive effects or reorient the hearer to a context which will yield the intended interpretation (Blakemore, 2002). The analyses of the uses of *yeah* in the coming part also follow this path.

3. Methodology

3.1. Framework

As stated above, this paper aims to explain different uses of *yeah* within the framework of Relevance Theory. Although RT includes a great many concepts related to the cognitive processing of human communication, this paper only employs the notion of *contextual effects* and *constraints on relevance* to explain how *yeah* can contribute to the relevance of the utterance in which it appears or to which it attaches to. It is a popular approach to analyze procedural expressions in general and discourse markers in particular throughout the development of RT (Jucker, 1993; Blakemore, 2002; Vivien, 2006).

3.2. Research question

Using RT as a general framework to analyze different functions of *yeah*, the objective of this paper is to seek the answer to the following research question: "How can the four uses of *Yeah* by an English native speaker in a specific interview be explained with the notion of constraints on relevance?"

3.3. Data collection procedure

The 10-minute interview was conducted after a brief description about the study was presented to the participant (an Australian English native speaker) and he agreed to participate and have his data used for research purpose by signing the consent form. I (the researcher) also asked for his permission to audio-record our interview for later analysis. The topic of the interview (hobbies and pastimes) was also revealed beforehand so that the participant could orientate himself and have an overall expectation of what he would talk about in the conversation.

3.4. Data analysis procedure

The interview was transcribed for further analysis. However, because this paper does not use Conversation Analysis as its framework, the transcription is not a detailed one. It only includes the utterances and some major signals for intonation and pauses if necessary.

In the forthcoming Discussion, four examples representing four uses of *yeah* are analyzed in order to illustrate the above purpose. These examples are taken from the 10-minute interview between the researcher and the English native speaker described above. Also as aforementioned, the choice of data from a native speaker is justified by the fact that the native speaker's use of discourse markers represents a kind of "linguistic competence" which guarantees the naturalness and appropriateness of the uses of *yeah* for more accurate analysis (Trillo, 2006, p. 641).

Yeah has been used several times in the interview with different purposes. However, it should be noted that these uses sometimes overlap each other. Therefore, one example can be used as an illustration for one use even when it can be used for analysis for another use as well. The examples are presented in the form of conversations in which I am the one to open the dialogue and/or pose a question and the interviewee is the one to extend the dialogue and/or give the answer.

4. Results and discussion

The relevance-theoretic analysis of *yeah* is presented according to its uses, each of which is illustrated with one example.

- *Yeah* as a continuer

In the following context, the interviewer (A) wanted to ask about the participant's (B) pastime which is boating. I drew his attention to the topic of his "boat" by stating an affirmative with a raising tone.

A: So I notice that you have a boat here?

B: <u>Yeah</u>?

A: So what do you do with it?

B acknowledges A's prelude by saying *yeah* also with a raising tone. The use of *yeah* in this context can be considered an encouragement that A can continue with her question.

B believes that in order to be relevant, A has tried to make manifest some assumptions she has already had about "the boat". These assumptions which partly build up the context in which subsequent utterances are processed might be:

[1] I see a boat in your backyard.

[2] If the boat is in your house, it must be yours.

B's *yeah* indicates to A an inferential route in which the assumptions expressed in B's answer has strengthened the existing assumptions made manifest by A. B's *yeah* has constrained the context for A's inference. The assumptions that B has attempted to make manifest to strengthen A's already existing assumptions could be:

[3] It is true that this boat is mine.

[4] I am willing to talk about it if you want.

As the contextual effect (strengthening) has been achieved and the two set of assumptions (premises) are certain, the conclusion that A may come up with is also certain. That conclusion can be "*now I can ask you something about your boat*". As a result, the conclusion has been made manifest in A's utterance that is "*so what do you do with it?*"

- *Yeah* as an agreement marker

In this conversation, A and B are talking about the Australian football to which "it" refers.

A: Do you like it?

B: <u>Yeah</u>…<u>yeah</u>, my team I support is Collingwood.

B has given an affirmative answer to A's Yes-No question, confirming that he likes watching Australian football. After that, he continues to add some more information about his interest.

B is not only answering A's question but trying to make manifest his attempt to be optimally relevant by strengthening the assumptions he believes that A has made manifest to him which may include:

[1] Australia has a particular kind of football.

[2] Australian people like this kind of football very much.

[3] You are Australian.

[4] You may also like it very much.

Yeah in B's answer has guided A to follow an inferential route in which the context A has set up for the processing of B's utterance has been strengthened. The assumption B believes that he has made manifest to A by saying *yeah* can be:

[5] I like Australian football.

[6] I will give you more information to prove that it is my hobby.

With his belief that these above assumptions have been made manifest to A, B continues his turn with "*my team I support is Collingwood*". The contextual effect, therefore, has been made greater by this utterance. The new set of assumptions contained in this utterance are newly presented information and closely related to the old set of assumptions above. The interaction between these two set of premises has yielded a contextual implication.

- *Yeah* as a turn-taking marker

A and B are talking about soccer and A is sharing that Leo – her husband (who B also knows) likes it very much. B acknowledges A's information and shifts the topic back to the Australian football.

A: Leo likes soccer a lot. He's a crazy fan of soccer.

B: Yeah…yeah… soccer...yeah…it's more international but football is Australian. It is the most popular sport here.

The double *yeah* at the beginning of B's turn suggests its role of strengthening the set of assumptions that B believes A has attempted to make manifest:

[1] Leo is not an Australian.

[2] Many non-Australian are crazy about soccer.

[3] Leo crazily likes soccer.

B can also employ his encyclopedic memory about "soccer" which may store this information "*soccer is the most popular sport in the world*". Combining these assumptions together, he has come to the conclusion which begins with *yeah*. His use of *yeah* is believed to provide the constraint on the context that A may use to interpret B's further utterances. In this case, it has a strengthening contextual effect.

It seems that this third use looks no different from the previous ones. However, it can be noticed that in this example, *yeah* appeared three times in B's utterance. The repetition of *yeah* seems to be an attention getter which B uses to encourage A to recognize some contextual assumptions which B believes to be relevant but is afraid that they have not been recognized by A as relevant. Those assumptions may be:

[4] You may want to interrupt me to continue talking about soccer.

[5] Unlike you, I want to talk more about football instead.

In fact, after believing that these above assumptions have been communicated to A, B continues his turn by using *but* to yield a contradiction and talks more about football.

Although I consider B's utterance as a topic-shifter, it does not quite resemble that mentioned in Wong (2000) and Fuller (2003). Perhaps B, in order to be polite, is attempting to be as relevant as possible by not suddenly changing the focus of the conversation he is engaging in.

- *Yeah* as a pause/disfluency/repair marker

There are several *yeah*s in the following excerpt. However, the focus of the analysis is the last one in B's utterance which seems to prove B's disfluency in search of an adjective to describe his sons who were talked about previously in their conversation.

A: So, do you enjoy it…ah with your sons or…?

B: Like basketball?

A: Yeah, basket ball or boating or…

B: Yeah yeah yeah, but now, you know, they're getting a little bit…yeah…they're getting a little bit older now, so they prefer to go with their friends.

The first segment of B's utterance – "*but now, you know, they're getting a little bit…*" suggests the contradiction between A's assumptions and those that B is trying to make manifest. B believes that A may have the following assumptions in asking her question of "*So, do you enjoy it…ah with your sons or…?*"

[1] You must play sport with someone else.

[2] You have two sons.

[3] It is likely that you often play sport with your sons.

But in B's answer has guided A to interpret that there is something opposite to A's assumptions. However, B seems to have difficulty in making his assumptions manifest to A, which may result in the loss of the contextual effect in particular and of the relevance of the utterance in general.

The use of *yeah* has been motivated by B's desire to communicate that he is temporarily incapable of making his assumptions manifest to A and would like A to maintain her attention. It encodes B's guarantee that there is still some contextual effect to come and B's utterance is still relevant if A is willing to wait until B has found the appropriate linguistic item to completely communicate the information he wants to make manifest to A. *Yeah* plays the role of reorienting A to B's intended contextual effect in the fact that the level of relevance attempted has been constrained by B's capabilities.

From the four examples above, it can be seen that all uses of *yeah* do constrain the relevance of the utterance it appears in or attaches to by either directly yielding the intended contextual effects or reorienting the hearer to the necessary contexts to yield such effects.

5. Conclusion

The paper has attempted to explain different uses of *yeah* as produced by an Australian English native speaker within the framework of Relevance Theory in general and with the notion of procedural expressions' constraints on relevance in particular.

It appears that this theoretical framework has fulfilled this purpose. While *yeah*s as a continuer and an agreement marker both directly yield a strengthening contextual effect, *yeah* as an agreement marker is also capable of indicating a further contextual implication. The other two uses, in contrast, indirectly yield the intended contextual effects by reorienting the hearer to the necessary contexts. *Yeah* as a turn-taking marker is a kind of attention getter to encourage the hearer to recognize a relevant assumption which the speaker thinks has not been recognized by the hearer. Meanwhile, *yeah* as a disfluency marker constrains the relevance by indicating the speaker's capabilities.

As this research is done with the data collected from a 10-minute interview with the participation of one single Australian English speaker, it would not attempt to generalize the results to a larger population of other native speakers of English. Also, researchers who share the same interest in this research area may extend the content of the interview to other topics of interest to decide if the four uses of *yeah* can be consistently explained in different contexts of communication. However, the fact that the four major uses of *yeah* have been successfully explained within the framework of Relevance Theory has laid a foundation for future research with a larger data set collected from different groups of English speakers. The fruition of this study has also suggested the possibility of conducting further studies to seek the answer to the question why *yeah* is able to constrain the relevance in a variety of ways, which is not often witnessed in other procedural expressions.

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PHÂN TÍCH DẤU HIỆU DIỄN NGÔN *YEAH* DƯỚI GÓC ĐỘ CỦA LÝ THUYẾT QUAN YẾU

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Tóm tắt: Nghiên cứu này tập trung giải thích cách sử dụng dấu hiệu diễn ngôn *yeah* của người nói tiếng Anh bản ngữ dưới góc độ của lý thuyết quan yếu (Sperber & Wilson, 1995). *Yeah* vốn được coi là một dấu hiệu diễn ngôn, đảm nhiệm một trong bốn chức năng là tạo ra dấu hiệu tiếp tục, dấu hiệu tán đồng, dấu hiệu kiểm soát lượt lời và dấu hiệu lắp. Tuy nhiên, nhìn từ thuyết quan yếu, *yeah* lại được coi là một biểu thị thủ tục, và vì vậy, *yeah* được kì vọng là sẽ giúp tạo ra câu thúc cần thiết lên ngữ cảnh, từ đó tạo điều kiện cho việc thông hiểu trong giao tiếp bằng cách mã hóa một trong ba hiệu ứng ngữ cảnh (hàm ẩn ngữ cảnh, tăng cường, hoặc mâu thuẫn) hoặc tái định hướng người nghe đến những giả thiết cụ thể nhằm dẫn đến diễn nghĩa đã định. Những phân tích các ví dụ về *yeah* của nghiệm viên chỉ ra rằng mỗi chức năng của *yeah* khi được sử dụng như một dấu hiệu diễn ngôn có khả năng tạo ra một câu thúc quan yếu nhất định lên phát ngôn đi theo nó. Những phân tích ban đầu này là cơ sở cho những nghiên cứu sâu hơn để khẳng định *yeah* là một biểu thị thủ tục đa chức năng khi được phân tích dưới góc nhìn của lý thuyết quan yếu.

Từ khóa: Thuyết quan yếu, yeah, dấu hiệu diễn ngôn, hiệu ứng ngữ cảnh, câu thúc quan yếu

LANGUAGE LEARNER AUTONOMY AND LANGUAGE LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES INSIDE AND OUTSIDE CLASSROOM

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Abstract: This study aims at investigating the degree of control that non-English major first-year students exercise over their learning processes, resources and contexts in and out of the classroom. Data were obtained from questionnaires with 63 students, 30-to-60-minute interviews with three students, and the researcher's notes of her observation during classroom lessons. The results from quantitative analysis for Mean and frequency and content analysis for emerging themes of the data reveal variation among the learners and withing each learner regarding the degree of their control over their language learning processes and resources in different contexts of learning and using the language. This suggests the need of helping learners to create learning opportunities both inside and outside the classrooms.

Keywords: autonomy, language learning processes, resources, contexts

1. Introduction

Theoretically speaking, learner autonomy has been a "hot" topic since the appearance of learner centered approach in second language acquisition. Recently, scholars such as Palfreyman and Smith (2003), Benson (1997, 2003), Benson, Chik and Lim (2003), Norton (1995), Norton and Toohey (2002), Toohey and Norton (2003) appear to shift their focuses from technical and psychological aspects onto the cultural, social and political aspects of this concept. However, there are still quite few studies investigating the changes in learners' levels of autonomy across learning contexts. This research is a modest attempt to fill in this gap.

In practice, teaching a "new" honor programme, in which the language learners of whatever language level are expected to show their high employability to difficult employers when graduating from university. This means that in order to be competitive in the severe job markets for big-salary positions, the learners must have the ability to self-direct and control their own learning processes, i.e. they must show a high level of "learner autonomy" (Holec, 1981: 3).

2. Literature review

Learner autonomy is also termed as "learner independence", "self-direction", "autonomous learning" or "independent learning" (Palfreyman & Smith, 2003: 3). For those who follow a learner-centered approach to language learning, the term "autonomy",

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originating in the late 1970s in the West (Lewis & Vialleton, 2011: 206), is synonymous to “independence” (Palfreyman & Smith, 2003: 4). For others (e.g. Boud, 1981; Brookfield, 1986) who take the sociocultural viewpoints inspired by Vygotsky (1978) highlight the collaboration of language learners in their learning process for mutual benefits by suggesting the term “interdependence” instead (Palfreyman & Smith, 2003: 4). Nevertheless, emphasizing the social aspect of language learning, researchers like Norton (1995), Toohey and Norton (2003) prefer the term “agency” to “autonomy” to show that language learners’ investment is part of their self-defining.

Accordingly, there are three broad ways of talking about learner autonomy in language education: (1) a ‘technical’ perspective, emphasizing skills or strategies for unsupervised learning: specific kinds of activity or process such as the ‘metacognitive’, ‘cognitive’, ‘social’ and other strategies identified by Oxford (1990); (2) a ‘psychological’ perspective, emphasizing broader attitudes and cognitive abilities which enable the learner to take responsibility for his/her own learning; and (3) a ‘political’ perspective, emphasizing empowerment or emancipation of learners by giving them control over the content and processes of their learning” (Benson, 1997, cited in Palfreyman & Smith, 2003: 3). Similarly, Oxford (2003) proposes a model of learner autonomy consisting of four perspectives, namely *technical perspective* focussing on the physical situation; *psychological perspective* focussing on characteristics of learners; *sociocultural perspective* focussing on mediated learning; and *political-critical perspective* focussing on ideologies, access, and power structures (pp. 76-80).

Technically, autonomy is used “for situations in which learners study entirely on their own” (Benson & Voller, 1997, 1-2); it refers to “the situation in which the learner is totally responsible for the decisions concerned with his/her learning and the implementation of these decisions” (Dickinson, 1987: 11, quoted in Oxford, 2003: 81). This can be seen in the introduction of Farivar and Rahimi’s (2015) study about Computer Assisted Language Learning which helps to develop learner autonomy among Iranian students. In traditional classroom conditions, in order to nurture learners’ autonomy, Nguyễn Thị Hằng Nga and Nguyễn Ngọc Toàn’s (2017) help 30 learners build their intrinsic motivation by letting them choose the topics and develop their own presentations. These two researchers and Nguyễn Thị Hợp (2018) also introduce the economic concept of goal management to a writing class of 21 second-year non-English major learners. The result of their study reveals that by specifying the learning goal of each language lesson, the teacher can reduce the learning stress, create a favourable and active learning environment and help learners build their goal management skills. Thus, the teacher plays a vital role in creating the physical learning conditions which promote learners’ initiation and responsibilities for their own language learning. However, such abilities are more thoroughly analysed in the psychological field.

Psychologically, autonomy refers to “a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning” (Benson & Voller, 1997). “Autonomous learners are cast in a new perspective, have a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, and decision-making, take independent actions and are expected to assume greater responsibility for and take charge of their own learning” (Little, 1991: 4, cited in Xhaferi & Xhaferi, 2011: 150).

That is, they are well aware of their learning styles and strategies, adventurous, tolerant of ambiguity, and outgoing (Thanasoulas, 2000, cited in Xhaferi & Xhaferi, 2011: 150). In other words, autonomy refers to learners' capacity to self-plan, monitor and self-evaluate their language learning (Benson, 2001: 47; Benson, 2003: 290; Nunan, 2003: 194; Sinclair, 2000). For instance, a study by Ceylan (2015) shows that the more strategies the students employ, the more autonomous they might become as they start to shoulder the responsibility of their own learning process. Specifically, Xhaferi & Xhaferi (2011) identify such common autonomy-development techniques used by teachers and students of higher education in Macedonia as portfolios and learner diaries. Similarly, the effectiveness of using vocabulary notebooks in boosting learner's control over their study processes is confirmed by Vela and Rushidi (2016) in a group of 90 non-English major students at a university English center. In Vietnam, Đinh Thị Hồng Thu's (2017) survey on the autonomy of students of Chinese major shows that although most of the first year students of Chinese major at the University of Languages and International Studies - Vietnam National University Hanoi (ULIS – VNU) are well aware of the necessity of learner autonomy, and although some may plan their own learning, a large majority of the learners cannot set their goals clearly. As to strategies to boost learner autonomy, Lưu Ngọc Lan's (2014) comparison of the viewpoints of 9 teachers and 223 students at ULIS shows a mismatch between the most frequently and effectively used strategies by teachers and those perceived by students. Nevertheless, since language is a means of communication, language learning cannot be regarded as a pure psychological activity. Its social aspect must also be considered.

While psychological perspectives focus on individual learners, "sociocultural perspectives on learner autonomy focus on mediated learning" (Oxford, 2003: 85). For instance, Ismail and Yosof's (2012) study on the use of language learning contracts among 141 first year English as a second language learners highlights the social support in such classroom tasks in creating "a multiplier effect especially on fledgling autonomous learners" (p. 478). Similarly, Benson, Chik and Lim (2003) see autonomy as a sociocultural process through the stories of two successful English learners in Asia. These authors argue that taking culture into consideration, the concept of autonomy should be understood as 'autonomous interdependence' since the language learning process is shaped by the learner's strong sense of both individual identity and cultural identity (Benson, Chik & Lim 2003). When autonomy is seen as closely related to identity, political perspectives also emerge.

Politically, autonomy can be used "for an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education and for the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning" (Benson & Voller, 1997: 1-2, quoted in Nunan, 2003: 193-194). That is, political-critical perspectives on learner autonomy focus on power, access, and ideology (Oxford, 2003: 88). A typical example is Toohey and Norton's (2003) case study on the success of an adult and a child language learners. These authors claim that "learning to use the tool of language […] is primarily a matter of access to skilled performance, practice and access to identities of competence" (p. 71).

Highly aware of the social constraints as well as potential affordances to the language learning process of students inside and outside the classroom, we would like to investigate learners' willingness and exercise of control over the learning goals, materials and conditions. Specifically, this study aims to answer the two questions below.

(1) To what extent do the non-English major learners in the honor programme exercise their control over the learning processes, resources and classroom language learning contexts?

(2) To what extent do these learners exercise their control over the language learning processes, resources and out-of-class language using contexts?

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

This study was carried out in one academic year, with the participation of 63 first-year students majoring in Finance and Banking and Business Administration in the first semester and 20 students of the latter major in the second semester. Though they were at different levels of English proficiency, they were all expected to get CEFR B2 levels in order to learn some of their majors in English in the following academic years. Their English courses are IELTS-oriented.

3.2. Data and data collection

The data were obtained from two questionnaires basing on our interpretation of the term learner autonomy as mentioned above as well as Brookfield's (1990: 32) experiencing learning questionnaire and Wen's (2004: 360-363) language learner factors questionnaire, and in-depth semi-structured interviews lasting from 30 to 60 minutes with three students (whose pseudonyms are Kim, Anh, Tan), and teacher observation and reflection during one academic year. The questionnaires, a common data collection method (Nunan, 2001), were used because of their advantages in time and money saving, objectiveness and "straightforward analysis of answers to closed questions" (Gillham, 2000: 6). The first questionnaire (at the end of the first semester, answered by 63 students) mainly focused on students' reflection on their own classroom learning like their needs for language knowledge and skills. The second questionnaire (at the end of the second semester, delivered to 20 students) focused on their reflection on their language learning process and their expectations for the future use of the target language. This time, all the questions were open-ended in order to reach "a greater level of discovery" (Gillham, 2000a: 5).

After that, three semi-structured interviews were carried out to detect and correct any possible misunderstandings (Gillham, 2000b: 10). The first interview with Kim was carried out in Vietnamese over lunch in a public, but not too noisy, place to make her comfortable. The next one with Tan was conducted after a speaking test as Tan was the last person to sit the test, and he was willing to answer the interview in English for 30 minutes. The last one, lasting nearly 30 minutes, was initiated by Anh in a revision session while the students were asked to look through the course themselves and raise their questions for the teacher. The teacher took notes during the interviews to make the interviewees relaxed and feel free to speak out their memories, thoughts, and opinions (Richards, 2003).

3.3. Data analysis

The students' answers to closed-ended questions in the first questionnaire were counted and summarised in tables and charts.

Their answers to open-ended questions and in the interviews as well as the teacher's notes were examined for "emergent patterns and theme, by looking for anything pertinent to the research question" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, 241). The repetition of such themes is also counted for frequency.

4. Results

4.1. *Learner control of language learning processes, resources and classroom language learning contexts*

4.1.1. Learner self-assessment of their learning processes

The first part of the first questionnaire, consisting of 4 questions, aims at finding out learners' evaluation on their language learning in class during the foundation phase. These questions were built on the basis of our interpretation of the term autonomy as "the exercise of learners' responsibility for their own learning" (Benson & Voller, 1997: 1 - 2, quoted in Nunan, 2003: 193-194).

As the students were required to get quite a high level of language learning at the end of the first academic year, they were expected to invest time and effort in some aspects of language learning more than others. The students' judgment on different aspects of knowledge and skills are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Learners' priority of language aspects

(most => least prioritized : 1-6)	Vocabulary	Grammar	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Mean	3.7	4.5	3.4	2.6	4.2	3.0

As can be seen in Table 1, productive skills tended to receive the most students' attention, with the Means of 2.6 and 3.0 respectively. On the other hand, the students seemed not to pay much attention to studying grammar whose Mean was 4.5. This was confirmed by Kim's answer to the interview: "at secondary school we learned a lot about grammar in the extra courses and I'm quite good at it so at high school we just focus on practising tests" (Interview 1). Similarly, reading also ranked as the second least urgent to most of them with the Mean of 4.2.

However much they tried to produce the language, a considerable number of students were possibly disappointed with the results they received. This can be interpreted from the students' ranking of their progress in language learning in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Student's evaluation of their language learning progress

(most => least progress: 1-6)	Vocabulary	Grammar	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Mean	3.4	3.3	2.9	3.4	2.5	4.4

As we can see, receptive language skills like listening and reading (whose Means of progress were 2.9 and 2.5 respectively) appeared to be perceived as marking the most progress in classroom practices. In contrast, writing was generally regarded as the most difficult skill to master as it was almost ranked as the second least progress the students could make. This perception tends to go in lines with their feedback on the effectiveness of the classroom activities as presented in Chart 1 hereafter.

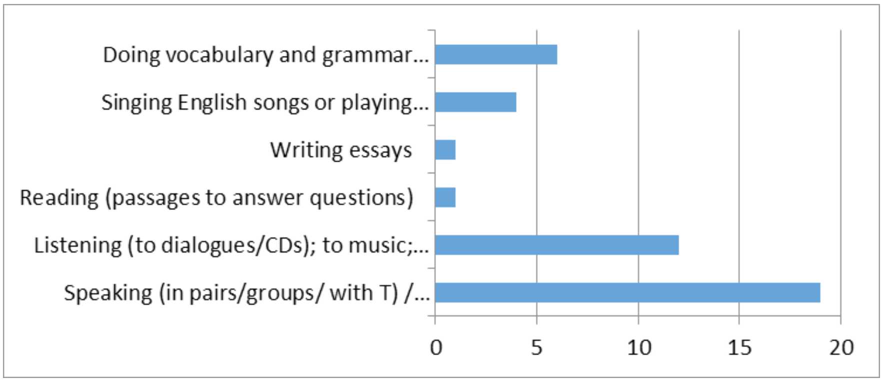

Chart 1: Students' evaluation of the most effective classroom activities

Chart 1 shows that students found they gained the best in speaking activities like discussing with classmates and the teacher in pairs/groups, as they answered Questionnaire 2 "this shows solidarity and chances to help one another; helps me to improve my weak skills; improves both my listening and speaking skills; gives me chances to get knowledge from friends; urges me to catch up with friends and work more seriously; reduces my inferior complexity and makes me more confident".

As to listening, 12 students explicitly stated that they saw listening activities the most effective because they help improve their listening skills and the content of the talks is interesting. They also take the opportunities to get used to the intonation of native speakers and increase their vocabulary. A student specifically mentioned her preference for English songs as this was the time she paid the greatest attention to the matter.

By contrast, only a small number of students (6) found their autonomy in self-study or doing the exercises in the coursebooks, reasoning that this helps them "improve their language easily and increase their self-regulation."

The most effective activities to the students were also the most difficult as presented in Chart 2.

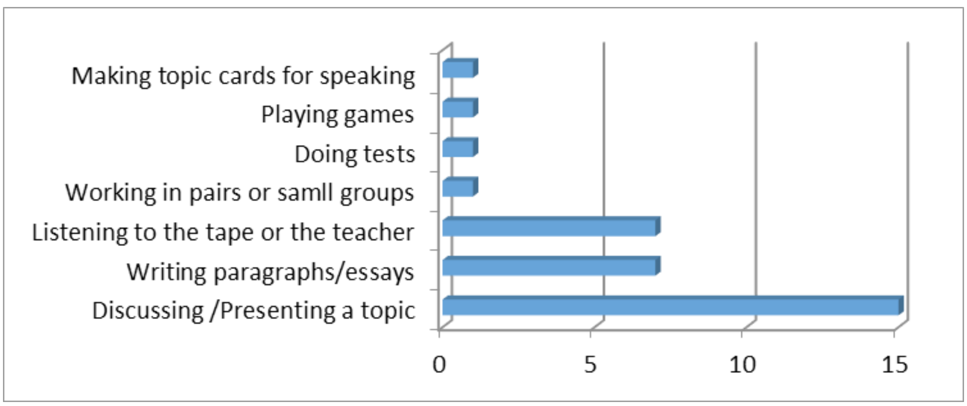

Chart 2: Students' evaluation of the most difficult classroom activities

This chart reveals that while a large number of students (19) found speaking the most effective, an equally considerable number (15) said that they had trouble practicing it in class due to their "lack of vocabulary, poor pronunciation, being unconfident, and lack of sub-skills" (Questionnaire 2). Similarly, 7 students believed that writing was the most difficult for them due to their insufficient vocabulary and grammar knowledge. An equal number of students also found listening (including listening to the teacher) troublesome for the same reasons. Particularly, one student wrote, "I can hear just a little bit, feeling not wanting to learn."

4.1.2. Learner expectation to control their learning processes and resources in class

The second part of the questionnaires highlights the learners' desire to be involved in planning and managing their language learning processes, materials and classroom environment. These questions highlight "the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning" (Benson & Voller, 1997: 1 - 2, quoted in Nunan, 2003: 193-194).

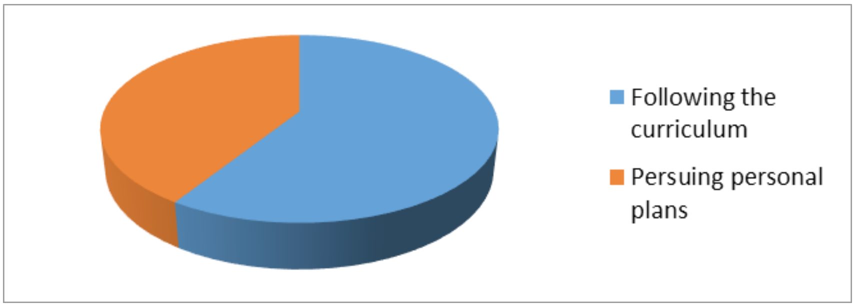

Chart 3: Learners' desire to follow their personal study plans

When asked whether they wanted to keep following the institution's language learning curriculum or pursuing their personal study plans, over half of the students (59%) said that they wanted to study with others (of either lower or higher levels) and nearly half (41%) wanted to completely taking charge of their study.

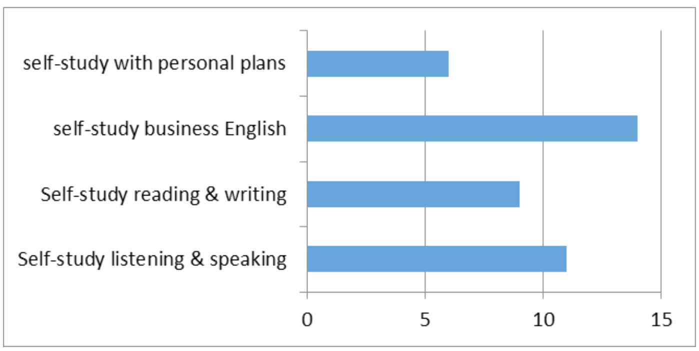

Chart 4: Learners' preference for self-study programmes

Chart 4 presents the number of students showing preference for self-study programmes. They wanted to strengthen their language skills like listening and speaking (11 students) and reading and writing (9 students). Others (14) said that they wanted to study Business English or they had their own plans for learning English (6 students). Such plans were specified in their answers to the questionnaire as “writing essays, following the teacher’s guide, improving their own four skills with 2-3 reading passages and 1 Business English text, writing an essay or a report every day to present in front of the class for the teacher to comment.” For those who wanted to follow the school curriculum, they also wanted to add the activities of going out and communicating with foreigners to the schedule as one wrote in the questionnaire. This is partly shown in their preference for their initiation, activity types and partners in Chart 5 hereafter.

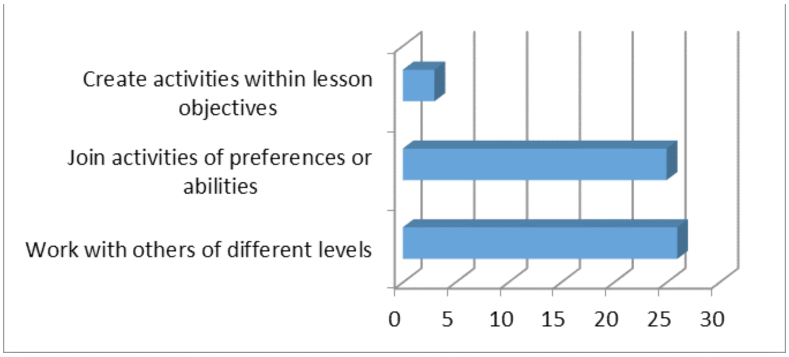

Chart 5: Learners’ control of content and environment

As presented in Chart 5, even choosing to follow the school curriculum, the learners also showed their preference to exercise their control over the pair/group work activities including working with other learners of higher or lower language levels and according to their preferences and abilities (25-26 students said so). Importantly, 3 students even stated that they could create language learning activities following the lesson objectives.

4.2. *Learner control over language learning processes, resources, and out-of-class language using contexts*

Part of the first questionnaire also attempts to find out learners’ learning activities outside the classroom and their attitudes towards possible learning resources available, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Students’ taking online and/or extra English courses

Semester 1: Number
students took online courses 3
students took extra English courses 15
students wanted an online account 26

In the first semester, the number of students who took online courses was very small: only three students. Those who were taking courses at an English center made a triple number of this one. Among these students, their favourite English learning activity was communicating with foreigners in communicative English courses where they found their progress in communication. In the second questionnaire, two students also emphasized that they took English courses with foreign teachers so that they could communicate in English only.

Twenty-six participants showed their willingness to pay 100,000VND for the English Department's online account. The reasons mentioned by them in the questionnaire were their poor communicative skills and needs for help in practice, their view of its necessity and usefulness and even their spare time for having not taken an extra course.

On the other hand, 34 students refused to buy this online account because they "did not have time and could not arrange time for studying online; they already took courses at English centers, found this not necessary and were not sure of its effectiveness."

The students also sought for opportunities to be exposed to and use the target language as revealed in the second questionnaire and the in-depth interviews. As to the way they learn English outside school, four students wrote that they often listened to music and watched videos, films and news in English.

Five other students mentioned that they sought for opportunities to use English in real life by talking with customers in their part-time jobs and with foreign exchange students in a volunteer programme and foreign visitors in opportunities created by themselves. A student told us about her practice of English in her part-time job below.

"I meet her [my colleague] about once a week and we speak in English whenever there are no customers. We talk about girl-related problems, our work, our future, challenges in life, outing, life skills, etc. - everything in English. She teaches me a lot about life skills and communicative skills like not showing your sad face when working out or even when feeling tired at work. She also teaches me how to answer customers, how to arrange goods according to production dates and expiry dates, which I did not notice. But we can speak in English only when there are no customers." (Interview 3, Anh)

Another student has experienced talking with foreign exchange students in several chances:

"When I was in grade 6 or 7, there was a student exchange programme and my sister invited a foreign student to stay in my house for about 1 month. Whenever I learned a new word I'd talk with her. I was not afraid of talking with foreigners. I just say out my thought. […] And then for two weeks at the beginning of this semester, I also joined the volunteer groups to help foreign students going around in their programmes of donating books to Vietnamese schools. We had difficulty understanding each other at first but then things were okay. We still keep contact now." (Interview 1, Kim)

Some other students seek for opportunities to use English in real life communication themselves by going to places (like Ta Hien street as mentioned by a student) where there are foreign visitors. For instance, Tan told us in the interview, "I join events with groups of foreigners and Vietnamese students who are good at English: having dinner, talking, and traveling around Hoan Kiem lake."

5. Discussion

Despite as the fact that some students seem to lay the locus (i.e. place) of control on the teacher, a considerable number of students do show their high level of autonomy in controlling their learning process, content and environment by organising their (class and self) learning activities, seeking language learning resources on the Internet and in real life, and creating opportunities to use the target language in places where English speaking people are available.

Such willingness to take responsibility for their own learning is a typical feature of learner autonomy as mentioned by Sinclair (2000, quoted in Borg, 2012: 5). This can be seen in a student's willingness to be the teacher assistant when she approached the teacher after the lesson the other day. She said, "I can be your assistant. I can help you teach the vocabulary. I think it's most important to learn new words in a foreign language. You know, I'm working part-time as a teacher assistant at an English center". This example can also be regarded as an indicator of the student's intrinsic motivation for life-long learning (Nguyễn Thị Hằng Nga & Nguyễn Ngọc Toàn, 2017).

Additionally, this student shows two typical features of an autonomous language learner, that is the ability to control their own [as well as the class'] learning process (Holec, 1981; Little, 2009: 223) and the capability of critical reflection and initiation of change (Little, 1991; Little, 2009). Specifically, the learner's offer to help the teacher teach new words to the class also shows his/her ability to carry out management tasks like identifying the aim of vocabulary learning, having ideas of what words are necessary, choosing an appropriate teaching approach as well as evaluating the effectiveness of the teacher's instruction (Holec, 1981: 3, quoted in Lewis & Vialleton, 2011: 206).

However, the number of such autonomous learners is not very big. Among them, only one student, who often spoke English with her Vietnamese co-worker in the part-time job, often showed attention in the lesson and took classroom learning seriously. The other two students who appeared to actively seek opportunities to communicate with foreigners outside school were sometimes off tasks in the class. Such a reality proves that "complete autonomy is an idealistic goal" and that "the degrees of autonomy are unstable and variable" (Sinclair, 2000, quoted in Borg, 2012, 5).

Looking more closely at the stories told by the students, we can see that autonomy comes as a result of both their will and luck, i.e. "autonomy has a social as well as an individual dimension" (Sinclair, 2000, quoted in Borg, 2012, 5). Tan was first introduced to a social meeting event with foreigners in his neighbourhood by his close friend who knew that his English was good enough (as he studied in English in Sweden from grade 3 to grade 7) to socialize with them throughout the evening. Then he made friends with a number of people there and kept meeting them during such social events till now. As for Kim, thanks to her active sister who took a foreign student home in an exchange programme, she had opportunities to communicate with that student and still kept contact with her at the time of the interview. Her university also brought her another chance to work with foreign exchange students for two weeks. Lastly, in Anh's case, she got the part-time job by chance and met her co-worker there who initiated to keep practising English in order not to forget her English.

In general, throughout a year learning English at school, the number of students clearly showing their high level of autonomy seems not to meet expectation. Nevertheless, "the Western style of autonomy based on language teaching cannot suit the learning style of each student" (Egel, 2009: 2024).

Students' preference to follow the teacher's teaching plans and assignments does not mean that they are weak or unfavoured learners.

6. Conclusion

In this study, we explored the levels of autonomy in terms of learners' control over their language learning process, resources and contexts both inside and outside the classroom. The results of the study reveal that learners do "become more autonomous in language learning in proportion as they become more autonomous in language use, and vice versa" (Little, 1991, cited in Little, 2009). Nevertheless, the learner's degree of autonomy is not constant throughout different language learning contexts in and out of the classroom. In addition, learner autonomy cannot simply be built by giving them chances to control their own learning; it is the complex combination of learner's motivation, investment of money, time and effort and the social situation. In some cases, with low level language learners, for example, "the inability to control [many aspects of the situation in language learning] does not make either [the teacher or the learner] less autonomous" (Lewis & Vialleton, 2011: 218). Such complexity leaves land for further investigation to enrich our knowledge in this aspect of language learning.

As for practitioners, though this study presents some specific examples of learners being very active to use English outside the classroom, it also shows a number of students who may be silent in class. This tends to suggest that some students prefer language using to "official" language learning. Thus, the teacher should create opportunities for learners to use the language by themselves and contribute to the autonomous community of classroom as suggested below.

7. Recommendation – classroom as an autonomous learning community

The idea of building the classroom as an autonomous learning community addresses "the importance of developing learner autonomy within the classroom through the support of the teachers and collaboration of the learners" on the basis that "learners are able to develop cognitive skills for their learning by being provided the opportunities to make decisions within the classroom" (Egel, 2009: 2024). It should follow three key principles: (1) learner involvement in planning, monitoring and evaluating their own learning, (2) learner continual reflection on the process and content of their learning and to engage in regular self-assessment, and (3) target language use: the target language as the medium as well as the goal of learning, including its reflective component (Little, 2001, cited in Little, 2009: 224). These can be specified as three main steps in developing learner autonomy: raising awareness, changing attitudes, and transferring roles (Scharle & Szabó, 2000).

First, learners should be aware of the pedagogical goals and content of the materials they are using (Nunan, 1997). The questionnaires in this study were an example of helping learners reflect on their own learning process. Moreover, in the first classroom meeting, the students were informed of the course objectives and coursebooks. Then, they were divided into groups according to their language levels through a placement test on vocabulary, grammar, reading, and listening as well as a short speaking test. This is to prepare them for the second level of learner involvement in selecting their own goals from a range of alternatives on offer as suggested by Nunan (1997). In fact, at the beginning of each lesson, we presented its aims and correspondent activities of different levels of difficulties such as writing an advertisement of their house basing on the sample texts in the book or video taping their recommendation of a real hotel nearby for a conference. By giving learners choices like this, we expected that they would recognize of message of promoting their autonomy, and thus change their learning attitudes from being passive to more active, and proactive.

Then, the teacher should direct students' attitudes in terms of motivation, learning strategies, community building and self-mornitoring towards (Scharle & Szabó, 2000) a higher level of autonomy, namely "intervention" (Nunan, 1997). At this levels, learners should be involved in modifying and adapting the goals and content of the learning program. As can be seen in this study, once the students are aware of their strengths and weakenesses as well as their own learning priorities as raised in the questionnaires, the learners could change the objectives of each specific task they choose to match their own learning goals and preferences.

The last step refers to transferring roles. In Nunan's (1997) words, learners should reach the last two levels of learners' creation of their own goals and objectives and transcendence: learners' going beyond the classroom and making links between the content of classroom learning and the world beyond. This can be seen in the case of the student approaching the teacher offerring to help teaching vocabulary or the case of the student initiating a talk with the teaching in English, telling her story of communicating with her co-worker in this language.

By taking the role of a researcher and adviser for their learners, teachers can build an autonomous learning classroom in which learners can build their habit of taking control over their own learning and seek for opportunities to learn beyond the school as one student responded in the questionnaire: "learning English is my habit, and I love it."

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TÍNH TỰ CHỦ CỦA NGƯỜI HỌC NGOẠI NGỮ VÀ CƠ HỘI HỌC TẬP TRONG VÀ NGOÀI LỚP HỌC

Hoàng Nguyễn Thu Trang

Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, ĐHQGHN, Phạm Văn Đồng, Cầu Giấy, Hà Nội, Việt Nam

Tóm tắt: Nghiên cứu này được thực hiện nhằm chỉ ra mức độ người học là sinh viên không chuyên năm thứ nhất thể hiện tính tự giác trong đánh giá và quản lý quá trình học tập, nguồn lực và môi trường học ngoại ngữ trong và ngoài lớp. Dữ liệu được thu thập từ bảng hỏi với 63 sinh viên, phỏng vấn bán cấu trúc (trong vòng 30-60 phút) và ghi chép quan sát của người dạy trong các tiết học. Kết quả thống kê để tìm giá trị trung bình và tần xuất và phân tích nội dung để tìm điểm chung trong dữ liệu này cho thấy mức độ kiểm soát của các sinh viên cũng như mỗi sinh viên đối với quá trình và tài liệu học tập trong các môi trường học khác nhau là không giống nhau. Điều này thể hiện tầm quan trọng của việc giúp người học kiến tạo cơ hội học tập trong và ngoài lớp học.

Từ khóa: tính tự chủ, quá trình học tập, nguồn lực học tập, môi trường học tập

INFORMATION

PUBLIC DIPLOMACY AND THE IMPLEMENTATION OF FOREIGN POLICY IN THE US, SWEDEN AND TURKEY

Sevin Efe

Cham, Switzerland: Palgrave Macmillan, 2017

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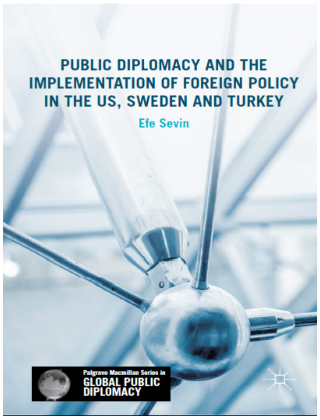

'Public diplomacy works, but HOW?' - the casual link between public diplomacy projects and foreign policy outcomes remains unearthed. The book under review offers an inclusive analytical framework, the six pathways of connection, to shed light on that unanswered question. Sevin's framework is credited with providing a roadmap for designing more effective and efficient public diplomacy projects which yield impacts on foreign policy goal achievement.

Sevin seeks an applicable delineation to all practitioner countries based on the contemporarily relational diplomacy concept. As defined, public diplomacy refers to 'the communication-based activities of states and state-sanctioned actors aimed at non-state groups in other countries with the expectation of helping to achieve foreign policy goals and objectives' (p. 37). In addition, the second chapter demonstrates the need for a transdisciplinary approach to tackle the intervention of political and historical factors in the measurement of public diplomacy impacts on foreign policy outcomes. Along with the above two components, three proposed connections between public diplomacy episodes and foreign policy – public opinion, relationship dynamics and public debates – form the last constituent of the theoretical framework for practice-based research methodology.

Another distinctive theoretical contribution to the literature on public diplomacy is the author's equal use of three mainstream international relation theories – realism, liberalism and constructivism – to introduce

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and rationalize the three areas in which public diplomacy projects can manifest its impact on foreign policy goal advancement. Public diplomacy might exert its influence on public opinion in another country (through attraction and benefit of the doubt pathways), relationship dynamics between countries and audiences (through socialization and direct influence pathways), and the issues discussed among the publics (through agenda-setting and framing pathways). The objective analytical framework integrated with the subjective practice-collected information might balance between theory and practice. This guarantees unbiased conclusions drawn from public diplomacy practitioners' view of what function their projects play in attaining foreign policy goals.

Chapters four, five, and six of the book are dedicated to the studies of three distinctive public diplomacy practitioners and approaches, respectively, from the U.S., Sweden to Turkey. The three chapters follow the same pattern of idea organization: first, brief overview of the history of public diplomacy and current situations; second, descriptive analysis of a representative relational public diplomacy project for each country and detailed description of a key component in the project; and third, explanation of the applicability of the six pathways to justify the contribution of each project to foreign policy goal achievement. The analysis of the empirical evidence - practitioners' viewpoints on the contributions of their projects to attaining foreign policy goals - utilizes the six pathways of connection and is presented in a well-structured and engaging style. The exemplary project of U.S. public diplomacy practice is the 'Education, Culture, Sports, and Media Working Group of the U.S. – Russia Bilateral Presidential Communication', of Sweden is 'Facing the Climate' project, and of Turkey is TÜRKSOY (International Organization of Turkic Culture). The employment of the six pathways of connection supports the unquantifiable but convincing causal mechanism of public diplomacy projects and foreign policy goals. That is a substantive contribution to public diplomacy impact measurement and evaluation practices.

In chapter seven, the book offers an insightful and critical cross-case comparative study of the above selected projects. The comparison of the three diversified cases concludes that no single pathway of connection is capable of explaining the intangible long-term impact of a relational public diplomacy project on foreign policy. It is best enlightened through the inclusive combination of its influence on the practitioner's good faith, new roles and relations, and its relating new issues or new coverage of old issues among foreign publics and media.

Both chapters seven and eight indicate that soft power assets are not necessarily universal and they do not provide a comprehensive framework for public diplomacy impact evaluation. In fact, public diplomacy projects generate soft power rather than function as a means for soft power projection and simply employ its assets. Whilst U.S. soft power is derived from its attractiveness to foreign audiences in terms of cultural products, organizations and technical expertise, Swedish is environmental policies. Nevertheless, both practitioners become appealing to foreign publics thanks to the prominence of their soft power assets. On the contrary, Turkish soft power is derived from shared cultural values and 'cultural affinity' (p. 170). Therefore, it is essential to 'contextualize' soft power according to practice and political environments and move beyond soft power to properly appreciate the significance of public diplomacy in international affairs management.

The necessity of new tools and methods to prove the prominent role of public diplomacy in foreign policy toolbox is stressed in the book. The six pathways of connects is a 'step towards this goal' and an attempt to rationalize the public diplomacy-foreign policy linkage without quantifying the non-quantifiable impact of this tool (p. 202). This lends a voice to the advocacy of public diplomacy necessity. Notwithstanding, the causal mechanism which is theoretically analysed and empirically evidenced solely offers a roadmap to future public diplomacy project design and existing project assessment, not a strategy for their successful implementation.

Such restricted scope does not downgrade its value as a remarkable convergence of public diplomacy study and practice. This theory-and-practice intertwining research is a must read for both scholars and practitioners. All chapters are also accessible to non-academic audiences for their lucid presentation and comprehensible academic vocabulary. In conclusion, the book is warmly welcome to global public diplomacy literature.

THỂ LỆ GỬI BÀI

1. **Tạp chí Nghiên cứu Nước ngoài** là ấn phẩm khoa học chính thức của Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội, kế thừa và phát triển *Chuyên san Nghiên cứu Nước ngoài* của Tạp chí Khoa học, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội. Tạp chí xuất bản định kỳ 06 số/năm (02 số tiếng Việt/năm và 04 số tiếng Anh/năm từ năm 2019 trở đi), công bố các công trình nghiên cứu có nội dung khoa học mới, chưa đăng và chưa được gửi đăng ở bất kỳ tạp chí nào, thuộc các lĩnh vực: *ngôn ngữ học, giáo dục ngoại ngữ/ngôn ngữ, quốc tế học hoặc các ngành khoa học xã hội và nhân văn có liên quan.*

2. Bài gửi đăng cần trích dẫn ÍT NHẤT 01 bài đã đăng trên **Tạp chí Nghiên cứu Nước ngoài**.

3. Bài báo có thể viết bằng tiếng Việt hoặc tiếng Anh (***tối thiểu*** 10 trang/khoảng 4.000 từ đối với bài nghiên cứu và 5 trang/khoảng 2.000 từ đối với bài thông tin-trao đổi) được soạn trên máy vi tính, khổ giấy A4, cách lề trái 2,5cm, lề phải 2,5cm, trên 3,6cm, dưới 4,3cm, font chữ Times New Roman, cỡ chữ 11, cách dòng Single.

4. Tất cả các bài báo phải có tóm tắt (không quá 200 từ) và từ khóa (không quá 5 từ) bằng cả tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt. Tên bài báo bằng chữ hoa in đậm.

5. Bài báo phải được trình bày theo thứ tự sau: Tên bài báo, (Các) Tác giả, Tên cơ quan của (các) tác giả, Tóm tắt, Từ khóa, Nội dung của bài báo, Lời cảm ơn (nếu có), Tài liệu tham khảo, Phụ lục (nếu có). Tác giả liên hệ phải được chỉ rõ cùng với địa chỉ cơ quan, e-mail, số điện thoại trên trang nhất của bản thảo.

6. Tài liệu tham khảo phải được chỉ rõ trong bài báo. Ở cuối bài, tài liệu tham khảo được sắp xếp riêng theo từng ngôn ngữ, trong đó tiếng Việt đầu tiên, ví dụ như Việt, Ả Rập, Trung, Anh, Pháp, Đức, Nhật, Hàn, Nga, Thái, theo thứ tự bảng chữ cái của tên tác giả Việt Nam hoặc của họ tác giả nước ngoài và được trình bày theo APA như sau:

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Nguyễn Thiện Giáp (2008). *Giáo trình Ngôn ngữ học*. Hà Nội: Nxb Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội.

Saussure, Ferdinand de (1959). *Course in General Linguistics.* Edited by Charles Bally and Albert Sechehaye in collaboration with Albert Reidlinger, translated by Wade Baskin. New York: Philosophical Library.

+ Đối với các tài liệu là bài báo, báo cáo hội nghị hội thảo:

Trần Thị Cúc, Đỗ Thị Thanh Hà (2015). Patterns of Code-Mixing of English in Hoa Hoc Tro Magazine in Vietnam. *VNU Journal of Science: Foreign Studies, 31*(4), 11-24.

Lâm Quang Đông (2015). Quá trình tư duy ở người lớn học ngoại ngữ: một trường hợp điển cứu. Kỷ yếu Hội thảo quốc tế *Đổi mới việc dạy-học & nghiên cứu Hàn Quốc học tại Việt Nam.* Hà Nội, ngày 10 tháng 4 năm 2015, tr. 172-191.

+ Đối với các tài liệu truy cập trên mạng:

Baker, Mark C. (1989). Object Sharing and Projection in Serial Verb Constructions, *Linguistic Inquiry*, *20* (4) (Autumn, 1989), pp. 513-553, Cambridge: The MIT Press. Available through <http://www.jstor.org/stable/ 4178644>, Accessed 14/03/2012 06:49

An Ngọc (2013). *Nghề biên-phiên dịch thiếu chuẩn mực nghề nghiệp*, Truy cập lúc 10:30 ngày 29/11/2015 tại http://www.vietnamplus.vn/nghe-bienphien-dich-thieu-chuan-muc-nghe-nghiep/234990.vnp.

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Tác giả chịu hoàn toàn trách nhiệm trước pháp luật về nội dung bài viết và xuất xứ tài liệu trích dẫn.

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+ Online materials:

Baker, Mark C. (1989) 'Object Sharing and Projection in Serial Verb Constructions', *Linguistic Inquiry*, *20* (4) (Autumn, 1989), pp. 513-553, Cambridge: The MIT Press. Available through <http://www.jstor.org/stable/ 4178644>, Accessed 14/03/2012 06:49

An Ngọc (2013). *Nghề biên-phiên dịch thiếu chuẩn mực nghề nghiệp*, Truy cập lúc 10:30 ngày 29/11/2015 tại http://www.vietnamplus.vn/nghe-bienphien-dich-thieu-chuan-muc-nghe-nghiep/234990.vnp.

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