TẠP CHÍ NGHIÊN CỨU NƯỚC NGOÀI
VNU JOURNAL OF FOREIGN STUDIES
ISSN 2525-2445

Xuất bản 01 kỳ/02 tháng

Giấy phép hoạt động báo chí in
Số 550/GP-BTTTT ngày 09/12/2016
của Bộ Thông tin và Truyền thông

Tạp chí *Nghiên cứu Nước ngoài*, Tầng 3, Nhà A1, Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội, Phạm Văn Đồng, Cầu Giấy, Hà Nội, Việt Nam

*** ĐT.: (84-24) 62532956 * Email: tapchincnn@gmail.com / tapchincnn@vnu.edu.vn**
*** Website: https://js.vnu.edu.vn/FS/**

VNU JOURNAL OF FOREIGN STUDIES
Vol.35, No.6, 2019

CONTENTS

TẠP CHÍ NGHIÊN CỨU NƯỚC NGOÀI
Tập 35, Số 6, 2019

MỤC LỤC

NGHIÊN CỨU

TRAO ĐỔI

THÔNG TIN KHOA HỌC

RESEARCH

EXAMINING THE EFFECTS OF THREE JIGSAW LISTENING ACTIVITIES ON TEXT COMPREHENSION: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

Nguyen Chi Duc*, Pham Xuan Tho

VNU University of Languages and International Studies

Pham Van Dong, Cau Giay, Hanoi, Vietnam

Received 14 October 2019
Revised 19 December 2019; Accepted 22 December 2019

Abstract: This exploratory study examined the relative effects on L2 listening comprehension of three different jigsaw procedures: having learners listen to either the first or the second half of an input text and then share the content with a classmate who did not listen to the same half (*Jigsaw-Listening 1*), or having them implement the same procedure as above, but followed by their actual exposure to either the remaining content (*Jigsaw-Listening 2*) or the whole listening passage (*Jigsaw-Listening 3*). Their text comprehension as gauged by ten multiple-choice content questions was subsequently compared to that obtained by learners who listened to the same complete input text, either once (*One-time Listening*) or twice (*Repeated-Listening*). The quantitative results showed that all Jigsaw Listening groups obtained better text comprehension than the One-time Listening group. The learners in Jigsaw-Listening 2 and 3 were also found to outperform those in the Repeated-Listening group. Follow-up interviews with some participants randomly selected from the Jigsaw-Listening groups revealed that these learners carried out different metacognitive strategies to complete their assigned listening procedures and the more strategies they used, the better listening outcome they produced. These findings have implications for both L2 listening instructors and course designers.

Keywords: jigsaw listening, text comprehension, metacognitive listening strategies, advance organizers

1. Introduction

The idea of jigsaw listening dates back to the 1970s (e.g., Geddes and Sturtridge, 1978). In this listening procedure, an input text is often divided into smaller sections, which are subsequently assigned as a listening task to different groups of L2 learners. After the first round of listening, learners are regrouped to share the content with those who have not listened to the same section yet. In some cases, learners are also provided with the opportunity to actually listen to the section of the listening text that their classmates have told them about or to the whole listening text. Jigsaw listening was first introduced into the language classroom mainly as a tool to promote learner autonomy and cooperative learning (see Harlim (1999) for a detailed review). However, this classroom activity may be beneficial for text comprehension (for reasons discussed further below).

Effects of jigsaw activities on text comprehension have been relatively well-researched in the context of L2 reading, but

* Corresponding author: Tel.: 84-346816302
Email: ducnc@vnu.edu.vn

are surprisingly under-researched in the context of L2 listening. Such research would be welcome for at least three reasons. First and foremost, it may provide instructors of L2 listening courses with evidence regarding whether jigsaw listening has merits other than fostering learner autonomy and cooperative learning. As jigsaw listening often takes up more classroom time due to the presence of the sharing/speaking session inserted in between, this evidence allows us to justify whether our investment of such extra time is worthwhile. Second, it can help answer the question as to whether different jigsaw activities have the same or differing effects on L2 listening comprehension, which, in turn, may inform decision making upon what types of jigsaw activities should be incorporated in our listening-based lessons. Finally, it also gives us initial ideas about what types of metacognitive processes L2 learners may use during jigsaw listening and how these processes influence the listening outcome.

2. Literature Review

Jigsaw activities and L2 reading and listening ability development

Most previous research on the effects of jigsaw activities concerns the development of L2 reading ability. Using a between-participant research design, these studies compared the degrees of L2 reading ability development between a jigsaw reading condition and a control condition (where no jigsaw reading was applied). Their results consistently show that jigsaw activities brought about significantly better L2 reading ability than traditional instructional techniques (Prom, 2014; Kazemi, 2012; Mauludi, 2011). It should also be noted that such an effect might differ across different reading subskills. Prom (2012), for example, found that jigsaw reading could enhance L2 learners' skimming and inference skills to a great extent, but its effect on their scanning and fact-vs.-opinion differentiation skills was relatively small. Nevertheless, it is still clear from the above studies that jigsaw activities indeed foster the development of L2 reading ability. Such a positive effect is often attributed to the following factors. First, as jigsaw reading often requires L2 learners to read only a section of an input text, they can focus their mental resources on this section and apply different metacognitive strategies to facilitate their reading comprehension (Mauludi, 2011). Additionally, in jigsaw reading, learners need to share reading content with a classmate who has not been exposed to the same content yet. The announcement of such a sharing task at the pre-reading stage is likely to prompt learners to get more engaged in their reading process (Kazemi, 2012; Mauludi, 2011). Finally, the positive classroom atmosphere that jigsaw reading often brings about is also deemed to be conducive to learning (Kazemi, 2012). Taken altogether, jigsaw reading provides L2 readers with both cognitive and affective benefits.

Given the considerable amount of research investigating the effects of jigsaw activities on L2 reading ability development as already reviewed above, one might expect to see a similar number of such studies in the context of L2 listening. However, it appears that only two published experimental studies are available. One was carried out by Tuanany and Bharati (2017). In this study, EFL learners were involved either in a jigsaw listening or a problem-solving listening procedure (the nature of these procedures is not described). The effects of these listening procedures on L2 listening comprehension were determined by pre- and post-tests (neither is the nature of these tests described). The results showed that learners in both conditions significantly improved their scores from the pre-test to the post-test, but jigsaw listening was found to fare better than problem-solving listening. The effects of these listening techniques were both moderated by the level of the learners' listening anxiety. This study is limited in the regard that it did not compare the pre-test scores between the two treatment groups. As a consequence, the difference in their post-test scores might have been due to different listening abilities prior to this experiment.

The other study was conducted by Chofifah and Kumalarini (2013). In this study, a group of Grade 10th EFL learners were first required to listen to a set of input materials and then completed a text comprehension test (which was used as a pre-test). In the experimental stage, they were split into different groups of five or six, listened to different parts of the materials above, got regrouped to report their listening content to those who were not exposed to the same parts yet, and then came back to their original groups for a whole-class checking of their text comprehension. After the experiment, they were asked to listen to the entire input set again and completed the same text comprehension test (which was, in fact, used as a post-test in this study). The results showed that there was a significant improvement in their text comprehension scores from the pre-test to the post-test. This study also has several methodological limitations. The difference in the scores between the pre-test and the post-test could be attributed to the difference in the listening outcome after the first (i.e., in the case of the pre-test) and after the third listening to the same input (i.e., in the case of the post-test), regardless of the precise activities performed. The absence of a control/comparison group makes it impossible to attribute this improvement to the nature of the treatment as such. Moreover, it can be argued that the procedure used in this study does not qualify as jigsaw listening as the learners were exposed to the complete input materials before they were asked to share information (and so there was no genuine information gap).

In sum, there is substantial evidence to suggest that jigsaw activities benefit L2 reading, but there is insufficient evidence to confirm that this also holds true for L2 listening. In addition, there has been, to the best of my knowledge, no empirical research that gives a closer look at the metacognitive processes that L2 learners engage in to complete jigsaw listening and the effects of these processes on their listening outcome. Thus, the present study aims to extend this research line.

Jigsaw listening and its potential benefits for text comprehension

As already suggested in the introduction, jigsaw listening may benefit L2 listening ability beyond fostering learner autonomy and cooperative learning. In what follows, I will discuss these benefits in more detail.

First of all, in jigsaw listening, learners are often required to share listening content with a classmate who has not been exposed to the same input material yet. Such a retelling activity might prompt learners to reprocess perceived information at a deeper level, which therefore enhances their understanding and retention of that content. Theoretically, this view is in line with Wittrock's *Model of Generative Teaching of Comprehension* (2010). In this model, Wittrock suggests that when learners are required to read/listen to an input text and then summarize the input content, they need to ***generate*** mental links between different ideas in that input material as well as between these ideas and relevant schemata in their long-term memory (my emphasis). This generation, in turn, helps them to cultivate greater comprehension and retention of that content. Previous research also supports this stance. Nguyen and Boers (2019), for example, carried out a classroom-based study to compare the effect on L2 listening comprehension of inserting a retelling activity into a cycle of repeated listening with that of mere repeated listening. The former indeed fared better. Another plausible explanation for this finding is that the retelling activity might have helped learners to identify what they missed in the first listening and therefore could have prompted them to collect this information in the second round of listening.

In case learners are allowed to actually listen to the content that their classmates have just told them, what they receive from their classmates can work as an "*advance organizer*" of the upcoming listening content (Ausubel, 1978). This advance organizer is often found to facilitate L2 listening comprehension. Herron, Cole, York, and Linden (1995), for instance, compared L2 listening comprehension across three groups of learners. Two groups received either a summary of the video or multiple-choice questions about its content before watching it, while the third group received no such advance organizers. The former two groups subsequently scored significantly higher on a text comprehension test than the latter. Jafari and Hashim (2012) also compared the level of L2 listening comprehension across three different learning conditions. In this study, learners were required to listen to short passages, but received either a summary of the input content, a set of key words in those input materials or no support before listening. The results showed that the learners who received the key vocabulary or the summary of the input content before listening significantly outperformed those who did not receive any pre-listening support on a post-listening test. The effects on text comprehension of the summary and the key vocabulary condition were roughly the same. Follow-up interviews with the learners, however, revealed that they preferred receiving the summary to the key words. This was because the summary helped them to grasp the topic and the main ideas of the upcoming listening content, which, in turn, facilitated their input processing. Meanwhile, they considered the key words useless and even distractive to their listening process. These two studies clearly demonstrate a positive effect on L2 listening comprehension of giving learners a summary of input content as an advance organizer before they actually listen to an input text. There are two plausible explanations for this finding. First, such an advance organizer prompts learners to activate their top-down processing. In addition, it also helps reduce the amount of mental resources that they otherwise need for processing the input. This amount of mental resources can be reallocated for their bottom-up processing and also to help them move back and forth between top-down and bottom-up processes. Put differently, the summary above allows learners to make full use of both top-down and bottom-up processing – two crucial components of the listening process.

From the perspectives of metacognitive strategy training, the sharing session of jigsaw listening has two other potential benefits for L2 listening comprehension. On the part of summary providers, this session prompts them to re-examine the quality of their first listening. In case they are provided with the opportunity to listen to the input text a second time, they can recollect the information that they miss during their first listening. On the part of summary receivers, they may use the given topic, key ideas and idea organization as a basis to activate relevant schemata of topical knowledge (i.e., content schemata) and discourse structure (i.e., formal schemata) in their long-term memory and thus facilitate their top-down processing. Put differently, jigsaw listening may help learners to plan for, monitor their listening process, identify listening problems and find suitable solutions for these problems as well as evaluate their listening outcome – the four main metacognitive processes in Vandergrift and Goh's *Model of Metacognitive Listening* (2012). Previous research often shows that learners who are able to make full use of these four metacognitive processes are likely to succeed in their L2 listening. Gu, Hu and Zhang (2009), for instance, used verbal protocols to examine differences in listening strategies carried out by good and bad listeners. The results showed that the former consciously employed their previous topical and linguistic knowledge to reconstruct, interpret and summarize listening content as well as continually making predictions and/

or inferences about this content. By contrast, the latter spent most of their time decoding the input text rather than monitoring their listening processes. Vandergrift (2003) also compared the types of metacognitive processes employed by strong and weak L2 listeners. It was found that the former carried out planning, monitoring and problem-solving strategies to foster their listening process more frequently than the latter. Thus, a common recommendation derived from previous research is that such metacognitive strategies should be incorporated into listening-based lessons in some way.

Taken altogether, jigsaw listening is likely to prompt L2 learners to activate the metacognitive processes that are deemed to foster their interpretation and retention of input content. Thus, it is meaningful to investigate the effects on text comprehension of this listening procedure, especially the metacognitive processes that L2 learners employ as they perform it.

3. The present study

Research aims and research questions

This exploratory study investigates the relative effects on L2 listening comprehension of three different jigsaw listening activities: having learners listen to either the first half or the second half of an input text and then share the content with a classmate who has not listened to the same input material yet (a) or having them carry out the same procedure as above, but followed by their actual exposure to either the remaining half (b) or the whole listening passage (c). Their text comprehension is subsequently compared to that obtained by two comparison groups who listen to the same input text, but either once or twice. As we can see, the amount of time invested in each learning condition differs from one to another. Thus, the present study also examines whether the effects on L2 listening comprehension of those learning conditions (if any) are moderated by the amount of time on task as well. Finally, it takes a closer look at the metacognitive processes that L2 learners use to complete their assigned jigsaw listening activity and the effects of those processes on their listening outcome. Put differently, this study seeks to answer the following research questions:

a. *Is better L2 listening comprehension obtained in the jigsaw listening groups than in the comparison groups?*
b. *If so, are the differences attributable simply to the differing amounts of time on task?*
c. *What metacognitive processes do learners use to carry out their assigned jigsaw listening task and how do these processes affect their listening outcome?*

Research participants

Participants in this study were five groups of Vietnamese students of English as a foreign language (total N = 178; 7 males and 171 females). They were all aged 19 or 20 and enrolled in an intensive two-year language training program in order to improve their language proficiency to CEFR C1 level or IELTS overall band score of 6.5 (i.e., upper intermediate level). It should also be noted that these learners had all experienced jigsaw listening several times prior to this experiment. As all data were normally distributed, a one-way ANOVA test for independent samples was implemented to compare their pre-treatment listening abilities (which were based on their latest official listening test scores) across all groups. No difference was found: $F(4, 173) = 0.83$ ($p = .51$). This means that these groups had a roughly equal listening ability before they were involved in this experiment. Thus, any difference in their listening outcomes can be attributed to the effects of their learning conditions.

Study material and dependent measure

At the time of data collection for this study, the participants were learning academic English in order to enrol in BA courses in which English is used as a medium of instruction. Thus, it was ecologically valid to use an academic listening text as study material in the present experiment. Four passages taken from the past IELTS listening tests (i.e., two tutorial sessions and two mini-lectures) were first selected as the potential input texts. A group of 16 EFL learners who had the same L2 proficiency level as those who were recruited for this study were invited to rate the selected listening passages with regards to their comprehensibility and general appeal. Based on their feedback, a seven-minute tutorial session between a university tutor and two Literature-majored students was chosen (the link to this material is given in Appendix A). According to their scores on Schmitt, Schmitt and Clapham's (2001) Vocabulary Levels Test, the participants in this study had receptive knowledge of the most frequent 5,000 word families in English. With this amount of lexical knowledge, they were estimated to know 98.70% of all running words in the chosen text. A lexical 'coverage' of 98% is generally believed to be a prerequisite for an adequate understanding of both general and academic English texts (van Zeeland and Schmitt, 2013).

The dependent measure of the present study was a set of ten multiple-choice content questions which focused on both global and local understanding. Below are two examples of such questions:

1. What is the tutorial mainly about?

Key contents in the Literature course
Storyline of the Secret Garden novel
Learning points from Secret Garden

7. In the novel, whom do roses symbolize?

Mary Lennox
Colin Craven
Mistress Craven

In the scoring procedure, the participants of this study were awarded 1 and 0 points for correct and incorrect responses, respectively. Using the actual scores, the internal consistency of the test was computed by a means of split-half reliability check. The Pearson correlation coefficient between the scores taken from the two halves of the test (i.e., the odd- and the even-numbered test items) was .87, indicating the test was consistent in the way it measured the target ability.

Procedure of data collection and data analysis

The five intact classes were randomly assigned to one of the three jigsaw conditions or one of the two comparison conditions. In one jigsaw condition, learners were required to listen to either the first or the second half of the study material and then share the content in the target language with a classmate who had not listened to the same half (n = 36). In the second jigsaw condition, learners carried out the same procedure as above, but they were subsequently asked to listen to the half of the recording which their peer had told them about (n = 36). In the third jigsaw condition, learners also followed the same procedure as in the first, but they were subsequently asked to listen to the whole listening passage, i.e., the part they had already listened to once before and the part which their peer had told them about (n = 36). In the two comparison conditions (n = 35 in both cases), learners listened to the same text, but either once or twice. Henceforth, these conditions are referred to as Jigsaw Listening 1, Jigsaw Listening 2, Jigsaw Listening 3, One-time Listening and Repeated Listening, respectively. Inevitably, the amount of time invested in each learning condition differed. Specifically, this amount of time was 6.16 minutes in the One-time Listening condition, 12.32 minutes in the

Repeated Listening condition, 8.16 minutes in the Jigsaw Listening 1 condition, 11.16 minutes in the Jigsaw Listening 2 condition, and 14.32 minutes in the Jigsaw Listening 3 condition. All participants were informed beforehand about their listening procedures. While listening, they were encouraged to take notes of listening content with a view to summarizing this content to their classmates in the sharing session. After the listening procedures, they all sat for the same text comprehension test that has been described above. After this test, one pair of learners were randomly selected from each jigsaw listening group for a follow-up interview. In this interview, the learners were required to describe in their L1 what activities they carried out during their jigsaw listening session, especially during the sharing task, and how these activities influenced their understanding and retention of the input content.

As all quantitative data were normally distributed, one-way ANOVA tests were used to compare the test scores across all learning conditions. Cohen's effect size *d* was also computed to compare the listening outcomes between the jigsaw and the comparison conditions. Next, multiple regression analysis was implemented to gauge the predictive power of the nature of the learning conditions and the amount of time on task for the degree of text comprehension. In all tests above, a *p* value of .05 was set as a threshold for the required significance level. With regards to the qualitative data, all participants' responses were first transcribed. Two experienced Vietnamese teachers of English were then invited to code instances of the four metacognitive processes that Vandergrift and Goh (2000) proposed in their model. There were only two differences in their coding results, which, however, were resolved after discussion.

4. Findings

Quantitative data

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics for the scores that the participants in each group obtained on the text comprehension measure. Specifically, it includes the sample size (*n*), the mean score (*M*), the standard deviation (*SD*), and the amount of time invested in each listening procedure (including the sharing session) (*T*).

Table 1: Text comprehension scores

	Comparison groups		Treatment groups		
	One-time Listening	Repeated Listening	Jigsaw Listening 1	Jigsaw Listening 2	Jigsaw Listening 3
n	35	35	36	36	36
M	4.91	6.03	5.56	7.11	7.95
SD	1.10	0.82	0.94	0.86	0.96
T (in minute)	6.16	12.32	8.16	11.16	14.32

As can be seen from the above table, the learners in all jigsaw conditions obtained higher text comprehension scores than those in the One-time Listening condition. However, only the learners in the Jigsaw Listening 2 and the Jigsaw Listening 3 group outperformed those in the Repeated Listening group.

Table 2 provides Cohen's effect sizes *d* indicating the differences in the listening outcomes between the jigsaw and the comparison groups.

Table 2: Cohen's effect size *d* for the difference in the listening outcome across all groups

	Jigsaw Listening 1	**Jigsaw Listening 2**	**Jigsaw Listening 2**
One-time Listening	.64	2.23	2.94
Repeated Listening	-.53	1.29	2.15

.20 - .50: small; .51 - .80: medium; .81 and above: large

It is clear from the above table that the difference in the listening outcomes between the One-time Listening group and the Jigsaw Listening 1 group was medium. However, the difference between the One-time Listening condition on the one hand and the Jigsaw Listening 2 and the Jigsaw Listening 3 condition was large. This also holds true for the differences in the listening outcomes between the Repeated Listening group and the three Jigsaw Listening groups.

To further examine the difference in the test scores across all learning conditions, a one-way ANOVA test for independent samples was carried out. The result showed that there was at least one group whose test scores significantly differed from those achieved by another group: $F(4, 173) = 59.94$ ($p < .000$). Tukey post hoc tests were subsequently implemented for pairwise comparisons. The learners in the Jigsaw Listening 1 group scored significantly better on the text comprehension test than those in the One-time Listening group ($p < .05$). So did those in the Jigsaw Listening 2 and the Jigsaw Listening 3 group ($p < .01$). The test scores made by the Jigsaw Listening 2 and the Jigsaw Listening 3 group also significantly surpassed those obtained by the Repeated Listening group ($p < .01$). There was, however, no significant difference in the test scores between the Repeated Listening and the Jigsaw Listening 1 condition ($p = .21$). It should also be noted that the Repeated Listening condition fared better than the One-time Listening condition ($p < .01$). Ranking the effects of the learning conditions on text comprehension yields, in ascending order, One-time Listening < Repeated Listening ≈ Jigsaw Listening 1 < Jigsaw Listening 2 < Jigsaw Listening 3.

The above differences might also be attributed to the differing amounts of time that learners in each group needed to complete their assigned procedure. To examine whether it was the nature of the learning conditions or the amount of time on task that accounted for most of the difference, I incorporated these two variables into a regression model. This model explained 56.19% of the variance in the test scores: $F(2, 175) = 114.51$ ($p < .000$). The nature of the learning conditions and the amount of time on task were both found to predict the test scores with Beta = .75, $t = 6.62$ ($p < .000$) and Beta = .66, $t = 12.00$ ($p < .000$), respectively. To be more specific, the former explained 45.54% of the variance in the test scores ($F(1,176) = 149$, $p < .000$), while the latter accounted for merely 21% of such variance ($F(1,176) = 49.97$, $p < .000$).

Taken together, all jigsaw listening conditions indeed created a positive effect on L2 listening comprehension as expected. It should, however, be noted that this effect was also moderated by the amount of time on task.

Qualitative data

According to the learners who were randomly selected for follow-up interviews, the jigsaw listening activities prompted them to carry out different metacognitive processes and it was these processes that helped them to obtain the listening outcomes above. In what follows, I shall report these processes in more detail.

First, most of the interviewees, regardless of their assigned jigsaw listening tasks, shared the same view that as they were informed beforehand about the follow-up sharing session, they became more engaged with the listening process (JS11, JS21, JS32) as well as the note-taking process (JS11, JS12, JS21, JS31, JS32), which both, in turn, fostered their comprehension and retention of the input content (JS11, JS12, JS21, JS32).

They also added that these sharing sessions provided them with a valuable opportunity to reprocess perceived information in their notes, which thus enhanced their text comprehension (JS11, JS12, JS21, JS22, JS31, JS32). JS12, for example, described this benefit in the following analogy: "*This summary activity is just like a way for me to step back to re-evaluate what I have heard and to see the whole picture of the given message. In this way, I can improve my understanding of the listening content considerably*". Some further elaborated such a re-evaluation with a list of different cognitive activities that they carried out for that purpose like differentiating between main ideas and specific information (JS11, JS12, JS22, JS32), fastening the focus on main ideas only (JS11, JS12, JS21) or reorganizing the main ideas in a logical sequence (JS11, JS12, JS21, JS 22, JS31).

The learners who were given the opportunity to revisit the material that they had already listened to once before (i.e., the learners in the Jigsaw Listening 3 condition) added many other merits of the sharing session (JS31, JS32). First, this sharing session helped them to identify deficiencies in their previous interpretation of the input content: "*I have missed the information about different symbols that the writer employed in his novel*" (JG31) or "*In the first listening, as I lost my concentration in the final part of the recording I did not understand much about the connections between some key concepts that were mentioned in that novel*" (JS32). Interestingly, these learners both used those deficiencies to set the goals or foci for their second listening: "*Such a gap directed my attention to relevant information in my second listening and then I noted it down here in red ink* [referring to her notes]" (JS31) or "*I hesitated here* [there was a long pause in the recording of her sharing session] *as I missed the information about how the concepts were connected. In the second time, I understood more about this connection. Actually, the writer aimed to demonstrate how one concept in our daily lives influenced another, like how the surrounding environment influenced our mental and physical well-beings, for example*" (JS32). The learners even used what they had summarized as an advance organizer to facilitate their second listening: "*I used the main ideas in my summary as a checklist to confirm my previous understanding of the input content, add further information, or correct my misunderstanding*" (JS31) or "*I used the main ideas in my summary as signposts to aid my text comprehension in my second listening*" (JS32).

Those students who received a summary of the input content before they actually listened to that content themselves (i.e., the learners in the Jigsaw Listening 2 and the Jigsaw Listening 3 condition) used the summary strategically to foster their listening process. JS12, JS22 and JS32, for instance, reported that the summary gave them the topic of the upcoming content, which therefore helped them to activate their top-down processing: "*Through her sharing, I know the topic of the upcoming content*" (JS32) or "*This sharing session is very helpful for my actual listening as I know the topic and thus I can predict its likely content*" (JS22). JS31 and JS33 used the sequence of information given in such a summary as an advance organizer to guide their actual listening: "*Through her summary, I can catch some key words which I use as signposts to facilitate my actual listening*" (JS31) or "*I use the key ideas in her summary to predict what is coming next in my actual listening*" (JS32). Interestingly, based on the given information in such a summary, these learners established different hypotheses about the upcoming content. Therefore, during their actual listening session, they merely needed to confirm what had been said (JS21, JS22), add further detailed information to the key point in the summary (JS21, JS32), reject this information when it was not mentioned or incorrect (JS21, JS22, JS31). Thanks to these benefits, they found their actual listening much easier (JS21, JS22, JS31) and thus they enjoyed listening rather than made effort to take in the input content (JS21, JS32).

Table 3 below summarizes different metacognitive strategies, together with specific mental processes, which the learners above carried out in order to complete their assigned jigsaw listening task.

Table 3: Metacognitive strategies and mental processes used across the jigsaw listening tasks

	Jigsaw Listening 1	Jigsaw Listening 2	Jigsaw Listening 3	Specific mental processes
Planning		√	√	- Use the topic, key words and/or main ideas from the provided summary to activate top-down processing
Monitoring		√	√	- Use the key words in such a summary as signposts to walk them through the input content in their actual listening; - Use the ideas provided in that summary to form hypotheses about listening content; - Accept, reject or modify these hypotheses using evidence from their actual listening process
Problem-solving			√	- Use the gaps in the previous interpretation of input content as a basis to draw attention to relevant information in the second listening; - Fill these gaps
Evaluating	√	√	√	- Reprocess perceived information in the notes at a deeper level; - Differentiate between main ideas and specific information; - Fasten their focus on main ideas only; - Reorganize these main ideas in a coherent structure; - Identify deficiencies in the previous interpretation of input content

5. Discussion and pedagogical implications

Discussion

Regarding the first research question, the learners in all Jigsaw Listening groups outperformed those in the One-time listening group on the post-treatment listening test. It was interesting to find out that the learners who listened to either the first or the second half of the input text and then shared the content with those who did not listen to the same half (i.e., the Jigsaw Listening 1 condition) obtained significantly better text comprehension than those who listened to the entire input text, but merely once (i.e., the One-time Listening condition). One plausible explanation for this finding is that the announcement of the follow-up sharing session in the Jigsaw Listening 1 condition might have prompted learners to be more engaged with their input processing, which could have fostered their text comprehension better than the mere exposure to the listening passage. In fact, most of the interviewees in the present study supported this stance. This finding therefore echoes what Stahl and Clark (1987) found about the positive effects of participatory expectation in classroom discussion on the quality of input processing and new concept acquisition in the context of L1 reading.

Nevertheless, the learners in the Jigsaw Listening 1 condition did not fare better on the same text comprehension measure than those who listened to the whole input text twice (i.e., the Repeated Listening condition). This finding was, however, not unexpected. In fact, the learners in the Jigsaw Listening 1 condition were exposed to only half of the input material. Whether they could cultivate the understanding of the whole input content heavily depended on the quality of the summary that their classmate gave them. Meanwhile, those in the Repeated Listening group had the opportunity to listen to the same input text twice. Previous research has consistently showed that having L2 learners listen to the same input text twice renders a better listening outcome than having them listen to the same text once (Nguyen & Boers, 2019; Chang & Read, 2006; Saika, 2009). These studies all suggest that the reassurance that listening input material will be played more than once helps learners reduce their listening anxiety, which, in turn, makes them more mentally engaged with the listening process. In addition, as a way of catering for the limited capacity of human working memory (Robinson, 2003), this type of listening gives L2 learners another listening time (which also entails more total time on task) to verify their previous interpretation of listening content and add information they have missed during their previous listening (Chang & Read, 2006). Put differently, repeated listening benefits L2 listeners both affectively and cognitively.

The learners who listened to either the first or the second half of the listening passage, reported the listening content to a classmate, and then moved on with the other half (i.e., the Jigsaw Listening 2 condition) scored better than those who listened to the entire passage once (i.e., the One-time Listening condition) and better also than those who listened to the same input text twice (i.e., the Repeated Listening condition). The better listening outcome obtained by the Jigsaw Listening 2 group might be attributed to the positive effects of the sharing session in their assigned listening procedure. As already discussed above, on the part of the summary givers, the announcement of the follow-up sharing session might have made them more engaged with their input processing, which, therefore, could have enhanced their text comprehension. In addition, in order to sum up the listening content to their classmates, the learners in this learning condition might also have reprocessed information in their notes. It is generally believed that the more a set of information is processed, the better it tends to be understood and memorized (Wittrock, 2010). In fact, the learners who were involved in the follow-up interviews reported that the sharing session prompted them to take a closer look at their notes, browse such notes for the main ideas of the listening passage, and then organize these main ideas in a coherent structure. Through these processes, they also identified what they missed in their first listening. In their opinions, it was those processes that fostered their text comprehension. This finding appears to support Wittrock's *Model of Generative Teaching of Comprehension* (2010) in at least two interrelated aspects. First, the summary activity in the present study prompted L2 listeners to generate mental links between different ideas in the given input text. Second, such a generation indeed facilitated their listening outcome. Thus, the model above not only holds true for L1/L2 reading (as found in previous research) but for L2 listening as well.

On the part of the summary receivers, they may have used the information provided in such a summary as an advance organizer of the upcoming listening content. This advance organizer could have allowed them to save a considerable amount of mental resources, which, in turn, may have helped them to travel back and forth between the top-down and the bottom-up processes. In other words, having a summary of input content as an advance organizer before actual listening could have enabled those learners to make use of both top-down and bottom-up processes for the purpose of text comprehension. Thus, this finding is still in keeping with Ausubel's (1978) claim about the merits of providing L2 listeners with an advance organizer of upcoming content for their text comprehension. It also underscores the importance of both top-down and bottom-up processing in L2 listening comprehension.

Those who listened to either the first or the second half of the input content, shared that content to a classmate who had not listened to that content yet, and then listened to the whole listening passage (i.e., the Jigsaw Listening 3 condition) obtained significantly higher test scores than their counterparts in any other groups (i.e., the One-time Listening, the Repeated Listening, the Jigsaw Listening 1 and the Jigsaw Listening 2 condition). Apart from all aforementioned benefits, the learners in the Jigsaw Listening 3 condition were also provided with the opportunity to revisit the material that they had already listened to once before. Such a revisit, as already discussed above, might have helped the learners in this condition to reduce their listening anxiety as well as recollect the information that they already missed in their first listening.

In answer to the second research question, the effects on text comprehension of the three jigsaw listening tasks were indeed moderated by the amount of time on task. To be more specific, the more time the learners invested in a listening procedure, the better their listening outcome tended to be. It should, however, be noted that the nature of the learning conditions was a better predictor of the listening outcomes than the amount of time on task, with Beta of .75 and .66, respectively. In addition, the learners in the Jigsaw Listening 2 condition spent only 11.16 minutes on their listening procedure, while those in the Repeated Listening condition needed 12.32 minutes to complete their listening task. Nevertheless, the former were found to obtain significantly better text comprehension than the latter. Therefore, it might be more rational to imply that it is the quality of information processing (brought about by the meaning-focused input and/or meaning-focused output tasks inserted in each listening condition) rather than the amount of time invested in that condition that matters.

With regards to the final research question, Table 3 above indicates that in order to complete their assigned jigsaw listening task, the learners in this study employed at least one out of the four metacognitive strategies that Vandergrift and Goh (2012) presented in their model. It is also interesting to note that the more metacognitive strategies that the learners employed for a particular jigsaw listening condition, the better listening outcome this condition tended to bring about. This finding first appears to be consistent with what Gu et al. (2009) and Vandergrift (2003) found about the positive effects of the metacognitive strategies on L2 listening outcome. However, what is new in this finding is the positive correlation between the number of metacognitive strategies employed and the degree of text comprehension.

Pedagogical implications

The present study shows that jigsaw listening indeed offers many benefits other than a mere platform to promote learner autonomy and cooperative learning. Therefore, the incorporation of this listening procedure into classroom practice should also focus on these benefits as well as how to make full use of these benefits for the purpose of L2 listening comprehension and metacognitive strategies development.

First, in the pre-listening stage, instructors of L2 listening courses need to inform learners about the presence of the follow-up sharing session in jigsaw listening. Such an announcement was found to prompt learners to be more engaged with their listening process, which, in turn, enhanced their listening outcome.

Second, as the three jigsaw listening activities in this experiment were found to have differing effects on L2 listening comprehension, we need to pay more attention to the activity that proves to be the most conducive to learning, i.e., having learners listen to either the first or the second half of an input text, share the content with a classmate who has not been exposed to the same content yet, and then listen to the whole listening passage. This listening procedure was found to provide learners with the opportunity to plan for, monitor their listening process, identify their listening problems and find suitable solutions for those problems as well as evaluate their listening outcome – the four metacognitive processes that are often found to foster L2 listening comprehension.

In this study, it was the learners themselves that initiated the use of metacognitive strategies to facilitate their listening process (presumably because they had learnt about those strategies already). In other teaching contexts, however, it might also be a good idea to instruct learners on those strategies beforehand. Such instruction is expected to enable learners to use the strategies more systematically and therefore optimize the benefits that those strategies might bring about for text comprehension. Next, this instruction also needs to provide learners with the opportunity to activate and exercise the specific mental processes presented in Table 3 above as these processes were also found to foster L2 listening comprehension.

Finally, the present study suggests that it is the depth of information processing over and above the amount of time on task that benefits L2 listening and that listening-based output tasks, while requiring a certain time investment, are useful in this regard. Therefore, integration of such a text-based output task into listening-based lessons is highly recommended.

6. Limitations and conclusion

This study is limited in three different aspects. First, it did not examine the quality of the summaries that the learners gave their classmates. It might be interesting to investigate whether the quality of these summaries affected the listening outcome of the summary receivers. In addition, the follow-up interviews did not include all learners from all jigsaw listening groups. Although the interviewees were randomly selected in this case, their ideas need not be representative of those of all research participants. Finally, as the input material was taken from an official IELTS test in the past, some participants might have encountered this or similar material prior to their involvement in this experiment.

Despite these shortcomings, it is still clear from the above report that jigsaw listening fosters L2 listening comprehension. To be more precise, this listening technique prompts learners to activate and exercise such metacognitive strategies as planning, monitoring, problem-solving and evaluating, which, in turn, help them enhance their understanding and retention of listening content. These findings are in keeping with such well-established theories and/or models in the field of L2 listening instruction as Vandergrift and Goh's *Model of Metacognitive Listening* (2012), Wittrock's *Model of Generative Teaching of Comprehension* (2010), and Ausubel's *Advance Organizer of Upcoming Listening Content* (1978). In order to make full use of jigsaw listening for the purpose of L2 listening ability development, instructors may need to inform their learners beforehand about the presence of the follow-up sharing session with a view to getting them more engaged with their listening process, provide the learners with effective training on metacognitive strategies for optimizing their listening outcome, and expose the learners to such a sequence of meaning-focused input and output activities that is conducive to learning as in the case of the Jigsaw Listening 3 in the present study.

References

Ausubel, D.P. (1978). In defence of advance organizers: A reply to the critics. *Review of Educational Research, 48*(2): 251-257.

Chang, A. and Read, J. (2006). The effects of listening support on the listening performance of EFL learners. *TESOL Quarterly, 40*(2): 375-397.

Chofifah, L. and Kumalarini, D.T. (2013). The implementation of jigsaw listening to increase the listening comprehension of the tenth grade students Sman 1 Porong. *EJournal Unesa, 1*(1): 01-07.

Geddes, M. and Sturtridge, G. (1978). Jigsaw listening: Integrating listening and oral skills. *Englisch, 13*(3): 90-93.

Gu, P.Y., Hu, G.W. and Zhang, L.J. (2009). Listening strategies of Singaporean primary pupils. In: Silver, R.E., Goh, C.C.M. and Alsagoff, L. (eds). *Language Learning in New English Contexts: Studies of Acquisition and Development.* London: Continuum, pp. 55-74.

Harlim, L. (1999). *Cooperative learning using jigsaw as a technique in teaching listening comprehension.* BA Thesis, Widya Mandala Catholic University, Indonesia.

Herron, C., York, H., Cole, S.P. and Linden, P. (1998). A comparison study of student retention of foreign language video: Declarative versus interrogative advance organizer. *The Modern Language Journal, 82*(2): 237-247.

Jafari, K. and Hashim, F. (2012). The effects of using advance organizers on improving EFL learners' listening comprehension: A mixed method study. *System, 40*(2): 270-281.

Kazemi, M. (2012). Exploring the Iranian EFL learners' reading performance: The effect of teaching method. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature, 1*(6):170-184.

Mauludi, M. (2011). *The effectiveness of jigsaw to improve students' reading narrative text ability.* Master Thesis, Walisongo State Institute for Islamic Studies, Kendal.

Nguyen, C.D. and Boers, F. (2019). The effect of content retelling on vocabulary uptake from a TED talk. *TESOL Quarterly, 53*(1): 5-29.

Prom, D. (2012). *The effect of jigsaw II technique on reading comprehension of Mattayom Suksa 1 students*. Master Thesis, Srinakharinwirot University, Thailand.

Robinson, P. (2003). Attention and memory during SLA. In: Doughty, C.J. and Long, M.H. (eds). *The Handbook of Second Language Acquisition.* New York: Blackwell Publishing, pp.631-678.

Sakai, H. (2009). Effect of repetition of exposure and proficiency level in L2 listening tests. *TESOL Quarterly, 43*(2): 360-372.

Schmitt, N., Schmitt, D. and Clapham, C. (2001). Developing and exploring the behaviour of two new versions of the Vocabulary Levels Test. *Language Testing, 18*(1): 55-88.

Stahl, S. and Clark, H. (1987). The effects of participatory expectations in classroom discussion on the learning of science vocabulary. *American Educational Research Journal, 24*(4): 541-555.

Tuanany, N. and Bharati, D.A.L. (2017). The effectiveness of jigsaw listening and problem-solving techniques to teach listening comprehension using authentic materials with different levels of anxiety: A case at the tenth graders of Swan 11 Kota Ambon in the academic year 2015-2016. *English Education Journal, 27*(1): 42-46.

van Zeeland, H. (2013). Vocabulary and listening. In: Chapelle, C.A. (ed). *The Encyclopaedia of Applied Linguistics*. Australia: Wiley-Blackwell, pp.01-06.

Vandergrift, L. (2003). Orchestrating strategy use: toward a model of the skilled second language listener. *Language Learning, 53*(3): 463-496.

Vandergrift, L. and Goh, C.C. (2012). *Teaching and Learning Second Language Listening: Metacognition in Action*. Oxford: Taylor and Francis Group.

Wittrock, M.C. (2010). Learning as a generative process. *Educational Psychologists, 45*(1): 40-45.

Appendix

Appendix A: https://takeielts.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/2018-01/Listening_practice_questions_121012.pdf.

ĐO HIỆU QUẢ NGHE HIỂU CỦA BA HOẠT ĐỘNG JIGSAW ĐIỂN HÌNH

Nguyễn Chí Đức, Phạm Xuân Thọ

Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội

Phạm Văn Đồng, Cầu Giấy, Hà Nội, Việt Nam

Tóm tắt: Nghiên cứu này so sánh hiệu quả của ba tiến trình nghe hiểu theo hình thức jigsaw. Ở tiến trình thứ nhất, người học sẽ được chia làm hai nhóm, mỗi nhóm nghe nửa đầu hoặc nửa sau của một văn bản, sau đó bắt cặp và kể lại cho nhau nội dung vừa được nghe (Jigsaw 1). Ở tiến trình thứ hai và thứ ba, người học thực hiện tương tự các bước trên, tuy nhiên sau đó họ được nghe lại nửa văn bản mà bạn họ vừa kể (Jigsaw 2) hoặc toàn bộ văn bản (Jigsaw 3). Mức độ nghe hiểu của họ được so với hai nhóm đối chứng, những người được nghe cùng văn bản nêu trên một lần (đối chứng 1) hoặc hai lần (đối chứng 2). Kết quả chỉ ra rằng các nhóm Jigsaw đều có kết quả nghe hiểu tốt hơn so với nhóm đối chứng 1. Nhóm Jigsaw 2 và 3 nghe hiểu tốt hơn so với nhóm đối chứng 2. Kết quả phỏng vấn 03 cặp học viên được lựa chọn ngẫu nhiên từ ba nhóm Jigsaw cho thấy các học viên này sử dụng rất nhiều chiến lược nghe hiểu bậc cao trong các tiến trình nghe hiểu kể trên và chính các chiến lược này đã giúp họ nghe hiểu tốt hơn. Những phát hiện này có ý nghĩa sư phạm hữu ích đối với cả giáo viên dạy kỹ năng nghe và người thiết kế môn học.

Từ khoá: hoạt động nghe hiểu theo hình thức jigsaw, nghe hiểu văn bản, chiến lược nghe hiểu bậc cao, chuẩn bị về nội dung và tổ chức văn bản trước khi nghe

TURN-TAKING STRATEGIES USED IN A NEW ZEALAND RADIO INTERVIEW PROGRAMME AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS IN LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS

Cao Thi Hong Phuong*[1], Pham Xuan Tho[2]

1. Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand
Kelburn, Wellington 6012, New Zealand
and Hanoi National University of Education, Vietnam
136 Xuan Thuy Street, Cau Giay District, Hanoi, Vietnam

2. VNU University of Languages and International Studies,
Pham Van Dong, Cau Giay, Hanoi, Vietnam

Received 5 January 2019
Revised 7 June 2019; Accepted 22 December 2019

Abstract: The present paper analyses conversational strategies employed by the interviewer on a New Zealand radio programme from conversation analysis (CA) perspective. This study employs a documentary method of interpretation in order to seek answer(s) to the research question. Specifically, Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson's (1974) model of conversation analysis was adopted to explore turn-taking strategies used in the interview. The analysis reveals that the interviewer employed a variety of turn-taking strategies such as signaling the end of turn, holding a turn, asking a question, self-selection and "prosodic features" (ibid.) to achieve the purpose of the interview. The findings of this study suggest several potential CA-informed pedagogical implications for English language teaching classroom.

Keywords: conversation analysis, turn-taking strategies, pedagogical implications, English Language Teaching

1. Introduction

Conversations are highly organized in relation to both sequence organization and turn-taking (Seedhouse, 2006). With reference to the former, conversations can be categorized into three stages of sequence namely pre-sequence, main sequence, and closing sequence. In relation to the latter, it refers to the conversational strategies and languages used by speakers to construct and allocate turns.

Pomerantz and Fehr (1997) also asserted that the context of the conversation could profoundly affect the conduct produced by interactants. As reflected in the audio and transcription (see the Appendix), a conversation fragment extracted from a radio interview between Kim Hill and Graeme Aitken has been analyzed. Kim Hill is interviewing Professor Graeme Aitken on his retirement as Dean of Education at the University of Auckland (henceforth KH and GA). The interview's purpose is to explore GA's viewpoints on the success of the NGATAHI education initiative program in New Zealand. The analysis of the conversation shows that the utterances mostly come in adjacency pairs of questions and answers which initiate exchanges and are responsive to the action of a prior turn

* Corresponding author. Tel.: 64-225135952,
Email: phuong.cao@vuw.ac.nz

(Schegloff, 2007). However, this paper only focuses on the exploration of the interviewer's talk. Specifically, the paper analyses the turn-taking strategies used by KH in order to dominate the conversation, to keep it going, and to achieve the purpose of the interview. The paper then discusses several pedagogical implications for language classroom use.

With regard to the English language teaching and learning in Vietnam, there has been a language teaching reform project: to improve the situation through the current educational initiative known as the National Foreign Languages Project (NFL). As part of this language project, university students are required to function successfully at B1 according to the Common European Framework of Reference for languages (CEFR) before they graduate. To respond to this reform, English educators, lecturers, and instructors have sought ways to improve the quality of language teaching and learning (Nguyen & Cao, 2019), one of which is to apply CA-informed materials and knowledge for more effective classroom instruction. This is the primary reason why we have chosen to analyze a radio interview.

2. Research question

The present study aims to seek answer(s) to the following research question: What turn-taking strategies are employed by the interviewer to achieve the interview's purpose?

3. Theoretical background

In this section, the authors briefly present some theoretical backgrounds of CA, turn-taking and turn-taking strategies. The authors then discuss the possible use of turn-taking strategies in the realm of language teaching such as turn-taking organization, turn design and sequence organization in classroom interaction. It is argued that these strategies enhance students' participation in classroom activities and make language teaching and learning more effective.

CA as an approach in social interactions and talk-in-interactions research has exerted substantial impacts across the humanities and social sciences including linguistics in general and language teaching in particular. It is mainly concerned with how turn-taking is achieved and how interactants take their turns during their conversations (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008). These authors state that three fundamental facts about a conversation are (1) the occurrence of turn-taking; (2) one speaker tends to talk at a time; (3) there are little gaps or overlaps between speakers. In CA, any conversations can be researched (Pomerantz & Fehr, 1997), for instance, chats among acquaintances, interactions between teachers and students, job interviews, broadcast commentaries, political speeches to name just a few. In a second language (L2) learning classroom, learners may benefit from instructions with CA-based materials so that they can anticipate, interpret and produce the target language sociopragmatically and correctly. Based on empirical evidence, Huth & Taleghani-Nikazm (2006) argue that CA-based materials can provide in-depth resources for language teachers and effectively allow L2 learners to engage in cross-culturally variable language conducts inside and outside classrooms.

Turn-taking and Turn-taking Strategies

Turn-taking refers to the basic principles in conversations, in which one person speaks at a time, after which this person may nominate another interactant, or another speaker may take up the turn without being nominated (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974; Sacks, 2004, Gardner, 2013). Turn-taking helps maintain the conversation's flows by allowing interactants to take the floor in order to contribute to the conversations. There are numerous ways in which speakers can achieve the purposes of conversations: by signaling that they have come to the end of a turn or signaling a new turn. This may be at the time they complete a syntactic unit, or it may be via speakers' use of falling intonation or language functions (Paltridge, 2012). According to Clark and Tree (2002), speakers may also begin a turn at talk without having fully planned their turn, they take turn by using filled pauses (e.g., "uh," "um"), meaning "signaling a turn" at the beginning of their turn in order to "buffer" their comprehension or planning (Clark & Tree, 2002, p. 120). Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974) also presented a model of turn-taking strategies in social interaction by outlining how this behavior constitutes a system of social interaction with specific properties. Sacks et al. (1974) claimed that the most familiar turn-taking pattern is the selection of the next interlocutor by the current interlocutor (e.g. signaling the end of turn, holding a turn, asking a question, gazing towards a particular person, addressing other parties by name, self-selection and "prosodic features". It means that the speaker's choice of language and intonation that allow at least two parties to achieve the conversations. Reviewing several frameworks of turn-taking strategies such as Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974), Sacks (2004), Paltridge (2012), Clark and Tree (2002), the authors have decided to adopt Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson's (1974) model because when we analyzed the data, we realized that most turn-taking strategies in Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974) found in the recorded interview. Additionally, this framework is relevant to conversation analysis of various socially organized activities including interview, as this model covers the simplest systematics for the organization of turn-taking for conversation (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974, p. 696)

Turn-taking Strategies in the Language Classroom

Tsui (2001) argued that the central features of classroom interaction are turn exchanges of teacher-learners' conversations and students themselves. To be more specific, learners' turn-taking and teacher's turn-allocations help create opportunities for learners to participate in language classroom interaction. For instance, teachers can facilitate learner-centered pedagogies by establishing a set of turn-taking rules for the students. It is evidenced by McHoul's (1978) research on classroom use of turn-taking rules, which allow teachers to select a learner to take a turn to speak and this student must select another student as a next speaker. Thus, by taking turns, students' linguistic resources are required to produce utterances to achieve transitions. Seedhouse (2004a) also suggested using turn-taking strategies among group work in task-based language teaching (TBLT) classrooms, where students can manage turn-taking by themselves (self-selection), contributes to the increase in students' interaction in the target language. This is confirmed by Willis and Willis (2007), which emphasized that social interaction among participants in group work's activities of co-construct tasks and turn-taking system could afford opportunities for language learning to occur. Reflecting on the Vietnamese tertiary EFL settings, the authors argue that the use of turn-taking practices can be applied in this context through different ways to enhance the quality of teaching and learning. Teachers can exploit turn-taking strategies such as signaling a turn, prosodic features, and asking questions in speaking lessons, in group work discussions and TBLT settings to boost the effectiveness of classroom interaction.

Sequence organization and the design of turns

Teachers' relevant exploitation of the sequential organization and the allocations of turns such as holding a turn, signaling a turn, and asking a question in language classrooms may help facilitate learning. For example, Lee (2007) argued that when teachers withhold the sequence of third-turn completion, students may realize that another response is required. Therefore, the extension of the sequence is produced. Similarly, potential values of Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) in improving students' participation are also confirmed in recent studies (e.g. Lin, 2000; Mondada & Doehler, 2004). These authors asserted that in both traditional and TBLT oriented classrooms, expanded turns can be performed by students and teachers as a facilitator to different learning opportunities. Moreover, the potential benefits of Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) have also been realized in a wealth of research (Hutchby & Wooffit, 2008; Liddicoat, 2007; Sullivan, 2000). For instance, a study in the EFL tertiary classroom in Vietnam, Sullivan (2000) concluded that students' participation could be nurtured through teachers' use of affirmations, elaborations, and follow-ups on students' responses. This author also argued that the networks of interaction among students could also be established and promoted by the exploitation of students' humorous words and ideas. This playful interaction, in turn, leads to a more close-knit relationship among participants. Thus, they can be more motivated to keep them extensively participated in meaning-focused interaction as language learners. As reflected, sequence organization and the design of turns have been proven to play a crucial role in helping create and maintain learners' interaction in the EFL Vietnamese classrooms at the university level.

4. Methodology

The data has been collected and analyzed in order to seek answer(s) to the following research question: "What turn-taking strategies are employed by the interviewer to achieve the interview's purpose?"

The data is in the form of a recorded interview from a New Zealand radio programme. This interview was ten minutes long and was broadcast live. The second author transcribed the recording. The first author then cross-checked the transcription after which discrepancies were discussed before the draft of transcription was finalized. The authors then employed a documentary method of interpretation in order to explain the interview from the perspective of CA. After that, the authors performed a data-driven analysis in order to identify if there were any recurring patterns of interaction. In particular, the authors' focus was on the documentary method of interpretation. As Seedhouse (2004b, p.7) put it, "the documentary method of interpretation is central to ethnomethodology" which treats any actual real-world action as a "document" (ibid.). It means that we treat transcripts as major documents to be analyzed and interpreted. The transcription symbols in this paper are commonly used in conversation analytic research and were developed by Jefferson (1996). The data was interpreted using Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson's (1974) framework on conversation analysis to form a description of how turn-taking was utilized in the interview. The authors' analytical claims are supported by excerpts drawn from the data and draw on the existing literature to further back up the findings.

5. Findings and Discussions

According to Seedhouse (2006, p. 166), the ways interactants analyzed and interpreted each other's actions might "develop a shared understanding" of the progress of the conversation, which allowed them to achieve the conversation organization and order. In this section, turn-taking strategies adopted by the interviewer will be analyzed and discussed in order to shed light on how the interview was achieved. In other words, the interviewer used a number of turn-taking strategies such as signaling a turn, holding a turn, prosodic features, asking questions and signaling the end of a turn in order to accomplish her role as an interviewer. It means that, with the use of strategies, choice of languages and intonation, KH was successful in the role of an interviewer in a radio interview programme. These aforementioned strategies will be discussed in this section from the perspective of CA.

As argued by Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008), central characteristics of turn-taking are reflected through speakers' organizations of talk; the linguistic and non-linguistic resources are used to perform the utterances. In relation to KH's turn-taking strategies and language use; the recurring patterns take place seven times in the extract, and they are taken mostly with overlap. Accordingly, the interviewer also used various language functions such as inviting, steering, navigating, agreeing and acknowledging tokens to accomplish her role.

The excerpt (1) below refers to the first turn taking made by KH, which provides a preparatory foundation setting up status (Heritage, 2013) for the incoming actions of the interviewer.

Excerpt (1)

KH-> It it it (0.5) sounds like a no-brainer I mean obviously education can break its generational cycle of poverty. hh> why why< (0.5) isn't that taken more seriously by: the people who put money into the system.> do you know what I mean< we we (0.5) constantly talk about (0.1) early intervention we constantly talk about education being the key: is it THAT↑ (0.5) is it (0.5) THAT↑ hm (0.5) the people in charge: don't really believe that↓or [they do?

GA ->Na I [think they]

KH's questions introduced with a declarative statement in the excerpt (1) can also provide background information "establishing the relevance of ensuring questions" (Clayman, 2012, p. 631). It is clear that KH asked GA in different ways, establishing a mutual understanding of the situation and the relevance of the questions. She also used the question "Do you know what I mean" with little space, assuming that GA had already interpreted the meanings. She went on to ask "is it THAT?" with a little pause of 0.5 seconds. Then she repeated the utterance "is it THAT?" to emphasize the situation of whether or not people in charge believe in the role of education as the key to supporting children in their education and life success. In other words, she took a turn to pursue a response and confirmation from GA and establish the relevance of the questions by paraphrasing them many times. In summary, KH's strategies are in line with Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson's (1974) use of "signaling a turn" and "asking a question" in order to invite a response from another interlocutor.

The excerpt (2) below refers to her second turn-taking, which shows an overlap. This taking turn may act as a "recognitional onset" (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008). Probably, when KH identified what GA was talking about, she could project the completion of the talk uttering "they do" and then led up to the next question to avoid disorientation.

Excerpt (2)

KH -> [They do no no no I mean I'm wondering why it has to be reargued every time↓

GA -> I think they really believe it uh (0.5) what I'm not sure is that they put the money into the right place I I (0.5) spoke ((a little bit)) earlier about the three things that matter in education? and I think we've over-emphasized one of them to the expense of the other. We've over-emphasized achievement and success, and measuring achievement and success at the expense of what I think matters even more than that and that's engaging young people in something that fascinates and interests them [and]

The third turn is taken by KH (excerpt 3) with a little overlap between the two speakers. When GA still uttered "and" KH took a turn by asking "what is the difference?" in order to clarify GA's ideas of measuring students' achievement and engaging them in something that fascinates them. In relation to Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson's (1974) turn-taking strategies, KH mostly employed "prosodic features" and "asking a question", so that GA could further contribute to the conversation.

Excerpt (3)

KH ->[what's the difference? because one would imagine that if you engage them in something that fascinates and interests (0.5) them that will translate into achievement and [success]

GA-> [Absolutely but that's the way to work I I (0.5) agree completely. That we need to start with fascination and interest and lead to achievement uh (0.5) not have our system driven by uh (0.5) achievement and [achievement measures

It can be inferred that KH was able to recognize the incoming utterances made by GA. She navigated the focus of the conversation by raising her voice when asking "what the difference?" showing the power of an interviewer to take turns. If she was to wait for GA to stop talking, he might continue with another unit. According to Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008), this reason may be a "possibility of completion" rather than an interruption. According to Schegloff and Jefferson's (1974) turn-taking strategies, this can be referred to as "prosodic features" and "holding a turn". Thus this transitional onset seems to be relevant in keeping the conversation going appropriately.

The forth turn-taking time by KH referred to the excerpt four bellows when she uttered: "I see". She probably expressed a sign of agreement with what GA had stated previously. This means that she had already interpreted what GA meant by how engaging young people in fascination and interest could lead to achievement.

Excerpt (4)

KH -> [I see so by concentrating too much on: MEASURING we are LEACHING things of their fascination is that [what you mean]

GA-> [I'm sure about that and if I think back in 40 years in education, the opportunities I had as a teacher in the 1970s and 80s just to pursue: my own, and students' interests were just far greater ((than it is)) now. hh

She further summed up GA's ideas by emphasizing the word "on" as a signal of the two factors "measuring, leaching" mentioned later. She also confirmed her interpretation by asking "is that what you mean, so that GA could carry on his flow of talk.

The following excerpt contains KH's next turn-taking, which shows a sign of invitation. By saying "yes," KH meant to invite GA to have a further talk. This sign of invitation enables GA, as stated by Huth and Taleghani-Nikazm (2006) to interpret the current conversational action in order to project the relevant ongoing contribution. This strategy is in line with what Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974) considered a signal to end her turn and self-selection in order to invite GA to answer her question.

Excerpt (5)

KH-> [You were yes]↓

GA-> [And I emphasize my own interests because the other thing I think is is missing in this space is the affirmation for teachers actually to be leaders in the classroom and to take. curious young minds into all sorts of places they might not have thought of going and (0.5) the notion that teachers somehow: simply facilitate students' current <u>interests</u> (0.1) to me downplays and (0.5) in a way lowers the status of teaching. Teachers I think have got a wonderful opportunity. uh (0.5) to lead young minds into places they've <u>never ever</u> thought of going before, and (0.1) that's what I loved about teaching

The excerpt 6 below refers to KH's sixth and seventh turn-taking time, which seems to act as an evaluation and a pursuit of an agreement rather than a question. The utterance " already" with a falling intonation may indicate a signal of evaluating and acknowledging the prior discussions. Similarly, the last turn-taking also refers to the pursuit of an agreement. Both these turn-taking times seem to seek a kind of "yes" answer. This, according to (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008), indicates a preference, which intentionally invites GA to response to a straightforward agreement without gaps. In relation to Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson's (1974) turn-taking strategies, this may be considered as "prosodic features" when she said " already" with a falling intonation to seek GA's answer.

Excerpt (6)

KH-> That does seem odd doesn't it THAT we focus on what (0.5) they're interested in already↓

GA-><u>Yeah</u>↓

KH-> As if nothing's ever going to [change]

GA-> [E<u>xactly</u> (0.5) that's exactly it and I find GA-> that so frustrating we talk about ourselves being facilitators and guides um (0.5) which itself, I think just downgrades the value of that wonderful word <u>teacher</u>. <u>teacher</u> as a <u>leader</u>, so the leader of young minds↓

In terms of the number of times a strategy is employed within this interview, we can see that 'asking a question' strategy occurs in five instances, 'self-selection' also happens the same number of times. This is followed by 'holding a turn' strategy which is employed four times while 'prosodic features' can be identified the same number of times as the 'signaling the end of turn' (three instances each). Thus, we can conclude that KH's strategies of turn-taking such as 'signaling the end of turn', 'holding a turn', 'asking a question', 'self-selection' and 'prosodic features' seem to play a significant part in controlling the focus of the interview.

These findings are in line with the existing body of knowledge on turn-taking strategies as they are used in conversations in different social contexts. In other words, the findings of this paper further confirm the previous studies (see, for example, Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson,1974; Sullivan, 2000; Sacks, 2004; Clark and Tree, 2002; Weilhammer & Rabold, 2003; Liddicoat, 2007; Hellermann, 2008;

Hutchby & Wooffit, 2008; Paltridge, 2012; Martin-Jones, 2015) which conclude that turn-taking strategies play an important role in the success of conversations in general, and language teaching classroom conversations in particular (Hall & Walsh, 2002; Hellermann, 2008). The accomplishment of the speaker's goals is substantially dependent on the ways they employ turn-taking strategies. This is also in agreement with another study (Üstünel & Seedhouse 2005) which argues that turn-taking strategies and use of language can facilitate conversations including those which take part in L2 teaching and learning environments (Üstünel & Seedhouse 2005). The findings also support the existing evidence on the efficacy of using conversation analysis as a teaching strategy in the L2 classroom (Clark and Tree, 2002; Weilhammer & Rabold, 2003; Seedhouse, 2004a; Martin-Jones, 2015). Specifically, Seedhouse (2004a) provided different instances of turn-taking strategies used by language teachers for teaching form and accuracy. He emphasized that these strategies could be used in meaning-and-fluency contexts to establish mutual understanding and to negotiate meaning. After an in-depth analysis of different chunks of the interview, the authors confirm that turn-taking strategies could enable L2 learners to produce specific sequences of linguistic forms and help them negotiate meanings and thus avoid breakdowns in communication.

6. Pedagogical Implications

It is well acknowledged that turn-taking as a pedagogical approach is at the core of teaching and learning in any subject including learning a language (Nomlomo, 2010; Martin-Jones, 2015). It consists of instructional and regulative components as it considers what kind of knowledge needs to be exchanged and how the knowledge should be transmitted. From a language teachers' perspective, authentic materials can be useful for language learners as the prime use of language may involve rapid switching between comprehension and production at a rate, which implies that these processes sometimes overlap. Reflecting on our teaching experience and situations, learners may only be exposed to the conversations of the no-gap–no-overlap from commercial textbooks and "*ideal*" teaching materials. Therefore, an authentic material may suggest that real-life conversations can be successfully achieved with strategies including turn-taking strategies. In other words, through the use of turn-taking strategies, speakers can hold a conversation to make it successful. Thus, turn-taking strategies used in any conversations of social interaction can be informed for language classroom teachers to adopt in their contexts.

In relation to the Vietnamese tertiary setting, an objective of the NFL is to enable university students to become effective English language users who can communicate successfully in different environments (Le, 2008). Thus, the role of Vietnamese teachers of English is to bring students chances to engage in language classroom interaction. We argue that teachers can apply the CA-informed pedagogical approach including turn-taking strategies to classroom practices to improve the English learning and teaching situation. To be more exact, teachers may choose to utilize strategies from this interview namely signaling an end of turn, holding a turn, asking a question, self-selection and "prosodic features" in speaking lessons for both students and instructors, so that students can benefit from these strategies to improve their language proficiency.

Teachers may also establish sets of turn-taking rules for the students in English speaking lessons. For example, teachers can select a learner to take a turn to speak and this student must select another student to take the next speaking turn. Another potential implication of turn-taking strategies is teachers' use of feedback as affirmations, elaborations, and follow-ups on students' responses. Teachers can also introduce how people use turn-taking strategies in authentic real-life conversations such as inviting, steering, navigating, agreeing and acknowledging utterances to achieve their goals. Pedagogically, the findings from this study begin to address teachers' practical concerns with regard to the application of turn-taking strategies to ensure learners' participation in a language classroom.

7. Conclusion and Limitations of the Study

The findings of the study show five most frequent turn-taking strategies used by the interviewer: signaling end of turn, holding a turn, asking a question, self-selection and "prosodic features". Although these turn-taking strategies are found in an interview, they can also be recommended to adopt in language classroom in a numerous ways discussed earlier. Through the analysis of this conversation, we argue that KH's use of turn-taking strategies helps support her to succeed in the role of an interviewer, we also present some pedagogical implications that language teachers can exploit in language classroom use. We would conclude the paper by referring to Wong (2002), which mentioned that language teachers should develop a more in-depth insight into systematic practices that conversations naturally take place. Therefore, English teachers can further apply these aspects to language classroom instruction in order to maximize the effectiveness of language teaching and learning.

One limitation of the present paper should be noted when considering the results. In this study, only the interviewer's turn-taking strategies were analyzed, and the interviewee's data were omitted. Therefore, the findings cannot represent the whole picture of the success of the conversation.

References

Clark, H. H., & Tree, J. E. F. (2002). Using uh and um in spontaneous speaking. *Cognition*, *84*(1), 73-111.

Clayman, S. E. (2012). Conversation Analysis in the News Interview. *The Handbook of Conversation Analysis*, 630-56.

Gardner, R. (2013). Conversation Analysis in the Classroom. *The Handbook of Conversation Analysis*, 593-611.

Hall, J. K., & Walsh, M. (2002). 10. Teacher-student Interaction and Language Learning. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *22*, 186.

Hellermann, J. (2008). *Social Actions for Classroom Language Learning*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Heritage, J. (2013). Epistemics in conversation. *The Handbook of Conversation Analysis*, 370-94.

Hutchby, I., & Wooffitt, R. (2008). *Conversation analysis* (2nd ed). Cambridge, UK.

Huth, T., & Taleghani-Nikazm, C. (2006). How can insights from conversation analysis be directly applied to teaching L2 pragmatics? *Language Teaching Research*, *10*(1), 53–79. https://doi.org/10.1191/1362168806lr184oa

Jefferson, G. (1996). A case of transcriptional stereotyping. *Journal of pragmatics*, *26*(2), 159-170.

Lee, Y. A. (2007). Third turn position in teacher talk: Contingency and the work of teaching. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *39*(6), 1204-1230.

Le, V. C. (2008). Teachers' beliefs about curricular innovation in Vietnam: A preliminary study. In Y. H. Choi & B. Spolsky (Eds.), *ELT Curriculum Innovation and Implementation in Asia* (pp. 191–216). Seoul: Asia TEFL.

Liddicoat, A. (2007). *An Introduction to Conversational Analysis*. London: Continuum.

Lin, A. M. Y. (2000). Lively children trapped in an island of disadvantage: the Verbal play of Cantonese working-class schoolboys in Hong Kong context. *International Journal of Sociology of Language*, *143*(1), 63-84.

Martin-Jones, M. (2015). Multilingual classroom discourse as a window on wider social, political and ideological processes. *The handbook of classroom discourse and interaction*, 446-460.

McHoul, A. (1978). The organization of turns at a formal talk in the classroom. *Language in society*, *7*(2), 183-213.

Mondada, L., & Doehler, S. P. (2004). Second language acquisition as situated practice: Task accomplishment in the French second language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal*, *88*(4), 501-518.

Nguyen, T. T. M., & Cao, T. H. P. (2019). An evaluation of the intercultural orientation of secondary English textbooks in Vietnam: How well are students prepared to communicate in global contexts?. In *Building Teacher Capacity in English Language Teaching in Vietnam* (pp. 150-165). Routledge.

Nomlomo, V. (2010). Classroom interaction: Turn-taking as a pedagogical strategy. *Per Linguam: a Journal of Language Learning (Per Linguam: Tydskrif vir Taalaanleer), 26*(2)*, 50-66.*

Paltridge, B. (2012). *Discourse analysis: An introduction*. Bloomsbury Publishing.

Pomerantz, A., & Fehr, B. J. (1997). Conversation analysis: An approach to the study of social action assense-making practices. *Discourse as social interaction*, *2*, 64-91.

Sacks, H. (2004). An initial characterization of the organization of speaker turn-taking in conversation. *Pragmatics and beyond new series*, *125*, 35-42.

Sacks, H., Schegloff, E. A., & Jefferson, G. (1974). The simplest systematics for the organization of turntaking for conversations. *Language*, *50*(4), 696-735.

Schegloff, E. A. (2000). Overlapping talk and the organization of turn-taking for conversation. *Language in society*, *29*(1), 1-63.

Schegloff, E. A. (2007). *Sequence organization in interaction: Volume 1: A primer in conversation analysis* (Vol. 1). CUP.

Seedhouse, P. (2006). Conversation Analysis and language learning. *Language Teaching*, *38*(04),165-187. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444805003010

Seedhouse, P. (2004a). *The international architecture of the language classroom: A conversation analysis perspective*. Blackwell Publishing.

Seedhouse, P. (2004b). Conversation analysis methodology. *Language Learning*, *54*(S1), 1-54.

Sullivan, P. (2000). Spoken artistry: Performance in a foreign language classroom. in JK Hall and LS Verplaetse (eds): *Second and Foreign Language Learning through Classroom Interacting*. Cambridge, UK: CUP.

Tsui, A. B. (2001). Classroom interaction. In R. Carter, & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages*. Cambridge, UK: CUP.

Üstünel, E. and Seedhouse, P. (2005). Why that, in that language, right now? Code-switching and pedagogical focus. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 15*(3), 302–325.

Weilhammer, K., & Rabold, S. (2003). Durational aspects in turn-taking. In *Proceedings of the International Conference of Phonetic Sciences*. Barcelona, Spain.

Willis, D. & Willis, J. (2007). *Doing Task-Based Teaching*. Oxford: CUP.

Wong, J. (2002). Applying conversation analysis in applied linguistics: Evaluating dialogue in English as a second language textbook. *IRAL - International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, *40*(1). https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.2002.003

CÁCH SỬ DỤNG CHIẾN LƯỢC LƯỢT LỜI TRONG CHƯƠNG TRÌNH PHỎNG VẤN PHÁT THANH CỦA NEW ZEALAND VÀ Ý NGHĨA TRONG VIỆC GIẢNG DẠY TIẾNG ANH

Cao Thị Hồng Phương[1], Phạm Xuân Thọ[2]

1. Trường Đại học Victoria, Wellington, New Zealand
Kelburn, Wellington 6012, New Zealand Và Trường Đại học Sư Phạm Hà Nội
136 Xuân Thủy, Cầu Giấy, Hà Nội, Việt Nam

2. Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, ĐHQGHN
Phạm Văn Đồng, Cầu Giấy, Hà Nội, Việt Nam

Tóm tắt: Bài báo phân tích chiến lược lượt lời được áp dụng trong chương trình phỏng vấn trên đài phát thanh New Zealand thông qua phương diện phân tích hội thoại. Để tìm ra câu trả lời, nghiên cứu này sử dụng phương pháp phân tích tài liệu. Cụ thể là, mô hình phân tích hội thoại của Sacks, Schegloff và Jefferson (1974) được áp dụng để xác định những chiến lược lượt lời được sử dụng trong cuộc phỏng vấn. Nghiên cứu phân tích chỉ ra rằng người phỏng vấn đã áp dùng rất nhiều chiến lược luợt lời khác nhau bao gồm: báo hiệu kết thúc lượt lời, giữ lượt lời, đặt câu hỏi, tự chọn lượt lời, cũng như cách thức lựa chọn ngôn ngữ và giọng điệu để đạt được mục đích của cuộc phỏng vấn. Từ kết quả nghiên cứu, các tác giả trình bày một số đề xuất nhằm vận dụng kiến thức phân tích hội thoại vào việc giảng dạy và học tiếng Anh.

Từ khoá: phân tích hội thoại, chiến lược lượt lời; ý nghĩa đối với việc dạy và học tiếng Anh

APPENDIX

This conversation fragment is extracted from an interview between Kim Hill and Graeme Aitken on a New Zealand radio program broadcast worldwide

The (0.5) idea in actual fact is that you support young people, we've appointed (0.5) uh we've appointed uh (0.5) people called NAVIGATOR? uh (0.5) who who (0.5) support young people from the age (0.5) of 5 or 6 right through to (0.5) um years after schooling so they follow them for 12 to 15 years, and they stay with them for 12 to 15 years now that's an enormous commitment .hh um (0.5) but it is a commitment of support that um um (0.5) that certainly ((has been demonstrated to)) make a difference to young peoples' educational and life success

-> It it it (0.5) sounds like a no-brainer I mean obviously education can break its generational cycle of poverty. hh> why why< (0.5) isn't that taken more seriously by: the people who put money into the system.> do you know what I mean<we we (0.5) constantly talk about (0.1) early intervention we constantly talk about education being the key: is it THAT↑ (0.5) is it (0.5) THAT↑ hm (0.5) the people in charge: don't really believe that↓or [they do?

Na I [think they]

[They do no no no I mean I'm wondering why it has to be reargued every time↓:

I think they really believe it uh (0.5) what I'm not sure is that they put the money into the right place I I (0.5) spoke ((a little bit)) earlier about the three things that matter in education? and I think we've over-emphasized one of them to the expense of the other. We've over-emphasized achievement and success, and measuring achievement and success at the expense of what I think matters even more than that and that's engaging young people in something that fascinates and interests them [and]

[what's the difference? because one would imagine that if you engage them in something that fascinates and interests interests (0.5) them that will translate into achievement and [success]

[Absolutely but that's the way to work I I (0.5) agree completely. that we need to start with fascination and interest and lead to achievement uh (0.5) not have our system driven by uh (0.5) achievement and [achievement measures

[I see so by concentrating too much on: MEASURING we are LEACHING things of their fascination is that [what you mean]

[I'm sure about that and if I think back in 40 years in education, the opportunities I had as a teacher in the 1970s and 80s just to pursue: my own, and students' interests was just far greater ((than it is)) now. hh

[You were yes] ↓

[And I emphasize my own interests because the other thing I think is is missing in this space is the affirmation for teachers actually to be leaders in the classroom and to take. curious young minds into all sorts of places they might not have thought of going and (0.5) the notion that teachers somehow: simply facilitate students' current interests (0.1) to me downplays and (0.5) in a way lowers the status of teaching. Teachers I think have got a wonderful opportunity. uh (0.5) to lead young minds into places they've never ever thought of going before, and (0.1) that's what I loved about teaching

That does seem odd doesn't it THAT we focus on what (0.5) they're interested in already↓

Yeah↓

As if nothing's ever going to [change]

[Exactly (0.5) that's exactly it and I find that so frustrating we talk about ourselves being facilitators and guides um (0.5) which itself, I think just downgrades the value of that wonderful word teacher. teacher as a leader, so the leader of young minds↓

AFFECT IN EXPRESSIVE SPEECH ACTS BY THE JUDGES OF THE VOICE UK VERSUS THE VOICE VIETNAM

Nguyen Quang Ngoan*, Le Huu Loc

Department of Foreign Languages, Quy Nhon University
170 An Duong Vuong, Quy Nhon, Binh Dinh, Vietnam

Received 10 July 2019
Revised 1 August 2019; Accepted 22 December 2019

Abstract: Appraisal Theory by Martin and White (2005) has increasingly claimed its potential in discourse analysis studies, highlighting the speakers' and writers' evaluations of people, entities, and events. This paper adopts Martin and White's Appraisal framework for the purpose of determining the Affect in the expressives made by the judges of the two reality shows, The Voice UK versus The Voice Vietnam. Specifically, the research addresses itself to discovering which Affect resources are used in the expressive acts by the judges and indicating the resemblances and discrepancies in employing those resources in the expressives by the two groups of judges. The results reveal that all of the sub-types of Affect were found in the two data sets. Besides, the Affect resources in the two languages share a variety of similarities in terms of their frequency, realization strategies, and polarities. The study can be the reference for learners of English and Vietnamese in passing their remarks in daily communication.

Keywords: Appraisal, affect, attitude, expressives, judges

1. Introduction

The favorable outcome of many reality shows results not only from the reputation and unique talents of the judges but also from the language they use. Indeed, the comments given by the judges have a vital part to play as they encourage the audience to evaluate and vote for excellent contestants and enable the candidates to be aware of their shortcomings, foster their spirit for the next rounds through appropriate incitement. Apart from that, the spectators are allowed to carry out objective and adequate assessments of the judges, particularly regarding the attitudinal ones. Passing remarks, accordingly, can be considered the art of conversation because this practice can leave the viewers with favorable impressions about the judges, contributing to enhancing the judges' prestige.

Besides, if appropriately treated, the judges' language can serve as precious, genuine resources for individuals who research, teach, and learn the language. This justifies the fact that these linguistic resources have become an intriguing realm of research. Master's theses on this topic were conducted, namely the one by T. N. Vo (2017) on **expressive speech acts** in judges' comments in America's Got Talent versus Vietnam's Got Talent, Bui (2018) on transitivity in comments given by the judges in American Master-Chef and Vietnam's Master-Chef, and T. T. Nguyen (2018) on attitudinal resources in comments by judges in American Idol and Vietnam's Idol.

* Corresponding author. Tel.: 84-911308279
Email: nguyenquangngoan@qnu.edu.vn

With respect to **Appraisal Theory**, D. D. Vo (2011), in his doctoral thesis, studied journalistic voices operating in English Vietnamese hard news reports in the light of *Appraisal* and the system of voices. Regarding the spoken language, T. Ngo (2013) investigated the discrepancies in the application of *Appraisal* resources, especially *Attitude* and *Graduation*, by Vietnamese students in Australia when partaking in English and Vietnamese oral discussions. T. T. H. Tran (2018) successfully defended her doctoral thesis which revolved around the language of evaluation by the judges in some Vietnamese entertaining programs, with reference being made to the English language.

Besides, quite a large number of master's studies on the attitudinal aspect have been carried out, investigating a wide range of discourse types, ranging from American leaders' speeches (T. N. H. Vo (2014), Le (2017), T. T. T. Tran (2017)), travel advertisements (T. H. Nguyen, 2015), travellers' holiday reviews (K. L. Nguyen, 2017), readers' opinions (T. K. T. Vo, 2017), letters of complaint (T. B. C. Le, 2017), news about environment (A. Q. N. Ngo, 2017), advertising slogans (T. M. N. Nguyen, 2017), film reviews (Phan, 2017), to love song lyrics (T. N. Nguyen, 2018).

Apart from that, *Appraisal Theory* was applied in the research of childbirth narratives (Page, 2003), high- and low-rated English argumentative essays by EFL students in two Chinese universities (Liu, 2013), English song discourses (Li, 2016), critical reading in teaching English at colleges (Ruo-mei, 2016), English novel discourse (Hadidi & Mohammadbagheri-Parvin, 2015) or President Xi's remarks at the press conference (Zhang, 2018).

It can be seen that *Appraisal Theory* and *Speech Act Theory* are of great interest to researchers. However, a study of the Attitudinal evaluation via the speech acts appears to be an untouched issue. Searl and Vanderveken (1985) (as cited in Ronan, 2015, p. 30) hints at the close relationship between the *expressives* and *Appraisal Theory* by stating that *expressive speech act* verbs "usually express good or bad evaluations, and they are hearer centered". As a result, this paper strives for applying *Appraisal* framework, focusing on the system of **Attitude**, to gain an insight into the use of **Affect** resources in the expressives made by the coaches in the popular TV series, The Voice. In detail, the study addresses itself to answering the questions of (1) which Affect resources are used and how often they are used in the EUJs versus EVJs and (2) what the similarities and differences of the Attitudinal resources in the EUJs versus those in EVJs are.

The expressives surveyed, specifically, 176 expressives by the Vietnamese judges (EVJs) and 178 by the English judges (EUJs), were yielded from the judges' comments in The Voice UK 2018 and The Voice Vietnam 2018.

2. Theoretical background

This research makes use of the *Appraisal* framework, with attention being geared towards one of the *Attitudinal* sub-systems, Affect. The purpose of this utilization is to identify the *Affect* resources in expressive speech acts by the two groups of judges, pointing out the similarities and discrepancies regarding the types, strategies and extremes of the *Affect* values employed.

The theory of *speech acts*, especially *expressive acts*, is also reviewed purely for purpose of laying foundations for extracting *expressives* from the judges comments, which serve as the research data.

2.1. Appraisal theory

According to Ruo-mei (2016, p. 869), the *Appraisal* framework was originated from **Systemic Functional Linguistics**, being proposed by an Australian-based group of linguists headed by James R. Martin in the 1990s. White (2015b, p. 1) defines *Appraisal* as "an approach to exploring, describing and explaining the way language is used to evaluate, to adopt stances, to construct textual personas and to manage interpersonal positionings and relationships."

As Martin and White (2005, pp. 34-35) state, *Appraisal* "is one of three major discourse semantic resources construing interpersonal meaning" accompanied by involvement and negotiation. The *Appraisal* resources are used "for negotiating our social relationships, by telling our listeners or readers how we feel about things and people (in a word, what our attitudes are)" (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 26).

Appraisal can be deemed a comprehensive term indicating language resources by which speakers/writers can offer positive or negative evaluations of people, things, places, events, and states of affairs, exercise interpersonal engagement with listeners/readers in either actual or potential manners, and achieve, to a certain extent, the utterances' intensity and preciseness. (D. D. Vo, 2011, pp. 28-29). According to Martin and White (2005, pp. 34-35), the *Appraisal* framework encompasses three interacting semantic domains, namely **Attitude**, **Engagement**, and **Graduation**.

Attitude is concerned with "our feelings, including emotional reactions, judgments of behaviors, and evaluation of things" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 35). Phrased another way, attitude is the resource which is wielded by the speakers or writers to express people's views, positive and negative feeling reactions with participants and offer the assessment of things. The attitudinal evaluations are grouped into three categories, **Affect**, **Judgment**, and **Appreciation**.

Judgment pertains to people's behaviors and actions. According to Martin and White (2005, p. 42), *Judgment* "deals with attitudes towards behavior, which we admire or criticize, praise or condemn." In other words, the judgment refers to the evaluation of people's behaviors and actions on the basis of ethics and various social standards.

Appreciation is considered the "assessment of artifacts, entities, happenings, and states of affairs by reference to aesthetics and other systems of social valuation" (White, 2015a, p. 2). D. D. Vo (2011, p. 31) affirms, "Appreciation is not always concerned with the evaluation of things, but in many instances, it deals with the aesthetic evaluation of humans." Martin and White (2005, p. 56) propose three sub-types in which *Appreciation* is categorized: **Reaction**, **Composition**, and **Valuation**.

Affect can be deemed the "assessment of an emotional reaction" (White, 2015a, p. 2). Specifically, it involves *positive* and *negative* emotions about people, things, places, events, and phenomena. To put it another way, *Affect* is the value by which the writers/speakers indicate emotions. This value expresses not only the writer's feelings but also the souls of those within the text, namely *Authorial* and *Non-Authorial Affect*, respectively.

As reviewed by Martin and White (2005, p. 46), *Affect* can be realized by **quality**, **mental**, and **behavioral processes**, **modal adjuncts**, and **nominalizations**. These realizations are clearly illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1. Grammatical realizations of Affect (Martin & White, 2005, p. 46)

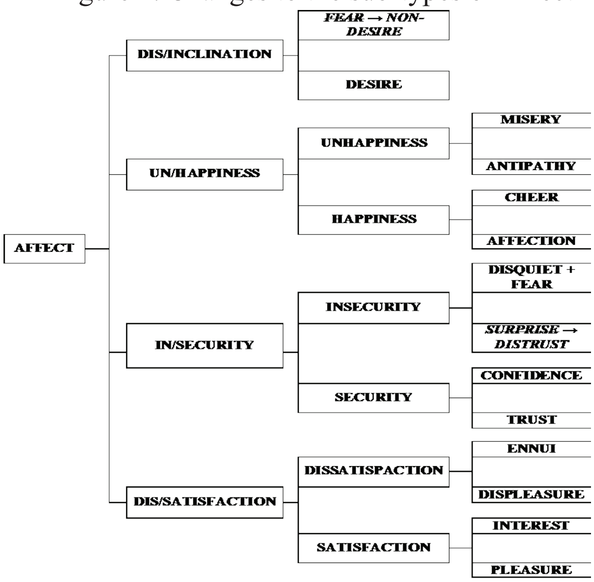
Types	Grammatical realizations	Examples
affect as ‘**quality**’ - describing participants - attributed to participants - manner of processes	Epithet Attribute Circumstance	a *sad* captain the captain was *sad* the captain left *sadly*
affect as ‘**process**’ - affective mental - affective behavioral	Process	his departure *upset* him he *missed* them the captain *wept*
affect as ‘**comment**’ - desiderative	Modal Adjunct	*sadly*, he had to go
affect as ‘**nominalisations**’	Subject, Object, …	*fear, joy, sadness, grief,* etc.

Martin and White (2005, pp. 48-49) categorize *Affect* into four significant sets, namely **Un/Happiness**, **In/Security**, **Dis/ Satisfaction,** and **Dis/ Inclination**. Dis/ Inclination group appertain to feelings foregrounding intention rather than reaction, regarding a **stimulus** that is *irrealis*. The other three groups are defined as follows:

> The un/happiness variable covers emotions concerned with ‘affairs of the heart’ – sadness, hate, happiness and love; the in/security variable covers feelings concerned with ecosocial well-being – anxiety, fear, confidence, and trust; the dis/satisfaction variable includes emotions related to telos (the pursuit of goals) – ennui, displeasure, curiosity, respect. (Martin & White, 2005, p. 49)

After years of development, to be more reasonable and comprehensive, the *Affect* system has gone through modifications put forward by researchers in the field, especially those by Ngo and Unsworth (2015). The adjustments to the *Affect* system are illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Changes to the sub-types of Affect



(Ngo & Unsworth, 2015, p. 12 - based on Martin & White, 2005)

Table 2 illustrates the types and sub-types of the *Affect* system basing on Martin and White (2005) and being refined by Ngo and Unsworth (2015), with examples accompanied.

Table 2. The system of Affect
(Martin & White, 2005, pp. 48-51) and (Ngo & Unsworth, 2015)

	Positive	**Negative**
UN/HAPPINESS	- **cheer** – *laugh, cheerful, …* - **affection** – *hug, love,…*	- **misery** – *cry, sad, …* - **antipathy** – *abuse, hate, …*
IN/SECURITY	- **confidence** – *no pressure, confident, …* - **trust** – *optimistic, trusted, …*	- **disquiet** – *stressed, nervous, …* - **distrust** – *never trust, reluctant, reserve, suspicion, doubt/doubtful, hesitate, …*
DIS/SATISFACTION	- **interest** – *busy, involved, …* - **pleasure** – *compliment, pleased, …*	- **ennui** – *yawn, jaded, …* - **displeasure** – *scold, angry, …*
DIS/INCLINATION	**desire** – *miss, long for, yearn for, …*	**non-desire** – *ignore, neglect, reluctant, refuse to, disinclined, …*

As previously mentioned, the *Affect* value can be classified into **Authorial** and **Non-Authorial**. Through *Authorial Affect*, "the speaker/writer strongly foregrounds his/her subjective presence in the communicative process" (White, 2015b). In other words, authorial affects pertain to the author's application of the first person to show his/her direct assessments. In the case of the *Non-Authorial Affect*, the speakers or writers express feelings of the other individuals. Those are the instances "where it is not the author's emotions which are described but those of other human individuals or groups." (White, 2015b). As a result, he/she makes use of the second and third person to offer evaluations on others' emotions.

According to D. D. Vo (2017, p. 18), through the utilization of **Engagement** resources, speakers/writers "can adjust and negotiate what White (2001) terms the "arguability" or "dialogic terms" of their utterance." Indeed, *Engagement* is the language resource signifying voices of the author and the texts. *Engagement* is of two types, **Monogloss** and **Heterogloss**.

Graduation can be seen as "the amplification of both Attitude and the degree of Engagement" (Ngo & Unsworth, 2015, p. 3). As stated by Martin and White (2005, p. 135), *Graduation* is concerned with "up-scaling and down-scaling."

2.2. Expressive speech acts

According to Yule (1996, p. 48), **speech acts** can be defined as "actions performed via utterances," and they are attached "more specific labels, such as apologies, complaints, compliments, invitations, promises, or requests." He classifies speech acts into **locutionary acts**, **illocutionary acts,** and **perlocutionary acts**. **Expressive** is one of five illocutionary speech acts, together with **declarations**, **representatives**, **directives**, and **commissives**.

"Expressives are those kinds of speech acts that state what the speaker feels. They express psychological states and can be statements of pleasure, pain, likes, dislikes, joy, or sorrow". (Yule, 1996, p. 53). Searle (1976, p. 12) asserts that *expressives* "express the psychological state specified in the sincerity condition about a state of affairs specified in the propositional content." There are many ways by which the kinds of *expressive acts* are categorized, especially those by Austin (1962), Searle (1976), Bach and Harnish (1979), Norrick (1978), and Guiraud, Longin, Lorini, Pesty, and Rivière (2011). The current study employs the taxonomy of *expressives* suggested by Norrick (1978) as the framework for extracting expressive speech acts made by the judges from their comments, with further reference to the kinds of categorization mentioned.

As Norrick (1978, pp. 284-291) suggests, *expressive illocutionary acts* can be grouped into **apologizing**, **thanking**, **congratulating**, **condoling**, **deploring**, **lamenting**, **welcoming**, **forgiving**, **boasting.** *Apologizing* is used to make peace with the people we have hurt, to get rid of the blame, to express regrets, and to trigger acts of forgiving, and to be relieved of fault. In terms of *thanking*, the speaker would like to acknowledge the benefit gained from the actions of the addressee. As for *congratulating*, it concerns conveying the speaker's pleasure, pride, or giving encouragements. Regarding *condoling*, it is similar to congratulating in terms of sharing addressee's experience and feelings; it is applied to reduce the addressee's pain, to show sympathy with the hearer. Deploring is used in such cases as telling off a naughty child or keeping the hearer informed of his/her wrongdoings. With respect to *lamenting*, it is comparable to *condoling* in communicating depression; nevertheless, *lamenting* is targeted at the speaker's own mishap. As regards *welcoming*, its social purpose is to indicate delight in one's appearance, to consider the arrival a favor. In terms of *forgiving*, its role is to show acceptance to an apology, and to put an end to the matter. Last but not least, the act of *boasting*, it involves the speaker's pride in past achievements, to impress others, and to deter someone from competing or resisting.

3. Methodology

3.1. Data sources and Samples

The data of the study were the *expressives* gathered from the judges' commentaries in the TV shows, The Voice UK Season 7 and The Voice Vietnam Season 5. Both of the shows were taken place and on air in the two countries in 2018. As these programs belong to the so-called talent-seeking and entertainment ones, the frequency of expressive acts is likely to be higher than that of other *speech acts*. The number of the expressives of the whole series, encompassing many rounds, was quite large. Therefore, only those from the last two rounds, semi-final and final rounds, were chosen. And it seemed that the comments in the two selected rounds were more detailed with shrewd *expressives*. The parts of judges' remarks were included at the end of the candidates' performances, downloaded from the YouTube channels of the two reality shows.

To distill the *expressives* from the commentaries, the framework of expressive speech act suggested by Norrick (1978, pp. 284-291) was adopted. The Norrick's taxonomy can be regarded as a comprehensive classification of expressive speech acts; it clarifies and develops the primary types of expressive speech acts suggested by Searl (1976, p.12), which were illustrated by such expressive verbs as *thank, congratulate, apologize, condole, deplore,* and *welcome*. Beacuse of its comprehensiveness, this classification proves beneficial to the approach of this study, although not all the expressives collected can be covered by this categorization, and many Norrick's categories were not found in the commentaries.

Basing on the taxonomy of expressives by Norrick (1978) and the expressives found in the research process, the expressives can be grouped into the sets of *apologizing, thanking, congratulating, condoling, deploring, lamenting, welcoming, forgiving, boasting, complimenting, liking, bidding*, and *others*.

It can be argued that the *bidding* indicates ideals that the speaker clings to may not completely correspond to the current state of affairs. *Liking* refers to the groups of expressives which are realized by the use of such verbs as *like, love, hate, dislike*, ... The group *others* covers the expressives commonly triggered by the adjectives, such as *happy, proud, emotional*, … The set of *complimenting* sometimes overlaps with that of *congratulating*; however, the subtle difference exists between these two groups in some instances.

It should be conceded that in English and Vietnamse, almost all of the *expressive acts* are used; however, the modes of actualizing these acts in the two languages are different to some extent due to the variance of the morphological and syntactic features. Nevertheless, the two groups of judges shared the similarity concerning the use of *indirect* instead of *direct* indication of *expressive acts*. As a result, in order to define the types of *expressives*, attention also should be paid to reading the entire utterance, not just individual words or phrases.

Table 3 illustrates the number of *expressive speech acts* gathered as data in the two shows.

Table 3. Types of expressives in the study

Expressives	**The Voice UK 2018 (EUJs)**		**The Voice VN 2018 (EVJs)**	
	Instances	Percentages	Instances	Percentages
Apologizing	0	0%	0	0%
Thanking	0	0%	9	5.1%
Congratulating	50	28.1%	42	23.9%
Complimenting	62	34.8%	40	22.7%
Condoling	10	5.6%	16	9.1%
Deploring	0	0%	4	2.3%
Lamenting	1	0.6%	2	1.1%
Welcoming	0	0%	0	0%
Forgiving	0	0%	1	0.6%
Boasting	0	0%	0	0%
Bidding	7	3.9%	21	11.9%
Liking	14	7.9%	11	6.3%
Others	34	19.1%	30	17%
TOTAL	**178**	**100%**	**176**	**100%**

3.2. Data analysis

The sub-system of *Affect* in *Appraisal* theory was used as the theoretical framework for the procedure of data analysis. With the corpora of 178 EUJs and 176 EVJs, the *Affect* resources wielded in the expressives in the two languages were positioned, sorted out regarding typology (*In/Security, Un/Happiness, Dis/Satisfaction, Dis/Inclination*), polarity (*positive* or *negative*) and strategy (*inscribed/explicit* or *invoked/implicit*). The EUJs were numbered from E1 to En and EVJs from V1 to Vn.

The data were imported to the computer with the software Microsoft Office Excel. With the assistance of this tool, the frequency, as well as the proportion of each class, would be precisely calculated.

The data exported from the computer were summarized, presented in tables, and described using descriptive techniques. Thereby, comparative and contrastive tactics were utilized to disclose the resemblances and distinctions as concerns the manipulation of Affect resources of the judges in the two countries.

Apart from that, the background knowledge of culture and linguistics would also prove productive, aiding the author in providing essential justification for the statistical analysis, particularly for the similarities and dissimilarities of the utilization of language for the evaluative purpose of the UK's and the Vietnamese judges.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1. Affect resources in EUJs

4.1.1. Four sub-types of Affect resources in EUJ

Table 4. Four sub-types of Affect in EUJs

Sub-types of Affect resources in EUJs	Instances	Rate
Dis/Inclination	4	5.2%
Un/Happiness	51	66.2%
In/Security	8	10.4%
Dis/Satisfaction	14	18.2%
Total	**77**	**100%**

As can be seen from Table 4, *Un/Happiness* was the most common *Affect* value in the *expressives* by the UK's judges, ranking first with 66.2%. *Dis/Satisfaction* accounted for the second highest rate (18.2%), and the third rank was *In/Security* (10.4%). *Dis/Inclination* was the least common among the four sub-types of Affect, with only 4 out of 76 resources falling into this category. The following extracts are given as examples of the four types of *Affect* in EUJs found in the data.

[E1] *I **love** you!*

[E2] ***love** it **love** it **love** it **love** it!*

[E3] *Oh I **like** it, says 'Whoo'... like the energy of it, the chant I put along*

[E4] *what I **love** most is how you took your own liberties*

[E5] *I felt the **joy** in it*

[E6] *We all **love** you*

[E7] *And I have to be honest, even though I'm rooting for Donel I can't help but **love** your voice.*

The judges of The Voice UK employed the words *love*, *like, joy* in a comprehensive manner to express their affection and cheer towards the candidates and their performances. Besides, the word *amazing* was also wielded by the EUJs to indirectly express the emotion of great excitement, as illustrated in the following examples,

[E8] *I mean that was **amazing** in more ways than one. That was **amazing**.*

[E9] *You're just born...you are born to do what you're doing, and you're just you're **amazing***

[E10] *Yes!!! Lord!! It's* ***amazing***.

[E11] *You are* ***amazing****... you are* ***amazing****, really!*

[E12] *this show is about the voice, and it's* ***amazing***.

[E13] *your world is so* ***amazing***

[E14] *on paper that song just shouldn't work you know what I mean but Tai, you did your thing on it, and it was just* ***amazing***

The UK's judges also showed their contentment in the candidates' performances by using the *Dis/Satisfaction* value. The satisfaction feeling in EUJs was mostly realized by the adjective *proud*. For instance,

[E15] *We're very* ***proud*** *of you!*

[E16] *and I'm* ***proud*** *of you for that!*

[E17] *I'm so* ***proud****!*

[E18] *I'm so* ***proud*** *of you, Lauren, honestly*

[E19] *we're all* ***proud parents*** *in a way because we have like the people that we are rooting for*

The *Dis/Inclination* and *In/Security* were less usual than the other two values. By resorting to the *Dis/Inclination*, the UK's judges convey their desire of the candidates making progress to head for the later rounds and gaining more success after leaving the contest. As a result, the verbs *hope* and *want* proved useful in these cases. This was presented by the examples [E20], [E21], and [E22]. By the utilization of the *In/Security* value, the judges in The Voice UK indicated their confidence and determination. They thought that based on the present capacity, the candidates would undoubtedly move further and achieve fruitful results in the future, such as securing a slot in the final round or becoming colleagues of their coaches, creating many hits after the game. This was vividly illustrated by the instances of [E23], [E24], and [E25].

[E20] *and I just* ***hope*** *you make the final, mate. I really do.*

[E21] *and it made us all* ***want*** *to celebrate and be a part of it with you*

[E22] *I...I really* ***want*** *to see you guys out there doing what you're doing and have a huge success*

[E23] *Yes, you sang 'I'm alive,' right? I'm alive; I* ***believe*** *you if nobody believes you after that.*

[E24] *You need to be in that final* ***without a shadow of a doubt****. You need to be there. You have to.*

[E25] *I'm gonna see you in the charts.* ***I have no doubt that*** *me and you will be in the charts battling against each other.* ***No doubt****!*

4.1.2. Authorial and Non-authorial Affect resources in EUJs

Emotions can be *Authorial* or *Non-Authorial* (White, 2015b). *Authorial Affect* deals with the agents' emotional responses while *Non-authorial* is concerned with the feelings of other people that are observed and reported by the agents. Figure 2 depicts the distribution of the *Authorial* and *Non-authorial Affect* in EUJs.

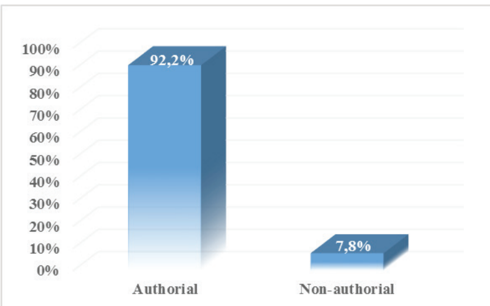


Figure 2. Authorial and Non-authorial Affect in EUJs

It is apparent from Figure 2 that most of all the *Affect* resources in EUJs were of *Authorial* ones, amounting to over 90% of the total number of *Affect*, whereas only 6 out of 77 *Affect* resources were about the feelings observed by the judges. The *Non-authorial Affect* resources were employed mainly to show the judges' sympathy with the difficulties or hardships that the candidates had to overcome. By doing so, the judges aspired to give essential mental support or encouragement to the contestants. [E26], [E27], [E28], [E29], [E30], [E31] are typical cases of *Non-authorial Affect* in EUJs,

[E26] *Honestly! I know how* ***nervous*** *you were tonight*

[E27] *it looked like it was giving you* ***confidence*** *because you were right in it*

[E28] *So you're gonna look back at this, and you're gonna be very* ***proud of yourself*** *like we are*

[E29] *You know, you're a little* ***unsure*** *when when I suggested the song*

[E30] *'Cause I could feel you're getting quite* ***emotional.***

[E31] *I know how* ***nervous*** *you must have been doing it*

4.1.3. Positive and Negative Affect resources in EUJs

In this part, *Affect* resources are examined concerning the polarity (*positive* or *negative*). Under *Affect*, we are interested in considering emotions, with *positive* responses and *negative* responses and dispositions. *Positive* sentiments are concerned with jubilance, self-assurance, attentiveness, etc., whereas *negative* emotions touch on depression, apprehension, nuisance, etc.

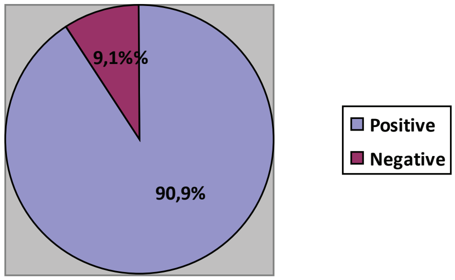


Figure 3. Positive and Negative Affect resources in EUJs

Figure 3 reveals that most of the *Affect* resources in EUJs are *positive*, constituting over 90%, and around 9% is the percentage of *negative* emotions. Typical examples of *negative* responses are presented as follows,

[E32] *Honestly! I know how* ***nervous*** *you were tonight*

[E33] *You know, you're a little* ***unsure*** *when... when I suggested the song*

[E34] *it's a very powerful* ***scary*** *piece of music*

[E35] *I know how* ***nervous*** *you must have been doing it*

The exemplars indicate that the *Negative Affect* was exploited just for the reason of showing the feeling of disquiet of the candidates when being assigned the song or when performing on the stage. Also, the *Negative Affect* resources were adopted to show the judges' own feelings of disappointment. For instance,

[E36] *You snatched all ponytails, and we don't even have one, first of all*

[E37] *Tom just took me out of those feelings!*

4.1.4. Inscribed and Invoked Affect resources in EUJs

Table 5. Inscribed and Invoked Affect in EUJs

Affect resources in EUJs	Instances	Rate
Inscribed	30	39%
Invoked	47	61%
Total	**77**	**100%**

Affect resources can be realized directly or indirectly. In other words, they can be *Inscribed* or *Invoked*. As is observed from Table 5, most of the *Affect* resources in EUJs were *Invoked Affect*, occupying around 60%. The typical cases of *Invoked Affect* were those containing the words *amazing*, *stunning* or the expressions *blown away/blow me away, got goosebumps all over* which indirectly highlight the emotion of excitement or surprise, as in [E38], [E39] [E40], [E41], [E42]. The *Invoked Affect* also expressed the judges' feelings of admiration or satisfaction as in [E43], [E44] or [E45]. The *Invoked Affect* could be realized by not only individual words, but also by phrases, or even the whole sentences, or a group of sentences.

[E38] *I mean that was **amazing** in more ways than one. That was **amazing**.*

[E39] *Actually that was **stunning***

[E40] *Every time... every time I see you lose you just **blow me away***

[E41] *I'm **blown away***

[E42] *this week I just **got goosebumps all over**, honestly. I mean I can't show you but **all over goosebumps***

[E43] *I went for opera event not too long ago, and when I finished singing they said, Brava! Brava! Brava! So, **brava! Brava!***

[E44] ***hats off** to you guys*

[E45] *Oh my god! I'm always **a fan** of his*

In the example [E43], *brava!* in this context can be considered as an equivalent of *congratulations*. Through the act of congratulating, the judge revealed his/her satisfaction towards the performance. In the similar vein, the expression *hats off to you in* [E44] demonstrated the feeling of admiration or respect of the judges for impression brought about by the candidate. The emotion of admiration was also highlighted by the employment of the word *fan* in [E45].

4.2. Affect resources in EVJs

This section focuses on examining *Affect* resources in EVJs, laying the foundation for the comparison and contrast with the *Affect* resources in EUJs, which have just been discussed in the previous parts.

4.2.1.Four sub-types of Affect resources in EVJs

Table 6. Four sub-types of Affect resources in EVJs

Sub-types of Affect in EVJs	Instances	Rate
Dis/Inclination	8	9.6%
Un/Happiness	25	30.1%
In/Security	12	14.5%
Dis/Satisfaction	38	45.8%
Total	**83**	**100%**

As indicated in Table 6, in EVJs, *Dis/Satisfaction* and *Un/Happiness* resources constituted higher proportions than the other two, occupying about 46% and 30% respectively. The *In/Security* came next, with just above half of the percentage of *Un/Happiness*, at around 15%. The research also registered the occurrence of *Dis/Inclination* value, but it stood at a rate of just under 10%. All four dimensions of *Affect* resources are demonstrated through the following representative cases.

The *Affect* resources of *Dis/Satisfaction* were mainly realized by the word *tự hào (proud)* to express his/her pride and contentedness in their students' performances, which lived up to their expectation.

[V1] *Ngày hôm nay chị thực sự rất là* ***tự hào*** *về Thái Bình*

(I'm so proud of Thai Binh today)

[V2] *Anh rất* ***tự hào*** *về em*

(I'm so proud)

[V3] *Anh cảm thấy rất là* ***tự hào***

(I feel so proud)

[V4] *Anh rất* ***tự hào*** *vì em đã tin tưởng anh, cùng làm nên một Gia Nghi trưởng thành như ngày hôm nay*

(I feel proud as you trust me, becoming more mature now)

[V5] *Em làm anh rất* ***tự hào****, Nghi à.*

(You make me so proud, Nghi)

[V6] *Anh rất* ***tự hào*** *về em Ánh à*

(I'm very proud of you, Anh)

[V7] *Và chị muốn khoe năm bạn ở đây với khán giả ở đây và khán giả đang xem trực tiếp truyền hình đó là, bọn chị cực kì* ***tự hào*** *về năm bạn ở đây*

(I wanna praise five of you in front of the audience, we, as coaches, are extremely proud of you)

The Vietnamese judges gave vent to their emotions of *Un/Happiness*, especially Affection and Cheer through the use of such words as *thích, yêu, hạnh phúc, phấn khích, sướng/sung sướng/sướng lỗ tai (like, love, elated, gratified)*

[V8] *Có lẽ là tất cả HLV, đồng nghiệp của anh sẽ có rất nhiều điều về chuyên môn, nhưng anh hiện giờ trong lòng anh chỉ là cảm xúc rất là* ***sung sướng*** *mà thôi*

(The coaches, my colleagues probably share many specialized things, but it's the delight I can sense now)

[V9] *Hôm nay anh đến và được ngồi nghe các em hát, cảm thấy* ***sướng lỗ tai****,* ***sướng*** *lắm*

(Listening to your performances, I am so gratified, really)

[V10] *Anh rất là* ***phấn khích*** *bởi vì hôm nay, đây là ngày cuối cùng chúng ta bước vào chặng cuối của cuộc thi Giọng hát Việt năm 2018*

(I'm elated as this is the last day of the final rounds of The Voice 2018)

[V11] *Chị* ***thích*** *em ở màu sắc này hơn bởi vì nó thể hiện rõ nội lực trong giọng hát em.*

(I like it when you're with this form as it clearly shows the inner strength of your voice)

[V12] *Anh rất* ***thích*** *các tiết mục của Giọng hát Việt năm nay*

(I really enjoy the performances of this season)

[V13] *Chị luôn luôn* ***yêu*** *em, vậy thôi.*

(I always love you, that's all)

[V14] *Anh rất là* ***hạnh phúc***

(I'm so happy)

The *In/Security* were actualized mainly by the manipulation of the word *tin (believe)* to convey the emotion of strong belief and the judges' degree of certainty in giving opinions, whereas the word *thảnh thơi (leisurely)* was put to use in order to describe the coaches' trust in the capacity of their students. In other words, the judges did not need to worry much about their contestants' performances.

[V15] *Chị **tin** là như thế*

(I believe so)

[V16] *Và chị **tin** là Noo Phước Thịnh đang hãnh diện thật vì những gì mà em đang làm được.*

(And I believe that Noo Phuoc Thinh is proud of what you're doing.)

[V17] *Em **thảnh thơi** em ngồi xem.*

(I watch it leisurely)

[V18] *Tiên **tin** rằng tâm thế của bốn HLV ở đây đêm nay là đến đây để theo dõi, để thưởng thức phần trình diễn của năm bạn thí sinh*

(Tien believes that the four coaches' mind here tonight is coming here to watch, to enjoy the performance of the five contestants.)

[V19] *Và chị **tin** rằng nếu như những cố gắng của các em, những nỗ lực của các em và những gì HLV của các em đang cố gắng dành cho các em, hi vọng các em sẽ thành công.*

(And I believe that with all your efforts, the coaches' efforts, I hope you will succeed.)

As regards the *Affect* resources of *Dis/Inclination* in EVJs, the Vietnamese judges voiced the ideals they had for the candidates. They opted for such words as *hi vọng, muốn, mong, trông đợi (hope, want, expect)*. By way of illustration,

[V20] *Anh **muốn** cho Alex ở vòng này có một sự thay đổi so với vòng trước*

(I want Alex to have a change from the previous round)

[V21] *Đây đúng là Ánh mà chị **trông đợi**.*

(This is precisely what I've expected from Anh)

[V22] *Chị **hi vọng** khán giả sẽ có cái nhìn, cũng như là sự yêu thương nhất định để vote cho các em, ai sẽ là người xứng đáng nhất đêm nay*

(I hope the audience will have their own decisions, as well as their own interests, to vote for the most worthy person tonight)

[V23] *Và chị **mong** rằng các em sẽ thành công hơn nữa trong phần hai của đêm nay*

(And I expect that you will be even more successful in the second part of the night)

4.2.2. Authorial and Non-authorial Affect resources in EVJs

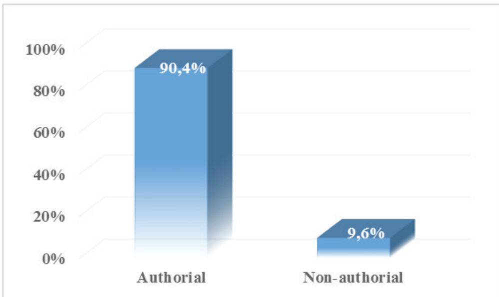


Figure 4. Authorial and Non-authorial Affect in EVJs

Figure 4 compares the proportion of *Authorial Affect* resources and *Non-authorial* ones. The *Authorial Affect* resources played the dominant role, with over 75 out of 83 *Affect* resources. The *Non-authorial Affect* in EVJs was exemplified through the following instances,

[V24] *Anh biết tất cả các em cũng như các HLV ở đây, chúng tôi đều có một sự* ***tiếc nuối*** *ở trong lòng rất là lớn*

(I know all of you as well as the coaches here, we all have a huge regret in our hearts.)

[V25] *Em* ***tức*** *với chính bản thân mình*

(You're angry with yourself)

[V26] *Đây là những điều mà thực sự từ đầu em rất là* ***thích***

(These are the things that you're really into from the beginning)

[V27] *Ngày hôm nay chị thấy* ***cảm xúc*** *của em rất là* ***dâng trào*** *và chị nghĩ hình như cũng có lúc Ánh hơi là* ***nghẹn ngào****, hơi* ***nức nở*** *một tí xíu*

(Today I feel your emotions are very intense and it seems you're a little choking, a little sobbing.)

[V28] *Em có thể hoàn toàn* ***tự tin***

(You can be completely confident)

[V29] *đó là với sự cố vấn từ anh Lam Trường thì* ***không*** *có việc gì phải* ***sợ*** *cả.*

(with the advice from Lam Truong, there is nothing to be afraid of)

[V30] *Thực ra thì Bình có một* ***nỗi sợ****, một* ***nỗi sợ rất là bình thường*** *đối với một cô nàng 19 tuổi.*

(Actually, Binh has a fear, a common fear for a 19-year-old girl)

Although the *Non-authorial* occupied a small percentage in the EVJs, they played an essential role in terms of psychology. They served to help the coaches to express their great sympathy and care for the contestants. Indeed, the judges implied that they understood all the feelings that the performers experienced, no matter how good or bad they were, which results in prompting the candidates to try their hardest for the later rounds.

4.2.3. Positive and Negative Affect resources in EVJ

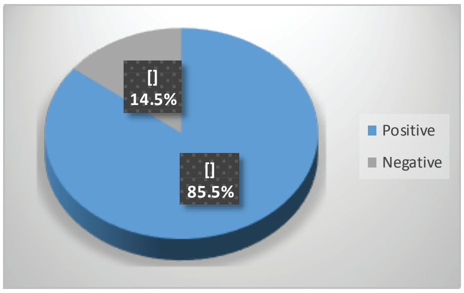


Figure 5. Positive and Negative Affect resources in EVJs

Figure 5 reveals that the Vietnamese judges preferred to offer *positive* evaluations in terms of sentiments, with 85.5% of *Affect* resources at the positive polar. The *Negative Affect* resources in EVJs chiefly denoted the pity or regret they experienced on parting, or at times they hinted at the apprehension or jealousy. The words *buồn, luyến tiếc, ghen tị, nức nở, nghẹn ngào, tức, lăn tăn (sad, regretful, jealous, sobbing, choking, angry, worried)* were employed in a very clever manner to portray all delicate negative emotions.

[V31] *Cảm giác của Phương có một chút, tất nhiên là* ***buồn****, bởi vì mình* ***luyến tiếc*** *vì các học trò của mình không có cơ hội ở trên sân khấu ngày hôm nay để thể hiện khả năng của các em. Đó là điều mà* ***luyến tiếc*** *đối với Thu Phương*

(I feel a bit, of course, sad, because I'm regretful that my students don't have the opportunity to be on stage today to show their abilities. That is a regret for me)

[V32] *Anh biết tất cả các em cũng như các HLV ở đây, chúng tôi đều có một* ***sự tiếc nuối*** *ở trong lòng rất là lớn*

(I know all of you as well as the coaches here, we all have a huge regret in our hearts.)

[V33] Noo nhớ lại những ngày đầu đi cùng Giọng hát Việt, Noo đã **lăn tăn** rất là nhiều, có nhiều **sự *đấu tranh*** *ở trong Noo, không biết là có nên ngồi một mùa Giọng hát Việt nữa không*

(I remember the early days with The Voice, I was freaked out a lot, there was a lot of struggle in me, not knowing whether to join another season.)

[V34] *Em **tức** với chính bản thân mình*

(You're angry with yourself)

[V35] *Ngày hôm nay chị thấy cảm xúc của em rất là dâng trào và chị nghĩ hình như cũng có lúc Ánh hơi là **nghẹn ngào**, hơi **nức nở** một tí xíu*

(Today I feel your emotions are very intense and it seems a little choking, a little sobbing.)

[V36] *Ngoài chuyện mình rất vui, rất tự hào về tất cả top 7 hôm nay thì còn có một sự **ghen tị** nho nhỏ, đó là năm nay các bạn thí sinh The Voice đều được ưu ái, bạn nào cũng có một bài hát riêng*

(Apart from being very happy, being very proud of all the top 7 today, I'm a little jealous, because this year all the contestants of The Voice are favored, everyone has a single.)

4.2.4.Inscribed and Invoked Affect resources in EVJ

Table 7. Inscribed and Invoked Affect resources in EVJs

Affect resources in EVJs	**Instances**	**Rate**
Inscribed	34	41%
Invoked	49	59%
Total	**83**	**100%**

In terms of strategy, the *Affect* resources in EVJs were *invoked* more commonly than *inscribed* or directly stated. Indeed, as seen from Table 7, approximately 60% of Affect resources in EVJs were indirectly realized through many different forms. The most striking cases were those where the judges congratulate, express gratitude towards the contestants, with the verb *chúc mừng, cảm ơn (congratulate, thank)*. It can be argued that this activity *invoked* the emotion of satisfaction. To illustrate,

[V37] ***Chúc mừng** em*

(Congratulations)

[V38] ***Chúc mừng** Ngân đã có một phần trình diễn rất thành công ngày hôm nay.*

(Congratulations on having a very successful performance today.)

[V39] *Và Minh Ngọc **đã thay lời cho Noo** truyền tải thông điệp đến tất cả mọi người qua ca khúc "Bóng mây qua thềm."*

(And Minh Ngoc helps Noo to convey the message to everyone through the song.)

[V40] ***Chúc mừng** Minh Ngọc với phần thể hiện vừa rồi*

(Congratulations on your performance)

[V41] *Chị **cảm ơn** Lưu Hiền Trinh đã hoàn thành tốt nhiệm vụ này.*

(Thank you for fulfilling this task.)

In the example [V39], by utilizing the phrase *đã thay lời cho Noo (on behalf of Noo),* the judge aspired to express his contentment as the his candidate achieved the expected purpose of transmitting the message to the audience through the peformance.

Apart from those examples, the instances with the word *tự hào (proud)* also conjured up the meaning of satisfaction. For example,

[V42] *Anh rất* ***tự hào*** *vì em đã tin tưởng anh, cùng làm nên một Gia Nghi trưởng thành như ngày hôm nay*

(I am very proud because you trust me, becoming more mature today)

[V43] *Và chị muốn khoe năm bạn ở đây với khán giả ở đây và khán giả đang xem trực tiếp truyền hình đó là, bọn chị cực kì* ***tự hào*** *về năm bạn ở đây*

(And I wanna praise you in front of the audience, we, as coaches, are extremely proud of the top five.)

The following instance indirectly called for the emotion of *desire* by the word *phải chi. (should have done).* It is arguable that the judge *wanted* the performer to make progress by following the suggestions proposed by the judge,

[V44] *Chỉ cảm thấy một chút xíu này thôi.* ***Phải chi*** *bớt những đoạn phiêu vocal, thay vào đó bằng một đoạn lắng mà em và các thiên thần nhỏ cùng hát chung thì sẽ làm cho em từ một giọng ca nội lực có một sự tinh tế hơn nữa và hoà quyện hơn nữa khi mà tất cả mọi người ở khán phòng này cùng lắng đọng, cùng nghe, cùng thưởng thức*

(I wanna comment on this. You should have reduced the vocal feels, replaced by a silent period when you and the little angels sing together, which adds subtlety to your inner strength, to be in harmony with everyone in this auditorium, who together settled, listened, enjoyed it)

4.3. Similarities and differences of Affect resources in EUJs versus EVJs

This section is devoted to encapsulating the similarities and differences of *Affect* resources in EUJs versus EVJs.

As far as the four sub-types of *Affect* resources are concerned, the rate of the four kinds of *Affect* in EUJs and EVJs followed a similar order pattern, in which *Un/Happiness* and *Dis/Satisfaction* accounted for more immense proportions, at 66.2% and 18.2% respectively in EUJs and 30.1% and 45.8% respectively in EVJs. It can be observed that the value of *Dis/Inclination* ranked last in both EUJs and EVJs, accounting for 5.2% and 9.6% correspondingly.

Besides, there were more *Authorial Affect* resources than the Non-authorial ones in both of the corpus. However, the *Non-Authorial Affect* resources had a vital role to play in expressing the judges' sympathy with the hardship experienced and the effort made by the candidates. This, in turn, led to the mutual understanding among them, making the contestants heartened to move forward, try harder for the succeeding rounds.

Turning to the polarity, EUJs and EVJs shared the similarity. It was found that the two groups of judges were in favor of the *Positive Affect* resources rather than the *Negative* ones. The *Negative* emotions were attached to the instances where the judges express the anxiety of the candidates, and their pity resulted from the upcoming farewell.

Concerning the strategy, interestingly, *invoking* was more frequently adopted than *inscribing* in both EUJs and EVJs. By *invoking* the *Affect* resources, the judges could unveil their emotions more flexibly in several ways, not only directly via certain individual words but also through sentences. Therefore, in [V45], no word of pity was mentioned, but that sentiment could still be inferred from connecting all the lexical items used. For instance,

[V45] *Cho đến khoảnh khắc này, ngày mai thôi chúng ta sẽ không còn phải chịu những áp lực này nữa, ngày mai thôi chúng ta sẽ phải chia tay với một sân khấu tuyệt vời như thế này*

(Until this moment, tomorrow we'll no longer have to bear these pressures, tomorrow we'll have to say goodbye to a beautiful stage like this)

It was discovered that in EUJs, and EVJs, specific common lexis was brought into play for particular kinds of *Affect* resources. For instance, the judges avail themselves of *like/ thích, love/ yêu, get goosebumps all over/ nổi da gà*, … for *Un/Happiness* value, *proud/ tự hào* for *Dis/Satisfaction*, *believe/no doubt/tin* for *In/Security, want/muốn, hope/hi vọng* or *mong* for *Dis/Inclination*.

5. Conclusion and Implications

As regards *Affect*, in both EUJs and EVJs, the findings claimed the occurrence of four sub-types of Affect. The *Affect* resources in the employed by the UK's judges and the Vietnamese ones followed the same ranking pattern of frequency, from the highest to the lowest, as follows: *Un/Happiness*, *Dis/ Satisfaction, In/Security, Dis/Inclination*. In these reality shows, the coaches wished to reveal their excitement and satisfaction to other people, mainly when the students performed compellingly. Furthermore, *Positive* feelings were more popular than the *Negative* ones. Most of the *Affect* resources described the judges' own emotions, which brought about the widespread use of *Authorial Affect* in English and Vietnamese expressives. Besides, the feelings of the judges in Vietnam and the UK were mainly displayed indirectly through the *Invoked Affect*. For realizing the *Affect*, certain typical words were adopted, such as *like/love/get goosebumps all over/ yêu thích/nổi da gà; proud/tự hào, believe/tin, want/hope/mong/muốn/hi vọng,* etc.

The research results also indicate that there exists a close relationship between the *expressive acts* in particular and *Speech Act Theory* in general with *Appraisal Theory*, especially the *Affect* aspect of the system of *Attitude*. While the *Speech Act Theory* only deals with the range of acts conveyed through the employment of language, the *Appraisal Theory* plays the supplementary role. Indeed, through the acts of *complimenting*, *congratulating*, *bidding*, *liking*, etc., the judges would like to offer their evaluations coupled with expressing various kinds of sentiments. Phrased another way, the emotionl aspects detailed by the four sub-types of *Affect* in *Appraisal* render the *expressive acts* more concrete, insightful and intriguing. And the speakers making *expressive acts* simultaneously fulfill the role of the appraisers.

It is expected that the study can contribute to the research, performance, and interpretation of attitudinal values of *Affect* from the theoretical and practical perspective. For theoretical value, up to now, many studies have adopted the *Appraisal* conceptual framework as a tool for analyzing the texts in terms of attitudinal meaning in non-verbal and verbal language. Nevertheless, there has not been any research on the speech act in light of the *Appraisal Theory*. Thus, the study is a new approach to gain an insight into the features of attitudinal values of *Affect* conveyed by the expressives in English and Vietnamese.

The current study analyzed the *Attitude* of the judges' *expressives – complimenting, congratulating, condoling, liking*, etc., through examining their employment of *Affect* resources from the perspective of *Appraisal Theory*. The findings of the study can be of help to language learners in providing them with the knowledge of *Appraisal* and the characteristics of the evaluative language used by the judges through their *expressive speech acts*. Since the linguistic resources employed in this study were from authentic sources of communication by the native speakers, this research can be practical for learners of English in applying the language of evaluation not only in the classroom setting but also in their daily communication, thus rendering their communication in English more natural and vivid. By studying the evaluative language of the judges, learners are also capable of brushing up on the communication skills in their mother tongue by imitation and practice so that they learn how to say things efficiently and intriguingly to the opposite. Furthermore, learners of Vietnamese can make use of this study as a fruitful reference in studying how language can be used to give assessments in Vietnamese.

References

Austin, J. L. (1962). *How to do things with words*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bach, K., & Harnish, R. M. (1979). *Linguistic communication and speech acts*. Cambridge: The MIT Press.

Bui, T. X. D. (2018). *Transivity in Comments Given by Judges on TV Programs: America's Master-Chef and Vietnam's Master-Chef*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Quy Nhon University.

Guiraud, N., Longin, D., Lorini, E., Pesty, S., & Rivière, J. (2011). The face of emotions: a logical formalization of expressive speech acts. *The 10th International Conference on Autonomous Agents and Multiagent Systems, 3*, 1031-1038.

Hadidi, Y., & Mohammadbagheri-Parvin, L. (2015). Systemic functional linguistics as interpersonal semantics: appraisal and attitude in the stylistic analysis of an English novel. *International Journal of Linguistics, 7*(1).

Le, H. L. (2019). *An Attitudinal Analysis of Expressives by the Judges of The Voice UK versus The Voice Vietnam*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Quy Nhon University.

Le, H. L. (2017). *An Attitudinal Analysis of English Letters of Complaint*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Quy Nhon University.

Le, T. V. T. (2017). *An Attitudinal Analysis of Barack Obama's Speeches Made in His Visits to Vietnam, Japan, China and Laos in 2016*. Unpublished Master thesis. Quy Nhon University.

Li, X. (2016). An attitudinal analysis of English song discourse from the perspective of appraisal theory. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 7*(3), 559-565.

Liu, X. (2013). Evaluation in Chinese University EFL Students' English Argumentative Writing: An APPRAISAL Study. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, 10*(1). Trang

Martin, J. R., & Rose, D. (2007). *Working with discourse: Meaning beyond the clause* (2nd ed.). London: Continuum.

Martin, J. R., & White, P. R. R. (2005). *The language of evaluation*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Ngo, A. Q. N. (2017). *An Investigation into the Attitudinal Resources in English and Vietnamese News about Environment*. Unpublished Master's thesis. Quy Nhon University.

Ngo, T., & Unsworth, L. (2015). Reworking the appraisal framework in ESL research: refining attitude resources. *Functional Linguistics, 2*(1). doi:10.1186/s40554-015-0013-x.

Ngo, T. (2013). *The deployment of the language of evaluation in English and Vietnamese spoken discourse.* (Thesis Doctoral), University of New England, Armidale, NSW. Retrieved from https://hdl.handle.net/1959.11/16973

Nguyen, T. T. (2018). *A Contrastive Study of Attitudinal Resources in Comments Given by Judges in "American Idol" and "Vietnam Idol."*. Unpublished Master's thesis. Quy Nhon University.

Nguyen, T. L. (2017). *A Study on the Attitudinal Resources in English and Vietnamese Travellers' Holiday Reviews*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Quy Nhon University.

Nguyen, T. M. N. (2017). *An Appraisal Analysis of Evaluative Language in English Advertising Slogans*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Quy Nhon University.

Nguyen, T. N. (2018). *An Investigation into Attitude Resources in English and Vietnamese Love Song Lyrics*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Quy Nhon University.

Nguyen, T. H. (2015). *A Contrastive Analysis of Attitudinal Values in Travel Advertisements in English and Vietnamese* Unpublished Master's Thesis. Quy Nhon University.

Norrick, N. R. (1978). Expressive illocutionary acts. *Journal of Pragmatics, 2*(3), 277-291.

Page, R. E. (2003). An analysis of APPRAISAL in childbirth narratives with special consideration of gender and storytelling style. *TEXT-THE HAGUE THEN AMSTERDAM THEN BERLIN-, 23*(2), 211-238.

Phan, T. T. H. (2017). *An Attitudinal Meaning Analysis of Film Reviews Written in English and in Vietnamese - A Comparative Study*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Quy Nhon University.

Ronan, P. (2015). Categorizing expressive speech acts in the pragmatically annotated SPICE Ireland corpus. *ICAME Journal, 39*(1), 25-45.

Ruo-mei, W. A. N. G. (2016). A Practical Application of Appraisal Theory on Critical Reading in College English Teaching. *US-China Foreign Language, 14*(12), 868-876. doi:10.17265/1539-8080/2016.12.007

Searle, J. R. (1976). A classification of illocutionary acts. *Language in society, 5*(1), 1-23.

Tran, T. T. H. (2018). *Language of evaluation by judges on reality television in some Vietnamese* *entertaining programs (with reference to English)*. (Doctoral thesis), University of Social Sciences and Humanities, Vietnam National University, Hanoi.

Tran, T. T. T. (2017). *A Study on the Attitudinal Resources in Donald Trump and Hillary Clinton's Speeches in the US Presidential Election 2016*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Quy Nhon University.

Vo, D. D. (2011). *Style, structure and ideology in English and Vietnamese business hard news reporting: a comparative study.* (Doctoral thesis), The University of Adelaide, Australia. Retrieved from http://hdl.handle.net/2440/71002

Vo, D. D. (2017). Appraisal – an approach to discourse analysis. *Inquiry into Languages and Cultures, 1*(1), 13-24.

Vo, T. K. T. (2017). *An Attitudinal Study of Readers' Opinions in English and Vietnamese Newspapers*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Quy Nhon University.

Vo, T. N. H. (2014). *Attitude in Victory Speeches of Barack Obama and George Walker Bush*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Quy Nhon University.

Vo, T. N. (2017). *A Contrastive Study of Linguistic Features of Expressive in Comments Given by Judges in America's Got Talents versus Vietnam's Got Talents*. Unpublished Master's Thesis. Quy Nhon University.

White, P. R. R. (2015a). Appraisal Theory. In K. Tracy, C. Ilie, & T. Sandel (Eds.), *The International Encyclopedia of Language and Social Interaction* (Vol. 3, pp. 1-7): John Wiley & Sons.

White, P. R. R. (2015b). The Appraisal Website. Retrieved from https://www.grammatics.com/appraisal/appraisalguide/unframed/stage1-attitude-affect.htm

Yule, G. (1996). *Pragmatics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Zhang, Y. (2018). Attitudinal Analysis of President Xi's Remarks at Press Conference of BRICS Xiamen Summit from the Perspective of Appraisal Theory. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 9*(2), 385-390.

ĐÁNH GIÁ CẢM XÚC THÔNG QUA HÀNH VI BIỂU CẢM CỦA GIÁM KHẢO THE VOICE UK SO VỚI THE VOICE VIETNAM

Nguyễn Quang Ngoạn, Lê Hữu Lộc

Khoa Ngoại ngữ, Trường Đại học Quy Nhơn

170 An Dương Vương, Quy Nhơn, Bình Định, Việt Nam

Tóm tắt: Lý thuyết đánh giá (Appraisal Theory) của Martin và White (2005) ngày càng khẳng định vai trò quan trọng trong các nghiên cứu phân tích diễn ngôn, nhằm nêu bật sự đánh giá về thái độ của người nói, người viết đối với một chủ thể, sự vật, sự việc hoặc hành vi nào đó. Nghiên cứu này ứng dụng lý thuyết đánh giá để nhận diện và luận giải đánh giá cảm xúc thông qua hành vi biểu cảm của giám khảo hai chương trình thực tế, The Voice UK so với The Voice Vietnam. Cụ thể, nghiên cứu tập trung tìm hiểu những loại giá trị đánh giá cảm xúc được sử dụng trong các hành vi biểu cảm và chỉ ra điểm tương đồng và dị biệt trong cách áp dụng nguồn ngôn liệu đánh giá cảm xúc thông qua hành vi biểu cảm của hai nhóm giám khảo. Kết quả nghiên cứu ghi nhận sự xuất hiện của tất cả các loại giá trị thể hiện cảm xúc ở cả hai nguồn dữ liệu. Bên cạnh đó, việc sử dụng nguồn ngôn liệu cảm xúc ở hai ngôn ngữ bộc lộ nhiều điểm tương đồng, xét về bình diện tần suất xuất hiện, cách thức và thái cực biểu đạt. Nghiên cứu hi vọng sẽ là nguồn tham khảo bổ ích đối với người học Tiếng Anh cũng như Tiếng Việt trong việc đưa ra đánh giá nhận xét trong ngôn ngữ giao tiếp thường ngày.

Từ khoá: Thuyết đánh giá, đánh giá cảm xúc, thái độ, hành vi biểu cảm, giám khảo

ENGAGEMENT WITH LANGUAGE: A POTENTIAL CONSTRUCT IN PEER INTERACTION RESEARCH

Nguyen Thu Hien*

Faculty of English Language Teacher Education,
VNU University of Languages and International Studies,
Pham Van Dong, Cau Giay, Hanoi, Vietnam

Received 28 July 2019
Revised 15 October 2019; Accepted 22 December 2019

Abstract: Language learners spend a considerable amount of time interacting with other learners in both second and foreign language classrooms. The idea that peer interaction has increasingly been considered a context for language learning has been matched by a growing body of research examining different aspects of peer talk. Previous literature has provided important insights into various aspects of learner-learner interaction including the provision of interactional feedback, output production, modifications in the process of negotiation for meaning, the attention paid by language learners to language forms, as well as the collaboration among learners in the construction of the language knowledge. However, no comprehensive framework has been established to enable the integration of various features. Recently, *engagement with language*, proposed by Svalberg (2009) has emerged as a more encompassing concept which integrates *cognitive*, *social* and *affective* aspects of learner-learner interaction. This paper aims to propose this newly emerged construct as a potential for research into peer interaction among language learners.

Keywords: engagement with language, peer interaction, cognitive, social, affective

1. Introduction

Interaction in second language (L2) teaching and learning has attracted increasing research interest over the last several decades. Its origins can be traced back to the 1970s, when researchers became interested in the ways native speakers simplified their speech for learners to understand – foreigner talk (e.g., Ferguson, 1971, 1975). From the mid-1970s, researchers began to credit more importance to the role of dialogue in language learning. For example, Wagner-Gough and Hatch (1975, p. 307) argued that researchers needed to investigate "the relationship between language and communication if we are looking for explanations of the learning process", and Hatch (1978, p. 404) claimed interaction as the site for L2 learning, that "one learns how to do conversation, one learns how to interact verbally, and out of this interaction syntactic structures are developed". In many L2 teaching and learning contexts, the majority of opportunities for L2 learners to engage in communicative discussions occur with other peers (Adams, Nuevo, & Egi, 2011). A recent review of peer interaction studies by Kang (2015) shows that peer interaction benefits L2 learners by "creating opportunities to produce and modify output, receive feedback, and engage in collaborative dialogue" (p. 85). This paper focuses on literature on peer interaction and introduces the concept of engagement

* Tel: 84-963261175
Email: thuhien@vnu.edu.vn

with language as a potential construct in L2 research.

2. Peer interaction in second language teaching and learning

2.1. Benefits of peer interaction

To date, a growing body of research has focused on examining the relationship between peer interaction and L2 learning, and has often produced positive results (Adams, 2007; Mackey, 2006; McDonough, 2004; Philp & Iwashita, 2013; Sato & Lyster, 2007, 2012). For example, the findings of Philp and Iwashita (2013) show that practicing using language during peer interaction benefits the learning process. This is because when learners actively participate in the conversation, they tend to pay more attention to form and meaning connections, and try to use the target language to express their ideas. This affords opportunities for learners to test out and modify their erroneous utterances. Adams (2007) also shows evidence of the learning of L2 forms as a result of feedback provided by learners in the post-tests, based on the feedback of learners.

With regards to its benefits for language development, peer interaction has been found to outweigh the interaction between the teacher and the learner, and even of that between the native speaker and the learner in certain aspects. Research shows that students performed better when working in small groups than in a teacher-fronted classroom in terms of both quantity and quality of language produced (Doughty & Pica, 1986; Long, Adams, McLean, & Castanos, 1976), and that a more significant amount of negotiation of content was evident in a small group discussion than in a teacher-led discussion (Rulon & McCreary, 1986). Comparing interaction between the learner and the native speaker with peer interaction, interactions among language learners were found to provide more elicitation of feedback than native speakers (Sato & Lyster, 2007), give their peers more opportunities to incorporate feedback than native speakers (Bruton & Samuda, 1980; Mackey, Oliver, & Leeman, 2003) and they modified their utterances more often while interacting with other learners than with native speakers (Fernández Dobao, 2012; McDonough, 2004). In addition, peer interaction language learners tend to pay their attention to language features of the target language more often than when they interact with the teacher or the native speaker (Sato & Ballinger, 2016). This is because learners may feel more comfortable when working with other peers and they have more time to try out their language use (Sato, 2007; Sato & Lyster, 2007). As such, learner-learner interaction is a useful L2 learning context that complements teacher-learner interaction.

Peer interaction has been found to have positive impacts on second language learning as it affords learners with the chance to communicate in the target language. Peer interaction is often investigated from either interactionist or socio-cultural approaches, and covers aspects such as interactional feedback, attention paid to the target language, and support among learners.

2.2. Peer interaction from interactionist perspective

The interactionist approach, also called the interaction approach (Gass & Mackey, 2007; Mackey, Abbuhl, & Gass, 2012), was formed based on hypotheses on input, interaction and output. International feedback has been one of the major foci of peer talk research using the interactionist approach. Typically, learners provide interactional feedback and solicit modifications and adjustment through a variety of strategies. These range from implicit feedback such as recasts (i.e., operationalized as target-like reformulations of the non-target-like utterances retaining the central meaning of the original utterance), confirmation checks (i.e., expressions to check whether the previous utterance is correctly understood), comprehension checks (i.e., strategies that check whether the interlocutor understands what is being said), clarification requests (i.e., expressions to clarify the previously heard utterance), to more explicit types of feedback such as correction or metalinguistic feedback (i.e., explanation which points out the mistakes) (Mackey, 2007). Research has shown a positive relationship between feedback provision and language development (e.g., Adams, 2007; Egi, 2007; Mackey, 2006). For example, Adams' (2007) findings show that about 60% of learners' feedback episodes promoted their learning of linguistic issues.

The provision of interactional feedback also reveals the nature and impact of learners' attention paid to different aspects of the target language, such as vocabulary, grammar or pronunciation (e.g., Fujii & Mackey, 2009; Mackey, 2006; Mackey, Philp, Egi, Fujii, & Tatsumi, 2002; Philp, 2003). Mackey (2006) found that learners' noticing of feedback concerning target language features had a positive influence on their language development, especially on their formation of questions. This body of research suggests that learners need to consciously apprehend the language information and become aware of certain language features in order to internalize such language knowledge (Schmidt, 2001; Van Lier, 2004).

This body of research has focused more on lexical issues than on grammatical forms (Fujii & Mackey, 2009; García Mayo & Pica, 2000; Williams, 1999). Philp, Adams, and Iwashita's (2014) review of research using language related episodes in the examination of the focus of interaction feedback provided by learners during peer talk, also shows that learners paid attention to a wide range of forms; however, lexis tends to receive more attention than grammar, mechanics and most other aspects. Similarly, Philp, Walter, and Basturkmen (2010) used language-related episodes[1] (LREs) to investigate undergraduate students' attention to form in a foreign language context, and found that the focus of these episodes was placed on lexis rather than grammatical or phonological features.

In short, peer talk has the potential for much language learning to take place. It is "a vital context for learning" and "complements the roles played by the teacher" (Philp et al., 2014, p. 202) in a language classroom.

2.3. Peer interaction from sociocultural perspectives

Complementary to cognitively oriented interaction research are studies based on socio-cultural approaches. While the interactionist perspectives focus on how individual learners learn a language through making input and output more comprehensible during interaction, sociocultural perspectives emphasize interaction itself as the learning process, in which the nature of learning is social rather than individual, and language serves as a mediating tool to jointly construct meaning (Mitchell, Marsden, & Myles, 2013). Sociocultural theory, which originated from the works of Vygotsky (Vygotsky, 1987, 1978),

[1] Language related episodes are instances of dialogue in which students talk about the language they are producing, question their own or others' language use, or correct themselves or others (Swain & Lapkin, 1998)

has been widely applied in the field of L2 teaching and learning. Two central concepts of sociocultural theory are the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and scaffolding. The ZPD is now considered a potential learning opportunity for all learners (Wells, 1998), as learners are deemed able to assist one another in language development (Sato & Ballinger, 2012; Van Lier, 1996, 2004). Scaffolding among learners in language learning has been named in the literature as 'collective scaffolding' (Donato, 1994) and 'collaborative dialogue' (Swain, 2000; Swain & Lapkin, 1998, 2002), in which learners support one another in solving linguistic problems and/ or co-construct language or knowledge about language. This has been demonstrated by empirical studies on collaborative learning such as those of Donato (1994), Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994), Ohta (2001), Foster and Ohta (2005), Nassaji and Swain (2000), and Swain and Lapkin (1998).

During peer interaction, not only less proficient learners can benefit, but more capable learners can as well. Through explaining difficult tasks to a less proficient learner, a more capable learner must clarify their ideas by using suitable language; thus improving their language ability (Van Lier, 2004; Watanabe & Swain, 2007). Empirical evidence also shows that less proficient learners can also support more proficient learners (e.g., Seo & Kim, 2011; Storch & Aldosari, 2013). Currently, Vygotskian's "expert" and "novice" terms have now been interpreted in a more flexible way; that is, they can be alternated between learners as claimed by Storch (2002). A review of peer collaborative studies by Swain, Brooks, and Tocalli-Beller (2002) shows that peer collaborative dialogue has a positive impact on L2 learning such as considerable production of the target language. Shima (2008) also found that both more proficient learners and less proficient learners receive benefits from peer assistance, and confirms the claim on the changeable nature of the expert and the novice made by Storch (2002).

In studies adopting a sociocultural lens, the collaborative support and the co-construction of language knowledge have often been examined through language related episodes (e.g., Fortune, 2005; Swain & Lapkin, 1998; Watanabe & Swain, 2007). As such, LREs have been used in peer interaction studies not only to investigate learners' attention paid to language features, but also the collaborative support among learners and the co-construction of language knowledge of the learner.

2.4. Different aspects of peer interaction

Previous sections have discussed a variety of aspects of peer talk including the provision of interactional feedback, learners' attention to the target language, output modifications, and collaboration among learners. The affective dimension of peer talk is also an important aspect as affective values can influence learners' learning, especially the motivation to maintain the talk (Philp et al., 2014). Among varied affective factors documented in the literature, attitudes and motivation have been the central foci of research for several decades. Both attitude and motivation are closely related and attitude is even regarded by Gardner (1985) as one component of motivation. Nevertheless, most studies investigating these factors deal with language learners in general, not with language learners during peer interaction specifically. Indeed, learners were positively influenced by those who were co-operative and supportive (Chang, 2010). When learners enjoyed working together in groups, they often displayed a "collective orientation to problem solving" (Donato, 1994, p. 40). Therefore, learners' attitudes towards other interlocutors and towards the learning task are worth investigating.

3. Engagement with language - a potential construct

3.1. Student engagement as a multidimensional construct

The concept of student engagement has become an important notion in education literature, which often refers to the students' behaviour and their psychological connections with schooling or institutionalized learning. It has been extensively researched in varied contexts since it was first introduced over 30 years ago. The important role of student engagement has been highlighted by Christenson, Reschly, and Wylie (2012, p. 817) as it "drives learning ... and can be achieved for all learners". However, there has been little consensus on its definition or its measurement. This concept appears in the literature under a number of different terms including engagement, engagement with school, school engagement, student engagement, and student engagement with school. Nevertheless, even when the same terms are used, researchers propose a range of definitions, causing difficulty in making cross-study comparisons (Fredricks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004).

Acknowledging the existence of the variety of conceptualizations of engagement, Appleton, Christenson, and Furlong (2008) called for the development of consensus on the operationalized definition of the construct 'student engagement' as well as more reliable measures of this construct. Their meta-analysis of the 19 existing studies suggests that engagement is a multidimensional construct encompassing a range of dimensions. The most often documented dimensions were *behavioural* and *emotional* or *affective* (e.g., Finn, 1989; Marks, 2000; Willms, 2003). The third most common dimension found in the literature is the *cognitive* (e.g., Fredricks et al., 2004; Jimerson, Campos, & Greif, 2003). Besides these is a less common model of four dimensions including *academic, behavioural, cognitive*, and *psychological* (Reschly & Christenson, 2006a, 2006b) (see Appleton et al., 2008 for examples of descriptions of engagement).

3.2. Engagement in second language learning

Similarly, in the field of language learning, *engagement* has been recognized as an ideal condition for learning, but the term has been overused with little principled understanding with the exception of Svalberg (2009) who suggested a model of '*engagement with language*'(Philp & Duchesne, 2016).

Most commonly, this concept has often been employed to refer to the involvement and participation of learners in different learning contexts (e.g., Coertze, 2011; Ebe, 2011; Miller, 2010). For example, Miller (2010) described the engagement of adult language learners as their involvement and participation in classroom activities, while Coertze (2011) and Ebe (2011) used the term 'reading engagement' to refer to how learners involve themselves with the reading texts and the reading process. In the context of English as a second language reading engagement in an online environment, Coertze (2011) follows Conrad and Donaldson (2004) in arguing that 'engaged reading' leads to 'engaged learning', and that learning is interactive as during the collaborative learning process, learners actively collaborate with others in constructing the knowledge.

Learner engagement has also been found to be important as it enhances learners' communicative competence (Savignon, 2007). Engagement can be achieved through the negotiation of both the meaning of the message and its form (Antón, 1999; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Lightbown & Spada, 1990), and when learners are engaged in such negotiations they can express their messages more accurately (Antón, 1999). Also, learners' engagement in communicative tasks in the classroom has been stressed in the research on classroom discourse (Antón, 1999; Peirce, 1995; Van Lier, 2004).

In second language learning literature, there are two forms of learner engagement identified that are closely related to language elements. The first type of engagement is related to language and the second type of engagement is concerned with the learning task and task realization rather than with the language (Ohta, 2001). The former type of engagement refers to the engagement with the language itself (language as an object), and was identified through the analysis of both learners' self-directed speech (i.e., oral language uttered either addressed to the speaker himself or to no one in particular) and discussions about linguistic elements. The latter type focuses on the way learners handle the task instruction and perform the learning tasks. There have been a number of studies examining learners' engagements with tasks (Lin, 2012; Platt & Brooks, 2002); whereas, there have been few studies which investigated how learners engage with language especially during collaborative talk. Storch (2008) was one of the very few recent scholars to investigate the learners' engagement with language as an object. Storch (2008) has pointed out that the more learners are engaged in the discussion about the language, the more benefits for learning they can gain.

3.3. The emergence of the construct of engagement with language

As previously mentioned, *engagement with language* as an object was first introduced by Storch (2008), who used this term to refer to the "quality of the learners' metatalk" (p. 98) while learners are performing a text construction task in pairs. Her study focused on the quality of learners' metatalk and its impact on the language learning process. The units of analysis of learner metatalk were language-related episodes. These instances of learner talk show an explicit focus on the target language of learners and their degree of involvement with the discussion about the language. The following extract between students named as N and R is taken from Storch (2008) to demonstrate how learners deliberately discussed the meaning of the word 'pension'.

76 **N:** pensions . . . (long pause)

77 **R:** dictionary3

78 **N:** pensions is the money no? . . .

79 **R:** pension money?

80 **N:** yeah . . . when the people retire

81 **R:** uh-huh

82 **N:** the government also private company

83 **R:** uh-huh

84 **N:** give the money back they

85 **R:** ok . . . I must misunderstand that ... so over half

Storch (2008, p. 101)

In her study, Storch classifies engagement into two levels: elaborate engagement and limited engagement. In elaborate engagement, learners deliberately discussed linguistic items (e.g., asking for clarification, providing confirmation); while in limited engagement, learners only stated the language item without any further discussion. Storch's definition of engagement is useful as it has added to our knowledge a new understanding of how learners engage with language as an object of study. However, this conceptualization of engagement with language seems limited when being compared to Svalberg's (2009) concept.

Svalberg's (2009) *engagement with language* appears to be a broader concept in several respects. Firstly, Svalberg's concept refers to engagement with language both as an object and a medium of communication. Secondly, her definition of engagement shows that this construct encompasses more than just the explicit discussion of language items. Although not explicitly stated by Svalberg as a multidimensional construct, her model of engagement with language actually encompasses multiple interdependent aspects, that is, *cognitive*, *social* and *affective*. More interestingly, Svalberg's (2009) construct of *engagement with language* aligns with the literature on student engagement in the respect that it does consist of three common dimensions (i.e., *cognitiv*e, *social* and *affective*), though details of each component are differently defined as Svalberg's concept belongs to the specific field of language teaching and learning. As such, Svalberg's concept of *engagement with language* reveals the complexity of learners' engagement in language learning (Philp & Duchesne, 2016) and is "potentially a richer notion" Svalberg (2009, p. 243) than that of Storch (2008).

In the development of this construct of *engagement with language*, Svalberg (2009) followed Ellis's (2004) methodology to interrogate a construct. She compared the new construct with those concepts which appear to be semantically related (i.e., involvement, commitment and motivation). Svalberg's (2009) comparison revealed that the new construct incorporates all the features of these related constructs. In addition, *engagement with language* has two unique features, that is, 'focused attention' and 'action knowledge' – making knowledge one's own). The focused attention refers to learners' attentional focus on the target language as an object or a means to communicate, and the action knowledge refers to learners' construction of their knowledge as a result of the mental process, but also as a result of "being socially active and taking initiatives" (Svalberg, 2009, p. 246).

The *cognitive* aspect of engagement centres on learners' alertness, focused attention, and their construction of knowledge about language. For example, learners' learning reflections (e.g., noticing and reflecting on such aspects of language including pronunciation, word meaning and grammatical mechanics) reveal their *cognitive* engagement. *Social* engagement, which commonly refers to learners' behaviour in the literature of engagement, is shown through learners' interaction behaviour (i.e., maintaining their interaction), support among learners during the interactive process, and the roles they take up in the conversation (i.e., how they initiate talk, negotiate ideas and accept others). *Affective* engagement, which is often used to describe positive attitudes of learners towards different aspects of the learning community, in this particular setting refers to learners' attitudes towards the language, the content represented and other interlocutors. A summary of the conceptualization of the construct *engagement with language* is shown in Figure 1.

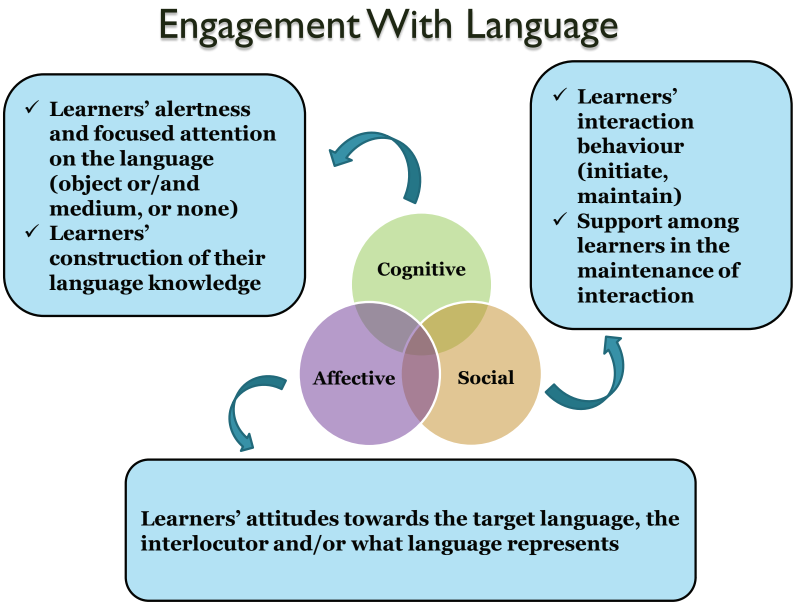


Figure 1. Svalberg's engagement with language

According to Svalberg, these three components of *engagement with language* are related to one another and the combination of them can enable the description of different aspects of language learning including peer interaction. Apparently, all the above aspects of engagement with language can provide a comprehensive description of peer interaction, covering all its relevant aspects being discussed so far. It might be argued that this construct is too broad; however, this construct seems potentially useful due to its complexity, making possible research which aims to examine a larger number of aspects of language learning such as peer interaction.

This model has been used by a number of researchers including Kearney and Ahn (2013), Baralt, Gurzynski-Weiss, and Kim (2016) and Nguyen (2017). Kearney and Ahn (2013) examined pre-school learners' engagement with language in an 'early world language learning' program**.** In their study, they use '*engagement with language*' episodes as units of analysis. On the one hand, these episodes are comparable to Swain and Lapkin's language-related-episodes in the respect that they are explicit discussions of language use. On the other hand, they went further than that by incorporating more than just what was being said (e.g., paralinguistic features), which is largely based on the criteria provided by Svalberg to identify learners' engagement with language. These criteria are claimed by Kearney and Ahn (2013, p. 331) to be "highly practical and flexible", and that which was proposed by Kearney and Ahn (2013) as 'engagement with language' episodes also provide insights into both the way learners reflect on language aspects and non-verbal cues. Baralt et al. (2016), which compared the engagement of adult Spanish foreign language learners during task-based interaction in either face-to-face classroom interaction or computer-mediated communication, also used language-related episodes as a primary unit of analysis for both *cognitive* and *social* engagement with language. Nguyen (2017) draws on the systemic functional approach to provide a systematic description of all three aspects of EFL learners' engagement with language during classroom peer interaction.

4. Conclusion

This paper has provided detailed discussions of the facilitative role of peer interaction in second language teaching and learning. Complementary to teacher-learner interaction, peer interaction has proved to be an important context for language learning, especially in EFL classrooms where learners mostly engage in interaction with other peers. Learner-learner interaction benefits learners by creating opportunities for them to try out new language, to negotiate for meaning making, and to provide one another with support in the completion of the learning task. This paper has also highlighted different aspects of peer interaction and proposed the construct of engagement with language as a potential for research into second language learning and teaching. This newly emerged multi-dimentional concept is believed to be a "critical step forward in understanding engagement in language learning contexts" (Philp & Duchesne, 2016, p.62) including group discussions as in this study. Additionally, Svalberg's (2009) list of criteria for identifying learners' engagement with language can be useful for any examinations of this construct. It is expected that, more studies will be conducted to further explore this concept or/and to investigate language learners' engagement with language during peer interaction.

References

Adams, R. (2007). Do second language learners benefit from interacting with each other? In A Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational Interaction in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 29-51). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Adams, R., Nuevo, A., & Egi, T. (2011). Explicit and Implicit Feedback, Modified Output, and SLA: Does Explicit and Implicit Feedback Promote Learning and Learner–Learner Interactions? *The Modern Language Journal, 95*(1), 42-63.

Aljaafreh, A., & Lantolf, J. P. (1994). Negative Feedback as Regulation and Second Language Learning in the Zone of Proximal Development. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*(4), 465-483.

Antón, M. (1999). The Discourse of a learner-centered classroom: sociocultural perspectives on teacher-learner interaction in the second-language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal, 83*(3), 303-318.

Appleton, J. J., Christenson, S. L., & Furlong, M. J. (2008). Student engagement with school: Critical conceptual and methodological issues of the construct. *Psychology in the Schools, 45*(5), 369-386.

Baralt, M., Gurzynski-Weiss, L., & Kim, Y. (2016). Engagement with the language: How examining learners' affective and social engagement explains successful learner-generated attention to form. In M. Sato & S. Ballinger (Eds.), *Peer Interaction and Second Language Learning: Pedagogical potential and research agenda* (pp. 209-240). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Bruton, A., & Samuda, V. (1980). Learner and teacher roles in the treatment of oral error in group work. *RELC Journal, 11*(2), 49-63.

Chang, L. Y.-H. (2010). Group Processes and EFL Learners' Motivation: A Study of Group Dynamics in EFL Classrooms. *TESOL Quarterly: A Journal for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages and of Standard English as a Second Dialect, 44*(1), 129-154.

Christenson, S. L., Reschly, A. L., & Wylie, C. (Eds.). (2012). *Handbook of research on student engagement*: Springer Science & Business Media.

Coertze, L. (2011). *An investigation of ESL students' reading engagement and language output in selected online environments.* (M.A.), Iowa State University. ProQuest Dissertations & Theses A&I database.

Conrad, R., & Donaldson, J. A. (2004). Engaging the online learner: Activities and resources for creative learning. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Donato, R. (1994). Collective scaffolding in second language learning. In J. P. Lantolf & G. Appel (Eds.), *Vygotskian approaches to second language research* (pp. 33-56). New Jersey: Ablex.

Doughty, C., & Pica, T. (1986). " Information gap" tasks: Do they facilitate second language acquisition? *TESOL Quarterly*, 305-325.

Doughty, C., & Williams, J. (1998). *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ebe, A. E. (2011). Culturally relevant books: Bridges to reading engagement for English language learners. *Insights on Learning Disabilities: From Prevailing Theories to Validated Practices, 8*(2), 31-45.

Egi, T. (2007). Recasts, learners' interpretations, and L2 development. *Conversational interaction in second language acquisition: A collection of empirical studies*, 249-267.

Ellis, R. (2004). The definition and measurement of L2 explicit knowledge. *Language Learning, 54*(2), 227-275.

Ferguson, C. A. (1971). Absence of copula and the notion of simplicity: A study of normal speech, baby talk, foreigner talk and pidgins. In D. Hymes (Ed.), *Pidginization and creolization of languages* (pp. 117–140). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ferguson, C. A. (1975). Toward a Characterization of English Foreigner Talk. *Anthropological Linguistics, 17*(1), 1-14.

Fernández Dobao, A. (2012). Collaborative Dialogue in Learner–Learner and Learner–Native Speaker Interaction. *Applied Linguistics, 33*(3), 229-256.

Finn, J. D. (1989). Withdrawing From School. *Review of Educational Research, 59*(2), 117-142.

Fortune, A. (2005). Learners' use of metalanguage in collaborative form-focused L2 output tasks. *Language Awareness, 14*(1), 21-38.

Foster, P., & Ohta, A. S. (2005). Negotiation for meaning and peer assistance in second language classrooms. *Applied Linguistics, 26*(3), 402-430.

Fredricks, J. A., Blumenfeld, P. C., & Paris, A. H. (2004). School Engagement: Potential of the Concept, State of the Evidence. *Review of Educational Research, 74*(1), 59-109.

Fujii, A., & Mackey, A. Y. (2009). Interactional feedback in learner-learner interactions in a task-based EFL classroom. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 47*(3-4), 267-301.

García Mayo, M. d. P., & Pica, T. (2000). L2 learner interaction in a foreign language setting: Are learning needs addressed? *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 38*(1), 35-58.

Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.

Gass, S. M., & Mackey, A. (2007). Input, Interaction, and output in second language acquisition. In B. VanPatten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction* (pp. 175-200). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Hatch, E. (1978). Discourse analysis and second language acquisition. In E Hatch (Ed.), *Second Language Acquisition: A book of readings* (pp. 401-435). Rowley, Ma: Newbury House.

Jimerson, S. R., Campos, E., & Greif, J. L. (2003). Toward an Understanding of Definitions and Measures of School Engagement and Related Terms. *California School Psychologist, 8*, 7-27.

Kang, K. I. (2015). Peer Interaction: A Compromise or a Necessity? *APPLE Award Winning Papers in TESOL & AL, 15*(2).

Kearney, E., & Ahn, S.-Y. (2013). Preschool world language learners' engagement with language: what are the possibilities? *Language Awareness, 23*(4), 319-333.

Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (1990). Focus-on-Form and Corrective Feedback in Communicative Language Teaching. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 12*(04), 429-448.

Lin, T.-J. (2012). *Student engagement and motivation in the foreign language classroom.* (PhD), Washington State University, Washington.

Long, M. H., Adams, L., McLean, M., & Castanos, F. (1976). Doing things with words: Verbal interaction in lockstep and small group classroom interactions. In J. Fanselow & R. Crymes (Eds.), *On TESOL 76* (pp. 137-153). Washington DC: TESOL.

Mackey, A. (2006). Feedback, noticing and instructed second language learning. *Applied Linguistics, 27*(3), 405-430.

Mackey, A. (Ed.) (2007). *Conversational Interaction in Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Mackey, A., Abbuhl, R., & Gass, S. M. (2012). Interactionist approach. In S M Gass & A. Mackey (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 7-23). New York: Routledge.

Mackey, A., Oliver, R., & Leeman, J. (2003). Interactional Input and The Incorporation of Feedback: An Exploration of NS–NNS and NNS–NNS Adult and Child Dyads. *Language Learning, 53*(1), 35-66.

Mackey, A., Philp, J., Egi, T., Fujii, A., & Tatsumi, T. (2002). Individual differences in working memory, noticing of interactional feedback, and L2 development. In P Robinson (Ed.), *Individual differences and instructed language learning* (pp. 181-210). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Marks, H. M. (2000). Student engagement in instructional activity: Patterns in the elementary, middle, and high school years. *American Educational Research Journal, 37*(1), 153-184.

McDonough, K. (2004). Learner-learner interaction during pair and small group activities in a Thai EFL context. *System, 32*(2), 207-224.

Miller, S. F. (2010). Promoting Learner Engagement when Working with Adult English Language Learners. *CAELA Network Brief*, 1-8.

Mitchell, R., Marsden, E., & Myles, F. (2013). *Second Language Learning Theories*. London: Routledge.

Nassaji, H., & Swain, M. (2000). A Vygotskian perspective on corrective feedback in L2: The effect of random versus negotiated help on the learning of English articles *Language Awareness, 9*(1), 34-51.

Nguyen, T. H. (2017). *EFL Vietnamese learners' engagement with English language during oral classroom peer interaction*. PhD Thesis. University of Wollongong.

Ohta, A. S. (2001). *Second Language Acquisition Processes in the Classroom Setting: Learning Japanese*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence.

Peirce, B. N. (1995). Social identity, investment, and language learning. *TESOL Quarterly, 29*(1), 9-31.

Philp, J. (2003). Constraints on "noticing the gap": nonnative speakers' noticing of recasts in NS-NNS interaction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 25*(1), 99-126.

Philp, J., Adams, R., & Iwashita, N. (2014). *Peer interaction and second language learning*. New York: Routledge.

Philp, J., & Duchesne, S. (2016). Exploring Engagement in Tasks in the Language Classroom. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 36*, 50-72.

Philp, J., & Iwashita, N. (2013). Talking, tuning in and noticing: exploring the benefits of output in task-based peer interaction. *Language Awareness, 22*(4), 353-370.

Philp, J., Walter, S., & Basturkmen, H. (2010). Peer interaction in the foreign language classroom: what factors foster a focus on form? *Language Awareness, 19*(4), 261-279.

Platt, E., & Brooks, F. B. (2002). Task Engagement: A Turning Point in Foreign Language Development. *Language Learning, 52*(2), 365-400.

Reschly, A. L., & Christenson, S. L. (2006a). Research leading to a predictive model of dropout and completion among students with mild disabilities and the role of student engagement. *Remedial and Special Education, 27*(5), 276-292.

Reschly, A. L., & Christenson, S. L. (2006b). Promoting successful school completion. In G. Bear & K. Minke (Eds.), *Children's needs—III: Development, prevention, and intervention* (pp. 103 – 113). Bethesda, MD: National Association of School Psychologists.

Rulon, K., & McCreary, J. (Eds.). (1986). *Negotiation of content: Teacher-fronted and small-group interaction*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Sato, M. (2007). Social Relationships in Conversational Interaction: Comparison of Learner-Learner-NS Dyads. *JALT journal / Japan Association of Language Teachers, 29*(2), 183-208.

Sato, M., & Ballinger, S. (2012). Raising language awareness in peer interaction: a cross-context, cross-methodology examination. *Language Awareness, 21*(1-2), 157-179.

Sato, M., & Ballinger, S. (2016). Introduction: Understanding peer interaction, research synthesis and directions. In M. Sato & S. Ballinger (Eds.), *Peer Interaction and Second Language Learning: Pedagogical potential and research agenda* (pp. 1-30). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Sato, M., & Lyster, R. (2007). Modified output of Japanese EFL learners: Variable effects of interlocutor versus feedback types. In A Mackey (Ed.), *Conversational Interaction in Second Language Acquisition, Alison Mackey (ed.),* . (pp. 123-142). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Sato, M., & Lyster, R. (2012). Peer interaction and corrective feedback for accuracy and fluency development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 34*(4), 591-626.

Savignon, S. J. (2007). Beyond communicative language teaching: What's ahead? *Journal of Pragmatics, 39*(1), 207-220.

Schmidt, R. (2001). Attention. In P Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp. 3-32). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Seo, H.-S., & Kim, T.-Y. (2011). Collaborative dialogues and L2 learning: Korean junior high school students' pair-work in English composition. *Korean Journal of Applied Linguistics, 27*(1), 345-380.

Shima, C. (2008). Fluidity of Peer Interaction in a Japanese Language Classroom. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, 5*(1), 126-139.

Storch, N. (2002). Patterns of interaction in ESL pair work. *Language Learning, 52*(1), 119-158.

Storch, N. (2008). Metatalk in a pair work activity: Level of engagement and implications for language development. *Language Awareness, 17*(2), 95-114.

Storch, N., & Aldosari, A. (2013). Pairing learners in pair work activity. *Language Teaching Research, 17*, 31-48.

Svalberg, A. M. L. (2009). Engagement with language: interrogating a construct. *Language Awareness, 18*(3-4), 242-258.

Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In J Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second sanguage searning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Swain, M., Brooks, L., & Tocalli-Beller, A. (2002). Peer-peer dialogue as a means of second language learning. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 22*, 171-185.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1998). Interaction and second language learning: Two adolescent French immersion students working together. *The Modern Language Journal, 82*(3), 320-337.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2002). Talking it through: Two French immersion learners' response to reformulation. *International Journal of Educational Research, 37*(3–4), 285-304.

Van Lier, L. (1996). *Interaction in the language curriculum: Awareness, autonomy and authenticity*. London: Longman.

Van Lier, L. (2004). *The Ecology and Semiotics of Language Learning: A social Cultural Perspective*. New York: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1987). Thinking and speech (N. Minick, Trans.). In RW Rieber & AS Carton (Eds.), *The collected works of L.S. Vygotsky*. New York: Plenum Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (Ed.) (1978). *Mind and Society: The Development of Higher Mental Processes*. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.

Wagner-Gough, J., & Hatch, E. (1975). The importance of input data in second language acquisition studies. *Language Learning, 25*(2), 297-308.

Watanabe, Y., & Swain, M. (2007). Effects of proficiency differences and patterns of pair interaction on second language learning: collaborative dialogue between adult ESL learners. *Language Teaching Research, 11*(2), 121-142.

Wells, G. (1998). Using L1 to master L2: a response to Anton and DiCamilla's 'socio-cognitive functions of L1. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 54*(3), 343-353.

Williams, J. (1999). Learner-generated attention to form. *Language Learning, 49*(4), 583-625.

Willms, J. D. (2003). *Student engagement at school: A sense of belonging and participation*. Paris: Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development.

SỰ GẮN KẾT VỚI NGÔN NGỮ [*]: MỘT KHÁI NIỆM TIỀM NĂNG CHO CÁC NGHIÊN CỨU VỀ VIỆC TƯƠNG TÁC GIỮA NHỮNG NGƯỜI HỌC NGÔN NGỮ

Nguyễn Thu Hiền

Khoa Sư phạm tiếng Anh,
Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ - Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội,
Đường Phạm Văn Đồng, Cầu Giấy, Hà Nội, Việt Nam

Tóm tắt: Người học ngôn ngữ thường sử dụng nhiều thời gian trong lớp học để tương tác với nhau. Điều này đúng với cả lớp học ngôn ngữ thứ hai cũng như ngoại ngữ. Việc tương tác giữa những người học ngày càng được xem là một ngữ cảnh lý tưởng cho việc học ngôn ngữ. Vì vậy, ngày càng có nhiều nghiên cứu về các khía cạnh của việc tương tác này. Các nghiên cứu trước đây đã mang lại những kiến thức hay về nhiều khía cạnh của sự tương tác giữa những người học, ví dụ như việc cung cấp phản hồi tương tác; việc sản sinh ngôn ngữ; việc sửa đổi ngôn ngữ trong quá trình đàm phán khi học; việc chú ý đến cấu trúc, từ vựng, phát âm; hay việc hợp tác giữa những người học trong quá trình học ngôn ngữ. Tuy nhiên, vẫn chưa có một khái niệm nào giúp chúng ta nghiên cứu được nhiều khía cạnh của việc tương tác này. Bài viết này đề xuất việc sử dụng khái niệm của Svalberg (2009) có tên là "*sự gắn kết với ngôn ngữ*" cho các nghiên cứu về việc tương tác giữa những người học ngôn ngữ vì khái niệm này bao gồm được cả 3 mảng lớn của việc tương tác; đó là nhận thức, xã hội và cảm xúc.

Từ khóa: sự gắn kết với ngôn ngữ, tương tác giữa những người học, nhận thức, xã hội, cảm xúc

[*] *Engagement with language*

CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS USING ENGLISH NAUTICAL EXPRESSIONS

Ngo Thi Nhan*

Faculty of Foreign Studies, Vietnam Maritime University,
484 Lach Tray street, Ngo Quyen district, Hai Phong city

Received 19 August 2019
Revised 28 October 2019; Accepted 22 December 2019

Abstract: This study was conducted to investigate metaphors relating to nautical expressions. Among a number of approaches, cognitive semantics introduced by Saeed (2005) is adopted in this study. Besides, the insight into metaphor in terms of image schemata mainly has its foundation from the theory of conceptual metaphors established by Lakoff and Johnson (1980).The sentences containing nautical expressions with their metaphorical meanings were collected from maritime newspapers, magazines, books, websites, etc. and analyzed in terms of image schemata by the quantitative, qualitative, analytic, and descriptive methods. The findings reveal that the image schemata in nautical expression based metaphors are much diversediverse but uneven.

Keywords: conceptual metaphors, nautical expressions, image schemata

1. Introduction

In the “Metaphors We Live By” (1980: 8), Lakoff and Johnson confirmed “metaphor is not the device of the poetic imagination and the rhetorical flourish” or “a matter of the extraordinary” but a subject of ordinary language that “is perceptions and understanding”. Indeed, thousands of metaphorically used words can be found in our everyday language which, for some reason, are not acknowledged of. Speakers of English seem to get so familiar with such expressions as “the head of the state”, “the key of the success”, “the foot of the hill”, etc. that they hardly recognize the words “head”, “key”, and “foot” in the above examples are used metaphorically.

Likewise, the language of seafarers, maritime economists, maritime journalist, etc., is filled with metaphors. Such metaphorical expressions as *launch, fit out,* and *anchor* in the following examples *“launch a project”, “fit out the Maritime Museum”, “anchor at the Museum”* are very popular in maritime newspapers, magazines, journals, websites, and daily life of sailors. Obviously, the study of metaphor cannot be restricted to the study of literature only as some linguists state. Instead, it should also be the study of language teaching and learning because a good understanding of how metaphors work in daily life, according to Cobuild (1999), is very important for learners of English to increase their vocabulary, comprehend new or original metaphors, and make use of metaphors in English.

This research is implemented to find out the structures of experience or image schemata that motivate the formation of metaphors using nautical expressions. These findings are expected to assist students in Navigation Department, VIMARU with the comprehension and utilization of metaphors in nautical expressions.

With such aims, this study is to find the answer to the following questions:

* Tel.: 84-983226880
Email : nhannt.nn@vimaru.edu.vn

- Which image schemata motivate metaphors in nautical expressions?
- What is the frequency of each image schema extended in these expressions?
- What metaphorical concepts are formed from this structure of experience?

The answer to these questions will expose which facts in the working environment of those people in marine field have greater effects on the formation of nautical expression-based metaphors.

2. The theoretical framework

2.1. Cognitive semantics

Cognitive semantics is part of the cognitive linguistics movement. The main tenets of cognitive semantics are, first, that grammar is conceptualization; second, that conceptual structure is embodied and motivated by usage; and third, that the ability to use language draws upon general cognitive resources and not a special language module.

Meanwhile, cognitive semantic theories are typically built on the argument that lexical meaning is conceptual. Meaning in cognitive semantics *"is based on conventionalized conceptual structures, thus semantic structure, along with other cognitive domains, reflects the mental categories which people have formed from their experience of growing up and acting in the world"* (Saeed, 2005, p.44) . One of the conceptual structures and processes given special attention to in cognitive semantics is conceptual metaphor.

2.2. Conceptual metaphors

Conceptual metaphor in cognitive semantics will be relevant to my study in which experiential structure will be applied to the corpus of analysis. As a result, this part will be started with the **definition of conceptual metaphor**. Afterwards, its aspects, **target and source domain** and its most important characteristic, **systematicity**, will be introduced. The basis for the construction of metaphor, **image schemata** will be discussed at the end of this section.

2.2.1. Definition of conceptual metaphors

Originally, *metaphor* was a Greek word meaning "transfer". The Greek etymology is from *meta*, implying "a change" and *herein* meaning "to bear, or carry". During the first half of the twentieth century, metaphor was just studied at the level of literal referents (referentalist view) or changing of meaning or sense (descriptivist view). In the late 1970s, linguists such as Lakoff, Johnson, and Reddy began to realize that metaphor was not only extremely common, but also related to thought and action. Indeed, they claimed that *"our conceptual system is fundamentally metaphoric in nature"* (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p.8). Furthermore, metaphor is not particularly about language at all, but rather about thought. Therefore, they defined metaphor as *"the expression of an understanding of one concept in terms of another, where there is some similar or correlation between the two"* or the *"understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another."* (Lakoff and Turner, 1980, p.135)

Take the metaphorical concept ARGUMENT IS WAR that Lakoff and Johnson explained in *Metaphor We Live by* (1980) as an example. ARGUMENT is expressed in expressions of WAR because there is a correlation between these two expressions. Expressions like *Your claims are indefensible; He attacked every weak point in my argument; His criticism was right on the target, etc.* are examples of the metaphors which reveal the above underlying metaphorical concept. We see the person we are arguing with as an opponent. We attack his oppositions and we defend our own. We gain and lose ground. We plan and use strategies. If we find a position indefensible, we can abandon it and take a new line of attack. Many of the things we do in arguing are partially structured of an argument: attack-defend, counter-attack, etc. reflect this.

It is very important to make a distinction between ***metaphor*** and ***simile***. These two tropes are often mentioned together as examples of rhetorical figures. Metaphor and simile are both expressions that describe a comparison; the only difference between a metaphor and a simile is that a simile makes the comparison explicit by using "like" or "as".

Saeed (2005, p.345) explained the difference as *"a simile states that A is like B, a metaphor states that A is B or substitutes B for A."* According to this definition, then, *"You are my sunshine"* is a metaphor whereas "*Your eyes are like the sun"* is a simile.

2.2.2. Target Domain and Source Domain of Conceptual Metaphor

Conceptualist views consider metaphor as a cognitive mechanism used to structure our knowledge in the mind by means of one domain of experience understood in terms of another domain. The nature of this metaphor is explained following a mapping process from a source domain onto a target domain. "*The domain that is mapped is called the **source domain**, and the domain onto which the source is mapped is called the **target domain**"* (Saeed, 2005, p.346). Richards (1936) calls them the **tenor** and the **vehicle**.

Take the metaphor "*That woman is a witch"* as an example. The source domain in this example is *a witch* and the target domain is *that woman*. Normally, a witch is thought of as an ugly and cruel woman having magic powers and doing evil things. That woman is seen to share some common features with a witch such as ugly, cruel, doing evil things. The metaphor is formed on this basis.

Similarity may be concluded mistakenly to be the basis for the formation of metaphors. However, to look more deeply into the nature of metaphor, cognitive linguists find out that the original basis of metaphor is our conceptual structure.

About the nature of conceptual structure, it can be seen that conceptual metaphors are "*not just linguistic expressions of a specific kind, but conceptual structures"*. (Leezenberg, 2001, p.315) Such structures are an irreducible part of the way in which we conceptualize the world. According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980), conceptual structure is "***embodied****"* in so far as it rises from *"**preconceptual experience**"*. Preconceptual experiences, again, are structured in terms of ***basic-level structure*** which associated with basic-level categories characterized by gestalt perception, mental imagery, and motor movements and roughly correspond to "*image schemata"*. These schemata are skeletal images that we use in cognitive operation. We have many image schemas. These schemata are discussed in more detail in the next part because they relate directly to my analysis.

2.2.3. The Systematicity of Conceptual Metaphor

According to conceptualist views, we think and act in terms of conceptual system. Our conceptual system is largely metaphorical in nature; therefore, metaphorical concept is systematic and the language we use to talk about that aspect of the concept is systematic, too. The systematicity here refers to *"the way that a metaphor does not just set up a single point of comparison features of the source and target domain are joined so that the metaphor may be extended, or have its own internal logic"*. (Saeed, 2005, p.348)

It can be seen in the ARGUMENT IS WAR metaphor that expressions from the vocabulary of war such as attack a position, indefensible, strategy, new line of attack, win, gain ground, etc., form a systematic way of talking about the battling aspects of arguing. It is no accident that these expressions mean what they mean when they are used to talk about arguments. A portion of the conceptual network of battle partially characterizes file concept of an argument, and the language follows suit (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980).

Another metaphorical concept suggested by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) is TIME IS MONEY. Time in a valuable commodity. It is a limited resource that they use to accomplish their goals. Because of the way that the concept of work has developed in modern Western culture, where work is typically associated with the time it takes and time is precisely quantified, it has become customary to pay people by the hour, week, or year. Corresponding to the fact that they act as if time is a valuable commodity, a limited resource, even money, they conceive of time that way. Thus they understand and experience time as the kind of thing that can be spent, wasted, budgeted, invested wisely or poorly, saved, or squandered. Therefore, the conceptual network of money characterizes the concept of time and it is realized in many linguistic expressions.

TIME IS MONEY:

You are wasting my time.
This gadget will save you hours.
I don't have the time to give you.

2.2.4. Image schema in conceptual metaphors

According to experientialist with Lakoff and Johnson as the most typical representatives, image schemata structure many of our metaphorical concepts. They are basic units of representation, grounded in the experience of human body.

An image schema is considered *"an embodied prelinguistic structure of experience that motivates conceptual metaphor mappings"* (Saeed, 2005:353).

The above definition confirms the fact that image schemata are an important form of conceptual structure. The basic idea is that *"because of our physical experience of being and acting in the world – of perceiving the environment, moving our bodies, exerting and experiencing force, etc. – we form basic conceptual structures which we then use to organize thought across a range of more abstract domains" (Saeed, J., 2005, p.353).* In brief, metaphors are formed by the expansion of image schemata by a process of metaphorical extension into abstract domain.

Lakoff and Johnson (1987) provided a list of image schemata. Among them, the major ones introduced by Saeed (2005: 353-357) include:

- Containment Schema (C): we have experiences of being physically located ourselves within bounded locations like rooms, beds, etc. and also putting objects into containers. This result is an abstract schema of physical containment. This schema of containment can be expanded by a process of metaphorical extension into abstract domains. For example, THE VISUAL FIELD IS CONTAINER, as in:

  The ship is coming into view.
  He is out of sight now.
  There is nothing in sight…

- Path Schema (P): everyday, we move around the world and experience the movements of other entities. Our journeys typically have a beginning and an end, a sequence of places on the way and direction. Other movements may include projected paths, like the flight of a stone thrown through the air. Path schema based on such experience contains a starting point, an end point, and a sequence of contiguous locations connecting them.

E.g.: The metaphorical concept LIFE IS A JOURNEY derives from this schema:

Giving the children a good start in life.
Are you at a crossroad in your life?
Her career is at a standstill.

- Force Schema (F): this schema is held to arise from our everyday experience as we grew as children, of moving around our environment and interacting with animate and inanimate entities.

- Compulsion: the basic force schema where a force acts on an entity, take the metaphorical concept LOVE AS A PHYSICAL FORCE as an example:

I was magnetically drawn to her.
They gravitated to each other immediately.
His whole life revolves around her.
They lost their momentum.

- Counterforce: a counterforce schema is a force that involves the active meeting of physically or metaphorically opposing forces. For example, the experiences of football players and participants in a head-on auto collision.

- Blockage: a force schema in which a force is physically or metaphorically stopped or redirected by an obstacle. For example, the experience of a crawling baby encountering a wall is stopped or redirected by the wall.

- Removal of Restraint: a force schema that involves the physical or metaphorical removal of a barrier to the action of a force, or absence of a barrier that was potentially present.

- Part-Whole Schema (PW): this schema of our body is connected with the experience of our own bodies as organized *wholes* including *parts*. According to Lakoff (1987), a part-whole schema is an image schema involving physical or metaphorical wholes along with their paths and a configuration of the parts. For example, our body is the physical whole together with its parts. This experience leads to the metaphorical concept that Company is whole and its members are parts:

  A framework for the political body

  He is the head of Human Resources Department.

  That company is the business and finance heart of the city.
- Source-Path-Goal Schema (SPG): is connected with the concept of oriented motion and consists of an initial place called source and a destination called goal connected by a path. This schema underlies the abstract metaphorical valued concept of purpose, which is grounded in our experience of reaching a goal.
- Orientation Schema (O): this schema relates to the structure and functioning of the body in its form. We are oriented in three dimensions: the up-down orientation, the front-back orientation, and the right-left orientation. The orientation up, front, and tight usually associated with positive values and vice verse, the orientation down, back, and left usually relate to negative values. That is the explanation for such metaphors as *He is the head of the state.*

2.3.Componential analysis

If semantics components serve as material to analyze metaphors in nautical expressions, componential analysis will serve as a tool.

Actually, componential analysis is a *"way of formalizing, or making absolutely precise, the sense relations that hold between words."* (Lyons, 1996: 107) In this method, sense or meaning of words is examined under the view of component parts commonly referred to as semes. It is sometimes called decomposition of the sense of the word. For example, the words *'nephew'* and *'niece'* both denote human beings. However, the sense of each word can be represented as followed :

(1)	Nephew	=	[human]	[male]	[relative]	[non-adult]
(2)	Niece	=	[human]	[female]	[relative]	[non-adult]

We can develop the formalization a little further. We can abstract the negative component prom [non-adult]and replace it with the negation-operator. Now we have:

(1)	Nephew	=	[+human]	[+male]	[relative]	[-adult]
(2)	Niece	=	[+human]	[-male]	[relative]	[-adult]

There are two related reasons for identifying such components. Firstly, according to Lyons (1996) they may allow an economic characterization of the lexical relation. Secondly, they form part of our psychological architecture and provide us with a unique view of conceptual structure.

2.4. Nautical Expressions in English

With two main islands and a lot of small ones, the United Kingdom has a very long coastline. Its marine may have been developed as early as 45,000 years ago marked by the first seaworthy boat. The long-standing history of Maritime is also shared by many other English speaking countries including America and Australia whose first settlers were sea-born immigrants. If you happen to visit an English speaking country and listen to their conversation, you will soon deduce the fact that the inhabitants were of an essentially seafaring stock because language is the great mirror of a nation's habits and history. Although the soldier, the farmer, the lawyer, the hunter, the merchant, and many others have contributed liberally from their special vocabularies to the common storehouse of daily speech, the wealth of English words and phrases supplied by the sailor is enormous.

Nautical expressions are the expressions relating to sea, ship, and sailing. However, not just learners of English but even native speakers who know little about sailing will find some nautical expressions completely idiomatic. They use these expressions in their daily life without knowing that they were woven into land from the sea. For example, the common adjectives "***first-rate***", "***second-rate***"… come down to us from the fives rates or sizes of warships, a classification which was in use as early as the Restoration. Even before that time, "***flotsam***" *(floating wreckage)* had been coupled to "***jetsam***" *(cargo thrown overboard)* in the well known equivalent for odds and ends. The complaint we usually hear in the times of high prices "to make ends meet" originates in the troubles of the sailor who tried to keep the ends of all ropes securely whipped with twine. According to Batchelder (1929), three-fourth of the sea expressions in our conversation are used in total unconsciousness of their meaning and origin. If we trace back to their original meaning, we will easily find that the meanings of these words were formed due to the trope called metaphor. These metaphors own their existence to sailors and those who know a bit about sailing. A learner of English, if can gain understanding of these expressions, will find such nautical expressions much richer and more interesting and certainly more memorable, too.

3. Research design and methodology

3.1. Data collection and methodology

Sixty-five sentences containing nautical expressions with metaphorical meanings are collected from marine websites, newspapers, magazines, books, etc. to serve as the materials for analysis in my study. In this way, the natural and practical manner of the material will reinforce the accuracy of the results.

The main methods applied in this research are descriptive, analytic, quantitative and qualitative. The descriptive method is used in order to find out the answer to the first study question about the image schemata motivated in metaphorical concepts in maritime field.. Analytic method is also necessary as this study concerns with the analysis of the formation of metaphorical concepts in maritime field. Quantitative method is applied to locate the frequency and proportion of each image schema presented in the metaphorical concepts. And it is qualitative in that the insights into metaphorical concepts using maritime expressions will be achieved from reading the materials and documenting the statistics.

3.2. Data analysis

The theory of image schemata by Lakoff & Johnson (1980) is applied to categorize metaphors in the nautical expressions chosen. Firstly, the experiences depended on to form the image schema are given. Secondly, the metaphorical concepts raised from the experiences are shown. Finally, the kinds of image schema that the metaphors belong to are stated. For example, let us have a look at the expression *"to throw overboard"* used to express the state of *"being sacked"* in the following sentence *"He has been thrown overboard due to his inability for the work."*

- *Actual experience forming the schema*: the metaphor is this case is motivated by the experience: people are physical objects contained on board ships. Being thrown overboard is a bad luck and, to sailors, is a kind of punishment.

- *Metaphorical concept*: a ship is a company, the containment for employees. So that being thrown overboard (out of the containment) is being sacked from the company.

- *Motivating schema*: metaphors formed in this way, according to Lakoff & Johnson (1980) are motivated by containment schema.

Similar analyses were done to the sixty-five expressions to classify their image schemata. The theory of componential analysis by Lyons (1996) was also utilized to facilitate the analyses of metaphors in those expressions such as when indentifying the sense of the original expressions or explaining the meanings of metaphorically used expressions.

Sixty-five tokens were divided into six groups. The first group, expressions relating to ship and sailor's movement, includes sixteen expressions. The second group, expressions relating to ship's maneuver contains eighteen expressions. The other eight expressions belong to the third group of expressions relating to ship's position and situation. Five expressions were analyzed in the fourth group named expressions relating to ship's structure and organization. The fifth group with ten expressions relating to the sea and the weather was also taken into consideration. The final group, expressions relating to ship's structure and organization, accounts for nine expressions. In the following six sub-parts, the results of the analyses done to each group are presented.

3.2.1. Expressions Relating to Ship and Sailor's Movement

Sixteen expressions relating to the movement of ship and sailor in sixteen sentences were analyzed in this part. The occurrence of each image schema in this group is shown in Table 1 below:

Table 1. Image Schemata in Ship and Sailor's Movement Expressions

Image schema	Expressions used/ Total	Percent
C	9/16	56%
P	8/16	50%
F	1/16	0.6%
PW	0/16	0%
SPG	0/16	0%
O	0/16	0%

Containment schema is expanded the most frequently in this group (56%). Expressions relating to ship and sailor's movement are mainly verbs which show the movement of physical objects on to and out of ship and the movement of the ship at sea. These experiences mainly raise the image of containers. For example, in the following sentences taken from a website, sea is regarded as another space, the website. Website users moving inside the web page are considered ships moving at sea:

Ahoy lads! Where do you want to go?
Homeport
Go astern
Full ahead *- Next nautical Yarn Sriram's Home on the net*
Cruise back *to Sailorschoice.com*

A ship goes astern means that it goes towards its stern. A website user goes astern in the web page means that he goes backward to the previous page. Similarly, he/ she goes to the next page is to go *full ahead*. The image of ship cruising back to a place that it berthed raises the image of a website user coming back to the webpage that he/ she retrieved. Therefore, the webpage is the container for the website user, just as the sea is the container for the ship to move in. The process of forming these metaphorical concepts can be explained as followed:

- *Actual experience forming the schema*: ships are physical objects moving at sea just like moving in a container.

- *Metaphorical concept*: many other spaces such as websites are the containers like the sea. The people moving in these spaces are ships.

- Motivating schema: Containment

The schema that occupies the second biggest percentage of occurrence in this group is path schema (50%). This fact is owing to a very similar experience among seafarers: each voyage has its starting point (departure), end point (arrival), and a sequence of contiguous locations (ports of call, islands…). This process of a voyage gives seafarers the image of life or love as in the following sentences:

*Our love is **making headway**.*

*They don't know where their life will **drift**.*

*Our love relationship is **swinging with wind and tide**.*

*She has always had brains, looks and luck. She has just **sailed through life**.*

A ship making headway means that it is moving ahead smoothly. A love is making headway means that it is in good progress. If a ship is drifting, it is moving along the water current without control. A life which has no orientation or direction is conceptualized as a ship drifting at sea. In the last sentence, love, again, is conceptualized as a ship in rough sea. *A ship sails through life* means that it sails with great ease. If a person *sails through life,* he/ she can make progress in life with little effort. Below is process forming the metaphors of the above expressions:

- *Actual experience forming the schema*: the image of sea voyages: each voyage has its starting point (departure), end point (arrival), and a sequence of contiguous location (ports of call, islands…)

- *Metaphorical concept*: love and life are voyages. Implementing a job is taking a voyage. When two people fall in a passionate love, they sink into it. Their love may make headway (make progress), drift (break), or swing with wind and tide (have difficulty). A person may make progress in life with great ease (sail through life). A project has its starting point when it is embarked and then it gets under way, which means that all the steps are taken to implement it.

- *Motivating schema:* Path

Besides, some expressions expressing the movement ship, which are motivated by containment schema, can also be motivated by force schema. Therefore, force schema also occupies a certain percentage though very small (0.6%) in this group. As I mentioned above the expression to swing with wind and tide was motivated by containment schema. However, the below explanation shows that it is also motivated by force schema:

- *Actual experience forming the schema*: the force of the wind and tide makes the ship at sea swing.

- *Metaphorical concept*: relationships are ships which are also affected by the force of the wind and tide.

- *Motivating schema*: Force

3.2.2. Expressions Relating to Ship's Maneuver

Eighteen expressions relating to ship's maneuver in eighteen sentences are dealt with in this part. The frequency of each image schema in this group is shown in the below table:

Table 2. Image Schemata in Ship's Movement Expressions

Image schema	Expressions used/ Total	Percent
C	0/18	0%
P	0/18	0%
F	0/18	0%
PW	0/18	0%
SPG	18/18	100%
O	1/18	0,6%

One hundred percent of the metaphors in this group are expanded by source-path-goal schema. The process of maneuvering a ship has its source from the point that the ship berths. Different techniques of navigation make up the image of a path, and the last port of call is the goal that marks the success of the maneuver. The first technique that new sailors have to memorize is ***Learning the ropes*** *(learn the whole rope system of the ship)*. However, if a recruit of any company learns the rope, it means that he/she tries to get familiar with the job. The sailor who is in the bridge and steers the wheel is ***taking the helm*** or ***at the helm***. In the following sentences, the two expressions *take the helm* and *at the helm* respectively carry the metaphorical meanings: to take control and to be the boss.

We cannot ***take the helm*** *because there are too many competitors.*

Only he can make decision whether to sell the product because he is ***at the helm****.*

The last technique that a helmsman has to perform to finish the voyage is ***to berth the ship***. If he berths the ship successfully, it means that he achieves the goal. Therefore, if we say, *"the development of the company* ***berthed on the shore****"*, we mean that the company achieved its goal of development. The process of constructing the above metaphors can be explained as below:

- *Actual experience forming the schema*: the process and different techniques and action taken to maneuver the ship from the departure port to the arrival port. The goal to achieve is to maneuver the ship safely to the last port.

- *Metaphorical concept*: implementing a work is maneuvering a ship. Leading a life is also maneuvering a ship. The boss is the helmsman. He has the right to set the sail and pick the course. A recruit must learn the ropes. The work may go on smoothly and the company can operate on its own steam. Sometimes, there may be difficulties and another tack must be tried. If the company successes, it means that it berths the shore. Your life is also maneuvered. It may be steered on course (on the right way) or off course…

- *Motivating schema:* Source-Path-Goal

The analyses to the expressions in this group also reveal an interesting point that source-path-goal schema is usually combined with orientation schema. For instance, in the case of the expression *on course* and *off course*, which are used to denote the direction of a ship, in the following sentences:

Regardless of where you were headed before, it is never too late or too early to get your life ***on course****.*

That unfaithful man steered her life ***off course****.*

During the voyage, which serves as the path of the schema, the helmsman steers the ship and keeps it ***on course*** (on the direction that has been fixed), not let it ***off course***. However, ***on course*** and ***off course*** are also the expressions that denote the orientation. In the above sentences, on course and off course are conceptualized as the lifeline. A life on course is a good life, vice versa, a life off course is a bad life. As a result, these two metaphors are motivated by two image schemata at the same time: source-path-goal and orientation. This explains a small percentage that orientation schema occupies in this group (0,6%). The formation of those metaphors can be clearly explained as followed:

- *Actual experience forming the schema*: the direction that the ship must keep to during the voyage.

- *Metaphorical concept*: good is on course, bad is off course.

- *Motivating schema*: Source-Path-Goal, Orientation

3.2.3. Expressions Relating to Ship's Position and Situation

The analyses were done to eight expressions in this section to find out the frequency of each image schema. The results are presented in Table 3:

Table 3. Image Schemata in Ship's Position and Situation Expression

Image schema	Expressions used/ Total	Percent
C	2/8	25%
P	0/8	0%
F	0/8	0%
PW	4/8	50%
SPG	0/8	0%
O	4/8	50%

Metaphors in this group are motivated by both part-whole and orientation with equal percentage (50%). Containment schema also plays rather important in the metaphors of this group (25%). Let us have a look into the detailed analyses of some expression in this group.

The expression ***athwardships*** means across the widest part of the ship. This expression is used metaphorically in the sentence *"What are the issues **athwardships** your economy at the moment?"*. This metaphor is formed by the motivation of two schemata, which are explained below:

- *Actual experience forming the schema*: the distance across the ship from side to side, different position on board ships.

- *Metaphorical concept*: economy is containment as ship, across the ship is a long side the economy. Athwardships is prevailing.

- *Motivating schema*: Orientation, Containment

This example, once more, confirms the spontaneous appearance of containment schema and orientation schema in a metaphor. Similar case is also found in the expression *on deck* in the sentence *"the baseball umpire calls the next batsman **on deck**"*. The batsman on deck is the man that must get ready for the next ball. The motivation process of the two image schemata in this expression is shown below:

- *Actual experience forming the schema*: on an important position on board ship

- *Metaphorical concept*: baseball field is containment as ship, on deck is on the position ready to do the task given

- *Motivating schema*: containment, Orientation

Some other expressions which are also motivated by orientation schema include *athwardships, on deck, aloft,* and *bottom of the ship's social ladder*. The formation of metaphors using these expressions can be:

- *Actual experience forming the schema*: different positions on board ships.

- *Metaphorical concept*: athwardships is prevailing, on deck or aloft is good, and at the bottom is bad.

- *Motivating schema:* Orientation

3.2.4. Expressions Relating to Ship's Structure and Organization

Five expressions were studied and brought about the below results:

Table 4. Image Schemata in Ship's Structure and Organization Expressions

Image schema	Expressions used/ Total	Percent
C	0/6	0%
P	0/6	0%
F	0/6	0%
PW	5/6	83.3%
SPG	0/6	0%
O	1/6	16.6%

Part-whole is still the pervasive schema in this group (83.3%). Besides, only another schema extended in the metaphors in this group is orientation (16.6%). This is due to the concept that ship is complete object and its organization is in a very neat order. The formation of the metaphorical concepts in this group is pointed out below:

- *Actual experience forming the schema*: the ship as a whole and the function of its different parts and manning.

- *Metaphorical concept*: The organization of ship's manning is that of a nation. The functions of different parts of a ship are the functions of things in life.

- *Motivating schema:* Part-Whole

Take the expression *figurehead* whose literal meaning is carved wooden decoration, often female or bestial, found at the prow of ships as an example. This expression shows an object in the whole structure of a ship. Furthermore, only one metaphor in this group is motivated by orientation schema portside (the left-right side of a ship). The orientation schema motivates the metaphor using this expression in the following way:

- *Actual experience forming the schema:* the left-right side of a ship

- *Metaphorical concept*: left side (portside) is minor. Right side (starboard side) is major

- *Motivating schema:* Orientation

That concept leads to the metaphor in the below sentence:

Those of us ***on the portside*** *of the political ship might ask a similar question about the effect of division and enmity in the national discourse.*

3.2.5. Expressions Relating to the Sea and the Weather

Ten expressions were analyzed in this part, which brings aboutthe following results:

Table 4. Image Schemata in Ship's Structure and Organization Expressions

Image schema	Expressions used/ Total	Percent
C	4/10	40%
P	0/10	0%
F	5/10	50%
PW	2/10	20%
SPG	0/10	0%
O	0/10	0%

Force schema occupies half of the metaphors in this group. Four over ten expressions are used to realize metaphorical concepts in the following way:

- *Actual experience forming the schema*: physical force of the seawater and the weather (wind, rain…)

- *Metaphorical concept*: feeling is physical force of the seawater and the weather

- *Motivating schema:* Force

To make it clear, let us have a look at the following example:

*The power and energy of love **waved into** everyone.*

The image of the force of seawater washing the shore raises the metaphorical concept about love among seafarers. The force of love is conceptualized as physical force of the seawater. As a result, it waves into everyone.

Containment schema also plays a crucial role in motivating metaphors in this group (40%). The process of forming those metaphors is shown below:

- *Actual experience forming the schema*: large and deep spaces where ships sail.

- *Metaphorical concept*: the image of container with a great amount of things inside.

- *Motivating schema:* Containment

The large sea and ocean raise the image of great quantity as in the phrases *"An **ocean** of sound"* and *"a **river** of words"*. Some other objects are also conceptualized in this way are *islands, sea*… In Part-Whole schema occupies 20% of the schemata in this group. Its motivation can be explained as followed:

- *Actual experience forming the schema*: different images of the sea and its water

- *Metaphorical concept*: different sea states are different feelings

- *Motivating schema:* Part-Whole

This process can be seen in the below metaphor:

*Few pages feel **wavy** at touch like someone read it with wet hands.*

*It centers around the **stormy** marriage of the young couple.*

Wavy is a state of the seawater. In the above sentence, it is used to denote a kind of feeling. In this case, an abstract target domain "feeling" is conceptualized in expressions of a physical object wave. The second expression *stormy* is in the same situation as the expression *wavy*.

3.2.6. Expressions Relating to Ship Building and Ship's Procedure

The analyses are done to eight expressions in this part to find out the frequency of each image schema. The results are shown in Table 6:

Table 6. Image Schemata in Ship Building and Ship's Procedure

Image schema	Expressions used/ Total	Percent
C	0/8	0%
P	0/8	0%
F	1/8	12.5%
PW	3/8	37.5%
SPG	4/8	50%
O	0/8	0%

The process of building a ship with many steps structures the source-path-goal schema in this group. That is the explanation for the 50% that this schema occupies. The detailed explanation is presented below:

- *Actual experience forming the schema*: steps in the process of building ships

- *Metaphorical concept*: the process of building a ship is the process of implementing a project

- *Motivating schema*: Source-Path-Goal

All the preparations for building a ship make up the source of the schema. For example, building the ship on the stock first, then launch it into water. This experience brings the metaphors in the following sentence:

The project that had long been on the stocks was finally ***launched****.*

If a project is on the stocks, it is in the preparation stage. When that project is launched, each step of the project is implemented.

Part-Whole schema occupies nearly 40% of all the schemata in this group. It mainly relates to the expression of ship's procedure. Its motivation is carried out as below:

- *Actual experience forming the schema*: procedure relating to the clearing in or clearing out of ships

- *Metaphorical concept*: the function of each procedure is the function of people in life

- *Motivating schema:* Part-Whole

In the case of the expressions *pilot* and *port* in the following sentences:

God is my ***pilot****.*

I will rest in the ***port*** *of God forever.*

Pilot is the person who helps the ship into or out of port. God is conceptualized as a pilot because in maritime, the role of the pilot is very important. Port is place that can release seafarers after many difficulties of each voyage. Therefore, port is conceptualized as heaven.

Another schema expanded in the group, though seldom, is force schema (12.5%). It motivates the formation of metaphor in the sentence below:

The irate father threatens to give his young a ***keelhauling****.*

The work of hauling the keel of a ship with scraper is very hard and energy consuming. The keel of the ship is like the spine of a person. Therefore, the act of cleaning the keel of a ship is compared to that of a spine. A father threatens to give his young a keelhauling means that he threatens to give him a very savage punishment. The motivation of force schema in this expression can be seen below:

- *Actual experience forming the schema*: the force used to make the ship's keel clean

- *Metaphorical concept*: the force used to do the hard work is compared to the savage of the punishment

- *Motivating schema:* Force

4. Discussion

In the previous part, the expressions chosen were analyzed in terms of image schemata. The frequency of each schema in each group of expressions was summed up. In this part, before going into the detail of each image schema, I would like to have a look at the overall picture of image schemata used in the sixty-five nautical expressions chosen. Two tables below are designed to supply readers with a better view. The first one is the sum-up of the frequency of each kind of image schema. The second is the sum-up of the frequency of image schema in each group of expressions.

Table 7. The Frequency of Image Schema

Image schema	Expressions used/ Total	Percent
C	15/65	23%
P	8/65	12.3%
F	10/65	15.3%
PW	14/65	21.5%
SPG	22/65	33.8%
O	6/65	9.2%

Table 8. The Frequency of Image Schema in each Group of Expressions

Image Schema	Ship and Sailor's Movement		Ship Maneuver		Ship's Position & Situation		Ship's Structure & Organization		Sea & Weather		Ships' Procedure & Building	
	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
C	9/15	60%	2/15	13%	0/15	0%	0/15	0%	4/15	27%	0/15	0%
P	6/6	100%	0/6	0%	0/6	0%	0/6	0%	0/6	0%	0/6	0%
F	1/7	14%	0/7	0%	0/7	0%	0/7	0%	5/7	72%	1/7	14%
PW	0/14	0%	0/14	0%	4/14	29%	5/14	36%	2/14	14%	3/14	21%
SPG	0/22	0%	18/22	82%	0/22	0%	0/22	0%	0/22	0%	4/22	18%
O	0/6	0%	1/6	17%	4/6	67%	1/6	17%	0/6	0%	0/6	0%

4.1. Containment schema

According to the data in table 7 above, this schema stands at the second position after Source-Path-Goal schema in the virtue of frequency (23%). It means that the image of the sea and the ship as containers has great effect on the concepts of seafarers. This schema is mainly extended in expressions relating to the movement of the ship and the sailor (60%), expressions relating to the sea (27%), and expressions relating to ship maneuver (13%). The reason is that ship moving or maneuvered at sea is moving or maneuvered in a container. Sailors move onto or out of ship which is conceptualized as a container for them. As a result, the source domain for metaphors motivated by this schema is mainly ship and sea. That is the reason why we have such metaphorical concepts as SEA IS CONTAINER and SHIP IS CONTAINER.

4.2. Path schema

Path schema takes 12.3% among six image schemata analyzed. Expressions relating to the movement of ships and sailors during a voyage are the main device to extend this schema. In the marine field, the image that gives the deepest impressions of a path is a sea voyage. This image is the source domain for many metaphorical concepts, for example, LIFE IS A SEA VOYAGE and LOVING RELATIONSHIP AS TRIP AT SEA, which are realized in six chosen expressions of ship and sailor's movement (*to make headway, sink, drift, swing, sail through life, sail against the wind, embark, and get under way)*. Besides, the target domains of these metaphors are mainly abstract domain such as life and loving relationship.

4.3. Force schema

The force of the sea is the main experience structuring the force schema extended in maritime register. Metaphorical concepts motivated by force schema are realized by 72% of the expressions relating to the strength of seawater. This source domain is normally used to conceptualize abstract target domain, such as love in the concept LOVE IS SEA or emotion in A SOUL TROUBLED BY EMOTION IS STORMY SEA and HUMAN EMOTION IS SEA, or attitude in OUR ATTITUDE IS FATE OF THE SEA.

4.4. Part – Whole schema

Part-whole schema is also extended frequently in metaphors based on nautical expressions (21.5%), this due to the concept that the physical objects used in maritime should be watertight ones. These objects include many parts organized orderly. The schema is used rather evenly among the expressions of six groups. However, the most frequent one is still group four: expressions relating to the structure of the ship (36%). This schema is also combined with force schema to form metaphors in marine field (in the case of the expression *undertow* and *stormy*). Two common metaphorical concepts motivated by this schema are NATION IS A SHIP and ENTERPRISE IS A SHIP.

4.5. Source-Path-Goal Schema

This schema is expanded the most regularly in maritime field because the working environment of seafarers requires the clear identification of the source, the path, and the goal of each task. For example, maneuvering a ship includes identifying obviously where, when, and how to set the sail, which course to pick for the whole voyage, when to reach the port of call, etc. The main source domain used to form metaphors using this schema is the process of maneuvering a ship and the process of building a ship. Typical metaphorical concepts motivated by this schema are BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT IS SAILING, BUILDING A SHIP IS IMPLEMENTING A PROJECT, etc.

4.6. Orientation schema

Orientation schema is not expanded very frequently. It is mainly realized by the expressions relating to the ship's position. This due to the fact that most of the expressions used to show the direction of the ship are not marine origins; therefore, the presence of expressions showing orientation is limited. However, Orientation schema is normally combined with Source-Path-Goal and Containment schema to motivate metaphors (in the case of the expressions *on course, off course, athwardwhips, and on deck)*. One typical concept motivated by this schema is STARBOARD SIDE IS MAJOR, PORTSIDE IS MINOR.

5. Conclusion

In this paper, sixty-five nautical expressions have been investigated in the virtue of image schema. The three research questions were addressed with a clear answer: the image schemata expanded in maritime field to form metaphors are much diversified but their frequencies are not even.

Besides, the study also indicated that:

- The image schema varies due to the minor fields of the metaphorical expressions. For example, in the field of shipbuilding, source-Path-Goal schema pervades but in the field of ship movement, Containment Schema prevails.

- Two image schemata may be expanded spontaneously to form a metaphor, especially the combination of Containment and Orientation schema.

The findings of this paper suggest the teachers of ESP in navigation Department, Vietnam Maritime University, with a new way of teaching metaphorical expressions to students. If teachers are supplied with the information about image schemata in nautical terms, they can make metaphorical expressions much more interesting and memorable to students. For example, instead of merely introducing that the expression *to give a wide berth* can be used with the metaphorical meaning *to keep a distance with somebody*, the teacher may explain the experience structure, the metaphorical concept, and the image schema underlying this metaphorical expression. In this way, students can understand the cognitive process of English seafarers, which can greatly assist their comprehension and utilization of metaphors in English.

However, the issue raised in this paper has still left much to be studied. Firstly, only more than sixty expressions were analyzed, which is a small number in comparison with the big treasure of nautical expressions. Secondly, the cultural factor, which influences the preconceptual experiences, has not been addressed in this paper. Finally, the method of identifying the image schema is limited by the researcher's ability to recognize the structure of experience in English people's mind.

Is this the only way to look into metaphors? The answer is not at all. There are many other ways that are enough to keep any researcher occupied for ages. I highly recommend a study into ***doing contrastive analyses between metaphors using nautical expressions in English and Vietnamese*** because as denoted in the study by Hoa, P.V. & Thu, H. (2017) that the distinctions in "culture, lifestyle and thought" are the causes of the differences in metaphorical expressions in languages".

References

Batchelder, S.F. (1929). Some Sea Expressions in Land Speech. *The New England Quarterly*, *2*(4), 625-653.

Cobuild, C. (1999). *English Guides Metaphor*. Ho Chi Minh City: Ho Chi Minh Press.

Corbert, E. & Connors, R. (1999). *Classical Rhetorical for the Modern Student*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lakoff, G. & Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors We Live By*. Chicago and London: University of Chicago Press.

Lakoff, G. (1987). *Women, fire, and dangerous things*. Chicago: The Univ. of Chicago Press.

Lakoff, G. & Turner, M. (1989). *More than Cool Reason: A field Guide to Poetic Metaphor*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Leezeberg, M. (2001). *Contexts of Metaphor*. Oxford: Elsevier.

Lyons, J. (1996). *Linguistic Semantics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Phan Van Hoa & Ho Thi Quynh Thu (2017). Poetic Metaphors of Love in English and Vietnamese.*VNU Journal of Foreign Studies*, *33*(6), 56-64.

Richards, I.A. (1936). *The philosophy of Rhetoric*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Saeed, J.I. (2005), *Semantics*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

ẨN DỤ Ý NIỆM SỬ DỤNG TỪ NGỮ TIẾNG ANH NGÀNH HÀNG HẢI

Ngô Thị Nhàn

Khoa Ngoại ngữ, Trường Đại học Hàng hải Việt Nam,
484 Lạch Tray, quận Ngô Quyền, Thành phố Hải Phòng

Tóm tắt: Bài nghiên cứu được thực hiện nhằm tìm hiểu về lối nói ẩn dụ có liên quan đến các thuật ngữ trong ngành hàng hải. Có rất nhiều phương thức tiếp cận nghiên cứu về lối nói ẩn dụ, tuy nhiên trong nghiên cứu này phương thức tiếp cận được chọn là đường hướng của ngữ nghĩa tri nhận được giới thiệu bởi Saeed vào năm 2005. Bên cạnh đó, lối nói ẩn dụ được nghiên cứu theo khía cạnh sơ đồ hình ảnh dựa trên lý thuyêt ẩn dụ ý niệm do Lakoff và Johnson giới thiệu năm 1980. Những câu có xuất hiện các thuật ngữ hàng hải với nghĩa ẩn dụ được lựa chọn từ các tạp chí, báo, sách và trang web trong ngành hàng hải, sau đó được phân tích theo sơ đồ hình ảnh bằng phương pháp định tính, định lượng, giải thích và mô tả. Kết quả phân tích cho thấy các loại sơ đồ hình ảnh được sử dụng để hình thành lối nói ẩn dụ sử dụng thuật ngữ hàng hải rất đa dạng nhưng lại không đồng đều.

Từ khóa: ẩn dụ ý niệm, thuật ngữ hàng hải, sơ đồ hình ảnh

LANGUAGE AND POWER IN A WTO DIRECTOR -GENERAL'S SPEECH - A CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Dang Thi Mai Nga*

Haiphong University,
171 Phan Dang Luu, Kien An, Hai Phong, Vietnam

Received 22 August 2019
Revised 13 November 2019; Accepted 23 December 2019

Abstract: The paper is aimed at exploring ideological power relations of globalization discourse through the analysis of the speech 'The Backlash against Globalization' of WTO's Director-General Mike Moore based on one of the Discourse Analysis (DA) approaches - Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). At first, the paper sets out the theoretical framework of CDA and the concepts of power and ideology and examines the importance of Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG) in CDA. Then the paper provides readers with the social context of globalization and analyzes the speech in the light of CD. The findings and the conclusion of the paper prove the assumption that the speech is a tool for Director-General Mike Moore to express his power and ideology in the sense that he is in higher position and confirms that globalization is inevitable and the establishment of WTO is a product of this process helping countries, communities and people face the problems and challenges.

Key words: CDA, language, ideology, power, SFG

1. Introduction

The world has seen profound economic and social changes on a global scale in the past twenty years. These changes bring not only opportunities but also challenges to many people. These changes have also had profound influence on our sense of self and place, *causing considerable confusion and what has been widely referred to as a loss of meaning* (Baudrillard 1983, 1993; Featherstone 1995). Globalization – a real but incomplete process- brings benefits to some people and hurts others. Supporters of this new world order view it as an inevitable and irreversible process which brings a lot of benefits to people and communities. Opponents believe that this new order increases inequality within and between nations, threatens employment and living standards and thwarts social progress. People who benefit from it try to extend it by using different resources such as discourse of globalization as well as other potent resources (donations to political parties). In this paper discourse of globalization is thus considered as discourse of power used by those in power to enhance their power. Therefore, in analyzing these changes and new phenomena, the questions of power are always taken into consideration. In order to find out the relationship of language and power in our contemporary world, Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is considered an important tool as what Fairclough (2001, p.25) stated: '*This is an opportunity and a challenge for critical language study – it can make a considerable contribution on issues which are vitally important for the future of humankind*'.

* Tel.: 84-919010681

Email dangmainga1981@gmail.com

2. Theoretical background

2.1. What is Critical Discourse Analysis?

In 'An Introduction to Critical Discourse Analysis in Education', Gee (2004, p.19) emphasizes that 'in fact critical discourse analysis argues that language in use is always part and parcel of, and partially constitutive of, specific social practices, and that social practices always have implications for inherently political things like status, solidarity, distribution of social goods, and power'.

Fairclough (1993: 135) gives a definition of CDA by stating "By 'critical' discourse analysis I mean discourse analysis which aims to systematically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events and texts, and (b), wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes; to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power; to explore how the opacity of these relationships between discourse and society is itself a factor securing power and hegemony".

From these statements, it can be seen that CDA mainly focuses on the question of language and power as language is an important element of social life.

2.2. Key concepts in CDA

Having deep understanding about CDA requires us to get used to some key concepts of CDA like ideology and power since the notion of ideology and power are all seen as relevant for an interpretation or explanation of text.

Ideology

Wodak (2001) has pointed out that the concepts of ideology first appeared in late eighteenth-century France (Thompson, 1990) and has thus been in use for about two centuries. According to Thompson (1990), *ideology refers to social forms and processes within which, and by means of which, symbolic forms circulate in the social world. Ideology is an important aspect of establishing and maintaining unequal power relation. CL takes a particular interest in the ways in which language mediates ideology in a variety of social institutions.*

For Thompson (1990), the study of ideology is the study of the way in which meaning is constructed and conveyed by symbolic forms of various kinds. This study also investigates the social contexts within which symbolic forms are used and not used.

Power

The question of language and power is always taken into consideration especially in modern times with a lot of profound social and economic changes. The question of language and power serves to understand the new order.

For CDA, language is not powerful on its own – it gains power by the use of powerful make of it. Wodak (2001) explains why CDA often chooses the perspectives of those who suffer and critically analyses the language use of those in power, those who are responsible for the existence of inequalities and who also have the means and the opportunity to improve conditions.

Power is about relations of differences, particularly about the effects of differences in social structures. Language is entwined in social power in a numbers of ways: language indexes power, expresses power, is involved where there is contention over and a challenge to power.

2.3. Systemic Functional Linguistic in Critical Discourse Analysis

In this part, I will discuss systemic functional grammar and the reasons why FSL is used in CDA.

Fairclough and Chouliaraki (1999, p.139) explain that 'and especially the linguistic theory which we believe has the most in common with CDA and most to offer CDA, systemic functional linguistic (SFL)' and 'the version of CDA which we work with ourselves has used SFL as its main resource for textual analysis'.

Fairclough (1999, p.139) points out a 'complementary relationship' between SFL and CDA as follows:

'SFL is profoundly concerned with the relationship between language and other elements and aspects of social life, and its approach to the linguistic analysis of texts is always oriented to the social character of text…This makes it a valuable source for critical discourse analysis, and indeed major constructions to critical discourse analysis have developed out of SFL'.

For Fairclough and Chouliaraki (1999, p.139), SFL 'views language as a semiotic system which is structured in terms of strata. Language connects meanings (the semantic stratum) with their spoken and written expressions (the stratum of phonology and graphology). Both meanings and expression interface with the extra-linguistics.'

The relationship between strata is one of 'realisation': each of the strata defines a potential, a set of possibilities – a meaning potential (semantics), a wording potential (lexicogrammar), an expression potential. This relationship can be extended in the 'context of situation'. The context of situation can be specified in terms of possible values for three variables – ***the field*** (the activity which the language is part of), ***the tenor*** (the social actors involved and the relation between them), and the ***mode*** (the part language plays in the activity) corresponding respectively the ideational, interpersonal and textual macrofunctions. More specifically, the macrofunctions covers ***ideational function*** (language in the construction and representation of experience in the world, the ***interpersonal function*** (language in the enactment of social relations and the constructions of social identities) and ***the textual function*** (language in the specifically semiotic-textual-form of productive practice). In SFL, lexicogrammar is seen as functionally grounded, shaped by the social functions it serves, and in particular built around the intersection of the 'macrofunctions' of language. Corresponding to these three macrofunctions are three major networks of grammatical system which are ***transitivity, mood and modality, and information – including theme-rheme and given-new***. Fairclough and Chouliaraki (1940, p.140) state that:

"Every clause in the text (as well as lower and higher-level grammatical units) is seen as grammatically constituted simultaneously as semiotic production (textual function) which constructs the world (ideational function) while enacting social relations between its producers and others who inhabit the world (relational function). Thus the social is built into grammatical tissue of language…so that the semiotic constitution by the social and of the social is constantly at issue in the language analysis".

Concerning three macro-functions of language, I find two macro-functions relevant to this study. They are the Experiential function and the Textual function. The two functions at the discourse – semantic level are realized at the lexico-grammar represented by choices in the Transitivity and Thematic system and the unit of this level is the clause.

3. Social context of globalization

3.1. What is globalization?

According to Fairclough (2001, p.205), '*globalization is first an economic process, and the neo-liberal doctrine it is currently associated with is centred upon maximally free trade – the free movement of goods, finance and people internationally. What is involved is a shift in the relationship between the market and the state which characterized capitalism for most of the twentieth century, freeing the market from state controls and undermining the role of the state in providing social welfare, and converting the state into a local advocate and agent for free market.*'

3.2. Globalization from different perspectives

3.2.1. Opportunities and possibilities

Globalization offers opportunities to many countries. Global markets offer more opportunities people have more chances to access capital flows, technology, cheaper imports and lager export markets.

In the speech '***Making Globalization work'***, Director –General Mike Moore stated: *'* What are the most important issues for people across the globe? Life expectancy, hunger and poverty reduction, access to clean drinking water, democracy, a better living environment. And on almost every useful measurement of the human condition, we have seen the greatest advances in the history of our species during the last half century, according to data collected by the UNDP and other agencies.

3.2.2. Constraints and difficulties

Globalization is also considered the major cause of social and environmental problems in many countries. Unskilled workers will face increasing competition across border. Workers in some developing countries are losing their jobs to their counterparts. Many conservationists argue that international integration encourages the overexploitation of fragile natural resources, such as forests and fisheries, damaging the livelihoods of the poor. They claim that the International Monetary Fund (IFM) and the World Bank (WB) are the major causes of poverty in many countries today. In fact, The IMF and WB are largely owned and controlled by the developed countries such as the USA, German, the UK, and Japan. Receiving assistance from IMF and WB the economic direction of these countries would be planned, monitored and controlled by these organizations or countries.

4. Findings

4.1. Analysis in terms of vocabulary used

According to Fairlcough (2001, p.94), "the aspect of experiential value of most interest in the context of this book is how ideological differences between texts in their representations of the world are coded in their vocabulary". In extending the opportunities of globalization process, Director-General Mike Moore tries to portrait globalization as a bright process with a lot of good things such as free market, open and prosperous world, richer, big profits, free trade, promotes freedom and buttresses our security and peace.

Director-General Mike Moore also tries to persuade the audience by giving the persuasive figures in the following paragraph:

The World Trade Organization, and its predecessor the GATT, has played an important role in creating this more open and prosperous world. Since the GATT was set up in 1948, world trade has soared 15-fold, to more than $7,000 billion a year. This has helped to multiply world output by seven. This huge rise in living standards has allowed nearly everyone to enjoy the luxuries that were previously enjoyed only by the few. European tours were once the preserve of British aristocrats. Now almost everyone in the EU can enjoy a foreign holiday. Even in poor countries, people live longer, eat better, and have more access to clean water than they did 50 years ago. GDP per head in less developed countries has trebled since 1950, life expectancy has risen by over 20 years, and adult literacy rates have increased by over 30 percentage points: (lines 107 - 117)

From the above paragraph, it can be seen that thanks to the establishment of WTO, there have been a lot of changes in different fields.

Director-General Mike Moore portraits two pictures of the world in 1949 and 1980:

In 1949, when I was born, trade barriers were still at their post-Depression highs, few currencies were convertible, rationing was commonplace, huge swathes of industry were nationalized. (line 10 - 13)

But in the 1980s things changed. In rich countries such as the United States, Britain and my own country, New Zealand, governments embraced liberal ideas. National champions were discarded in favour of international competition. Industries were privatised and markets deregulated. Capital controls were abolished. Foreign investment was welcomed with open arms: (lines 17 - 22)

The focus of relational value is how the text's choice of wordings depends on, and helps create, social relationships between participants.

In this speech, Director-General Mike Moore confirms that globalization is an inevitable process even some people are still skeptical about the process of globalization as well as the operation of WTO by giving the following evidence:

An ugly new word, globalization, was coined to describe this process. It seemed inevitable; even those who harboured doubts about globalization thought opposition was futile. (lines 28 - 30)

In his speech, Director-General Mike Moore is fully aware of the fact that people are against globalization 'But there has been a backlash against liberalism. For a start, statist urges are alive and well. The traditional calls for intervention to "save" jobs or redistribute wealth still strike a chord. Moreover, many people dislike the fact that seemingly impersonal market forces hold sway over their lives, even though markets in fact reflect the combined preferences of millions of ordinary people'" (lines 46 - 50)

He also understands that 'Some people lose from change, and many more fear they might lose: (lines 61 - 62)

He reminds people of that fact 'But we should also remember that a century ago, people fretted at the massive shift off the land and into the factories, but that people nowadays are much richer thanks to the Industrial Revolution.' (lines 63 -65). By reminding people of this matter he would like to imply that thanks to globalization and other changes in our world people just have the chance to have better life.

Director-General Mike Moore continues listing the challenges and difficulties that people face as a result of globalization 'Of course, some people do lose in the short run from trade liberalization. But others are poor farmers who lose their subsidies or unskilled workers who lose their jobs.' (lines 118 - 120).

The way to deal with these challenges is that 'But the right way to alleviate the hardship of the unlucky few is through social safety nets and job retraining rather than by abandoning reforms that benefit the many.' (lines 121 - 123) Once again, Director-General Mike Moore wants to help people fully understand the role of globalization in coping with 'the hardship of the unlucky few'.

When talking about the need of establishing WTO, he points out 'If the WTO did not exist, <u>people would be crying out</u> for a forum where governments could negotiate rules, ratified by national parliaments, that promote freer trade and provide a transparent and predictable framework for business. And <u>they would be crying out fo</u>r a mechanism that helps governments avoid coming to blows over trade disputes. That is what the WTO is.' (Lines 134 - 138). With these statements, he confirms the necessity of establishing WTO as a result of globalization process.

Classification scheme constitutes a particular way of diving up some aspects of reality which is built upon a particular ideological representation of that reality. The structure is thus ideological based.

Referring to the globalization and free trade he mainly uses the positive words: liberal and open place, open economic principles, benefits of openness, trade liberalization, free trade.

In contrast, he mainly uses the negative words when referring to the situation of the world before the time of globalization: trade barrier, the pace of liberalization was slow and its scope limited.

Over-wording (over-lexicalization) shows preoccupation with some aspects of reality – which may indicate that is a focus of ideological struggle.

A number of words and phrases which are

near synonyms expressing his ideology about liberalism are used: economic liberalization, liberal democracy, liberalism, economic liberalism, liberalization, free trade, opening, openness, trade liberalization.

What is the use of employing autonymy? These antonymous words and phrases put in parallel structure express his ideology about presenting a contrasting picture: the difficulties and possibilities before and after globalization.

Haboured doubt about globalization	*line 29*	*><*	*The triumph of liberal democracy*	*line 31*
Protectionist nightmare	*line 83*	*><*	*Long boom*	*line 84*
Unlucky few	*line 122*	*><*	*Benefit the many*	*line 123*

Delivering this speech at a formal situation demands the formality of social relations and it is evident in his speech

It is a great pleasure

... put national cultural on a pedestal ...

That's why I make a point of testifying before parliamentary committees

When delivering this speech, Director-General Mike Moore is fully aware of the fact that a number of people in different countries and communities still consider globalization and WTO as the causes of poverty and inequality all over the world. The formal choices of words and phrases demonstrate his high position and express his concern for the audience face.

4.2. Analysis in terms of grammatical features

4.2.1. The use of personal pronoun

The use of personal pronoun ***I*** is found when Director-General Mike Moore expresses his own idea and experience. This makes the speech more persuasive as this seems to base on his personal experience.

Table 4. Instance of the use of *I* in the text

Line 2	*I think it is vitally important that we reconnect international organizations with the political grassroots.*
Line 4	*That is why I am here to report back to you as well as to listen to your concerns.*
Line 4	*I have made a point of meeting with elected representatives from the Socialist International and the Democratic Union.*
Line 8	*If I had made this speech a few years ago, my them would probably have been " The Triumph of Economic Liberalism."*
Line 10	*When I was born, trade barriers were still at their post-Depression highs, few currencies were convertible, rationing was commonplace, huge swathes of industry were nationalized, and Soviet communism threatened to crush liberal democracy.*
Line 40	*I am not suggesting that liberalism is in retreat.*
Line 52	*In my own country, I used to lecture unions that profit was a good word, that the only real security for workers was a healthy balance sheet, and that they should not attack companies that made big profits but picket incompetent managers who endangered workers' futures by making losses.*
Line 82	*I think the most important lesson of the past 50 years is that we must embrace the outside world, not shun it.*
Line 90	*I love my country, but I see no reason why I shouldn't also enjoy the best that other countries have to offer.*
Line 145	*That is why I make a point of testifying before parliamentary committees whenever I visit a country. And that's one of the reasons I'm here today.*

In contrast, when attracting the attention and calling the responsibility for cooperating in globalization process, he mainly uses personal pronoun *we*.

Table 5. Instances of the use of *we* in the text

Line 3	*We reconnect international organizations*	Exclusive
Line 6	*We need to connect*	Exclusive
Line 62	*We must ensure that they receive*	Exclusive
Line 63	*We should remember*	Exclusive
Line 78	*We shall never convince*	Exclusive
Line 70	*We must not allow*	Exclusive
Line 80	*We need to make*	Exclusive
Line 128	*We owe it to them*	Inclusive
Line 130	*We are too often misunderstood*	Inclusive
Line 131	*We are not a world government*	Inclusive
Line 139	*We do not lay down the law*	Inclusive
Line 139	*We uphold the rule of law*	Inclusive
Line 142	*We need to put*	Inclusive
Line 142	*We also have to listen*	Inclusive
Line 143	*We are trying to*	Inclusive
Line 144	*We are constantly*	Inclusive
Line 145	*We welcome*	Inclusive

The personal pronoun ***we*** can be inclusive (the reader as well as the writer) or exclusive (the writer (or speaker) plus one or more others, but does not include the addressees). From the above examples, it can be seen that Director-General Mike Moore uses all the exclusive we when referring to the responsibility and cooperation of people in different countries and communities, conveying his solidity with the audience to emphasize that it is their responsibility to struggle for globalization while the use of inclusive ***we*** is found when he mentions their organization –WTO.

Delivering this speech, General-Director Mike Moore would like to express his idea about the fact that there has been a backlash against liberalism so the use of personal pronoun ***they*** can be found in this speech:

Table 6. instances of the use of *they* in the text

Line 53	*That they should not attack companies that made big profits*
Line 60	*But now in our media age, people are constantly confronted with change that they would otherwise not be aware of.*
Line 77	*And they take aim at the WTO because they see it as the handmaiden of globalization.*

When referring to people who are on the same boat, extending the bright future of globalization, Director-General Mike Moore employs the personal pronoun ***we***. In contrast, by using the personal pronoun ***they***, he wants the audience to identify some groups of people blaming the process of globalization and WTO.

4.2.2. The use of voice

Table 7. Number and percentage of passive and active sentences used in the text

Voice	Time appeared	Percentage (%)
Passive	8	7 %
Active	106	93%
Total	114 sentences	100%

In terms of voice, only 8 passive sentences accounting for 7 % are found in comparison with 106 active sentences accounting for 93% among 114 sentences. The use of high percentage of active sentences can be a good explanation for his ideology when delivering this speech. The active sentences make the meaning of the speech clearly stated so that what the speaker wants to covey to his audience can easily access the mind of the audience. Obviously, it is a good way to avoid misunderstanding and ambiguity for his audience.

The use of active sentences supports the fact that WTO plays an active role in assisting people to cope with the difficulties and constraints like in the following examples:

We need to make the case for freedom, economic, political, and social, again and again: (Lines 80-81)

The World Trade Organization, and its predecessor the GATT, has played an important role in creating this more open and prosperous world: (Lines 107-108)

Only 8 sentences are used in passive voice but contributing much in conveying the speaker's ideology:

National champions were discarded in favour of international competition. Industries were privatised and markets deregulated. Capital controls were abolished. Foreign investment was welcomed with open arms. These policies were copied not only in other industrialised countries, but also in many developing ones, and then, after the collapse of communism, in ex-communist ones. (Lines 19-24)

By using passive voice in these clauses Director-General Mike Moore attracts the attention of the audience about the achievements thanks to the renovation.

4.2.3. Moods of the sentences

Three kinds of moods – declarative, imperative and grammatical questions are all found on this speech. According to Fairclough (2001) '*these three modes positions subjects differently. In the case of a typical declarative, the subject position, the subject position of the speaker/writer is that of a giver (of information), and the addresser's position is that of a receiver. In the case of the imperative, the speaker/writer is in the position of asking something of the addressee, while the addressee is a compliant actor. In a grammatical question, the speaker/writer is again asking something of the addressee, in this case information, and the addressee is in the position of a provider of information'*.

Accounting for 99% of the speech, declaratives help us recognize that the speech focuses on giving information. With declarative the speaker wants to confirm that it is him who has the right to include or exclude in giving such information and the addressee's position is that of the receiver.

In this speech only one clause is employed in imperative mood '*Just compare the protectionist nightmare of the 1930s with the long boom in America and Europe in the 1950s and 1960s*' (Lines 83-85) in comparison with other clauses employing declarative mood helps us know that all the speaker wants to emphasize is the importance and the benefits that globalization brings to.

Only one question found in this speech is in the title of the speech '*the Backlash against Globalization?*' The explanation for this phenomenon is the discourse type as in a discourse of giving a speech, questions may not be abundantly found because of less chance of getting feedback. Moreover, questions (if any) may fall to rhetorical types. The question of this speech helps to uncover the ideology of the speaker because beginning the speech with a question mark, the speaker seems to help people to find out the answer. In fact, the speaker himself gives the answer by his speech.

4.2.4. Modality

Modality is to do with speaker or writer authority, and there are two dimensions to modality: relational and expressive. By relational modality, we mean it is a matter of the authority of one participant in relations to others; it is the matter of the speaker or writer's authority with respect to the truth or probability of a representation of reality.

The use of ***must*** conveys General-Director Mike Moore's power, his authoritative position; and the power, that authoritative position them, are exerted on the audience the addressee is required to perform the action he asks them to do.

But we must not allow the zealots and self-serving privileged people to discredit liberalism among the wider public. (Lines 78-80)

We must embrace the outside world. (Lines 82-83)

We must ensure that they receive help to adjust. (Lines 62-63)

It is their responsibility is to help the people who '*lose from change, and many more fear they might lose*' some groups of the audience that the rich will help them to adjust.

We need to connect better and be more accountable to our owners, governments, and work closer with legislators. (Lines 6-7)

In the context of "The Backlash against Globalization" *We need to make the case for…….. (Line 80)*

Need in these sentences is used as an ordinary verb equivalent to ***have to*** is a way of telling them what is necessary in the situation.

Of course, we need to put our case better. We also have to listen to our critics more. (Lines 142-143)

The use of ***should*** is also found in this speech conveying the obligation meaning in the following sentences:

They should not attack companies that made big profit. (Lines 53-54)

But we should also remember that a century ago, people fretted at the massive shift off the land and into the factories, but that people nowadays are much richer thanks to the Industrial Revolution. (Lines 63-65)

Director-General Mike Moore wants to remind the audience that many people benefit from globalization: If the WTO did not exist, people would be crying out for a forum where governments could negotiate rules, ratified by national parliaments, which promote freer trade and provide a transparent and predictable framework for business. And they would be crying out for a mechanism that helps governments avoid coming to blows over trade disputes. (Lines 134-138)

The use of ***would*** in the conditional sentence type describes the unreal things to confirm that the establishment of WTO is obvious during the process of globalization.

4.2.5. Connectives values of the text

Fairclough (2001) shows that connective values are the values formal features have in connecting together parts of texts. It is to do with the relationship between texts and contexts. Formal items with connective value have other values at the same time.

Cohesion can involve vocabulary links between sentences-repetition of words, or the use of related words and connectors which mark various temporal, spatial and logical relationships between sentences.

Repetition

The words and phrases repeated in the speech help us recognize the speaker's ideology. Here are some most important words and phrases that appear with high degree of frequency in the speech:

Globalization (lines 28, 30, 38, 56, 70, 74, 77, 95, 102)

WTO (lines 37, 43, 77, 107, 130, 133, 134, 139)

Liberalization (lines 14, 118)

Liberalism (Lines 78, 80)

Openness (Lines 83, 86, 97)

The focus on '***globalization***' is clearly found in different contexts with the hope that the globalization is an inevitable process in modern time and it is globalization that brings a lot of benefits to all countries, communities and people.

Along with globalization is ***WTO*** so the repetition of ***WTO*** makes people form the concept of an organization as well as its significant role in helping all the countries, communities and people coping with the difficulties happening in the process of globalization.

Connectors

Fairclough (2001:109) stated that logical connectors '*can cue the ideology assumption*' so in this part we will analyze the connectors used in the speech to discover how they cue the ideology of Director-General Mike Moore.

In terms of connectors, the most common case of connectors observed in this text is the use of connector '*but*' like in the following examples:

Industrialised countries made their currencies convertible and freed up trade among them, but governments maintained a tight grip on capital flows and continued to intervene in the domestic economy. But in the 1980s things changed. (Lines 15-17)

Director-General Mike Moore draws two pictures of the world through different periods so the audience can compare and come to their own conclusion that the world has achieved the advancements thanks to the fact that '*In rich countries such as the United States, Britain and my own country, New Zealand, governments embraced liberal ideas.*' *(Lines 18-19)*

Director-General Mike Moore lists all the changes caused by 'liberal ideas' like 'National champions were discarded in favour of international competition. Industries were privatised and markets deregulated. Capital controls were abolished. Foreign investment was welcomed with open arms. '(Lines 19-22)

The rest of the speech serves the purpose that a lot of achievements can be made thanks to globalization.

He is aware of the fact that 'But there has been a backlash against liberalism.' (Lines 46)

Globalization is not new, but it is more pervasive than before. (Lines 56-57)

Throughout the past century, new technologies have continuously caused upheaval. But now in our media age, people are constantly confronted with change that they would otherwise not be aware of. This helps opportunistic populists whip up fears of change. (Lines 58-61)

Of course, some people lose from change, and many more fear they might lose. We must ensure that they receive help to adjust. But we should also remember that a century ago, people fretted at the massive shift off the land and into the factories, but that people nowadays are much richer thanks to the Industrial Revolution. (Lines 61-65)

But the benefits of openness are not only economic.' (Line 86)

Connector can also be found in sentence with '*yet*'

The WTO is a powerful force for good in the world. Yet we are too often misunderstood, sometimes genuinely, often willfully. (Lines 130-131)

The connector '*yet*' expressing the contrasting idea is used to link two sentences so what the speaker wants to imply is that despite working for the world WTO is often misunderstood and it is not fair if people often blame WTO as the cause of poverty. It is the reason why he raises the awareness of people of WTO's role and the benefits it brings.

4.3. Analysis in terms of Transitivity

The speech is divided into 191 simple clauses. The participants and process types will be presented in the appendix.

Table 8. Summary of transitivity analysis data

Types of process	No appeared	Percentage (%)
Material	103	53.9%
Relational	58	30.4%
Mental	21	11%
Existential	4	3.7%
Behavior	0	0%
Verbal	2	1.4%

In terms of transitivity material process – the process of doing and narrating things accounts for the largest percentage: 53.9%. Looking at these clauses of material process helps us arrive some interesting findings. The high percentage of material process indicates that the speaker's aim is to describe the actions and events. As mentioned before, supporters of globalization point to its huge capacity for wealth creation, assuming that while some may gain more than others, all will gain to some extent. People who benefit from this process seek to extend it. In this speech Director-General Mike Moore places an emphasis on the benefits of globalization as well of establishing and accessing WTO.

This has helped to multiply world output by seven. This huge rise in living standards has allowed nearly everyone to enjoy the luxuries that were previously enjoyed only by the few. (Lines 110-112)

Even in poor countries, people live longer, eat better, and have more access to clean water than they did 50 years ago. GDP per head in less developed countries has trebled since 1950, life expectancy has risen by over 20 years, and adult literacy rates have increased by over 30 percentage points. (Lines 113-117)

It helps pay for the things we value most: jobs, health, education, a cleaner environment. And it promotes freedom and buttresses our security and peace. (Lines 124-126)

4.4. Analysis in terms of Thematization

Table 9. Summary of thematic analysis

Type of theme	Times appeared	Percentage (%)
Topical	112	70.4%
Textual	40	25.2%
Interpersonal	7	4.4%
Total	159	100%

	Times appeared	Percentage (%)
Marked	54	34%
Unmarked	105	66%
Total	159	100%

Types of topical themes	Times appeared	Percentage (%)
Marked topical themes	8	7.14%
Unmarked topical theme	104	92.9%
Total	112	100%

From these above tables, it is easily seen that topical themes and unmarked type account for a high percentage of the total themes in the speech. The topical themes create the focus on the 'backlash' and 'globalization'.

Table 10. Summary of topical themes

Backlash	Globalization
Worries	*The world economy*
The setback	*Openness*
There	*the benefits of openness*
The traditional calls	*Open societies*
many people	*Opening up*
Another strand	*Openness*
the biggest challenge	*The World Trade Organization*
Some people	*This huge rise*
The problem	*Free trade*
Those people	*The WTO*

33.96% marked themes falling into the category of temporal adverbials help the speaker to focus on the specific time of the events.

The speech also observes the little use of interpersonal themes (4.4%) in comparison with topical (70.4%) and textual ones (25.2%). The answer to this phenomenon is the type of discourse and the speaker's ideology. The type of discourse is giving a speech so there is hardly any interaction between the speaker and his audience. The speaker's ideology plays a more important role in finding out the answer to this matter in the sense that the speaker aims to keep a distance from the audience and it helps to reinforce his authoritativeness.

4.5. Analysis in terms of the macro-structure of the text

If the previous parts of this study try to uncover the speaker's ideology hidden behind words from the microstructure perspective by breaking the speech into small units like vocabulary, grammar, cohesive devices, and grammatical features, this part will look at the macro-structure of the text to understand communicative purposes of the speaker.

Globalization itself is a controversial issue of many debates. Whenever WTO holds talks there have been a lot of demonstrations. The speaker tries to arrange the ideas so that both sides of the issues are examined and come to a conclusion in which the writer weighs the pros and cons of each side.

The speech begins with the title '*The Backlash against Globalization*?' so the macro-structure of the text serves the speaker's ideology by its *anti-thesis organization*.

Director-General Mike Moore starts the speech with the picture of the world in the past, the situations we were in over 20 years ago.

At first, the pace of economic liberalization was slow and its scope limited. Industrialised countries made their currencies convertible and freed up trade among them, but governments maintained a tight grip on capital flows and continued to intervene heavily in the domestic economy. (Lines 14-17)

But in the 1980s things changed.

After this point of time the world saw a lot of differences in different fields in society:

In rich countries such as the United States, Britain and my own country, New Zealand, governments embraced liberal ideas. National champions were discarded in favour of international competition. Industries were privatised and markets deregulated. Capital controls were abolished. Foreign investment was welcomed with open arms. (Lines 18-22)

In that context, the term 'globalization' appeared to describe this process as the inevitable result.

'But there has been a backlash against liberalism.' (Lines 46)

Following this statement is the evidence *'For a start, statist urges are alive and well. The traditional calls for intervention to "save" jobs or redistribute wealth still strike a* *chord. Moreover, many people dislike the fact that seemingly impersonal market forces hold sway over their lives, even though markets in fact reflect the combined preferences of millions of ordinary people. And there is a widespread distrust of the profit motive, as if making losses was preferable.' (Lines 46-51).*

From that point, the speaker develops the speech in anti-thesis organization.

Another strand is people's fear of change. Globalization is not new, but it is more pervasive than before. A century ago, for instance, there was more cross-border migration than there is now. Throughout the past century, new technologies have continuously caused upheaval. (Lines 54-57)

But now in our media age, people are constantly confronted with change that they would otherwise not be aware of. (Lines 57-58)

or

Of course, some people lose from change, and many more fear they might lose. We must ensure that they receive help to adjust. (Lines 59-60)

But we should also remember that a century ago, people fretted at the massive shift off the land and into the factories, but that people nowadays are much richer thanks to the Industrial Revolution. (Lines 61-63)

or

We shall never convince such zealots of the case for economic liberalism. (Line 76)

But we must not allow the zealots and self-serving privileged people to discredit liberalism among the wider public. (Lines 76-78)

or

When South Korea's economy seized up, workers in Korean factories in Britain lost their jobs. Undeniably, this causes pain. (Lines 98-99)

But people tend to forget that, thanks to globalization, good times in the rest of the world spill over to us too. (99-100)

or

Of course, some people do lose in the short run from trade liberalization. Some are fat cats grown rich from cosy deals with governments. (Lines 114-115)

But others are poor farmers who lose their subsidies or unskilled workers who lose their jobs. (Lines 115-116)

or

Their plight should not be forgotten. (Lines 116-117)

But the right way to alleviate the hardship of the unlucky few is through social safety nets and job retraining rather than by abandoning reforms that benefit the many. (Lines 117-119)

After examining two sides of the problem, the speaker comes to a conclusion that

People do not want a world government, and we do not aspire to be one. At the WTO, governments decide, not us. (Lines 128-129)

But people do want global rules. If the WTO did not exist, people would be crying out for a forum where governments could negotiate rules, ratified by national parliaments, that promote freer trade and provide a transparent and predictable framework for business. And they would be crying out for a mechanism that helps governments avoid coming to blows over trade disputes. That is what the WTO is. (Lines 130- 134)

The conclusion reflects the ideology hidden in the speech when the speaker confirms the necessity of an organization like WTO.

5. Conclusion

Based on the analysis of this speech we can come to the following conclusions:

In terms of vocabulary, the discourse has a clear classification scheme which is presented by the bright side of globalization in contrast with the dark side of the whole world before globalization.

In terms of grammatical features, the power and ideology of the speaker can also be uncovered. Thanks to the use of personal pronoun we the speaker would like to create solidarity among people but not forget to shirk personal responsibility with the use of personal pronoun *I*. Based on the use of mood and voice the speaker exerts his power over others in an indirect way.

The high percentage of material process in transitivity and topical theme in thematization serve the speaker's aim of describing actions and events.

From the macro-structure the ideology of the speaker can also be seen clearly with the anti-thesis organization of the speech. The development of the discourse is organized in the structure of pros and cons of the matter.

In brief, the speech is a tool for Director-General Mike Moore to express his power and ideology in the sense that he is in higher position and confirms that globalization is inevitable and the establishment of WTO is a product of this process helping countries, communities and people face the problems and challenges.

The application of the results of CDA research is important, as an underlying aim of CDA is to produce enlightenment and emancipation for those less powerful in society.

What is the relationship between the process of globalization and the discourse of globalization? This question takes us to an important issue the relationship of language and power in the contemporary world.

The establishment of WTO is a product of globalization and also a contribution to push up this process. To understand it, we need to refer to the nature of the power relations embodied by the whole world context of globalization. The owners of these organizations are powerful and rich countries benefiting a lot from the process of globalization try to strengthen their power and position. The speaker also emphasizes the role of WTO like helping people have better understanding, raising the awareness of the people of the globalization and the role of WTO.

All can be done by the use of language in the speech. In other words, language is used to serve the purpose of some groups of people conveying their ideology.

References

Vietnamese

Nguyễn Hòa (2003). Phân tích diễn ngôn - một số vấn đề lý luận và phương pháp. Hà Nội: NXB Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội.

More, M. (2000). The Backlash against Globalization. Retrieved from http://www.wto/english/news_e/spmm_e/spmm39_e.htm.

English

Brown, J.D. & Rodgers, T.S. (2002) *Doing Second Language Research*. China: OUP

Chouliaraki L. & Fairclough, N. (1999) *Discourse in Late Modernity: Rethinking Critical Discourse Analysis*. Edinburgh University Press, Edinburgh

Fairclough, N. (2001) *Language and Power* (second edition). Harlow: Longman

Fairclough, N. (1995) *Critical Discourse Analysis: The Critical Study of Language*. London: Longman

Faircough, N. and Wodak, R. (1997) 'Critical Discourse Analysis', in T. van Dijk (ed.), *Discourse Studies: A Multidisciplinary Introduction*. Volume 2. London: Sage, pp 258-84

Halliday, M.A.K. (1994) *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Edward Arnold

Halliday, M.A.K. & Hasan R. (1976) *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman

Huynh, A.T (2017) Voices against socio-political inequality in Critical Discourse Analysis. *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies*, *33*(3), 146-156.

Nguyen Thi Thu Ha (2004), *A Critical Discourse Analysis of President Bush's Ultimatum to President Saddam Hussein*, Unpublished M.A. Thesis, VNU-CFL.Hanoi

Nunan, D. (1992) *Research Methods in Language Learning*. UK: CUP

Rogers, R. (2002) *An Introduction to Critical Discourse Analysis in Education.* London, Mahawah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers

Wodak, R. and Meyer, M. (2001) *Methods of Critical Discourse*

Weiss, G. & Woward, R. (2003) *Critical Discourse Analysis: Theory and Disciplinary*. Palgrave: Macmillan

NGÔN NGỮ VÀ QUYỀN LỰC TRONG BÀI PHÁT BIỂU CỦA TỔNG GIÁM ĐỐC TỔ CHỨC THƯƠNG MẠI THẾ GIỚI – PHÂN TÍCH DIỄN NGÔN PHÊ PHÁN

Đặng Thị Mai Nga

Trường Đại học Hải Phòng,
Số 171 Phan Đăng Lưu, Kiến An, Hải Phòng, Việt Nam

Tóm tắt: Bài viết này xem xét mối quan hệ giữa hệ tư tưởng và quyền lực dựa trên bài phát biểu của Tổng Giám đốc Tổ chức Thương mại Thế giới Mike More theo đường hướng phân tích diễn ngôn phê phán. Trước tiên, bài viết xem xét tầm quan trọng của Ngữ pháp chức năng hệ thống với phân tích diễn ngôn phê phán. Phần tiếp theo, bài viết cung cấp cho người đọc bối cảnh xã hội của toàn cầu hóa và phân tích bài phát biểu theo quan điểm của phân tích diễn ngôn phê phán. Kết quả phân tích làm rõ bài phát biểu được sử dụng như một công cụ để Tổng Giám đốc Mike More thể hiện quyền lực và hệ tư tưởng của mình. Theo đó, Tổng Giám đốc Mike More ở vị thế cao hơn và khẳng định toàn cầu hóa là tất yếu và việc thành lập tổ chức thương mại thế giới chính là sản phẩm của quá trình này nhằm giúp các đất nước, cộng đồng và mọi người đối diện với những khó khăn và thách thức.

Từ khóa: phân tích diễn ngôn phê phán, ngôn ngữ, hệ tư tưởng, quyền lực và ngữ pháp chức năng hệ thống.

TEACHER CHARACTERISTICS: WHAT DO EFL PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS EXPECT?

Dinh Thu Hien*

Faculty of English Language Teacher Education,
VNU University of Languages and International Studies,
Pham Van Dong, Cau Giay, Ha Noi, Vietnam

Received 13 September 2019
Revised 14 December 2019; Accepted 24 December 2019

Abstract: Desirable characteristics of TEFL (Teacher of English as a Foreign Language) have recently presented a major concern for researchers, particularly in the realm of teacher education. However, no matter how large the number of research projects conducted in the field is, very few ever investigated the perspective of pre-service teachers. This mixed-method research was then conducted to identify characteristics of a good TEFL, as perceived by pre-service teachers. Participants were 117 students at Faculty of English Language Teacher Education (FELTE), University of Languages and International Studies (ULIS), Vietnam National University Hanoi (VNU), who were being trained to be English teachers. Self-report questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were employed to collect quantitative and qualitative data respectively. As indicated by the results, remarkable pedagogical skills and excellent content knowledge are highly expected for TEFL. Further qualitative analysis shows that this ideal image stems from pre-service teachers' conception of TEFL' roles as transmitters of knowledge, and that teaching is considered a profession with certain sets of expertise required. Overall, the research has demonstrated FELTE pre-service teachers' expectations of teacher qualities, which to some extent, also revealed their didactic beliefs. These findings are hoped to offer implications for both student teachers and trainers working in EFL teacher education.

Keywords: teacher characteristics, TEFL, good teacher, pre-service teachers, teacher education

1. Introduction

Desirable characteristics of teachers have long been discussed by scholars, especially in the field of teacher education (Brosh, 1996). The primary reason why criteria of a good teacher attract such a great interest may stem from teachers' pivotal role in education system (Miron, 2006). Their professional effectiveness has a great impact on not only teaching but also learning efficiency. As a result, it is critical that ideal attributes of teachers be duplicated among teacher community in an effort to improve teaching quality. Moreover, with desirable qualities of teachers being identified, teacher education colleges can better select candidates that suit the profession and prepare pre-service teachers for teaching career.

Recently in Vietnam, under the context of globalization, English has been placed in an increasingly important position in the educational system and the need for enhancing the quality of teaching this subject has become more pressing. In 2008, with the decision No 1400/QD-TTg of the Prime Minister, Vietnam's National Foreign Language 2020

* Tel.: 84-854569577
Email: hiendt.ulis@gmail.com

Project has been approved with the aim of improving foreign language teaching and learning for the period 2008 – 2020. Based on the assumption that teaching staff play the key role in achieving this goal, increasing the number of qualified teachers has been a central focus of the project. As part of the 2020 project, a detailed description of professional competencies for in-service TEFL, known as English Teacher Competence Framework (ETCF) has been issued by the Ministry of Education and Training. The framework is assumed to act as a useful guideline for foreign language teacher education institutions in developing teacher training projects. In fact, this attempt of providing a framework of teacher competences is basically to answer the question: What do we expect of a teacher? What are desirable characteristics of a foreign language teacher?

Regarding research conducted in this field, most of them focus on the perception of teachers and students towards the ideal traits of TEFL (Brosh, 1996; Shishavan & Sadeghi, 2009; Al-Mahrooqi, Denman, Al-Siyabi, & Al-Maamari, 2015; Zamani, & Ahangari, 2016; Hung, 2017). Little attention, however, has been paid to pre-service teachers, the main subject of teacher development process. In other words, their voice in the field seems to be neglected, even though the exploration of pre-service teachers' pedagogical beliefs, as suggested by Bullough and Baughman (1997, as cited in Le, 2013), should be the start of any teacher education program. Alterations to the behaviors of prospective teachers can only be made based on the cognizance of their prevailing perceptions and underlying assumptions.

The aim of the researcher, consequently, is to uncover pre-service teachers' present beliefs about teaching profession, the role of TEFL, and their expectations as future teachers. The fulfillment of this purpose is hoped to be reflected through an investigation into one of the most noticeable matters in teacher education, characteristics of a good teacher. By examining pre-service teachers' expectations of a good TEFL, the researcher expects to fill in the research gap and help improve English Teacher Education in Vietnam. Following is the question that guides the research: ***What are desirable characteristics of a TEFL, as perceived by pre-service teachers in FELTE, ULIS?***

2. Literature Review

Numerous studies worldwide have tried to decipher the distinctive traits of TEFL. Most of them investigate the matter from the angle of students, practicing teachers and pre-service teachers.

Characteristics of a good TEFL as perceived by students

Park and Lee (2006), in a study carried out in Korea, investigated the perceptions of high school students about an effective English teacher. Among three categories describing qualities of TEFL, pedagogical knowledge was rated remarkably higher than English proficiency and socio-affective skills (the ability to create relationship with students).

Also exploring the same topic, Chen and Lin (2009), surprisingly, did not confirm what was found by Park and Lee (2006). In fact, it was indicated that Chinese high school pupils favored teacher's personality and teacher-student relationship rather than instructional competence. Being enthusiastic, friendly, open-minded, respectful and caring about students were the most important characteristics of a good teacher.

Unlike the above-mentioned studies, which employed questionnaires as the single tool of research, Tran (2015) examined Vietnamese students' perceptions of an effective TEFL using both interviews and a questionnaire. Accordingly, English competence, teaching ability and socio-affective skills were mentioned as the most important qualities of English teachers respectively. In addition, teachers' knowledge of Western and Vietnamese cultures, their application of technology in teaching and professional behaviors in class were expected as well.

As can be seen, some attempts have been made to determine featured qualities of eminent TEFLs; nonetheless, much of the research to date has been descriptive in nature and revealed a wide divergence in findings.

Characteristics of a good TEFL as perceived by teachers

The opinion of foreign language teachers as to attributes of effective professionals was first reported by Brosh (1996). Accordingly, FL teachers accentuate the importance of subject knowledge, teaching skills and behaviors towards students. In terms of the knowledge, teachers should showcase proficiency in the target language, ideally when compared with native speakers. Also, they are regarded "representatives" of the target language community (p. 132). With respect to the instructional skills, effective FL teachers are supposed to excel at organizing, explaining, and sparking interest among learners. Last but not least, they should treat students fairly and be available for assistance. However, the findings might have been far more useful if the author had categorized characteristics systematically.

The work of Mullock (2003) improved this weakness when he categorised the characteristics of TEFL as perceived by novice and experienced TESOL teachers into five qualities. Firstly, *pedagogical content knowledge and skills* mention the ability to transform content knowledge to learners in a captivating and comprehensible way. Secondly, *attitudes and behaviors towards students* are interpreted as "developing a personal and working relationship with students to maximize student learning, showing empathy" (p. 12). *Teacher's personal characteristics and attitudes* refer to such characteristics as sense of humor, open mind, responsibility, and enthusiasm about teaching. Fourthly important, *content knowledge* includes the mastery of subject matter, target language culture, and near-native English proficiency. Lastly, a good English teacher with *broader educational goals and skills* "helps students form a good personality, provides a good moral example, opens students' eyes to the outside world, stretches and challenges students, doesn't emphasize exam results" (p. 13). These results support the idea of prior research that content knowledge, teaching skills and teachers' behaviors constitute an expert teacher. Moreover, personalities and broader educational goals are complemented. Interestingly, this cross-culture study also reveals that cultural origin may be embedded in EFL teachers' beliefs and Vietnamese teachers highly valued teachers as moral guides.

The study of Mullock (2003) has provided a comprehensive frame to evaluate TEFLs based on five categories, which regards teachers not only as professionals but also as human beings with personal characteristics. It has laid the foundation for the questionnaire design of this paper.

Characteristics of a good TEFL as perceived by pre-service teachers

Among a number of scholars inspecting qualities of effective TEFL, Borg (2006) may be one of the rare researchers examine this area from the standpoint of pre-service teachers. Among five groups of participants in his project, the last two are prospective teachers of English from Hungary and Slovenia. The findings from these groups unearth distinctive characteristics of TEFL as specified: using a wide range of teaching methods; being knowledgeable about language, culture, and general topics in life; exercising "communication-related skills"; remaining up-to-date with the language; forging a close, relaxing and positive relationship with students; explaining things in the foreign language understandably; and possessing unique personalities (creative, humorous, flexible, "actor" type, motivating, enthusiastic, communicate freely and radiate positive feeling) (pp. 20-23). Notwithstanding the valuable findings this study may contribute to the current research, an obvious shortcoming is that pre-service teachers are not the main focus of this work, not to mention the limited qualitative data given to clarify those results.

Apparently, the exploration of literature review has exhibited an urgent need for research body associated with EFL pre-service teacher's perceptions of teacher qualities. The researcher was encouraged to further scrutinize this matter as a consequence.

3. Methodology

Research design

Explanatory Sequential Strategy, as a typical type of mix method design, was chosen for this research. The whole procedure consisted of two separate interactive stages, with the qualitative data collection built directly on the quantitative results (Creswell, 2014). Using in-depth qualitative data to interpret significant and unexpected findings from the quantitative phase, the design was expected to provide the researcher with a satisfying explanation for participants' responses.

Participants and Sampling

The population of this research was third year and fourth year students from FELTE, ULIS, VNU. Since these students were being trained to be future EFL teachers, they could be treated as pre-service teachers. Moreover, unlike freshmen and sophomores who merely attended classes of General Elective Subjects, third year and fourth years students were supposed to take directly major-related subjects, and have largely hands-on experience. This would potentially provide them with broader pedagogical knowledge and a stronger sense of teacher identity.

For the quantitative stage, the selection of participants was based on the principle of cluster sampling. Initially, each class of 14E1, 14E2, 14E3, 14E4, 14E5, 14E6, 14E7, 14E8, 15E1, 15E2, 15E3, 15E4, 15E5, 15E6, 15E7, 15E8, 15E9 in FELTE, ULIS was numbered. For the next step, the researcher utilized the website random.org to randomly choose 10 classes, whose students were invited as participants of the research.

For the qualitative stage, participants were purposefully selected based on results of the first phase analysis. Significant and unexpected findings were summarised in the following table:

Table 1. Significant and unexpected quantitave findings

Significant findings	Finding 1 (Quality 1; ranked the 2nd highest) Finding 2 (Quality 2; ranked the highest) Finding 3 (Quality 4; ranked the lowest)
Unexpected findings	Finding 4 (Characteristic 11; mean score <4) Finding 5 (Characteristic 12; mean score <4) Finding 6 (Characteristic 23; mean score <4) Finding 7 (Characteristic 28; mean score <4) Finding 8 (Characteristic 32; mean score <4)

To obtain qualified candidates for the interview, the researcher utilized criterion-based sampling strategy, which, as stated by Creswell (2007, as cited in Turner, 2010), could increase the chances of gaining credible information. Accordingly, participants whose responses match all of the predetermined criteria would be listed as desirable interviewees. In this case, 5 participants selected were the ones with answers in the questionnaire satisfying all of the selection criteria:

Table 2. Interviewee selection criteria

Criterion	Description
1	Rank quality 1 as the second most important (match finding 1)
2	Rank quality 2 as the most important (match finding 2)
3	Rank quality 4 as the least important (match finding 3)
4	Rank characteristics 11, 12, 23, 28, 32 as not important (match finding 4 to finding 8)

Data collection

Instrument

Self-report questionnaire and semi-structured interview were respectively employed as the tools for data collection in quantitative and qualitative phases.

Procedure

Quantitative phase

Firstly, the questionnaire was developed by the researcher with extensive reference to the study of Park and Lee (2006) and Mullock (2003). To increase the reliability of questionnaire, the researcher consulted an expert for comments about items in the first draft. After that, it was revised to the second draft before being delivered to 6 students of class 14E1 for piloting purpose. Based on the mentor's feedback and 14E1 students' responses, a final version of the questionnaire was produced. For the next step, questionnaires were delivered to participants via both online and offline channels, depending on the accessibility to participant groups. 117 questionnaires with responses were returned.

Qualitative phase

Unpredictable findings revealed by participants' answers motivated the researcher to carry out further exploration via semi-structured interviews. Initially, an interview question list was designed based on questionnaire analysis. Next, the researcher contacted 5 participants for the interview. Paper notes, pens, a list of questions, participants' questionnaire, and an electronic recorder were prepared before the interview. The researcher conducted the interviews in 7 steps as suggested by McNamara (2009, as cited in Turner, 2010, p. 757): "(1) choose a setting with little distraction; (2) explain the purpose of the interview, (3) address terms of confidentiality, (4) explain the format of the interview, (5) indicate how long the interview usually takes, (6) tell the interviewees how to get in touch with the interviewer later if they want to, and (7) ask if the interviewee had any question before the interview".

Data analysis

Instrument

Statistical approach was adopted to measure the central tendency of answers. The mean score for each item was calculated. To deal with the data collected from interviews, content analysis was exploited. The dense amount of spoken data was organized into codes so that it could further explain the quantitative findings.

Procedure

Regarding the data from questionnaire, the researcher carefully examined all the questionnaires to guarantee that they were valid and understandable. Then, the number of responses for each item in the questionnaire was counted. These figures were subsequently imported into Excel file and illustrated as tables and charts for preliminary analysis. Concerning the qualitative data, all interviews were converted into text form before data was categorized into codes corresponding with the 8 findings listed in table 1. The information was then used to elucidate the results from quantitative stage.

4. Results and Discussion

Characteristics of a good TEFL as perceived by pre-service teachers

A ranking question was used to evaluate teacher qualities in order of importance. Following is the chart demonstrating the preferences of student teachers in 5 categories: (1) Subject content knowledge, (2) Pedagogical knowledge and skills, (3) Behaviors and attitudes towards students, (4) Personal characteristics and attitudes, and finally, (5) Broader educational goals and skills.

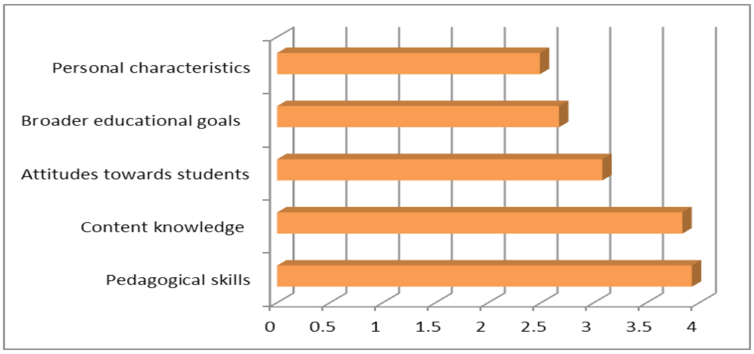


Figure 1. The importance of teacher qualities as ranked by pre-service teachers

As shown in Figure 1, the two most expected qualities of a TEFL are Pedagogical skills and Content knowledge, which have the mean score of 3.93 and 3.83 respectively. The quality with the lowest score (2.49), Personality, implies the fact that teacher's personal characteristic is the least significant element. Taking the third and the fourth positions are Attitudes towards students (3.08) and Broader educational goals (2.67).

Although this finding does not support the result in Mullock (2003), it corroborates the ideas of Tran (2015), who suggests that English competence, teaching skills and socio-affective skills are the most referred features when it comes to an ideal Vietnamese teacher of English. The finding is also in agreement with the conclusion of Hung (2017), as secondary school English teacher in Hanoi are found to emphasize the importance of subject knowledge and teaching methodologies to a good teacher. Reasons for the choices of pre-service teachers will be elaborately discussed in the next parts, after the qualitative data is analyzed.

Content knowledge – a prerequisite of a good TEFL

Table 3. Mean score for characteristics of a good TEFL in terms of content knowledge

Category	Characteristics	Mean score
Content knowledge	1. understands spoken English well	4.46
	2. reads English well	4.49
	3. writes English well	4.48
	4. speaks English well	4.56
	5. is knowledgeable of English subject matter	4.30
	6. is aware of English-speaking countries' culture	4.07

Six items on the questionnaire measures the extent to which Content knowledge contributes to the formation of a good TEFL. All items receive over 4 out of 5 in mean score, reporting a highly positive evaluation. Particularly, the strong preference for speaking and reading competence reported in the current research is consistent with the findings of Park and Lee (2006), who discovered that these two skills were the highest rated out of 8 items in English proficiency category.

The strong endorsement of Subject knowledge in general can be justified by the fact that participants regard TEF as preliminarily a language transmitter. According to an interviewee, to accomplish their role as teachers, it is indispensable that they be good at what they teach. Also by this participant, the core value of a teacher is to transmit the knowledge; thus, the teacher should have such a good command of knowledge that they can convey it to the learners correctly (Interviewee 5, personal communication, April 3, 2018). In another interview, the participant adopted the standpoint that teachers are knowledge providers. Moreover, they should be available to deal with students' questions regarding linguistic knowledge; therefore, Subject content knowledge is regarded essential to a TEFL (Interviewee 4, April 3, 2018).

To recap, what student teachers emphasize in the role of a TEFL is the ability to communicate effectively in English, which can be explained by their considering TEFL as a transmitter of knowledge.

Pedagogical skills - the most desirable EFL teacher qualities

From the perspective of FELTE students, teaching skill is the most predominant aspect of a TEFL. The majority of characteristics belonging to this category are ranked very high by the participants. 4 out of 5 interviewees take the view that teachers are the knowledge conveyors; therefore, they should possess successful instructional skills to transmit the knowledge comprehensibly and interestingly to students.

With the hope of making comparison between the significance of specific pedagogical skills in constituting an expert teacher, the researcher used a simple statistical analysis. The results obtained through the quantitative stage are presented in Table 4 as below.

Table 4. Mean score for characteristics of a good TEFL in terms of pedagogical skills

Category	Characteristics	Mean score
Pedagogical knowledge and skills	7. prepares the lesson well	4.44
	8. gives clear instruction	4.61
	9. adjusts English input to match students' proficiency level	4.68
	10. varies teaching methods to suit different learning styles	4.42

Category	Characteristics	Mean score
	11. applies Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) in teaching	3.68
	12.practices a learner-centered approach	3.88
	13. employs classroom management skills effectively	4.27
	14. involves students in various activities (group/pair work, drama, role-play, …)	4.11
	15. conducts valid assessment	4.38
	16. gives useful feedback for learning improvement	4.65
	17. caters for learners' needs	4.17

From the table above, among all the teaching sub-skills, adjusting language inputs to suit students well, giving constructive feedback and clear instructions are the three most favored features. In fact, these findings can be anticipated with reference to Borg (2003), who implies that unexpected behaviors of students in class (e.g., non-comprehension) foster a prevalent belief among pre-service teachers that they should assure students' understanding by managing language instructions. However, the most striking result to emerge from the data is student teachers' neutral attitude towards the manipulation of ICT and learner-centered approach.

Regarding the incorporation of ICT, it has been pre-assumed to bring many advantages to the 21st century foreign language education. Furthermore, *ICT in teaching and learning English* is also a compulsory subject covered in the curriculum of Teacher Education Program in ULIS. Therefore, it seems surprising to the researcher when this skill is not fully appreciated by the student teachers. The data collated from in-person interviews has revealed some underlying roots for their option. The primary reason is that student teachers do not strongly believe in the clear-cut benefits of ICT. 2 out of 4 participants reported that although their previous language teachers did not employ ICT in teaching, those teachers could complete their tasks. In addition, since the participants did not have much exposure to an ICT-oriented environment as learners of language, it might be challenging for them to evaluate the effectiveness of its application. The secondary cause for the low rank is that pre-service teachers have difficulties integrating ICT in their classroom. As claimed by an interviewee, the usage of ICT is time-consuming and interrupting, especially in the case of malfunction. Consequently, the pressure of using ICT frequently might impose a "burden" to this teacher (Interviewee 1, April 3, 2018).

Learner-centered approach can be considered a distinctive trait of modern English language teaching. As a result, that not many participants show strong advocacy for this method presents a demand for further investigation. The qualitative data shows that the unpopularity of learner-centered methodology in Vietnam context may explain for student teachers' unawareness of this approach. As stated by interviewee 2, but for her studying about the benefits of learner-centered teaching at college, she would have never been familiar with it. The inactivity of Vietnamese students may be another reason as well. According to interviewee 3, it was fairly hard for the teacher to deploy this methodology in reality when students prefer the passive way of learning, for example, learning by heart all the language structures (interviewee 3, April 3, 2018).

In short, the three most necessary pedagogical skills of a TEFL as perceived by FELTE students are: teaching based on students' ability, giving helpful comments and instructing clearly. On the other hand, the exploitation of ICT and learner-centered approach are less required when taking into account the participants' experience as a learner and as a teacher in the context of Vietnam.

Behaviors towards students – creating working and personal relationships

Characteristics associated with the attitudes and behaviors of English teachers towards students are ranked thirdly important by the participants. The following table summarizes these features with their mean scores.

Table 5. Mean score for the characteristics of a good TEFL in terms of attitudes and behaviors towards students

Category	Characteristics	Mean score
Attitudes and behaviors towards students	18. is available to help students	4.07
	19. shows respect to students	4.48
	20. encourages students' self-confidence in learning English	4.47
	21. treats students fairly	4.43
	22. arouses students' motivation for learning English	4.48
	23. takes a personal interest in each student (e.g. remembering name, strength and weakness of each student)	3.84

As can be seen from data in Table 5, showing respect to learners and strengthening their learning motivation are considerably preferable to other characteristics (both get 4.48 in mean score). This finding supports previous research when decent teaching is supposed to rely on the respect paid to students (Chen & Lin, 2009; Qureshi, 2013) and motivation is argued to play a critical role in second language acquisition (Dornyei, 1998, as cited in Park & Lee, 2006).

Surprisingly, caring for individual learner does not receive a high score. Nevertheless, the reason is not because the participants consider it unimportant; instead, they think it depends on the teaching situation. Specifically, only when the class size is small (under 15 students) can the teacher manage to take care of every single student. In other cases, personal care should be restricted to weak students only (interviewee 4, personal communication, Apr 3, 2018).

To conclude, whereas being inspiring and respectful to students are labeled essential characteristics, catering for individual learner's need is supposed to be heavily dependent on the number of students in classroom.

Personality - a bonus point for a teacher of English

Based on the responses of participants, personal characteristics and attitudes are found to be the most insignificant element of a TEFL. In-depth interviews indicate that participants may regard the quality merely a "bonus" other than a key to impressive teaching (interviewee 4 & interviewee 5, personal communication, Apr 3, 2018). According to an answer, becoming a good teacher relies considerably on training process rather than innate personalities, which accords with the statement of Reynolds (1995, as cited in Brosh, 1996) that teaching is "a job that can be learned; one need not be 'born' a teacher in order to teach effectively" (p. 200). Because most of the interviewees hold the firm belief that a teacher is principally accountable for knowledge delivery, what they teach is more important than what kind of people they are. To better compare the necessity of different personalities to an excellent TEFL, detailed results gained from the analysis are shown in Table 6.

Table 6. Mean score for characteristics of a good EFL teacher in terms of personal characteristics and attitudes

Category	Characteristics	Mean score
Personal characteristics and attitudes	24. caring	3.98
	25. friendly	4.00
	26. patient	4.27
	27. enthusiastic	4.25
	28. humorous	3.76
	29. creative	4.17
	30. open-minded	4.38
	31. behaves professionally (be punctual, well-dressed, …)	4.20

The most significant finding from the data above is that prospective teachers in ULIS highly appreciate an open-minded TEFL (4.38) while paying little attention to his/her sense of humor (3.76).

In fact, keeping an open-minded attitude has been agreed by myriad researchers as a typical trait of good teachers (Mullock, 2003; Chen & Lin, 2009; Qureshi, 2013); therefore, it came as no surprise that participants favored this characteristic. However, it is surprising that a sense of humor is not enthusiastically endorsed by them. As detected from the qualitative data, a humorous teacher is positively welcomed owning to the capability to establish a comfortable and relaxing learning atmosphere. Nevertheless, since not everyone is lucky enough to possess this feature, labeling it an obligatory quality seems unfair. 3 out of 5 students conceded that they were not humorous people; however, they could still satisfactorily perform their role as EFL teachers. Besides, one participant substantiated her perception with the experience that teachers' jokes in the past did not appeal to her as a learner (interviewee 2, personal communication, April 3, 2018).

In conclusion, third year and fourth year students in FELTE, ULIS may consider personal features a bonus rather than fundamental requirement for a TEFL. Among all the given personal traits, being open-minded is specially favored whilst having a good sense of humor is not of pivotal importance. Explanation for this result can be referred to the participants' own personal characteristics in addition to their school experiences.

Broader educational goals – Is it the main responsibility of a teacher?

Broader educational goal is one of the two categories that are ranked the lowest as contributing factors to a good TEFL. The following table helps specify the extent to which each characteristic in this category is rated.

Table 7. Mean score for characteristics of a good EFL teacher in terms of the broader educational goals and skills

Category	Characteristics	Mean score
Broader educational goals and skills	32. provides a good moral example	3.92
	33. helps students form a good personality	4.02
	34. opens students' eyes to the outside world	4.18
	35. inspires students to learn	4.42
	36. helps students become independent learners	4.32

The figure shows that the preference for items in this group of characteristics is widely dispersed. Some goals are classified as very important (inspires students to learn, helps students become independent learners), some, on the other hand, are not that positively evaluated (provides a good moral example, helps students form a good personality).

Concerning the educational goals in which teachers are expected to inspire their students, the same trend has been evident in the findings of Mullock (2003) and Al-Khairi (2015). However, when it comes to the ethic role of teachers, a poignant finding to note is the contradiction between the current and the previous studies. Mullock (2003, p.16) mentions "providing a good moral example" as predominant traits reflected by Asian TESOL teachers, whereas Phan (2008) highlights the central role of being moral educators among Western-trained Vietnamese teachers of English. The finding in this research, however, illustrates a reverse trend when this characteristic receives a relatively low score (3.92) compared to other traits. In an effort to expound this unanticipated result, qualitative data gathered from in-depth interviews is interpreted.

Most of the interviewees agree that Vietnamese culture favors teachers as moral guides, which means that they are expected to behave in certain ways. Nonetheless, there are several possible explanations why student teachers in FELTE, ULIS adopt an impartial attitude towards the role of teachers as moral role models. Firstly, participants believe that teaching is an ordinary occupation; therefore, teachers should be entitled to comprehensive freedom doing what they want instead of being confined to a social norm: *"[...] like, all people think they have to be like this, like that. Teacher is just a job, right? just like doctor, just like other occupations, so I think they can have the freedom to do what they want"* (Interviewee 3, personal communication, Apr 3, 2018). As argued by these respondents, provided that teachers exhibit professionalism in teaching English, their behaviors outside the class hardly matter. Secondly, it may act as a "burden" to teachers if they are commanded to perform morally perfect. While Interviewee 1 complained that she could not handle the responsibility of a moral guide besides a facilitator of learning, Interviewee 4 attributed her idea to the humble payment of modern teachers: *"Considering the payment that they - teachers are getting nowadays, I just feel that we are requiring too much from teachers"* (Interviewee 4, April 3, 2018). For the last opinion identified through the interviews, whether being a good moral example is necessary or not depends profoundly on the target students. Specifically, only when students are younger learners had teachers better set an example for them to follow (Interviewee 5, April 3, 2018).

To summarize, pre-service teachers in ULIS value a TEFL who gives students inspiration. On the contrary, exhibiting exemplary character and establishing a code of ethics for learners are considered unnecessary. This may result from their sense of "overwhelming professional responsibilities", "the low pay", "the vision of being perfect" and their personal ideas of teachers' role (Le, 2013, p. 185).

The above findings, to som extent, have reflected a holistic view of ULIS pre-service teachers' perception of teaching profession and the role of EFL teachers. Accordingly, participants chiefly consider teaching an occupation that requires teachers to possess certain knowledge and skills to fulfill the job. To their mind, teachers emerge as masters who are able to transmit knowledge to students in a comprehensible and fascinating manner.

It is also notable that pre-service teachers are found to develop these conceptions through a negotiation between different aspects. Firstly, they construct the image of a good teacher by taking into account what kind of teachers they want to become and what kind of teachers they are able to become. This finding supports the hypothesis of Bandura (2001) in which the mediation between individual performance capacity and personal standards directs human agency. Besides, the widely varied teaching beliefs could be explained by a host of roles that student teachers assume at the same time: teacher of English, language learner, Vietnamese teacher, unique individual, member in a professional community, and a prospective teacher. The permeation among these positions makes the conceptions of juniors and seniors in FELTE, ULIS complicated, and unique.

5. Conclusion

Overall, the findings of this study portray the ideal figure of good EFL teachers from the perspective of pre-service teachers. They are competent in English and showcase exceptional pedagogical skills (adjusting instruction to students' level, delivering clear explanation and giving constructive feedback). They are also inspiring teachers who can motivate students to study and help them become independent learners. Besides, strongly desirable are teachers who are open-minded and respectful to students. Less required characteristics for them encompass implementing ICT and learner-centered approach, taking care of individual students, setting an exemplary image, and being humorous. In general, whilst subject content expertise and teaching skills are particularly valued, personal characteristics are regarded the least important and dependent on teacher's styles.

From these findings, useful implications could be drawn for both students of education and teacher educators. For student teachers, desirable characteristics of teachers may serve as a source of reference during their teacher identity development. Based on the findings in this research, student teachers may have a clearer vision of the teacher figure they desire to build up in the future, and try to equip themselves with essential knowledge, skills and attitudes. Additional implications are for teacher educators in FELTE, ULIS. In general, results found in this paper indicate that the knowledge base related to English subject and pedagogy provided in FELTE is a good starting point on the way to foster effective teachers. However, it seems that learner-centered method, ICT incorporation and ethic roles of teachers should be of increased focus in forthcoming courses. Moreover, since pre-service teachers in FELTE, ULIS perceive the concept of a good TEFL from a number of roles, it is recommended that any movement in teacher education should consider their multiple experience and pre-existing beliefs to produce a far-reaching effect on their teaching perceptions.

This present study is by no means comprehensive and a number of caveats need to be noted. Firstly, there exists a lack of consistence within the sampling when participants were not of the same grade. As a result of discrepancies in experience, disparities in their teaching beliefs can be expected. In addition, due to the constrained scope of this study, the researcher was not able to provide reasonable explanations for all of the results. The data collected from interviews may be a reliable source of interpretation; however, with a small sample size, caution must be applied, as the findings might not be generalisable. Last but not least, since the research is only carried out in the context of FELTE, ULIS, VNU, the findings are not representative for the perceptions of pre-service teachers in Vietnam. Therefore, further research is suggested to make comparison between the opinions of different groups of student teachers. Researchers are also encouraged to inspect the perspective of EFL student teachers in other contexts outside FELTE, ULIS so that a more holistic view on Vietnamese pre-service teacher's ideal figure can be drawn.

References

Al-Khairi, M. (2015). Qualities of an Ideal English Language Teacher: A Gender-Based Investigation in a Saudi Context. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *6*(15), 88-98.

Al-Mahrooqi, R., Denman, C., Al-Siyabi, J., & Al-Maamari, F. (2015). Characteristics of a Good EFL Teacher: Omani EFL Teacher and Student Perspectives. *Sage Open, 5,* 2. doi: 10.1177/2158244015584782

Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology, 52*(1), 1-26.

Borg, S. (2003) Teacher cognition in language teaching: A review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe and do. *Language Teaching, 36*(2), 81-109. doi: 10.1017/S0261444803001903

Borg, S. (2006). The distinctive characteristics of foreign language teachers. *Language Teaching Research, 10*(1), 3-31. doi: 10.1191/1362168806lr182oa

Brosh, H. (1996). Perceived Characteristics of the Effective Language Teacher. *Foreign Language Annals, 29*(2), 125-136. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.1996.tb02322.x

Chen, Y. J., & Lin, S. C. (2009). Exploring characteristics for effective EFL teachers from the perceptions of junior high school students in Tainan. *STUT Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences, 2*, 219-249.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approachs* (4th ed.). The US: Sage Publications.

Decision 1400/QD-TTg (2008). Retrieved from http://vanban.chinhphu.vn/portal/page/portal/chinhphu/hethongvanban?class_id=1&_page=1&mode=detail&document_id=78437

Hung, N.V. (2017). Teacher perception of "A good English Language Teacher". *VNU Journal of Science: Education Research, 33*(3), 1-12.

Le, T. L. (2013). Teachers as moral guides: A case study of Vietnamese pre-service teachers of English in contemporary Vietnam. (Doctoral dissertation, Monash University, 2013).

Miron, M. (2006). What makes a good teacher? *Higher Education in Europe*, *8*(2), 45-53. doi: 10.1080/0379772830080206

Mullock, B. (2003). What makes a good teacher? The perceptions of postgraduate TESOL students. *Prospect, 18*(3), 3-24.

Park, G. P., & Lee, H. W. (2006). The characteristics of effective English teachers as perceived by high school teachers and students in Korea. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 7*(2), 236-248. doi: 10.1007/BF03031547

Phan, L. H. (2008). Teaching English as an international language – identity, resistance and negotiation. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd. (Chapter 4, pp. 102-122).

Qureshi, M. Z. (2013). *The Good Teacher: A Qualitative Analysis of Perceptions of Asian American Parents* (Doctoral dissertation, Minnesota State University, 2013).

Shishavan, H. B, & Sadeghi, K. (2009). Characteristics of an Effective English Language Teacher as Perceived by Iranian Teachers and Learners of English. Canadian Center of Science and Education. doi: 10.5539/elt.v2n4p130

Tran, L. H. N. (2015). Vietnamese Students' Perception of English Teacher Qualities: Implications for Teacher Professional Development. *International Journal of Academic Research in Education and Review, 3*(1), 7-19. doi:10.14662/IJARER2014.058

Turner, D. W. (2010). Qualitative Interview Design: A Practical Guide for Novice Investigators. *The Qualitative Report, 15*(3), 754-760.

Zamani, R., & Ahangari, S. (2016). Characteristics of an Effective English Language Teacher (EELT) as Perceived by Learners of English. *International Journal of Foreign Language Teaching & Research, 4*(14), 69-88.

PHẨM CHẤT NHÀ GIÁO: SINH VIÊN SƯ PHẠM TIẾNG ANH KỲ VỌNG ĐIỀU GÌ?

Đinh Thu Hiền

Khoa Sư phạm tiếng Anh
Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội
Phạm Văn Đồng, Cầu Giấy, Hà Nội, Việt Nam

Tóm tắt: Phẩm chất của giáo viên tiếng Anh (GVTA) gần đây đã trở thành một mối quan tâm lớn đối với các nhà nghiên cứu, đặc biệt trong lĩnh vực đào tạo giáo viên. Tuy vậy, rất ít nghiên cứu phản ánh quan điểm của giáo sinh về vấn đề này. Bằng việc kết hợp phương pháp định lượng và định tính, nghiên cứu này được tiến hành nhằm xác định các phẩm chất của một GVTA giỏi, từ góc nhìn của sinh viên sư phạm tiếng Anh. Để thu thập dữ liệu định lượng, tác giả sử dụng bảng hỏi điều tra đối với 117 sinh viên chuyên ngành sư phạm tiếng Anh, trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội. Theo kết quả thu được, kỹ năng giảng dạy và kiến thức môn học được cho là những yếu tố quan trọng nhất đối với GVTA. Phân tích từ phỏng vấn bán cấu trúc cho thấy quan điểm này bắt nguồn từ việc sinh viên sư phạm tin rằng giáo viên là người truyền thụ kiến thức, và dạy học được coi là một nghề nghiệp với một số chuyên môn nhất định cần có. Thông qua việc nhận diện những đặc điểm mong muốn ở một người GVTA từ góc nhìn của giáo sinh, nghiên cứu này, ở một mức độ nào đó, đã phản ánh những tín điều sư phạm của họ. Những phát hiện trong nghiên cứu được kỳ vọng sẽ có ý nghĩa đối với cả sinh viên sư phạm và các nhà thiết kế chương trình, những người đang học tập và làm việc trong ngành sư phạm tiếng Anh.

Từ khóa: phầm chất của giáo viên, GVTA, giáo viên giỏi, giáo sinh, sư phạm tiếng Anh

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE

A. Your view on a good EFL teacher

Question 1: Rank the following qualities of an EFL teacher in order of importance from 1 to 5. Please write one number in front of each quality.

1 = the LEAST important **5 = the MOST important**

…. Content knowledge (English proficiency, knowledge of subject matter, knowledge of English culture)

…. Pedagogical content knowledge and skills (ability to transform content knowledge to learners)

…. Attitudes and behaviors towards students (ability to develop a personal and working relationship with students)

…. Teachers' personal characteristics and attitudes (ex. sense of humor, enthusiasm, …)

…. Broader educational goals and skills (ability to provide a good moral example, help students form a good personality, open students' eyes to the outside world, …)

If you think that other qualities are also important to an EFL teacher, please list them here: ……

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

……………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………

Question 2: Please indicate your level of agreement with these statements by ticking (x) in one box of each row.

TD = Totally disagree **A = Agree**

D = Disagree **TA = Totally agree**

N = Neutral

Qualities	**A good EFL teacher is someone who …**	**TD**	**D**	**N**	**A**	**TA**
Content knowledge	1 understands spoken English well					
	2 reads English well					
	3 writes English well					
	4 speaks English well					
	5 is knowledgeable of English subject matter					
	6 is aware of English-speaking countries' culture					
Pedagogical knowledge and skills	7 prepares the lesson well					
	8 gives clear instruction					
	9 adjusts English input to match students' proficiency level					
	10 varies teaching methods to suit different learning styles					
	11 applies ICT (Information and Communication Technologies) in teaching					
	12 practices a learner-centered approach					
	13 employs classroom management skills effectively					
	14 involves students in various activities (group/pair work, drama, role-play, …)					
	15 conducts valid assessment					
	16 gives useful feedback for learning improvement					
	17 caters for learners' needs					
Attitudes and behaviors towards students	18 is available to help students					
	19 shows respect to students					
	20 encourages students' self-confidence in learning English					
	21 treats students fairly					
	22 arouses students' motivation for learning English					
	23 takes a personal interest in each student (ex. remembering name, strength and weakness of each student)					

Personal characteristics and attitudes	24 is caring					
	25 is friendly					
	26 is patient					
	27 is enthusiastic					
	28 is humorous					
	29 is creative					
	30 is open-minded					
	31 behaves professionally (be punctual, well-dressed, …)					
Broader educational goals and skills	32 provides a good moral example					
	33 helps students form a good personality					
	34 opens students' eyes to the outside world					
	35 inspires students to learn					
	36 helps students become independent learners					

B. Your personal information

Your name:

Your class:

Your phone number:

Your email address:

THANK YOU

APPENDIX 2: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. You are learning to be a teacher of English. What motivation leads to this choice?
2. According to your answer in the questionnaire, pedagogical knowledge and skill is the most important quality of a teacher of English. Why do you think so?
3. What do you think about the importance of personal characteristics to an EFL teacher?
4. What do you think about the use of ICT in teaching English?
5. What do you think about the importance of learner-centered approach in teaching English?
6. According to your answer in the questionnaire, taking a personal interest in each student is not really necessary to an EFL teacher. Can you explain in more detail?
7. What do you think about a teacher who is humorous?
8. In traditional Vietnamese culture, teachers are often considered a moral example. What is your opinion about this social norm?

THE CONNECTEDNESS BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL TIME/SPACE AND EXPERIENCED TIME/SPACE FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF AN ONLINE DISTANCE STUDENT

Tran Thi Ngan*

VNU University of Languages and International Studies, Pham Van Dong, Cau Giay, Hanoi, Vietnam

Received 1 November 2019
Revised 15 November 2019; Accepted 20 December 2019

Abstract: This research problematizes the conception of time and space in online distance education. It argues that online distance education is constructed from different *times* and *spaces*, namely those as organized by the institutions and those as experienced by the distance learners. In essence, it seeks to unfold how these organizational time and space and the experienced time and space are connected or separated, from the learners' perspective. It employs a narrative inquiry to recount the experience of a 32-year-old British man pursuing a distance learning course. In doing this, the research aims to identify how online learners are engaged with the course that they are taking with respect to time and space, as well as pinpointing the gaps that separate them from the course. With consideration of those aspects in mind, online distance courses could be more effectively organized in such a way that enhances student motivation, commitment and resilience, thus contributing to their overall experience of digital learning.

Key words: connectedness, time and space, translocality, transtemporality, online distance learning, digital education

1. Introduction

"In order to understand the educative process online, one must examine those who shape it" (Kabat, 2014). In this day and age when online distance education has seemingly become a "savior" for in-service workers wishing to pursue a higher degree or advance their professional knowledge (Raddon, 2006), more attention is paid to exploring the learners' digital learning experience. To understand students' experience, according to Sheail (2017), will involve taking into account the multifaceted manifestation of time and space of the university where they study. In such a manifestation, the university exists neither only in the physical time and space of an institution, nor "anytime, anywhere" as commonly conceived of. In such a manifestation, there exist different *times* and *spaces* that both connect and separate the online learners from the learning course.

As Raddon (2006) has put it, "the idea of physical and spatial separation across time and space is often used to differentiate distance learning from so-called 'traditional' forms of education" (p. 157), research into digital education should not overlook these fundamental time and space aspects. While there have been significant works on time and space in online education, such as Barberà and Clarà (2012); Barberà and Clarà (2014);

* Tel.: 84-903456920
Email: ngantranvnu@gmail.com

Barberà, Gros, and Kirschner (2015); Bayne, Gallagher, and Lamb (2014); Fielding (2016); Hall (1983); Kahu, Stephens, Zepke, and Leach (2014); Leeds (2014); Raddon (2006); Ross, Gallagher, and Macleod (2013); and Sheail (2017), little has been studied about how different types of times and spaces are connected or separated. Studying these connectedness and separation aspects, I propose, will add meaning to both educational practices and administration procedures. Thus, this research seeks to delve into the online distance learners' experience regarding the connectedness between the organizational time and space and their own experienced time and space. It aims to identify how online learners are engaged with the course that they are taking with respect to time and space, as well as pinpointing the gaps that separate them from the course. With consideration of those aspects in mind, online distance courses could be more effectively organized in such a way that enhances student motivation and commitment, thus contributing to their overall experience of digital learning.

2. Literature review

Topics concerning time and space in digital education have been discussed among a growing body of studies (cf. supra) as researchers are growingly intrigued by how time and space typify this particular form of education. Contrary to the idea of "anytime, anywhere" as usually claimed, what Fielding (2016) referred to as "the myth of universal access" in online education (p. 103), the concepts of time and space have in recent years received more nuanced interpretations.

Time is hardly explicitly dealt with in research about online education (Barberà et al., 2015). In their systematic review, however, Barberà et al. (2015) have identified that three themes related to time are usually focused on: time efficiency, time use, and pace of learning (Barbera et al., 2015). The questions asked mostly pertain learning more in the same time, learning the same in less time, patterns of time management, or differentiated learning pathways within digital education. In the recent attempts to bring more nuances to the notion of time, several researchers have paid closer attention to the learners' experience regarding time. For example, Kabat (2014) and Oztok et al. (2014) have challenged the conventional dichotomy of time as being synchronous and asynchronous. By investigating the students' discussion board, Oztok et al. (2014) found that there the time is displayed to the students both linearly and non-linearly. For some other researchers, such as Khoo and Cowie (2014), an interest was in how pivotal time points of the postings in the discussion board can impact the reflection and collaboration procedure, as well as offering socio-emotional support for the online students.

With regard to space, in their narrative study, Bayne et al. (2014) attempted to discover how online distance students translate the space of the physical university campus into their own version of "space". The researchers identified the significance of the physical campus through its "topological multiplicity" (p. 581): the sentimental campus, the metaphysics of presence or "campus envy", and the imagined campus. In particular, the students experience the space of the university as a sentimental campus when they associate their presence at the university with the "homing" impulses, such as a connection their family members or themselves have with the university. In another scenario, the physical campus is spatially represented as "a guarantor of the authenticity of academic experience" (p. 577), a kind of space online students are "jealous" of from a distance. Apart from that, the university also spatially exists in the imagination of the online students as they perform their study tasks in, for example, at home or the hotel room of their business trip, or simply anywhere with an access to fast internet connection. The identification of these three topologies suggests that the concept of space in online education is complex and highly personalized, which necessitates further explorations in order to unveil what it means to be "at university" for an online distance learner.

A number of other studies, by various approaches, have combined time and space in their attempt to understand the learners' experience in digital learning. Kahu et al. (2014), for instance, explored how adult learners learned to manage their space and time to sustain their engagement in the online learning course. Raddon (2006), in interpreting narratives of distance students, concluded that the separation across time and space can be viewed as an opportunity, which gives the learners a sense of control and allows them to pursue their studies while still committed to other social and familial roles. In her recent study, Sheail (2017) brought together the concepts of *translocality* and *transtemporality* to locate the digital university in different locales. While the presence of the digital university in Bayne et al.'s (2014) discovery was only in terms of space, Sheail's (2017) representation brought it into existence in both space and time, whether in the car park, in the curfew, or in the electric generator.

The aforementioned studies have provided a snapshot of how time and space are researched in online distance education. My work here is to complement them and bring together an understanding of time and space from both the organizational and experienced aspect. A conceptual framework is built on the basis of the definitions of time and space by Sheail (2017). There the concepts of time and space are treated as "connected" and "multiply layered", thus creating a complex "location" for the digital institution (Sheail, 2017, p. 2). Central to her definitions are the ideas of *translocality* and *transtemporality*, which serve as a starting point for further concepts to be linked.

Greiner and Sakdapolrak (2013) defined *translocality* as "phenomena involving mobility, migration, circulation and spatial interconnectedness not necessarily limited to national boundaries" (p. 373). From a translocal perspective, they stated, the "diverse and contradictory effects of interconnectedness between places, institutions and actors" could be captured. This "connectedness" aspect is shared in Sheail (2017) explanation of the term as "a common state of being, or feeling, connected to other places" (p. 4). In this sense, it could be understood that regardless of their geographical distance, there exists a connection between a student taking an online course and the university where the course is offered. In the present study, the concept of *translocality* in distance learning is scrutinized from two layers – organizational space and experienced space. The *organizational space* is defined as the space organized by the course providers. From the physical side, it involves the campus of the institution. From the digital side, I also consider the learning platform as part of the organizational space, which includes, for example, the presentation of and access to learning contents, the communication tools and support facilities, etc. On the other hand, the *experienced space* is understood as the place where the students' study takes place and its surroundings. On a larger scale, I also take into account the socio-political situation of the country where the student resides as an aspect of their experienced space.

Of equal importance to the concept of translocality, Sheail (2017) proposed the term *transtemporality* to "emphasize the coexistence of different 'times' when considering translocality and the university, particularly in a digital context" (p. 5). She elaborated:

These times include not only the practical time differences in making translocal connections, across time zones, but also the experiential times of individual accounts, as well as the multiple political and cultural times, the 'times we live in', which might be significant to the practices of a digital education which aims to engage students and staff in multiple locations, while bringing them together in digital environments (p. 5).

From the aforementioned definition of *transtemporality*, "time" in online distance education is investigated as *organizational time* and *experienced time*. The concept of *organizational time* describes time as designed by the course providers, which includes, but not limit to: the time allocated to the course, to specific study contents and learning activities, as well as the time of the institution where the course is based. The *experienced time*, on the other hand, involves the time set aside by the students for studying the course and how they arrange their study activities and fit them in their daily schedules. I also take into account the socio-political context of the country where the students reside as an aspect of their experienced time.

3. Research design and methodology

3.1. Research approach

With the belief that knowledge is constructed and given meaning through social settings, social constructionism has been adopted as the philosophical paradigm of the research. Taking this stance emphasizes the role of both the subject and the researcher as co-constructors of knowledge through the process of dialogue and negotiation (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013). Congruent with social constructionism, as indicated by Savin-Baden's and Major's (2013) *Wheel of Research Choices*, is the focus on individuals as the phenomenon of study and the use of narrative as a major research method. Therefore, in the present study which involves exploring how online learners perceive the connectedness or separation between the organized time and space of the institution and the real-life experienced time and space, this set of research lenses proves its appropriateness. It is by means of a narrative inquiry that we can "do research into an experience" as we "experience it simultaneously" (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000, p. 50), that we can have an "entry into this 'lived experience' of individuals, facilitating perspectives that embrace the multiplicity and polyvocality of reality" (O'Shea, 2014, p. 140). Moreover, a narrative inquiry, with its "evaluative and explanatory value", will facilitate the meaning-making process between the researcher and the participant (O'Shea, 2014, p. 141), therefore, enabling a deep exploration of the subject's perspective, attitude, experiences and construction of knowledge.

The choice of narrative in this research is two-fold, with narratives being not only a research approach but also a primary source of data (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013). With the focus on an individual's experiences, the study relies on the participant's stories as they "entail a significant measure of reflection on either an event or experience, a significant portion of a life, or the whole of it" (Freeman, 2006). An important aspect of narrative, as Freeman (2015) argues, is the "retrospective dimension", which I believe allows for a retrieval of events that facilitate the construction of knowledge (p. 40). To be more specific, as Savin-Baden & Major (2013) put it, "the point of collecting stories is to understand the experiences and the way they are told, seeking clarity about both the events that have unfolded and the meaning that participants have made of them" (p. 231). Moreover, storytelling involves a significant contribution of personal perspectives, therefore the researcher could form a better understanding of the individual as a research phenomenon.

3.2. Sampling and data collection

The research discusses data from a single participant, hereinafter referred to as Gaz, who is currently enrolled in a Post Graduate Certificate of Education course predominantly UK-based. In order to ensure the anonymity of the institution, the university will be referred to as *UniName* University throughout this report.

Gaz is originally from Leicester, England, who is now living and working in an international school in Hanoi, Vietnam. He is 32 years old, married and currently living with his wife and a new-born child. Gaz was chosen as the research participant by means of convenience sampling for three main reasons: First, he meets the research's initial criteria of choosing a participant who is currently taking an online course with the duration of minimally one year. Second, time constraint in conducting the research somehow has limited the choice of participants to someone who is most accessible. Third, given the fact that qualitative research approaches appreciate the uniqueness of individual experiences, data collected from participants are meaningful in themselves without necessarily being strictly representative for a particular group of people (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013).

Regarding research instruments, a semi-structured interview protocol was constructed, which consists of two main parts with 23 questions. The first part serves as an icebreaker, asking general questions in order create rapport and a comfortable atmosphere for experience sharing. By doing this, stories could be told with fidelity (Flick, 2014), thus enhancing the quality of the data obtained. The second part deals with more detailed questions about the time and space of the digital course with regards to both the *organizational* and *experienced* aspect. Concepts were clearly defined to avoid any possible ambiguity for the interviewee. The interview was conducted digitally, by means of *Skype*, and recorded with the application *Call Recorder*. However, after that, there arose more ideas during the transcription process, which made me decide to ask Gaz several additional questions in written form using *Facebook Messenger*. He was very responsive and replied one day afterwards.

The whole data collection procedure was done with ethical considerations. An informed consent form was sent to the participant before the interview. The interview was done within 90 minutes, with respect for privacy, i.e. the subject's beliefs, attitudes and opinions. Cross-cultural considerations in communication were also taken into account, given the cultural background difference between the subject and the researcher. Moreover, in order to ensure the transparency of the process, I attempted to engage myself as the researcher in the "self-disclosure", as well as "striving for a clear view of what participants mean while simultaneously seeking and acknowledging co-created meaning" (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013).

3.3. Data analysis and interpretation

Data collected from the interview were transcribed into 26 A4-sized pages and coded manually in two cycles. In the first cycle, open coding was done, with a view to "conceptualizing all related incidents in order to yield many concepts" (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013). During this cycle, I also employed what Saldaña (2009) terms "simultaneous coding" where two or more different codes were applicable to one single qualitative datum, or when there were overlapping aspects among the data. During the second cycle, a method called "axial coding" (Savin-Baden & Major, 2013) was used. This approach to coding, as they put it, "requires focusing on causal relationships and seeking to categorize incidents into a frame that structures generic relationships" (p. 424). This second cycle of coding resulted in two major categories: the first one distinguishes between the participant's organizational time/space and experienced time/space, whereas the second one suggested three ways in which these two types of time and space are connected or separated.

In the process of data analysis, a categorical-content approach to narrative analysis, as defined by Lieblich, Tuval-Mashiach, and Zilber (1998), was employed. Excerpts were scrutinized in order to discover different aspects of the subject's experiences. Finally, the interpretation process was done with careful reference to the conceptual framework, in such a way that the findings would be congruent with the literature.

4. Findings and discussions

4.1. Findings

4.1.1 The organizational time and space

"... in the physical campus... I know that they've got good sports facilities"

The PGCE course that Gaz is taking is a one-year course started in August 2017. Gaz mentioned it as a combination of both synchronous and recorded lectures. Specifically, it consists of three 80-hour modules, each with a three-hour recorded presentation, reading tasks and online conferences, which are broken down into smaller time slots.

In terms of space, Gaz referred to the *Moodle* where conferences take place, an online library and the Googlegroups where students discuss questions. He does not know the physical university exactly, but remarked:

> I intuitively know it's a very popular university. It's been around for ages. And, everyone in England knows the university; so in the physical campus, I'm sure, I know that they've got good sports facilities.

Gaz mentioned a number of on-campus facilities and activities in the organizational space which he believes to be also available to students taking this online course, were they to live in the city of the university. For example, "you are still able to go into the university, meet with the professors face to face, you can use their library, their facilities, join their sports team, everything like that". However, as he is currently a distance student, such aspects of the organizational space are rendered unavailable to him.

4.1.2. The experienced time and space

"We've got kid's stuff all over the floor"

The most part of Gaz's study is done at home, on his couch, which he described as:

> It's very messy. The moment we've got kids' stuff all over the floor ... it's my home, it's where I'd like to be. If I need a break, I can go and, I can put the TV on, I can choose when to study.

Other times when he has got students doing their tests, Gaz "brings" his virtual classroom into the physical classroom where he teaches by doing the readings required by the course there. In a past module about classroom management, his virtual study space was present in his colleagues's classrooms, where he was required to observe them teaching and guide them on teaching methodologies.

Gaz does not have a fixed schedule. His experienced study time depends on his mood, which leads to him sometimes studying for the whole night and yet sometimes pausing for weeks, "skip[ping] out a lot of the reading". However, he estimates his average amount of study time to be approximately ten hours a week. Unless interrupted, he will complete the sessions each time he studies. Gaz is working fulltime at school; therefore, his study is usually done at night.

Gaz's experienced time and space of study are in general not those purposefully arranged for studying, but rather mingled with the time and space of his daily activities. These shared times and spaces entail a number of distractions. Therefore, although he seemingly has his own preferences regarding the time and space of studying, there is hardly a strict separation between his study and his personal duties owing to this squeeze of time and space.

4.1.3. Factors affecting the connectedness and separation between the organizational time/space and the experienced time/space

From Gaz's sharing about his experience, three major factors were identified to explain for the connectedness or separation aspects between his experienced time/space and the organized time/space of the university.

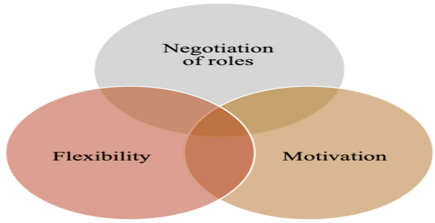


Figure 1. Factors affecting the connectedness and separation of organizational time/ space and experienced time/space in online distance education

Flexibility

"It's really broken down to literally each activity"

The PGCE course offers several features that connect the students with the course in terms of time and space. Regarding the temporal aspect, it has a good balance between synchronous and asynchronous study activities, and in case a student misses a particular online session, a recorded version is available for them to follow up. In addition, Gaz appreciated the way the course is really "broken down to literally each activity", keeping the learners on track with what has been planned. Although there is a six or seven time zone difference between where Gaz lives and the physical campus, he personally finds it suitable as he considers himself "a night person". The afternoon time of the online conferences happens to fall at around 10p.m local time of his, which is also the time he regularly sets aside for his study. Moreover, the organized space as he described is based on a platform that is "easy to navigate around, and ... very simple to use" with downloadable materials and the Googlegroups where: "If we don't understand anything, we can quickly bring up the question there, and there're twenty of the students ready to answer". The Googlegroups is in fact what he considers effective, as students are judged on their interaction with their peers, and “[i]f you don’t talk, then you’ll get lower marks”. Besides, although the university is not physically present where he lives, the online library makes him connected with it by “being able to get a book whenever [he] likes”. He did contemplate being “in the city of the university, then you are still able to go into the university, meet with the professors face to face, you can use their library, their facilities, join their sports team, everything like that”.

Motivation

“The Googlegroups are really friendly and helpful”

Gaz’s motivation has been a factor responsible for how he engages his time and space with the time and space of the course. He confessed undergoing fluctuations in interest, which affects the frequency and amount of time he spares for his study. He further added that “it depends. It’s more when I feel like it. And sometimes ... I do sit down the night, or sometimes I do nothing for two weeks”. Another important source of motivation for him came from his classmates. He admitted being pushed to speed up his work to catch up with the deadline when seeing his peers posting on Googlegroups “two or three topics, ahead of what [he was] doing”. Although he agreed that communication is “different with the time difference”, he was fascinated by the fact that there are two other students from Vietnam who are also in this course, which made him see this experience as very similar to being at a campus. However, he sees the fact of not knowing his classmates as individuals a slightly demotivating factor, as “it’s easier to respect to people’s opinions when you can go and have a drink with them, getting to know them as people”. In this sense, the separation between the organized space and his experienced space somehow affected his motivation in the course.

Negotiation of roles

The fact that Gaz is performing several other roles apart from being an online student both connects and separates his experienced time and space from the organized time and space of the course.

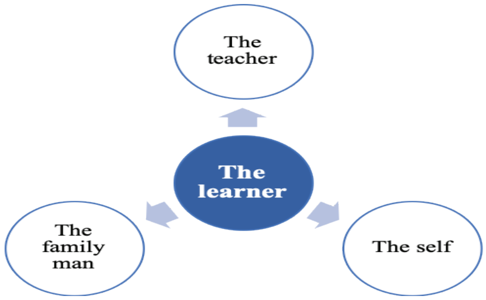


Figure 2. Simultaneous roles of the adult online learner

The family man

“We were just wishing and praying that he would hold on for another couple of weeks...”

Gaz’s online course coincides with his first time being a father. His course time was most separated from his experienced time when assignment deadline was waiting for him and his baby was about to be born. All that he could do then was “just wishing and praying that he (the baby) would hold on for another couple of weeks, so, ... I’ll be able to get my assignment done before I had a kicking screaming baby”, as he shared. Besides the fact that his studying place with “kids’ stuff all over the floor” is totally different from the image of a classroom, his baby is also “a big interruption” that separates his times. Gaz prioritizes his baby, admitting that his studying might be interrupted because “he (the baby) comes first. If he’s awake and crying, I’ll go and look after him”.

However, as a family man, Gaz also received much support from his wife, which is a critical factor to keep him connected to the organizational time of the course. His wife, who is also a teacher of English, usually assisted him with his assignments or looked after the baby when the deadlines are close. In that way, Gaz could keep pace with his course schedule. "She knows how important it is for our lives, to have a better life for our kid, to get completed", he remarked.

The teacher

"There's constantly the call in the back of my mind"

Gaz's job as a teacher constitutes a part of the course time. An example was when he conducted observations in his colleagues' classes as he studied the module about classroom management. It reveals here an obvious connection between his experienced time and the organized time. Nevertheless, as a teacher, he also has to fulfill schoolwork, which at times separates him from the course time.

> ... so again I've got three hundred students, so I've got to write reports to them all and at those times, I don't have any time to do any study.

Negotiating between work and study for him was quite hard sometimes:

> ... of course when the assignment's due in two weeks, you don't want to go to work, you've got to get your assignment done. Erm, and then especially when the class really starts to get really messing around, there's constantly the call in the back of my mind, I really just want to work out so I can do my study. Erm, so, yeah, I feel at times that my office work at school has been inadequate, because I've had to do more uni work, and my uni work has been inadequate at times because I have to do more schoolwork.

The self

"*I have to stop going to the Jujutsu"*

To arrange his time for the course, Gaz has to give up his martial art class and spend less time going out so that he can get his work done. His personal life also does not allow him to complete the course according to the planned time as there was an incident that affected him "not to be able to concentrate or carry on with [his] study". He therefore had to ask for a mitigation and was behind the organized time.

Others

"The sharks like to eat the cable"

Gaz mentioned a particular situation that happened to him "about six times in the past two years". As he said, the government "decide to slow down the Internet so ... the people are less informed" when there is a political movement. He was temporarily disconnected from the time and space of his online course at that time, yet he resolved by "look[ing] at all the links and print them out for the modules, so I've always got like stacks of papers to read upon if the Internet was slow".

4.2. Discussion

Being a distance student, Gaz is situated between different locales where he undergoes the "translocal" and "transtemporal" experiences. Although the university he attends is over 5,000 miles from where he lives, his stories have shown that he has had "a common state of being, or feeling, connected" to it in various aspects (Sheail, 2017). The university exists on his couch, in his room full of kids' toys and at times in the school where he works. The times spent on his course is sometimes in conflict with the time he is supposed to spare for his students, his newborn baby, or his hobbies. His university is sometimes double connected with him in time and space when he is able to meet a classmate living in the same city. Other times when the sharks feel like "eating the cable", his experienced time and space are temporarily suspended from the university's time and space until he is electronically reconnected. A number of factors, both material and spiritual, have determined such connectedness and separation, with the most outstanding being the flexible organization of the course, his personal motivation and the multiple roles that he plays simultaneously with being an online student.

First, the flexibility of the course entails an easy navigation within the platform and thoughtful allotments of time according to study activities, in a way that keeps students in the same pace with the organizational time and space as designed by the course. The discussion board activities, which are also the topic of concern of Khoo and Cowie (2014) and Oztok et al. (2014), a.o., can as well contribute to building productive learning relationships. More broadly speaking, flexibility should involve granting access to a variety of facilities and activities available on campus to students taking the course online. Considering Gaz's appreciation of the way the e-library keeps him connected with his alma mater spatially, the idea is worthy of attention. When linked with one of the topologies of the digital university, "campus envy" (cf. Bayne et al., 2014), it becomes even more obvious that the physical campus still holds a dominant position in the online learners' conception of space. Therefore, any efforts to render the online experience most equitable with the on-campus experience will be essential in making the students feel connected temporally and spatially.

Secondly, motivation is as important in initiating a student status as in maintaining the online students' connectedness with the course. Each student can have their own sentimental association with the course and the university they choose to enroll in (cf. Bayne et al., 2014), which makes them feel attached. In Gaz's sharing, motivation necessarily comes from his classmates, who sped him up to catch up with the deadlines, or some of whom he happened to know in person and made him feel as connected as being on campus. However, as shared by Gaz and a number of other studies, motivation is usually found to fluctuate as students progress further in the course (e.g., Ross et al., 2013; Rye & Støkken, 2012). Knowing what (de) motivates online students could thus be a topic for future research.

Finally, the various social roles a student assumes can both promote and demote their connectedness with the online course in terms of time and space. This finding is very much in line with Fielding (2016); Ross et al. (2013); Rye and Støkken (2012), a.o., who viewed the online course as an ongoing negotiation in which students constantly attempt to fit the study activities into their actual lived experience. In this struggle, the students, including Gaz, often find themselves carving out space and time for the course by deciding on their priorities for each period of time. At the same time, however, being part of the social relationships places the students in both spiritual and material support. The studies outlined above and Gaz's experience showed how concrete actions of family members, such as helping out with household duties, contribute to keeping the students in tune with their course organization.

Insofar as a sense of separation is inherently existent in the practice of online distance education, it should therefore be seen as an opportunity to exercise one's self-control and autonomy, while being able to pursue their studies alongside other social roles (Raddon, 2006). On the other hand, connecting the students' lived experiences, both temporally and spatially, to the organizational time and space of the university, is essential. Students can be made more involved when there are flexible, engaging curricular (as well as non-curricular) activities, when there are both policies that encourage communication and varied support services to offer timely assistance. Finally, it is crucial that any course designers keep in mind the complexities of the local experience of the students, so that they can maintain a balance between the convenience of the university and that of the students.

5. Concluding remarks

To sum up, the present study has suggested that the *times* and *spaces* of the online learning programme are socially constructed, moving beyond the temporal and spatial boundaries of the commonly perceived image of an educational institution. As remarked by Fielding (2016), an online learner "will have to fit a course into his or her actual, lived experience, engaging in an ongoing negotiation between the parts of their lives as they decide what specific times they will use for their online coursework, and what else they will not do..." (p. 104). Taking into account the multiple locales and temporalities in which the learners reside will render them more visible in considering the design and services of the online courses. To do this is to contribute to a more egalitarian status quo of the online distance "university", as opposed to the physical campus. The university then will be seen as "opens up", instead of "reaches out" across distances, to quote Sheail's words.

References

Barberà, E., & Clarà, M. (2012). Time in e-learning research: A qualitative review of the empirical consideration of time in research into e-learning. *ISRN Education*, *2012*, 1–11. https://doi.org/10.5402/2012/640802

Barberà, E., & Clarà, M. (2014). The temporal dimensions of e-learning. *E-Learning and Digital Media*, *11*(2), 105–107. https://doi.org/10.2304/elea.2014.11.2.105

Barberà, E., Gros, B., & Kirschner, pa. (2015). Paradox of time in research on educational technology. *Time & Society*, *24*(1), 96–108. https://doi.org/10.1177/0961463X14522178

Bayne, S., Gallagher, S. M., & Lamb, J. (2014). Being "at" university: The social topologies of distance students. *Higher Education: The International Journal of Higher Education and Educational Planning*, *67*(5), 569–583. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-0 13-9662-4

Clandinin, D. J., & Connelly, F. M. (2000). *Narrative inquiry: Experience and story in qualitative research*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Fielding, H. (2016). "Any time, any place": The myth of universal access and the semiprivate space of online education. *Computers and Composition*, *40*, 103–114. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compcom.2016.03.002

Flick, U. (2014). *An introduction to qualitative research* (5th ed.). London: Sage.

Freeman, M. (2006). Life "on holiday?" *Narrative Inquiry*, *16*(1), 131–138. https://doi.org/10.1075/bct.6.16fre

Freeman, M. (2015). Narrative as a mode of understanding. Method, theory, praxis. In A. De Fina & A. Georgakopoulou (Eds.), *The handbook of narrative analysis* (1st ed., pp. 21–37).

Greiner, C., & Sakdapolrak, P. (2013). Translocality: Concepts, applications and emerging research perspectives. *Geography Compass*, *7*(5), 373–384. https://doi.org/10.1111/gec3.12048

Hall, E. T. (1983). *The dance of life: The other dimension of time*. Garden City, NY: Anchor Press/Doubleday.

Kabat, K. J. (2014). Time, space, and dialogue in a distance-learning class discussion board. *E–Learning and Digital Media*, *11*(2), 162–175.

Kahu, E. R., Stephens, C., Zepke, N., & Leach, L. (2014). Space and time to engage: Mature-aged distance students learn to fit study into their lives. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, *33*(4), 523–540. https://doi.org/10.1080/02601370.2014.884177

Khoo, E., & Cowie, B. (2014). But the learning has already passed: Rethinking the role of time in e-mediated learning settings. *E-Learning and Digital Media*, *11*(2), 176–190. https://doi.org/10.2304/elea.2014.11.2.176

Leeds, B. (2014). Temporal experiences of e-learning by distance learners. *Education + Training*, *56*(2/3), 179–189. https://doi.org/10.1108/ET-11-2012-0114

Lieblich, A., Tuval-Mashiach, R., & Zilber, T. B.

(1998). *Narrative research: Reading, analysis and interpretation*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

O'Shea, S. (2014). Transitions and turning points: Exploring how first-in-family female students story their transition to university and student identity formation. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, *27*(2), 135–158.

Oztok, M., Wilton, L., Lee, K., Zingaro, D., Mackinnon, K., Makos, A., … Hewitt, J. (2014). Polysynchronous: Dialogic construction of time in online learning. *E-Learning and Digital Media*, *11*(2), 154–161. https://doi.org/10.2304/elea.2014.11.2.154

Raddon, A. (2006). Absence as opportunity: Learning outside the institutional space and time [Online version]. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, *30*(2), 157–167. https://doi.org/10.1080/03098770600617596

Ross, J., Gallagher, M. S., & Macleod, H. (2013). Making distance visible: Assembling nearness in an online distance learning programme. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*, *14*(4), 51–67. https://doi.org/10.19173/irrodl.v14i4.1545

Rye, S. A., & Støkken, A. M. (2012). *The implications of the local context in global online education*. *13*(1), 16.

Saldaña, J. (2009). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers* (1st ed.). London: Sage Publications.

Savin-Baden, M., & Major, C. H. (2013). *Qualitative research: The essential guide to theory and practice*. London: Routledge.

Sheail, P. (2017). The digital university and the shifting time–space of the campus. *Learning, Media and Technology*, *43*(1). https://doi.org/10.1080/17439884.2017.1387139

SỰ KẾT NỐI GIỮA THỜI GIAN/KHÔNG GIAN TỔ CHỨC VÀ THỜI GIAN/KHÔNG GIAN TRẢI NGHIỆM, QUA GÓC NHÌN CỦA MỘT HỌC VIÊN TRỰC TUYẾN TỪ XA

Trần Thị Ngân

Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ - ĐHQGHN,
Phạm Văn Đồng, Cầu Giấy, Hà Nội, Việt Nam

Tóm tắt: Nghiên cứu này đặt vấn đề về cách nhìn nhận không gian và thời gian trong giáo dục trực tuyến từ xa. Nghiên cứu lập luận rằng giáo dục trực tuyến từ xa được cấu thành bởi các loại thời gian và không gian khác nhau, cụ thể là thời gian/không gian thiết lập bởi các cơ sở đào tạo, và thời gian/không gian qua trải nghiệm thực tế của người học. Mục tiêu của nghiên cứu là chỉ ra sự kết nối cũng như tách biệt giữa hai loại không gian/thời gian này. Bằng phương pháp định tính sử dụng hình thức điều tra tường thuật, nghiên cứu đã tìm hiểu sâu về trải nghiệm của một học viên 32 tuổi người Anh sống tại Việt Nam đang theo học một khóa học từ xa tại Anh Quốc. Qua đó, nghiên cứu hướng tới tìm ra những yếu tố liên kết người học về mặt không gian và thời gian với khóa học mà họ theo đuổi, cũng như những yếu tố tạo nên khoảng cách trên hai khía cạnh này. Qua những trải nghiệm thực tế của người học, các cơ sở đào tạo có thể xem xét kỹ lưỡng hơn cách thức tổ chức hiệu quả các khóa học trực tuyến từ xa, nhằm nâng cao động lực cũng như sự cam kết của học viên, đồng thời góp phần tạo nên những trải nghiệm tích cực của họ về học tập kỹ thuật số.

Từ khóa: sự liên kết, không gian và thời gian, liên không gian, liên thời gian, giáo dục trực tuyến từ xa, giáo dục kỹ thuật số

Appendix

Interview Protocol

Part 1: General questions

1. Could you please introduce yourself a bit? (your name, age, country of origin, country of current residence, your job and workplace, people living with you at the moment, etc.)
2. Could you tell me about your educational profile in general?
3. Could you please briefly describe the course that you are taking?
    - Name
    - Main contents
    - Duration
        - How long is the course?
        - When did you start it?
    - Requirements
    - Evaluation (exams/ tests/ assignments etc.)
    - Does it offer any kind of certificate?
    - Is it a synchronous online course (one with live lectures) or a recorded one?
4. What was your purpose of taking this course? Was it for personal or professional purposes?

Have you accomplished it or not? Why/ Why not? (If you have more than one purpose, please mention all of them).

5. How did you come to know about the course and the institution? What made you decide to enroll in this particular course and institution?
6. Is this your first online course, or did you have prior experience with online learning?
7. Why didn't you choose a face-to-face course instead of this one?
8. Are you working or studying simultaneously with taking this course?
9. How do you assess your level of commitment with the course? (highly committed, quite committed, not so committed, etc.)

Some examples include:

- Doing the assigned tasks in the course
- Revising learnt lessons
- Communication with the instructors/ fellow students

10. What is your general feeling/opinion of the experience of taking this course? (e.g., freedom and flexibility, discovering new things, etc. - can be both positive and negative). Is it the same or different from your initial expectations before taking the course? In what way?

Part 2: Main questions

Explanation of key concepts:

- The *organizational time and space* refer to the time and space as designed by the course providers. The organizational time includes, for example, the total number of hours required, the time allocated to each module and other learning activities, such as self-study, homework, assignments, assessment tasks, etc., and also the real time in the institution where the course is based. The organizational space involves the classroom where the lectures take place and the learning platform on which the course is organized, for example the presentation and access of learning modules, communication tools, etc.

- The *experienced time and space* refer to your real life time and space when doing the course. Your experienced time can involve the time you set aside for studying the course, how you arrange your study activities and fit them in your daily schedules. Your experienced space is where your study takes place and its surroundings, as well as facilities needed for your study. In a broader sense, your experienced time and space also include the current socio-political situation of the country where you are residing, should they have any impact on your online learning experience.

1. Organizational time

How is the course that you took organized?

- What is the total amount of time as designed by the course providers?
- How many modules are there? How much time is allocated for each module?
- What other learning activities are there in the course? (reading, quiz, homework, assignments, tests, etc.) How much time is required of each of these activities?

2. Experienced time

- How much time do you set aside each week/each day for the course? Is that sufficient compared to the required amount of time as set by the course providers?
- During what time of the day do you study? (If yours is a synchronous course, please mention also the time in the situation where it is based, e.g., if it's in a different time zone from yours).
- Is your studying time fixed and each study session relatively equal? Why/Why not?
- Do you complete each unit/section within each study session, or do you split it up and complete in several sessions? If your answer is the latter, why?
- Have you ever encountered any interruptions during your study? If yes, what were they, why did they happen and how did you handle them?
- If you are working or studying while taking this course:
    - Does studying the course anyhow affect your daily life? (if yes, in what way?)
    - In reverse, does your lifestyle have any impact on how you schedule your study activities?
    - How do you make up for the time spent on this course while managing to fulfil tasks at work/school/home?

3. Compared between the organizational time and your own experienced time, what do you see as the most striking difference(s)?

What causes the difference(s), in your opinion?

Did you expect such difference(s) before taking the course?

4. Organizational space

How do you describe the organizational space of the course that you took?

- What is the classroom like? What facilities are there?
- What is the online learning platform on which the course is organized like?
    - Appearance: How are the modules presented? Your comments (e.g., if it's user-friendly, etc.)
    - Functions: Besides the presentation of the course contents, what other functions are there in the platform? (e.g., discussion board, assistant tools, dictionary, library, etc.) How do they support your study?
- How do you comment on the general atmosphere that you feel about the online space of the course?
- How do you compare the space of the online course with the physical campus of the previous institution that you attended? What aspects are retained and what aspects are missing?
    - Personally, what do you prefer, the physical campus or the virtual space of the online course? Why?

5. Experienced space

How do you describe your own experienced space?

- Where do you often study your online course? (for example, in your own room, in a café, in your office working desk, in your car, etc.)
    - What is/are the place(s) like?
    - What facilities/tools are there to support your study and what does not support?
    - What aspects of a classroom do you not have in your study place?
- Are your places of study fixed or flexible at your convenience? Why?
- Are there any distractions in your studying place? (e.g., at your office desk → co-workers chattering, people moving around, etc.) If yes, how often are they and how do you manage to overcome them?
- How do you comment on the general atmosphere that you feel about your chosen place(s) of study?

6. Interaction with the people involved in your online study, in terms of both time and space

- How do you interact with the course instructors, course organizers as well as other students? (By what means, e.g., email, discussion board, etc.)
    - Can you describe the experience?
- More details about each group of people:

Communication with instructors:

- Do they have fixed contacting hours (compared with office hours)?
- Are they in the same or different time zone with you?
- How long does it usually take for your questions to be responded?

Communication with other class members:

- If you are using a discussion board, for example, (or any kinds of forum) what

do you use this means of communication for? (e.g., assignments, exchanging views about the topic of study, etc.)
    - How do you compare it with face-to-face discussions? (in terms of time, space and interaction)
    - Are your classmates from the same country with you?
    - Do they and you communicate effectively and in a timely manner by the designated means of communication?

Communication with course organizers:

    - Do you ever have to contact the course organizers?
    - If yes, by what means and how long does it usually take them to respond?

- Other means of communication if come up.

7. What are your main sources of motivation in taking this course?

- From the course content?
- From your initial purpose?
- From the instructors (knowledge, teaching style, inspiration, etc.)?
- From other peers?
- From the online learning platform (attractive/friendly layout, convenient access, helpful customer care services, etc.)

8. What aspects of the course make you feel connected with or separated from it?

Please talk about both the “connectedness” and “separation” aspects.

- Prompts:
    - The course contents
    - The flexibility when taking the course (time/space)
    - The communication (e.g., discussions, support services, etc.)
    - Your visibility with respect to the physical campus (e.g., participation in clubs, committees, etc.)
    - Etc.
- Does your feeling of connectedness or separation anyhow affect your study of the course (either positively or negatively)? How and to what extent?

9. Do you encounter any (other) difficulties with your personal time and space of study while doing your online course? If yes, what are they and how do you manage to overcome them?

E.g.: Internet connection, fatigue and stress (due to handling multiple duties), etc.

10. Do you have any plan to take a similar online course in the future?

11. If you could have any suggestions to improve on the course that you took, what would you say?

12. What do you think they could do to make the students feel more connected or more engaged in their studying in the online course?

13. Do you have any other comments/questions regarding our research?

THE ROLE OF LEARNERS' TEST PERCEPTION IN CHANGING ENGLISH LEARNING PRACTICES: A CASE OF A HIGH-STAKES ENGLISH TEST AT VIETNAM NATIONAL UNIVERSITY, HANOI

Nguyen Thuy Lan[*1], Nguyen Thuy Nga[2]

1. Academic Affairs Department,
VNU University of Languages and International Studies,
Pham Van Dong, Cau Giay, Hanoi, Vietnam

2. VNU University of Education,
144 Xuan Thuy, Cau Giay, Hanoi, Vietnam

Received 10 October 2019 Revised 15 November 2019; Accepted 20 December 2019

Abstract: Among various factors influencing foreign language learning, learners' perception of a high-stakes language test plays a crucial part, especially when the test serves as a threshold for their university graduation. In this study, the researcher tested a washback effect model by focusing on test-takers' perception of the high-stakes test VSTEP in terms of test familiarity, test difficulty and test importance. On a sample of 751 Vietnamese learners of English at Vietnam National University, structural equation model was employed to validate the conceptual model. The analytical methods of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) were used for analysis. Our empirical findings revealed that VSTEP seems to have had a pervasive impact on the participating students. Senior students' evaluations of VSTEP acted as the largest factor in constituting the participants' perception of VSTEP. There are positive links between test pressure and test familiarity with students' goal setting and study planning as well as their selection of learning content and materials. Meanwhile, the pressure from the test had no effect on students' seeking opportunities to practice with foreigners, and test familiarity did not influence students' choice of study methods and exam preparing strategies. The emerging patterns from the data also suggested that participating students preferred test-oriented learning content and activities at the cost of interactive English practices for real-life purposes.[**]

Key words: learners' perception, high-stakes tests, washback effect, test-oriented, SEM

1. Introduction

The academic regulations of Vietnam National University, Hanoi (VNU) attached to Decision No. 5115/QĐ-ĐHQGHN on December 25th, 2014 clearly states that non-English-major students are required to submit evidence of English proficiency level 3 or B1 (CEFR - Common European Framework for Reference) for graduation. Launched by VNU University of Languages and International Studies in 2017, Vietnamese Standardized Test of English Proficiency 3 (VSTEP 3) is

[*] Corresponding Author. Tel.: 84-928003530
Email: lanthuy.nguyen@gmail.com

[**] This research is funded by VNU University of Education (UED) under the project number QS.18.09.

a standardized test designed to measure the English proficiency of VNU undergraduate students and to determine whether their English-language ability meets the requirements of level 3 or B1 as a graduation condition.

In accordance with the university curriculum, students are eligible to take VSTEP 3 only after they have completed three English modules (General English 1, 2 and 3). VSTEP 3 is held twice a year: in June, at the end of the spring semester, and in December, at the end of the fall semester. Like most of the CEFR-based tests, VSTEP consists of four sections: listening, reading, writing and speaking.

While students and teachers are under high pressure of achieving the learning outcomes upon graduation, and a new standardized test is used as an official instrument to measure students' language proficiency, the question is whether the test has made changes to students' English learning practices.

In the past several decades, the impact of tests has been the subject of considerable attention from educators and researchers — especially in the field of language testing worldwide. However, there is a dearth of empirical evidence in regard to test effects in Vietnamese language education context. In this article, we initially aimed to explore and analyze some effects of students' perception of the VSTEP 3 as a high-stakes test on their English learning practices.

2. Literature review

2.1. High-stakes tests

According to Minarechova (2012), a high-stakes test is no longer a new educational phenomenon. It has become an integral part of the educational system in many countries. Madaus (1988) defines a high-stakes test as a test whose results are used to make important decisions affecting the students, teachers, managers, the school and the community in its geographical area. The purpose of a high-stakes test is to link learner's results in standardized tests with the outcome requirement for the completion of an educational level; and in some cases, it is the base to review the wage increase, or sign the long-term work contract with teachers (Orfield & Wald, 2000).

In line with the aforementioned definitions, Vietnamese Standardized Test of English Proficiency 3 – VSTEP 3 is a high-stakes test as it is used as the official language proficiency tool to make an important decision: whether students can graduate from their university and be prepared for job seeking.

2.2. Washback effects

Research in the field of testing and assessment asserted that tests, especially high-stakes tests, had great impacta on teaching and learning activities. These effects are commonly considered "washback effects". This concept has been defined in various ways in the history of research. Alderson & Wall (1993) defines "washback effects" (washback or backwash) as the effect of the test back into the teaching and learning process. This concept derives from the view that the testing and assessment can and should orient the teaching and learning process. According to Alderson and Wall (1993), washback effects only refer to the behaviors of learners and teachers within the classroom when influenced by a particular test. To clarify the degree and extent of the test, many authors have distinguished between the washback effect and the impact of the test. Wall (1997) states that "the effect of the test "is" ... any effect of the test on the individual, the policy in the classroom, the school, the educational system or the whole society"; meanwhile, the washback effect of the test only refers to the "effects of the test on teaching and learning" (p. 291). Similarly, Shohamy (2001) suggests that the effect of washback effect is a component of test impact. The impact of the test takes place on a social or an educational institution, but the washback effects influence learners and teachers. The washback effect is also considered an aspect of the value of a test and is referred to as "consequential validity" , which emphasizes the "consequence" of examinations, testing and assessment on previous teaching and learning (Messick, 1996).

2.3. Related studies on the washback of language tests and learners' test perception on English learning

Hughes's (1993) model is a pioneer washback model which discusses the complex process of washback occuring in actual teaching and learning environments. Hughes (1993) distinguishes between participants, processes and products in both teaching and learning, recognising that all three may be affected by the nature of a test. The participants, including students, teachers, administrators, materials developers, and publishers are those whose perceptions and attitudes toward their work may be affected by a test. The process is any action taken by the participants that contributes to the learning process. The products refer to what is learned and the quality of the educational outcomes. According to Hughes (1993), a test will first influence the participants' perceptions and attitudes, then how they perform, and finally the learning outcomes.

Kirkland (1971) stated that students are the primary stakeholders in testing situations as it is the student "whose status in school and society is determined by test scores and the one whose self-image, motivation, and aspirations are influenced" (p. 307). In the same line, Rea-Dickins (1997) recognized students' significant role in the process of test washback; he also added that "their views are among the most difficult to make sense of and to use" (p. 306). In the literature of washback effects, researchers, however, have tended to focus on test impact on teaching activities, whereas studies on students have met with scant attention. Furthermore, in rare student-related research, most studies have focused on academic factors, whereas students' affective conditions have been neglected. It is, therefore, important to directly assess how students feel about the test and how their perception of the test affects their English learning.

Etten, Freebern & Pressley (1997) conducted an interview-based study with an aim to detail college students' beliefs about the examinations they face. The researchers interviewed those closest to the exam preparation process, those who make the decisions about when, how, and what to study, college students themselves. The conclusions that emerged from several rounds of questioning were a complex set of beliefs about the examination preparation process. According to Etten, Freebern & Pressley (1997), there were a number of external factors that influence test preparation, and the most significant could be named as instructors, exam preparation courses, social environmental variables, physical environment, test-related materials, all of which could undermine or facilitate studying.

In his extensive literature review, Kirkland (1971) concluded that tests could have impacts on a range of factors related to students, including self-concept, motivation, level of aspiration, study practices, and anxiety. Regarding self-concept, it was believed that whether the test can produce a positive or negative influence on students' confidence depended on their own opinion about the accuracy of the test results, his/her performance on the test and other individual characteristics. Additionally, the stakes of a test, the frequency with test delivery, and expectations of success or failure on the test can influence a student's learning motivation. It was also found that different types of tests, such as open-book versus closed-book, multiple-choice versus essay questions, influence a student's study practices differently.

Amrein and Berliner (2003) conducted a study on "The effects of High-stakess Testing on Student Motivation and Learning" in which the washback effects of high-stakess testing on students in grades 3-8 of the No Child Left Behind Act were investigated. The research was carried out over eighteen high-stakess testing states in the United States. Through calculating the statistics collected, they explored that the states conducting high school graduation test had higher drop-out rates than those without this test. It means that this kind of tests leads to decrease in students' learning motivation and even increase in dropout rates. To measure effects of high-stakess tests on student learning, archival time-series analysis was applied. Students in these eighteen states took four highly respected measures: the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT), American College Test (ACT), Advanced Placement (AP) tests, and the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) independently. Then the results in different years were compared with national data for each measure. The researchers draw a conclusion that "high-stakess testing policies have resulted in no measurable improvement in student learning" (p. 36).

In their research into the effects of the College English Test (CET) on college students' English learning in China, Li, Qi & Hoi (2012) investigated students' perceptions of the impact of the CET on their English-learning practices and their affective conditions. A survey was administered to 150 undergraduate students at a university in Beijing. It was found that students perceived the impact of the CET to be pervasive. In particular, most of the respondents indicated that the CET had a greater impact on what they studied than on how they studied. Most of the students surveyed felt the CET had motivated them to make a greater effort to learn English. Many students seemed to be willing to put more effort on the language skills most heavily weighted in the CET. About half of the students reported a higher level of self-efficacy regarding their overall English ability and some specific English skills as a result of taking or preparing for the CET. However, many students also reported experiencing increased pressure and anxiety in relation to learning English.

3. Methodology

3.1. Context and Participants

This study took place at Vietnam National University. Hanoi (VNU), one of the highest-ranki universities in Vietnam. As this university requires its students to achieve English proficiency level B1 (Common European Framework of Reference – CEFR), all the students are required to take three English courses consecutively for their first two years. At the end of the last English course (GE3), students take the VSTEP. Students are expected to achieve a certain score on VSTEP in order to receive a bachelor's degree.

In May 2019, 751 VNU students who did not major in English completed a questionnaire that asked them how they felt about the impact of VSTEP. Of the students who provided demographic data, 149 students were learning GE1, which is the first module in the English program, accounting for 19.84%; 360 students were studying GE2 (the second module) which made up the majority of participants of the study (47.94%); and 242 respondents were taking GE3 as the final module before taking VSTEP (32.22%). The proportion of respondents in the three English modules, though not completely balanced, is also quite diverse, ensuring the representation of all learners in the English program at VNU.

3.2. Questionnaire

A questionnaire was constructed to solicit students' perceptions of the effect of the VSTEP on their English learning. All measurements are made on the Likert-type scale (6 points) with 1 – Strongly disagree, 2 – Disagree, 3 – Slightly disagree, 4 – Slightly Agree, 5 – Agree, 6 – Strongly agree. To ensure validity of the measurement, all items were obtained from previous studies of Putwain & Best (2012) and Mahmoudi (2014) with adjustments to fit the setting of the current study.

There are two main parts in the questionnaire. The first section includes items related to students' perception of the test, namely test difficulty, test familiarity, test importance. The second section elicits information about students' English learning practices in terms of goal setting and study planning, study content and material, study methods and test preparing strategies.

3.3. Data collection and data analysis

Copies of the questionnaire, now rendered in Vietnamese, were distributed to 900 undergraduate students by the researcher of the current study. The purpose and significance of the study were explained to the students, and terminologies were clarified before the students completed the questionnaires. Of 900 copies, 751 were returned to the researcher.

The analytical methods of Cronbach's Alpha, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) were used for analysis. According to Schumacker & Lomax (1996), structural equation modelling (SEM), which focuses on testing causal processes inherent in theories, represents an important advancement in social work research. Before SEM, measurement error was assessed separately and not explicitly included in tests of theory. With SEM, measurement error is estimated and theoretical parameters are adjusted accordingly.

4. Results

4.1. Descriptive statistics

Test difficulty

The participants of the current study did not attend any official VSTEP at the time of the survey. Their perceptions of the test difficulty were formed through senior students' rumours, teachers' repeated warnings or their experience with mock tests and test-related materials.

Table 1 shows the three items related to students' perceptions of how difficult the VSTEP was, the mean score and standard deviation of each item.

Table 1. Students perception of test difficulty

Item	Mean	Standard deviation
Senior students say that VSTEP is very difficult	4.21	1.259
Teachers say that VSTEP is very difficult	3.66	1.266
After doing mock tests, I feel that VSTEP is very difficult	4.08	1.266

As shown in Table 1, the majority of respondents perceived the difficulty level of the test through senior students' evaluations as this item had the highest mean score of 4.21. Mock tests and test-related materials such as sample tests, past papers of similar tests also played an important role in students' perception of the test difficulty. To the researcher's surprise, teachers seemed not to exert pressure on students by bombarding them with warnings about the difficulty of the test as the third item had the lowest mean score of 3.66.

Test importance

In the questionnaire, there are four statements that focus on clarifying the importance of the standardized test. These four assessments are divided into two groups: students' judgments about the importance of the test and the importance of the test from teachers' perspective.

Students' judgements about test importance include: (1) If I don't pass the VSTEP, I will be very disappointed; (2) The results of the VSTEP will greatly affect my future work. Teachers' judgements about test importance include: (1) Teachers often remind me of the time to take VSTEP; (2) Teachers often remind me of the consequences of failing VSTEP.

Table 2. Students' perception of test importance

Item	Mean	Standard deviation
Students' judgements about test importance	4.57	1.194
Teachers' judgements about test importance	3.80	1.286

Compared to teachers, the participating students seemingly experienced more anxiety caused by the VSTEP. The item related to students' evaluation of the test significance had a higher mean score than the item linked to teachers' perception with the former receiving 4.57 and the latter 3.80. The students themselves were well aware of the consequential impact that test results might have, but their teachers did not frequently warn them of the detrimental effect that their failure at the test might bring. This finding corresponds to the previous finding, both of which confirm that teachers acted as an intermediary between the students and the test and they did not stress the difficulty or importance of the test.

Test familiarity

To evaluate students' familiarity with the test, there are three items in the questionnaire, the mean scores of which are shown in the following table.

Table 3. Students' test familiarity

Item	Mean	Standard deviation
I can describe the test format	3.53	1.363
I can name the skills tested in the test	4.16	1.302
I can tell the purpose of implementing VSTEP	3.61	1.266

The results show that students were only confident about the skills tested in the test with an average score of 4.16. Students seemed uncertain about the test format (Mean: 3.53) and the university's purpose of applying the test (Mean: 3.61).

4.2. Inferential statistics

4.2.1. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

The broad purpose of exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is to summarize data so that relationships and patterns can be easily interpreted and understood. It is normally used to regroup variables into a limited set of clusters based on shared constructs. After performing EFA, the variables of "Test importance" and "Test difficulty" were merged and renamed as "Pressure from the test". The factor "Study methods and test preparing strategies" in the suggested model was divided into two new variables, namely "Study methods and test preparing strategies" and "Practice with native speakers".

4.2.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

To test the measurement validity, confirmation factor analysis (CFA) was performed. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a special form of factor analysis, most commonly used in social research. It is used to test whether measures of a construct (items in the questionnaire) are consistent with a researcher's understanding of the nature of that construct (or factor).

First, multiple fit indices, including chi-square, degree of freedom (CMIN/DF), goodness of fit (GFI), comparative fit index (CFI) and root mean square error of approximation (RMSA) were considered. All of our results satisfied the rule of thumb values as illustrated in the following table: Chi-square divided by degree of freedom should be less than 3 (CMIN/DF ≤ 3) (Carmines & McIver, 1981); GFI and CFI are to be larger than 0.9 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980); RMSEA should be less than 0.08 (Steiger, 1990).

Table 4. The Reliability and Validity of Constructs

Multiple fit indices	Value	"Rule of thumb" values
CMIN/DF	1.851	≤ 3 (Carmines và McIver, 1981)
GFI	0.951	≥ 0.9 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980)
TLI	0.959	≥ 0.9) (Bentler & Bonett, 1980)
CFI	0.970	≥ 0.9 (Bentler & Bonett, 1980)
RMSEA	0.034	≤ 0.08 (Steiger, 1990)

Second, we examined the convergent validity of our measurements through estimation of all items' construct reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE). As shown in Table 5, all the above indices were satisfied: All CRs (composite reliability) and AVEs (average variance extracted) are above their cutoff points, that is, 0.8 and 0.5, respectively. Two AVEs were just under 0.5 (0.494 < 0.50), but they were still at acceptable level and significant in content value (Nguyễn Đình Thọ & Nguyễn Thị Mai Trang, 2009)

Table 5. Construct validity by Composite reliability and Average variance extracted

Construct	Component	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted
Test factors	Test familiarity	0.743	0.494
	Pressure from the test	0.785	0.513
English learning	Goal setting and planning	0.844	0.581
	Learning content and materials	0.778	0.509
	Learning methods and test preparing strategies	0.585	0.494
	Practice with native speakers	0.760	0.613

Our results indicate that all the constructs in the model have acceptable discriminant validity, and the constructs included in this study are uncorrelated with the others.

4.2.3. Structural equation model (SEM) and hypotheses testing

As all fit indices, including the FI, TLI, CFI and RMSEA satisfied the model fit criteria, they suggest that the whole structural model proposed in this study is a good fit. The indices include Chi-square=1056.509 ($p < 0.001$), FI = 0.913 > 0.9, TLI = 0.912 > 0.9, CFI = 0.924 > 0.9, and RMSEA = 0.049 < 0.08.

These results demonstrate that our proposed model has a significant fit with the obtained data, and all endogenous variables are explainable through exogenous variables included in the framework.

Table 6. The causal relations between constructs in the proposed model

Relation			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P-value
Test pressure	---->	Goal setting and planning	.163	.030	5.400	***
Test pressure	---->	Learning content and materials	.221	.034	6.591	***
Test pressure	---->	Practice with native speakers	.018	.036	.519	.604
Test pressure	---->	Learning methods and test preparing strategies	.261	.050	5.269	***
Test familiarity	---->	Goal setting and planning	.539	.054	9.932	***
Test familiarity	---->	Learning content and materials	.335	.053	6.333	***
Test familiarity	---->	Practice with native speakers	.230	.056	4.086	***
Test familiarity	---->	Study methods and test preparing strategies	.113	.072	1.576	.115

Table 7. Standardized Regression Weights

Relation			Estimate
Test pressure	---->	Goal setting and planning	0.192
Test pressure	---->	Learning content and materials	0.265
Test pressure	---->	Practice with native speakers	0.022
Test pressure	---->	Learning methods and test preparing strategies	0.286
Test familiarity	---->	Goal setting and planning	0.513
Test familiarity	---->	Learning content and materials	0.324
Test familiarity	---->	Practice with native speakers	0.217
Test familiarity	---->	Learning methods and test preparing strategies	0.100

As can be seen from Table 6, "Pressure from the test" was found to have significant effects on students' goal setting and planning, students' selection of learning content and materials, their choice of study methods and exam preparation strategies when P-values are all below 0.05. The weights of these constructs are all positive, respectively 0.163, 0.221 and 0.261, which means that the pressure of the test and these constructs are positively related. The higher the pressure from the test is, the more active the students are in setting goals and planning their study towards VSTEP. Similarly, when the students feel more stressful about succeeding in the test, they tend to choose more test-oriented materials and are inclined to refuse learning activities that do not directly prepare them for the test. From Table 7, we could find that the test pressure exerted the most influence on “Study methods and exam preparing strategies” (Estimate = 0.286) and the least effect on “Goal setting and study planning” (Estimate = 0.192). However, “Pressure from the test” had no effect on students’ seeking opportunities to practice with foreigners because $p = 0.604 > 0.05$.

In terms of “Test familiarity”, the results also show that the knowledge of the test affected students’ goal setting and study planning, their selection of learning content and materials, their effort to seek opportunities to practice with foreigners (P-values < 0.05). The influence of “Test familiarity” on “Goal setting and study planning” was the largest (Estimate = 0.513) and on Practice with foreigners the smallest (Estimate = 0.217) (see Table 7). It was believed that the more familiar students were with the test, the more specific their study plan was, the content they choose to learn was closer to the test format, and the more active students were in finding opportunities to practice English with foreigners. In contrast, “Test familiarity” did not influence students’ choice of study methods and exam preparing strategies ($p = 0.115 > 0.05$).

5. Discussion

Washback effect of test pressure

From the findings of the current study, it can be seen that students mostly perceived the difficulty and importance of the test through rumors from the senior students and through doing VSTEP coaching materials. In particular, senior students’ evaluations of VSTEP served as the largest factor in constituting the participants’ perception of VSTEP. The students under study were not subject to the pressure from teachers. This was consistent with Li, Qi & Hoi (2012)’s result as these authors reported a similar trend in China: many students experienced higher pressure and anxiety in relation to learning English when preparing for Chinese English test. This phenomenon derived from the fact that in both China and Vietnam, English-language tests are used as gate-keeping devices for access to general employment and higher education opportunities.

We also found that the pressure of the test affects students’ goal setting and study planning, selection of learning content and materials, choice of study methods and exam preparing strategies. In particular, the pressure from the test had the most influence on study method and exam preparing strategies and the least effect on goal setting and study planning.

The greater the pressure of the test (the more difficult and important it is to students), the more students would proactively set specific goals and plan for their study and choose test-focused materials. The pressure from the test also made students prefer to choose to study at home rather than go to class. When going to class, students did not like to participate in activities that did not help prepare for the test. They also preferred to study alone rather than interact with friends.

Thus, the test clearly makes students more inclined to “study for exams”. A similar trend was also found in a number of previous studies (Karabulut, 2007; Pan, 2009; Tsagari, 2009). The positive effect is that a high-stakess test helps students become more proactive in setting goals and setting a learning path for themselves, which was reported in Huang (2004)’s research in Taiwanese context. In another study, Pan (2009) claimed that Taiwanese students were very supportive of the English test as a university graduation exam (GEPT) because they thought that the test motivated them to learn English and GEPT certificate helped them to find a job more easily.

However, the results related to the effects of VSTEP on students' choice of learning content and learning methods are quite worrying as students seemed to focus extensively on test coaching. There is no clash between the findings of the current and those of Pan (2009) and Karabulut (2007) when the authors reported that students concentrated on the knowledge and skills that were tested and ignored those which were absent. The high-stakess test in Karabulut (2007)'s research, however, is a university entrance exam in Turkey focusing only on grammar, vocabulary, and reading comprehension, so this effect seemed negative. The test could not improve students' ability to use English in practice. In contrast, VSTEP is a standardized test that fully tests four communicative skills of Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing. In this case, if students focus only on VSTEP's content and skills, their English communication skills can still be improved. Nevertheless, it is still very important to bear in mind the fact that a test still cannot cover all knowledge and skills that are necessary in life. For example, VSTEP writing section only tests email writing and essay writing skills, it is impossible to test all writing skills for students' future life and work, such as writing reports, making notes, etc. Overreliance on the test could result in students' limited learning experience and inadequate English proficiency.

Regarding learning methods, students tend to prefer self-study at home. This trend reflects a students' lack of confidence in the effectiveness of the English program in assisting them to pass VSTEP. This case was also mentioned by Pan (2009) in the study of English exam in Taiwanese universities. In his study, Pan (2009) stated that 53% of the surveyed students said they were dissatisfied with English courses offered at the university and they wanted to study at home or at language centers. Students expressed their annoyance and concern as the cost spent on test coaching centers and retaking the university English test was considerably large. However, they still did not choose to study at university because the curriculum was believed not to be effective.

According to the results of this study, the participating students tended to choose activities that were directly related to the test and preferred to study alone instead of participating in interactive activities. This agrees with Li, Qi & Hoi (2012)'s observation that many students learn English for the sake of taking the tests rather than for using the language for real purposes. This is a worrying phenomenon because the nature of learning foreign languages is learning in interaction and using the target language in real-life situations. Teachers need to recognize this trend to design learning activities that both ensure interaction and help students prepare for the test. More importantly, the purpose of communicative activities must be made clear to students so that they know those activities both help them with the test and with their English proficiency.

Washback effect of test familiarity

Regarding test familiarity, students could only name some of the skills that would be tested at the absence of the knowledge about the format and purpose of the test. This finding is fairly surprising since most participants were studying GE2 module

(47.94% of the study subjects) and GE3 (32.33% of the study subjects). These two modules are the final ones before students must take VSTEP; however, they still did not know the format and the purpose of the test. The only thing students were sure of was the skills to be tested in VSTEP, but this was possibly their guess based on the experience with other English standardized tests. Their knowledge of tested skills might be confined to four general language skills of Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing.

This finding also raises questions about the current English program in general and GE3 in particular. The program and the instructors need to familiarize students with the exam format so that students will be well prepared when they enter the exam room. This is recommend by Hughes (1989) that students need to be well informed of the test format and be well familiarized with tested skills to perform successfully at a high-stakess test. In addition, the purpose of applying a standardized test with all four skills should also be widely disseminated to students so that they understand the direct relationship between the test and their ability to use English in reality. Once the connection between the English program, VSTEP and students' real-life English proficiency are clarified, students' motivation to learn English will be enhanced.

"Test familiarity" was also found to affect students' goal setting and study planning, their selection of learning content and materials, their effort to seek opportunities to practice with foreigners. The influence of "Test familiarity" on "Goal setting and study planning" was the largest and on "Practice with foreigners" the smallest. It was believed that the more familiar students were with the test, the more specific their study plan was, the content they choose to learn was closer to the test format, and the more active students were in finding opportunities to practice English with foreigners.

The findings of this study suggested that VNU's current English program needs reconsidering and improving. First, to help students pass the standardized test VSTEP, there should be more guide about VSTEP with a specific set of materials such as VSTEP specification, test samples, grammar and vocabulary booklets, especially in the last module GE3. Students consequently will be more familiar with the test and grasp a clearer orientation on how to prepare for it. In that way, the financial burden spent on VSTEP coaching classes and coaching materials can also be reduced. Second, although English competency expected of students is outlined as learning outcomes in the course guide of each English module, this description still needs to be specified in the form of CEFR (Common European Framework for Reference) learning outcomes in terms of grammar, vocabulary, communicative functions to be achieved at each level. Such documents should also be the guide for all learning activities and learning materials. This will help increase the chances of students passing VSTEP and improving their English proficiency up to the expected level. Finally, the teachers should be trained on how to balance between preparing the students for their highly important test and creating communicative activities that encourage and promote English use for real purposes.

6. Conclusion

Based on evidence from the questionnaire survey, VSTEP seems to have had a pervasive impact on the participating students in this study. First, students mostly perceived the difficulty and importance of the test through rumors from the senior students and through doing test-oriented exercises. In particular, senior students' evaluations of VSTEP served as the largest factor in constituting the participants' perception of VSTEP. The students under study were not subject to the pressure from teachers because the teachers did not often accentuate the difficulty or importance of the test. We also found that the pressure of the test affects students' goal setting and study planning, selection of learning content and materials, choice of study methods and exam preparing strategies. In particular, the pressure from the test has the most influence on study method and exam preparing strategies and the least effect on goal setting and study planning. Second, regarding test familiarity, students could only name some of the skills that would be tested at the absence of the knowledge about the format and purpose of the test. A pattern seemed to emerge whereby test familiarity was also found to affect students' goal setting and study planning, their selection of learning content and materials, their effort to seek opportunities to practice with foreigners. The influence of test familiarity on goal setting and study planning was the largest and on students' efforts to practice with foreigners the smallest.

As VSTEP serves as a gatekeeper for university graduation, students seem to be sensitive to what is assessed. They plan their learning activities and learning content around this high-stakes test and seem to ignore the content and activities which they think are irrelevant. Students also display lack of confidence in the university's English programs. Given the VSTEP's powerful impact on college English education, it is important that the designers and implementers of English program keep reforming the syllabus, teaching materials, teaching methodology and adopt more effective measures in order to encourage students to take more interest in English-language use in real-world contexts in parallel with prepare for successful performance at VSTEP.

References

Vietnamese

Nguyễn Đình Thọ & Nguyễn Thị Mai Trang (2009), *Nghiên cứu khoa học trong quản trị kinh doanh*. Hà Nội: Nhà xuất bản Thống kê.

English

Amrein, A. L., & Berliner, D. C. (2003). The Effects of High-stakess Testing on Student Motivation and Learning. *Educational Leadership*, 32-38.

Bentler, P.M. & Bonett, D.G. (1980). Significance tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological Bulletin*, *88*, 588–606.

Carmines, E. G., & McIver, J. P. (1981). Analyzing Models with Unobserved Variables: Analysis of Covariance Structures. In G. W. Bohrnstedt, & E. F. Borgatta (Eds.), *Social Measurement: Current Issues* (pp. 65-115). Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, Inc.

Etten, S. V., Freebern, G. & Pressley, M. (1997). College students' beliefs about exam preparation. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 22*, 192 – 212.

Huang, Y. J. (2004). *Exit Requirements worry students*? Liberty Times. Retrieved December, 25, 2007 from http://www.libertytimes.com.tw/2004/new/oct/17/today-life9.htm

Hughes, A. (1993). *Backwash and TOEFL 2000*. Unpublished manuscript. UK: University of Reading.

Karabulut, A. (2007): *Micro level impacts of foreign language test (university entrance examination) in Turkey: a washback study* (Master's thesis, Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa). Retrieved from http://lib.dr.iastate.edu/rtd/14884/ Date??

Kirkland, M. C. (1971). The effect of tests on students and schools. *Review of Educational Research, 41*(4), 303–350.

Li, H., Qi, Z. & Hoi, K. S. (2012). Students' perceptions of the impact of the college English test. *Language Testing in Asia, 2*(3), 77 – 94.

Madaus, G. F. (1988). The Distortion of Teaching and Testing High-stakess Testing and Instruction. *Journal of Education*, *65,* 29-46.

Mahmoudi, L. (2014). The washback effects of Iranian national university entrance exam on pre-university English teaching and learning. PhD thesis, Malaya University, Kuala lumpur, Malaysia.

Messick, S. (1996). Validity and washback in language testing. *Language Testing 13(*4), 241–56.

Minarechova, M. (2012). Negative impacts of highstake tests. *Journal of Pedagogy*, 3(1), 82-100.

Orfield, G. & Wald, J. (2000). Testing, testing: The high-stakess testing mania hurts poor and minority students the most. *The Nation*, *270*(22), 38 – 40.

Pan, Y. (2009). Test impact: English certification exit requirements in Taiwan. *TEFLIN Journal, 20* (2), 119 – 134.

Putwain, D. & Best, N. (2012). Fear appeals in the primary classroom: Effects on test anxiety and test grade. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *21*, 580 -584.

Rea-Dickins, P. (1997). So, why do we need relationships with stakeholders in language testing? A view from the UK. *Language Testing, 14*(3), 304–314.

Schumacker, E. R., & Lomax, G. R. (1996). A beginner's guide to structural equation modeling. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Shohamy, E. (2001). *The power of tests*. London: Longman/ Pearson.

Steiger, J.H. (1990). Structural Model Evaluation and Modification: An Interval Estimation Approach. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 25*(2), 173–180.

Tsagari, D. (2009). *The Complexity of Test Washback: An Empirical Study*. Language Testing and Evaluation Series, Grotjahn, R. &. G. Sigott (eds). Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang GmbH.

Wall, D. & Alderson, J.C. (1993). Examining washback: the Sri Lanka impact study. *Language Testing, 10*(1), 41-69.

Wall, D. (1997). Impact and washback in language testing, In C. C. & D. Corson (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education. Volume 7: Language Testing and Assessment* (pp 291 – 302). Dordrecht, the Netherlands: Kluwer.

CẢM NHẬN CỦA NGƯỜI HỌC VỀ BÀI THI ẢNH HƯỞNG TỚI HOẠT ĐỘNG HỌC TIẾNG ANH NHƯ THẾ NÀO? MỘT NGHIÊN CỨU TẠI ĐẠI HỌC QUỐC GIA HÀ NỘI

Nguyễn Thúy Lan[1], Nguyễn Thúy Nga[2]

1. Phòng Đào tạo, Đại học Ngoại ngữ, ĐHQG Hà Nội,
Phạm Văn Đồng, Cầu Giấy, Hà Nội, Việt Nam
2. Đại học Giáo dục, ĐHQG Hà Nội,
144 Xuân Thủy, Cầu Giấy, Hà Nội, Việt Nam

Tóm tắt: Hiện tượng ảnh hưởng của bài thi tới hoạt động học tập từ lâu đã nhận được nhiều sự quan tâm của các nhà nghiên cứu. Trong các yếu tố ảnh hưởng đến hoạt động học ngoại ngữ, cảm nhận của người học đóng vai trò vô cùng quan trọng, đặc biệt khi người học phải vượt qua một bài thi quan trọng như bài thi xét tốt nghiệp đại học. Nghiên cứu này cố gắng tìm ra câu trả lời cho câu hỏi: Liệu cảm nhận của người học về độ khó, tầm quan trọng và độ quen thuộc với bài thi ảnh hưởng thế nào tới hoạt động học tiếng Anh của họ? Nghiên cứu tiến hành khảo sát 751 sinh viên không thuộc chuyên ngành Ngôn ngữ Anh tại Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội. Các phương pháp phân tích như Phân tích nhân tố khám phá (EFA), Phân tích nhân tố khẳng định (CFA) và Mô hình phương trình cấu trúc (SEM) được sử dụng để phân tích số liệu thu được từ bảng hỏi. Kết quả thực nghiệm cho thấy VSTEP có tác động tương đối lớn tới sinh viên tham gia nghiên cứu. Cảm nhận của sinh viên về độ khó và tầm quan trọng của bài thi VSTEP chủ yếu được hình thành qua sự chia sẻ của các sinh viên khóa trên mà không bắt nguồn từ giảng viên. Áp lực từ bài thi và mức độ quen thuộc với bài thi tỉ lệ thuận với sự chủ động của sinh viên trong việc xác định mục tiêu và lập kế hoạch học tập; hai yếu tố này cũng ảnh hưởng đến việc sinh viên lựa chọn nội dung và tài liệu học tập. Trong khi đó, áp lực từ bài thi không ảnh hưởng đến nỗ lực của sinh viên trong việc tìm kiếm cơ hội thực hành với người nước ngoài, và mức độ quen thuộc của bài thi không ảnh hưởng đến phương pháp học tập và chiến lược luyện thi. Kết quả cũng cho thấy sinh viên có xu hướng lựa chọn các hoạt động và nội dung học tập theo định hướng của bài thi VSTEP mà không quan tâm đến các nội dung không có trong bài thi.

Từ khóa: cảm nhận của người học, bài thi quan trọng, ảnh hưởng dội ngược, định hướng từ bài thi, SEM.

VNU Journal of Foreign Studies, Vol.35, No.6 (2019) 135-145

DISCUSSION

THE VIETNAM SYNDROME IN *FORREST GUMP* MOVIE SCRIPT

Trinh Thi Van*, Nguyen Hong Van, Nguyen Thi Thu Phuc

Department of Foreign Languages,
Hanoi University of Mining and Geology
Duc Thang, Bac Tu Liem, Hanoi, Vietnam

Received 15 March 2019
Revised 16 September 2019; Accepted 22 December 2019

Abstract: Considered the most controversial war in the 20th century, the Vietnam War deeply divides the American society. Especially, it causes the Vietnam Syndrome which still is an obsession of American people until today. The research is carried out on a movie script of one of the most famous Hollywood films about the Vietnam War, *Forrest Gump*. The collected data are analyzed on the basis of Fairclough's three-dimensional framework for critical discourse analysis (CDA). The study aims to reveal the different aspects of the syndrome considered as a psychological trauma expressing in many factors such as the topic, the plot, the characters, the setting, the genre, the theme songs, and the language of the whole movie. Moreover, the movie script exposes a long period of problematic and tragic time in the history of the United States.

Keywords: critical discourse analysis, Vietnam Syndrome, movie script, Vietnam War, American Studies

1. Introduction

The term Vietnam Syndrome, or Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD), was first used in the early 1970s to describe the physical and psychological symptoms of veterans coming back from the Vietnam War. By the end of the 1970s, the Vietnam Syndrome was no longer a purely medical term, and it came to have a political meaning, coined by Henry Kissinger and popularized by Ronald Reagan to describe the US's reluctance to send troops into combat situations overseas. This happened because the US was afraid that they would get bogged down in a quagmire again, like they did in Vietnam, and this would lead to a loss of support for the government.

The Vietnam Syndrome also led to many problems in American society and people. In other words, it was a trouble of the whole country. Many veterans coming back from Vietnam have failed in efforts to have an ordinary life. More Vietnam veterans committed suicide due to psychological problems after the war than those who had died during the war. At least three-quarters in a million veterans became homeless or jobless.

Intrinsically, the Vietnam Syndrome is a collective psychological sickness caused by the conflicts between ideological powers and reality. By ideological powers we mean the belief in the "Noble" American Values, Dreams, Just Cause, Strength, etc. These powers decide the way they speak, live, and behave in their life. (Remember Thomas Paine's statement that the cause of the

* Corresponding author. Tel.: 84-982853935
Email: trinhvan86nb@gmail.com

Americans is the cause of humanity). The reality is what they see: the American soldiers went to Vietnam to become "baby killers", drop napalm, and cause bloody massacres.

The question is whether the American government continually tell lies to their nation in committing all these awful actions that generate psychological disorders in the whole country while and after the war.

The demonstrations of the Vietnam Syndrome are different, but the essential is the doubt and disbelief of American people in the so-called American values. They raise questions such as: Is America really such a free and great country? Does the American Army go to Vietnam to liberate miserable people from the communists' suppression? Does the merciful God exist as they used to think? In general, it is their disillusion in the future and in life. They lose their direction to the future and do not know how to move on.

To find out the fact that the syndrome appears everywhere in every field of American society including in artworks, literature, newspapers, especially in movies; the research investigates the movie script of *Forrest Gump* – a very gripping example in which the Vietnam Syndrome hiddenly exists in outstanding factors of the movie such as the topic, the plot, the characters, the setting, the genre, the theme songs, and the language.

2. Theoretical background and analytical framework

Theoretical background

Emerging in the 1970s, CDA has developed strongly with its multidisciplinary approach on the analysis of ideology and power relation. It has drawn the attention of many linguists with the outstanding CDA works such as Fowler, Van Dijk, Wodak, and especially Fairclough. In Fairclough's point of view, CDA is defined as follows: "By "*critical*" discourse analysis, I mean discourse analysis which aims to systematically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events, and texts (b) wider social and cultural structures, relations, and processes; to investigate how such practices, events, and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power; and to explore how the opacity of these relationships between discourse and society is itself a factor securing power and hegemony" (Fairclough, 1995, p.132-133).

Fairclough's significant contribution to CDA is the development of the analytical framework which many researchers have considered a useful tool to do CDA studies so far. In fact, Fairclough gives his opinion on the actual nature of discourse and text analysis through the three-dimensional framework in Figure 1 below:

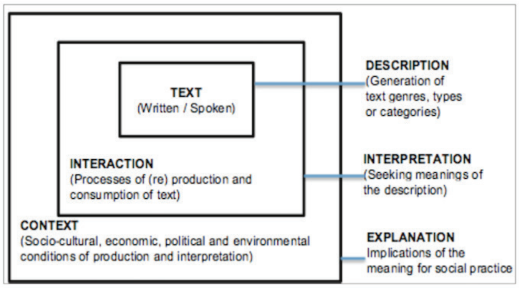


Figure 1. Three-dimension conception of discourse analysis (Fairclough, 1992)

As shown in Figure 1, Fairclough's analytical framework includes three dimensions of discourse: the text, the discourse practice, and the socio-cultural practice. Corresponding to these three dimensions of discourse, Fairclough identifies three dimensions (or stages) of CDA as follows:

Description is the stage concerned with identifying formal properties of the text. In this stage, the analysis of the language structures produced is exercised.

Interpretation is concerned with the relationship between text and interaction –

with seeing the text as a product of a process of production, and as a resource in the process of interpretation.

Explanation is concerned with the relationship between interaction and social context – with the social determination of the processes of production and interpretation, and their social effects.

According to Fairclough's analytical framework, CDA researchers center on not just analyzing texts and the processes of their production and interpretation, but also the relationship between texts, processes, and their social conditions, both the immediate conditions of the situational context and the more remote conditions of institutional and social structures.

Analytical framework

Among a wide range of qualitative research methods, the approach of critical discourse analysis was chosen for this study in order to highlight the Vietnam Syndrome reflected in all the factors of he movie script.

The data analysis focusing on the Vietnam Syndrome based on Fairclough 's analytical framework follows a three-stage process: description, interpretation, and explanation.

In the stage of description, the authors will particularly center on the factors that constitute the movie script such as the topic, the plot, the characters, the setting, the genre, the theme songs, and the language used in the script. In the stage of interpretation, the researchers will show how the expressions should be interpreted in the specific context of the movie script of which the syndrome displays explicitly and implicitly. In the stage of explanation, the researchers will demonstrate how those expressions are affected by socio-cultural powers such as situational, social, or institutional, in this case by the Vietnam Syndrome.

The data related to chosen factors were described, and then interpreted separately. And always independently, based on the social and historical context of the Vietnam War and American society at that time, the explanation of the data was performed in order to find out the Vietnam Syndrome hidden behind.

3. Data analysis

In this study, the researcher collected the data from the script of the film *Forrest Gump* written by Eric Roth and based on a novel by Winston Groom. The impacts of the Vietnam Syndrome on the movie script were discovered and demonstrated by analyzing the data concerning main factors of the movie such as the topic, the plot, the characters, the setting, the genre, the theme songs, and the language. Besides, some inter-textual factors, such as historical, socio-cultural, and artistic events and works, were also studied when needed.

3.1. Topic, Plot and Characters

Topic

The topic of the movie, is about the Vietnam War which ended many years ago. By the time the movie was created, there had already been many films, books, documentaries, articles, etc. referring to the war throughout the United States and all over the world. However, the director still chose this topic, which indicates that the questions about the war never come to an end in Americans' conception. They are always urged to go and find out the ways to solve the problems of American society as the effects of the war. It means that the Vietnam Syndrome still persists - it can hardly ever fade away from American history.

It is also fundamental to note that the war has different names in Vietnam and in the US. In Vietnam it is *cuộc kháng chiến chống Mỹ cứu nước* (literally *an Anti-American Resistance War for National Salvation*), while in the US, it is called the Vietnam War, which implies that it is just a war among other wars – and "victories" – in the US history. It is clear how the ideological powers form the names and concepts of wars in the US.

Plot

The movie *Forrest Gump* follows the life events of a man who shares the name with the title of the film. Forrest faces many tribulations throughout his life, but he never lets any of them interfere with his happiness. From wearing braces on his legs to having a below average IQ and even being shot, Forrest continues to believe that good things will happen and goes after his dreams. When several unlucky things occur during Forrest's life, he manages to turn each setback into something good for him. For example, when he finally gets his braces off he discovers that he is capable of running faster than most other people. This skill allows Forrest not only to escape his bullies while he is a child in Greenbow, but also to gain a football scholarship, save many soldiers' lives and become famous for his ability. While Gump eventually achieves the majority of the things he hoped to throughout the movie, it proved a much more difficult task to win the heart of his life-long friend Jenny Curran.

The movie centers on Forrest Gump who is always called an idiot or a stupid man throughout the film, and the incidents that occur during his life. Interestingly, Forrest's life journeys take place at the same time as the Vietnam War (1955-1975). Therefore, the questions he asks himself about his life appear to be the questions of Americans about the war.

The image of Forrest Gump symbolizes that of the United States during the Vietnam War. America is considered to behave like an idiot in the conflict. In the end, they do not know how to move on or how to leave it. The Vietnam War is forever a black eye in American history.

Characters

As mentioned above in the plot, the film focuses on life journeys of the main character **Forrest Gump** who shares the same name as the title of the movie. He was named after a soldier in the American Civil War (1861-1865).

> *When I was a baby, Momma named me after the great Civil War hero, General Nathan Bedford Forrest.*

General Nathan Bedford Forrest is also the person who starts up the club called Ku Klux Klan. "They'd all dressed up in their robes and their bed sheets and act like a bunch of ghosts or spooks or something". It seems to be one way that the director uses to recall the Vietnam War. Behind that is the presence of the Vietnam Syndrome expressed in the film.

There are three other major characters of the movie who stick to Forrest's life. They are Jenny, Lieutenant Dan Tayler (Lt. Dan) and Bubba. **Jenny** is Forrest's childhood friend whom he immediately falls in love with and never stops loving throughout his life. Being a victim of child sexual abuse at the hands of her bitterly widowed father, Jenny embarks on a different path from Forrest, leading a self-destructive life and becoming part of the hippie movement in the 1960s and the 1970s drug culture. She takes part in the anti-Vietnam war protests, and travels all around the country with strangers. She dies at the end of the movie.

Lt. Dan is Forrest and Bubba's platoon leader during the Vietnam War, whose ancestors have died in every American war, and he regards it as his destiny to do the same. After losing his legs in an ambush and being rescued against his will by Forrest, he is initially bitter and antagonistic towards Forrest for leaving him a "cripple", and as a result, he falls into a deep depression.

Bubba is Forrest's friend whom he meets upon joining the Army. Bubba was originally supposed to be the senior partner in the Bubba Gump Shrimp Company, but he dies by a river in Vietnam.

It can be seen from the main characters of the movie that all their lives are destroyed in one or another way by or during the time of the Vietnam War. They either die or become disabled because of the war.

These characters seem to embody the image of the United States at that time, completely ruined and bitterly divided - a disabled America.

3.2. Setting and genre

Setting

The film is set mainly in the city of Savannah, Georgia where the main character, Forrest Gump, sits on a bench to tell a story about his life. The question is why did the director choose Georgia, not other states to be the setting of the movie?

In fact, Georgia joined the Confederacy and became a major theater of the Civil War (1861-1865) in the early 1861. It was the state where main battles took place from Atlanta to Savannah. A lot of Georgian soldiers die in service, roughly one of every five who served. Georgia also became the last Confederate state to be restored to the Union. One more noticeable fact, Georgia is a state which is split many times. From 1802 to 1804, western Georgia was split to the Mississippi Territory, and later was split to form Alabama with part of former West Florida in 1819. Moreover, it is one of the states in the USA where racism happens prominently. In 1908, the state established a white primary with the only competitive contest within the Democratic Party, which was another way to exclude blacks from politics.

Additionally, Ku Klux Klan, an American terrorist organization which advocated extremist reactionary positions such as white supremacy, white nationalism, and anti-immigration developed quickly and successfully in Georgia with the foundation of the Association of Georgia Klans.

With all these important and complicated facts about the state of Georgia, can we conclude that the director of the movie has reasons for his choice? He probably intentionally chose a place where people were divided for a long time in the war of their own nation.

Is it the same as the Vietnam War, which is believed to traumatize and divide the American people for decades, and do immense harm to the image of the United States in the world?

Genre

The genre of *Forrest Gump* is a drama but mixing with a comedy.

The movie seems to be an epic, but that is an epic about an American citizen with a low IQ of 75 who is often considered a local idiot. However, he is a hero in the war because of rescuing his teammates from a bomb explosion and attack of the enemy by running. Formally, Forrest is "*a football star, and a war hero, and a national celebrity, and a shrimp boat captain, and a college graduate, the city of fathers of Greenbow, Alabama*."

On the other hand, all the events in his life are funny and foolish. For example, when he was put in the All-America Team and invited to meet the President of the United States in the Oval Office, he just cares about food and drink. "*The real good thing about meeting the President of the United States is the food*". He drank about fifteen Dr. Peppers. When President Kennedy shakes his hand and asks "*How do you feel*?", he replies "*I gotta pee*".

Another time Forrest comes again to get the Medal of Honor from the President of the United States, he drops his pants, bends over and shows the bullet wound on his bare buttocks to President Johnson. All these ridiculous actions appear not to occur accidentally in his life, but it seems to be an anti-power against all the American values such as wealth, freedom, or nobility.

Forrest's behaviors sound to reflect the American society at that time. According to public media, America is a wonderland, a land of freedom and democracy; but in fact, it is a place where racism, inequality, discrimination, etc. happen in every corner of the society.

3.3. Language

The language used by the characters in the movie is very diverse. Especially the offensive language appears densely under words or phrases in the whole script. The character who used such kind of language the most is Lt. Dan. He normally adds words such as "***goddammit***", "***shit***" or "***son-of-a bitch***" in his speech. With the appearance of other bad words like "***Viet fucking Nam***", "***this fucking war***", "***the whole damn country***", or "***Goddam bless America***", it seems that the characters like to say that in their everyday conversation. However, the use of these curses reflects an uncomfortable attitude of American people toward the society at that time. They have to live in an unpleasant condition where discrimination, violence, and racism happen in every corner of life. They are disappointed with the government and hopeless about the future. That is one aspect of the Vienam Syndrome mentioned in the movie.

Together with those offensive words, there are many other expressions that demonstrate the syndrome presented in the film script.

When being shot in a battle field in Vietnam and breathed the last breath of his life, Bubba, an American soldier, whispered to his friend, Forrest, "***Why'd this happen****?*". This is a rhetorical question of Bubba about his current situation: why his platoon was attacked and why he was badly wounded. It is a wonder about his injury; it sounds, however, to be a bitter question why this war happened and why America got involved into this war. For many years during the Vietnam War and after it ended, American people have still gone to find the answers to the questions how the war began, why it bred so much dissent, or why it lasted so long. The question of Bubba reminds us of a great song named "*I feel like I'm fixing a die rag*" written by Country Joe McDonald (1967).

And it's one, two, three
What are we fighting for?
Don't ask me, I don't give a damn
Next stop is Vietnam
And it's five, six, seven
Open up the pearly gates.
Well there ain't no time to wonder why
Whoopee! We're all gonna die

The song is about placing the blame on American politicians, high-level military officers, and industry corporations for starting the Vietnam War. "*What are we fighting for*?" is the question which young Americans drafted for the Army always attempt to get the answer.

After being badly injured, Bubba said something to Forrest that he never forgets: "***I wanna go home***." That is the last wish of a soldier when he got shot at a distance very far from his hometown. He wanted to go home with his mom and his family all around. It is very sad that his dream never comes true. He died right there by that river in Vietnam. The hope of Bubba appears to be an echo of a slogan of protests against the Vietnam War that spreads on all the streets of America from the late 1960s to the early 1970s, "*Bring them home*". "*Bring them home*" or "*Bring the boys home*" are catchwords aimed at the sending of troops to fight in a war considered increasingly unpopular in the United States. The slogan is also the name of a famous anti-war song written by Pete Seeger in 1971.

For defense you need common sense
Bring them home, bring them home
They don't have the right armaments
Bring them home, bring them home.

The song is an anti-war anthem emphasizing the fact that American government should pull their military out of Vietnam.

Another expression deeply indicates the Vietnam Syndrome is that of Lt. Dan. When he was badly injured in the battle field, Forrest ran to rescue him, after that he was taken to the hospital and survived. Later on, he got very angry with Forrest and shouted at him: "*Did you hear what I said.* ***You cheated me****. I had a destiny. I was supposed to die in the field. With honor! That was my destiny! And* ***you cheated me*** *out of it!*"

In fact, he was rescued by Forrest, and Forrest did not cheat him anything, but he repeatedly said that Forrest cheated him. So who cheated Lt. Dan? It appears that "*you*" here is the American government. It was the

United States' Presidents who cheated all the soldiers to go to Vietnam to fight an unjust war. They said to the soldiers to come to Vietnam to stop the communist in order to liberate the miserable people there. They thought they came to do a noble job in their life, but the truth is very different. They came to Vietnam to kill women and children, to do terrible work that they had not expected before. At that time, they bitterly realized that they were cheated by their own top leaders.

At a later time, Lt. Dan became "a legless freak", and he did not know what to do with the rest of his life. He screamed: "***What am I gonna do now? What am I gonna do now****?*". The impasse of Lt. Dan's situation after being amputated is also the deadlock of the whole American society succeeding many years of involvement into the war. The US Army could not stay, and could not leave. They do not know how to escape from the mud. This makes us think of another well-known song of Pete Seeger "*Waist deep in the big muddy*" written in 1967.

We were waist deep in the Big Muddy.
And the big fool said to push on.

The song was considered symbolic of the Vietnam War (*the Big Muddy*) and President Lyndon Johnson (*the big fool*) 's policy of escalation, then widely seen as pushing the United States deeper into the increasingly unpopular war.

In the expression above, the repetation of the rhetorical question of Lt. Dan remains engraved on Americans' minds about an unforgetable memory of a horrible period of time. It is like a startled saying of the whole American society. The US got involved in a war on the other side of the world for very poorly justified reasons. They did not really know how to win, or even have a definition of winning, and they used all the military power they had (except nuclear weapons) to commit massive human right violations against the population of a poor third world country, and yet they achieved precisely nothing.

In another situation when Forrest went to Washington, DC to receive the Medal of Honor from the President of the United States, he was put in a line with the other veterans against the war, and asked to tell the crowds about the war in Vietnam. When Forrest was about to speak, there was a policeman pulling the patch cords out of the audio board, so that people could not hear anything. "***We can't hear you. We can't hear anything.***" The only thing that people can hear is the last sentence in Forrest's speech: "*That's all I have to say about that*." The image of a veteran continuing to speak into the microphone without any sound seems to symbolize the whole nation who cannot speak out the truth. They have no chance to know about what American soldiers think and do in Vietnam. They really want to know the truth, but the only thing they can hear from the government is nothing at all. All people in the country have no opportunity to raise their voice and to understand what is happening in the war. The American government always finds the way to cover the truth. Therefore, the American people do not know the true story behind the mask.

The Vietnam War causes the entire American society a disbelief in noble values considered the symbol of the United States. Even though about 70% of American population follows Christianity, they have to question about their religious belief after the war. They doubt whether there is Jesus Christ existing in this world. This is clearly indicated in Lt. Dan's speech when he talks to Forrest years later upon their re-union.

> *Have you found* **Jesus** *yet, Gump? Jesus this and* **Jesus** *that. Have I found* **Jesus***? They even had a priest come and talk to me. He said* **God** *is listening, but I have to help myself. Now, if I accept* **Jesus** *into my heart, I'll get to walk beside him in the Kingdom of Heaven.*

Did you hear what I said? Walk beside him in the Kingdom of Heaven. Well, kiss my crippled ass. ***God*** *is listening. What a crock of shit!*

His words prove the hopelessness of Americans to the merciful God. They no longer believe in what they often pray in the church that Great Jesus would give them peace and a better life. The world they are living in is full of loss and depression. The repetition of the word "Jesus" or "God" in Lt. Dan's speech exposes the bitter despair of an amputated veteran who has nothing to lose as well as nothing to live by.

The loss of his life also is demonstrated in the conversation between him and two prostitutes when they argue with each other at New Year's night. The prostitutes repeatedly call him "***You big loser****!*", "***You retard****!*", "***You freak****!*", or "***You so pathetic****!*" All these imperative sentences, like a needle, stab into his heart and make his life more tragic. He is not only a loser in the war, but also a loser in his life. Coming back from Vietnam and being a crippled veteran, Lt. Dan has to stay in a hotel and "lives off the government tit". He totally no longer believes in anything in this world. As Forrest said "***there's something you can't change***." He cannot change the truth that he is now a legless freak. His life is destroyed by the Vietnam War. Appallingly, it is the same as the United States that is deeply divided by the war. The war is over and reveals an America which is full of people with disabled minds.

One of the most important expressions that appears in the script is the question that people often ask Forrest at the first time they meet him: "***Are you stupid or something***?" Forrest is a simple-minded man with a low IQ of 75, so he usually behaves very differently from what people often think. Therefore, the question is directly about Forrest's intelligence. Whenever he performs strangely, people ask him that question. However, the interrogative sentence probably veils another meaning which seems to be related to the performance of the United States in the Vietnam War. Is Forrest stupid or America itself a big idiot?

3.4. Theme songs

Many anti-Vietnam war songs written in the 1960s and the 1970s are used in the movie script. "***Blowing in the wind***" (1962) is one of the best songs of all time performed by the character Jenny in the film.

How many roads must a man walk down
before you call him a man?
How many seas must a white dove sail
before she sleeps in the sand?
Yes, and how many times must the cannon balls fly
before they're forever banned?

The song was written by Bob Dylan during the early sixties which was right when the United States started sending more troops into Vietnam. It poses a series of rhetorical questions about peace, war, and freedom. This is an anti-war song that does not only make a specific reference to the Vietnam War but was also written to make people view the wars in a negative way. Dylan uses lots of rhetorical questions that are meant to criticize the country's involvement in wars, specifically the one in Vietnam.

Another song, *"****Fortunate Son****"* (1969), is one of the Vietnam era's best-known protest songs.

Some folks are born made to wave the flag.
Ooh, they're red, white and blue.
And when the band plays "Hail to the Chief,"
ohh, they point the cannon at you all.
It ain't me. It ain't me.
I ain't no Senator's son, no.
It ain't me. It ain't me...

Written by John Fogerty and performed by Fogerty's band, Creedence Clearwater Revival, *Fortunate Son* takes aim at the United States' political and military elite – the men who push for the war but are seldom affected by it. According to Fogerty, *Fortunate*

Son was inspired by the marriage of Dwight D. Eisenhower's grandson to Richard Nixon's daughter. In simple but angry tones, Fogerty's lyrics suggest that the children of the working classes – not "senator's sons" or "millionaire's sons" – are drafted and sent into the teeth of war. "*It ain't me. It ain't me. I ain't no Senator's son, no. It ain't me. It ain't me...*". This indicates that the only fortunate or lucky ones in the war are soldiers who can get themselves out of the army or out of the military by having special relations with people inside the government. The song, released during the peak period of the US's involvement in Vietnam, is not explicitly a criticism of that war in particular, but it also "speaks more about the unfairness of class than war itself," according to its author, John Fogerty. "It's the old saying about rich men making war and poor men having to fight them."

The third example, "***For what it worth***" (1967) is a well-known protest song written by Stephen Stills and performed by Buffalo Springfield.

There's something happenin' here.
What it is ain't exactly clear.
There's a man with a gun over there,
telling me I got to beware.

The song was written during the Vietnam War when America was split between anti-war protesters and pro-war civilians. The group tried to use this song to make people realize the actual actions that the war was causing and base their opinion on the events.

There are some other songs mentioned in the film such as ***"****Mr. President (have pity on the working man)"* (1974), "*Where have all the flowers gone?"* (Pete Seeger, 1961) or "*All along the watchtower"* (Bob Dylan*,* 1967). All these songs play an important cultural role during the Vietnam War. Great arts are often produced in the hardest time, and some of the most iconic music genres of the 20th century were produced during the 1960s and early 1970s in protest of America's involvement in the Vietnam War. Artists like Bob Dylan, Pete Seeger or Randy Newman speak out against the war by their greatest protest songs ever.

3.5. Symbol of the running man

The movie *Forrest Gump* shows historical events that took place from the 1950s through the 1970s out of the perspective of a mentally underdeveloped person – Forrest Gump – the main character. There are no explanations given why things happen, but occasionally Forrest offers his own explanations, which seem stupid to the spectator, but are understandable, because the viewer is constantly reminded of Forrest's low IQ. Within the storyline, many metaphors are used. They animate the audiences to think more deeply about events and question why things happen the way they do. One of them is that throughout the movie Forrest is constantly "on the run". So why is he running? And what are the makers of the film trying to say by using this metaphor?

The first time he ran was in Forrest's childhood years when he walked down a street together with Jenny and was attacked by a group of kids. They threw stones at him and called him names. Forrest obviously did not know how to react and just stood still as if he was paralyzed, waiting for what would happen next. Jenny gave him a solution by telling him to run away. Forrest started running and escaped from the kids. Through this incident, he noticed for the first time that running away was a good solution to get out of dangerous situations.

The second time when he is already in college, he is again running away from men chasing him and by accident he gets on a football field. He is seen by the coach of the team and gets immediately drafted as a player. He does not know the rules of the game. And he does not need to, because his whole job consists of catching the ball, running towards the enemy line and hitting a home run. One can see that Forrest does not know what he is doing by the huge posters shown which are supposed to guide him. They read, "*Go Forrest*", and "*Stop Forrest*". On the stands, people form letters saying "*Go Forrest*". He becomes a successful football player. And he notices again that he can be successful by simply running.

Before Forrest has to leave for the Vietnam War, Jenny tells him to run and not to be brave whenever he is in danger. One day his platoon gets caught in a shooting and he runs away and thus gets away from getting shot. He is the only not-badly injured person in his platoon and rescues many of his mates.

There are many other times when Forrest just runs. After his mom's death, Forrest runs across the United States, gets national media coverage, and by the way "invents" the bumper sticker Shit Happens and the Smiley face.

These are only the main examples of Forrest running in the movie. Every time Forrest runs, he gets away from a dangerous or unfortunate situation and ends up turning it into earning success and glory for himself. He does not realize himself what he is doing or why he is doing it, but it works out every time. This metaphor presumably symbolizes the insecurity of the common people living at that time, the "baby boom generation". People live their lives without knowing what is happening around them and why it is happening. They have no active influence on the events surrounding them.

Furthermore, there is another underlying meaning of Forrest's running. For many years, the US government got bogged down to the war in Vietnam throughout five presidents, especially from Lyndon B. Johnson to Richard Nixon. At the beginning of 1970s, Nixon tried to find out the way to withdraw his army from Vietnam in honor, but no way of putting the war to an end. The character's running appears to convey a lot of underlying meanings. The dynamic verb "***run***" is totally mentioned about 102 times in the whole movie script. It seems to be the symbol of the US Army's running away from the Vietnam War. They run away after a long time of being deep inside the hell without the way to escape. American soldiers in Vietnam and American people in the United States completely lose their beliefs in a victory of the country. When the truth about what the US soldiers do in Vietnam is gradually brought to light, they no longer believe in the promises of the government that they will soon end up the war. After Tet Offensive (1968), the US government realizes the dead-end destiny and tries to find out the solution for getting out of their tragic situation in Indochina. They try to run away as Forrest does in the film. Running away is to escape from a really horrible tragedy in Vietnam.

Additionally, Forrest's running comes across to imply another meaning – an escape from the obsession of the Vietnam War years after the war. Perhaps, there is no other conflict that makes American people get into such a panic. Therefore, they run to flee away the past as it means in Forrest's saying, ***"My Momma always said you got to put the past behind you before you can move on. And I think that's what my running was all about"***. The Vietnam War was, and still is, an important part of the lives of many Americans. It is the Vietnam Syndrome that still haunts their heart and mind many years after the war.

4. Conclusion

The underlying reasons for the Vietnam Syndrome are the conflicts between the ideological myth of American noble values such as freedom, equality, human rights, etc. and what badly happened in the Vietnam War – killing babies and women, inequality, and racism were practiced by American soldiers. Thomas Paine, one of the greatest fighters of freedom and independence in American history claimed in his famous book *Common Sense* (1776) that "*The cause of America is in a great measure the cause of all mankind*". But what the US Army did in the war made their people bitterly disappointed and disbelieved in the government. It led to the psychological trauma in the whole American society. In other words, they asserted that the ideal wonderland has already gone.

Our analysis shows that the Vietnam Syndrome is obsessive in the whole *Forrest Gump* script. It strongly influences the topic, the plot, the characters, the setting, the genre, the theme songs of the film, and the language used in the movie.

The study is an attempt to apply CDA approach to an artistic text in order to figure out the hidden messages in a movie script seen as a text produced in a historical and social context with a specific situation. Our work shows that to understand the meaning of a discourse, it is very important for teachers and learners to find out not only its textual, but also the extra-textual and inter-textual factors.

Acknowledgements

We would like to express our thanks to our teacher, **Dr. Ngô Tự Lập** for all his help and guidance. Were it not his support, we would not have the courage to complete this research. His valuable comments and suggestions also played an important part in the finalization of this study.

References

Alan Rohn, Vietnam Syndrome, 2014. Available at https://thevietnamwar.info/vietnam-syndrome/ accessed on June 27, 2014.

Christian G. Apply (2003). *Patriots: The Vietnam War remembered from all sides*. New York: Viking.

Fairclough, N. (1989). *Language and Power*. London: Longman.

Fairclough, N. (1992). *Discourse and Social Change.* Cambridge: Polity Press.

Fairclough, N. (1995). *Critical discourse analysis: The Critical Study of Language,* London: Longman.

Fowler, R., On critical linguistics, In Caldas-Coulthard, C.R. & Coulthard, M.(Eds) (1996). *Texts and Practices: Readings in Critical Discourse Analysis*. Routledge, 3-14.

Van Dijk, T.A. (1984). *Pragmatics & Beyond*, Vol.3, Prejudice in Discourse, John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Van Dijk, T.A. (1993). *Principles of critical discourse analysis. Discourse & Society*. Sage, *4*(2), 249-83.

Van Dijk, T.A., Critical Discourse Analysis. In D. Schiffrin, D. Tannen, & H.E. Hamilton, (Eds) (2001). *The Handbook of Discourse Analysis*. Oxford: Blackwell, 352-71.

Wodak, R. & Meyer, M. (Eds), (2009). *Methods of Critical Discourse Analysis* (2nd revised edition), London: Sage.

HỘI CHỨNG VIỆT NAM TRONG KỊCH BẢN PHIM *FORREST GUMP*

Trịnh Thị Vân, Nguyễn Hồng Vân, Nguyễn Thị Thu Phúc

Bộ môn Ngoại ngữ, Khoa Khoa học cơ bản, Trường Đại học Mỏ - Địa chất
Đức Thắng, Bắc Từ Liêm, Hà Nội, Việt Nam

Tóm tắt: Sự sụp đổ của chính quyền Sài Gòn vào ngày 30 tháng 04 năm 1975 đã đánh dấu sự chấm dứt của cuộc chiến tranh Việt Nam kéo dài trong suốt 20 năm. Được coi là một trong những xung đột gây tranh cãi nhiều nhất của thế kỉ 20, cuộc chiến tranh Việt Nam đã phân chia sâu sắc xã hội và con người Mỹ. Đặc biệt, cuộc chiến còn gây ra Hội chứng Việt Nam mà đến ngày nay vẫn còn là nỗi ám ảnh của toàn nước Mỹ. Nghiên cứu này được thực hiện trên kịch bản của bộ phim *Forrest Gump* – một trong số những bộ phim nổi tiếng và thành công nhất của điện ảnh Hollywood về đề tài chiến tranh Việt Nam. Dữ liệu được phân tích dựa trên khung lí thuyết ba lớp của nhà ngôn ngữ học người Thụy Sỹ Norman Fairclough. Kết quả nghiên cứu đã chỉ ra những khía cạnh khác nhau của hội chứng Việt Nam – ẩn sâu là một chấn thương tâm lí của người Mỹ – được diễn tả trong nhiều yếu tố của kịch bản phim, điển hình đó là chủ đề, cốt truyện, nhân vật, bối cảnh, thể loại, nhạc nền, và ngôn ngữ được sử dụng trong bộ phim. Hơn thế nữa, kịch bản bộ phim còn phơi bày một giai đoạn lịch sử đầy bi kịch của nước Mỹ.

Từ khóa: phân tích diễn ngôn phê phán, hội chứng Việt Nam, kịch bản phim, chiến tranh Việt Nam, Hoa Kỳ học

PROMOTING LEARNER AUTONOMY THROUGH SELF-ASSESSMENT AND REFLECTION

Ngo Thi Thanh*

English for Special Purposes, Foreign Trade University,
91 Chua Lang, Hanoi, Vietnam

Received 21 August 2019
Revised 06 November 2019; Accepted 22 December 2019

Abstract: This paper describes how leaner autonomy was promoted through self-assessment and reflection activities. The research aims to help students explore their inner strength of working independently outside the classroom and self-assess their own skills with the ultimate aim to improve their listening and speaking performance. Based on the theoretical framework about self-assessment and reflection by Andrade and Valtcheva (2009), together with learner autonomy by Holec (1981), the author conducted a research project on 2nd-year students in three non-English major classes at a university in a 15-session learning program. These students were facilitated by self-assessment of their listening and speaking skills through practical tasks outside classroom to help them become more independent learners and reflect on and evaluate their own performance. From the results, the research demonstrates that self-assessment and reflection activities can be useful tools to encourage students to become independent learners.

Key words: learner's autonomy, self-assessment and reflection

1. Introduction

Traditionally, curricula have tended to focus on imparting knowledge and skills rather than the teaching of how to learn. In language teaching, we have focused on teaching linguistic forms by presenting the language items in carefully graded steps, at the expense of teaching people how to learn the language (Olivareas, 2002). However, the main issue is that the differences between students are not because of their studying specific books, having the same teachers, employing identical learning styles, or experiences, but because of the ways they have found out about how to learn a language more economically and productively. In fact, the most successful learners are the ones who take the responsibility of their own learning.

The objective of the study was for students to explore the potential of working independently outside the classroom and to assess their own skills with the ultimate aim of increasing their speaking and listening performance. The author aimed to discover relationships between autonomous learning and students' progress in speaking and listening skills through learning activities.

2. Learner autonomy through self-assessment

Many scholars as well as researchers have endeavored to articulate autonomy, as it pertains to language education, in a variety of ways. This has resulted in a wide range of definitions and theoretical frameworks, which in turn have contributed to and influenced much of the broader theory and practice in language education today. In other words, the concept of autonomy seems to have had

* Tel.: 84-978356619
Email: thanhnt@ftu.edu.vn

a profound impact on theory and pedagogical practices, resulting in a radical restructuring of language pedagogy (Warchulski, 2015). Within this context, the basic notion of autonomy is often defined in terms of learners taking some form of responsibility for their learning.

According to Holec (1981) autonomous learning is *'the ability to take charge of one's learning'* (p.3). Inherent in this is the management of various aspects of the learning process, including, the monitoring of one's learning progress, setting goals, and self-assessment. Although numerous other definitions have been proposed since this time, many of them vary only in semantic terms and seem to be grounded in or tied to Holec's conception in some way. In relation to this concept, several authors including Gardner and Miller (1997) and Tudor (1996) have argued that an integral part of autonomous learning is self-assessment, as it assists learners to evaluate their success on specific learning tasks. As Gardner (2000, p.50) points out, self-assessment can potentially 'serve a number of purposes, such as confidence building, demonstrating learning gain, or motivation…' Furthermore, Harris (1997) suggests that students are usually willing to assess their own language performance if they are taught how to do it. Therefore, self-assessment is generally regarded as being beneficial for a variety of reasons and enable students to have a higher degree of control of their overall learning while encouraging them to reflect in a deeper and hence, more meaningful manner. It is widely believed that self-assessment helps learners to be more active through a process of self-reflection that allows them to locate their own strengths and weaknesses by urging them to think about what they need to do and helping them to view their learning in personal terms (Harris, 1997). In other words, students are likely to realize (or begin to) that they have the ultimate responsibility for learning.

An important issue regarding the use of student self-assessment that requires consideration is the degree of students' accuracy with respect to being able to assess themselves in the context of language learning. However, it is also suggested that so long as teachers do their part where required properly, for example, explaining the purpose of self-assessments and providing the necessary guidance and awareness raising when required during the process, the low levels of accuracy can be mitigated and students will likely be able to assess themselves fairly accurately.

In general, there are three underlying principles or steps in self-assessment, as suggested by Andrade and Valtcheva (2009) namely; (1) articulating expectations, (2) self-assessing, (3) revising. In the first step, the teacher not only clearly defines expectations for a task, but explains each criterion that would be used in the self-assessment as well. For example, in teaching English writing, the teacher can either outline the criteria or discuss it with the students in the class before carrying out each activity. These criteria can include ordering the importance of different aspects in writing, e.g., conventions as compared to organisation of ideas, and the allocation of marks for each aspect (Harris, 1997). With that, students can reach an agreement with the teacher on the criteria set in assessing task performance and what counts as quality work. In the second step, students come up with initial drafts of the task given, e.g., an essay, and continually monitor their own progress on their assignments by making comparisons between their performance against the expectations laid out, and if they find that they have not met the standard, they can write short notes to remind themselves to make changes when writing their final drafts (Andrade & Valtcheva, 2009). In the third and final step, students use the feedback to aid in their revision. Thus, students come up with a final self-assessment, which can be compared with those of their peers and the teacher. Harris (1997) further suggests that the teacher can compile a list of common mistakes made by students which can be used as another checklist for self-editing in which students are able to refer to when revising their work.

There are various elements that need to be considered when designing self-assessment tools in order for self-assessment to be carried out effectively. Andrade (1999) suggests eight features of self-assessment which are (1) awareness of the value of self-assessment; (2) access to clear criteria on which to base the assessment; (3) a specific task or performance to assess; (4) models of self-assessment; (5) direct instruction in and assistance with self-assessment; (6) practice; (7) cues regarding when it is appropriate to self-assess, and (8) opportunities to revise and improve the task or performance.

Regarding the construction, self-assessment is typically centered around specific tasks whereby a set of criteria are introduced clearly and samples or models are provided so students can see how each criterion is linked to the task. In term of the task, teachers need to frame it in such a way that students are able to easily assess their performance after completing the task. When considering the criteria for assessment, using a rubric is suggested by Andrade and Valtcheva (2009), by this way they suppose that "a good rubric describes the kinds of mistakes students tend to make, as well as the ways in which good work shines" (p. 13). Therefore, students obtain valuable information about what is required of them from the task, rather than having to guess what their learning objectives are and how to best meet those objectives. In addition to having an assessable task and clear criteria, providing models of self-assessment to students would make the identification and familiarising process even smoother when it comes to actually doing their own assessment; students not only understand the criteria, but see how it is applied and done in reality, which would help give them a better understanding of the assessment. Besides the task, criteria and models, the role of the teacher in implementing the self-assessment is another vital part. Before even getting started on making the criteria of the self-assessment clear to students, the teacher needs to first create awareness among students about the value of using self-assessment; otherwise, students might just see self-assessment as an additional and unnecessary task. Once students start seeing self-assessment as being useful, particularly in supporting learning, they can fully come to appreciate and want to self-assess. The teacher also plays a crutial role in giving assistance and guiding students through using the self-assessment, so as to ensure students understand the criteria clearly and are correctly assessing themselves against those criteria given. Finally, the teacher should give students plenty of room to practice self-assessing as well as more opportunities to revise and improve on the task that they have previously completed and self-assessed on. By allowing students to do that, they become more familiar with how to accurately assess themselves and subsequently know which areas they need to work on in order to improve the quality and accuracy of their work.

3. My position as a teacher and researcher

Because English language is important in modern life, I have tried to learn it since I was a little girl. To pursue my dream of becoming an EFL teacher, I got my bachelor degree in English Language Teaching from Vietnam National University and my master degree in English Linguistics from Darlana University in Sweden.

At the present, I am in charge of teaching English for non-English major students in the Faculty of External Economics, Laws and Business Administration in Foreign Trade University (FTU). Before that, for 7 years I taught English in Vietnam National University of Forestry (VNUF), one of the leading universities in forestry and environment education in Indochina. However, the English proficiency of VNUF's students is lower than those in FTU. Although teaching in two different universities with different majors and teaching demands due to the different levels of students' English proficiency, I realize that one of the most important factors in language learning is learner autonomy to master language skills.

However, during the process of teaching English, the author, like many other language teachers, has experienced the frustration of devoting endless energy to designing interesting tasks, from the teacher's point of view, and organizing a variety of activities for students in the classroom, but getting little response, which is very common. In fact, when teaching in English classes for 1st and 2nd year students at Foreign Trade University, students often play a passive role in gaining language skills. They often feel unwilling to use the target language in pair or group work. They seem to not reflect on the mistakes and evaluate their own performance and, consequently, might not be able to learn from their mistakes. Even really motivated learners do not always have a tendency to promote their potential. One of the reasons is that many students have difficulty in getting familiar with new teaching and learning methods as well as requirements of English proficiency at tertiary environment, especially with the two skills, speaking and listening. In fact, students have little chance to access authentic listening materials and English-speaking skill has not been the main focus of language assessment at many high schools, both in one-period tests and end-of semester tests (Nguyen & Tran, 2018).

During the time of being an English instructor, I have observed many students being passive in acquiring language skills and not active in learning independently outside the classroom. Therefore, it is important for learners to be taught the skill 'how to learn' to become more autonomous. This brings me to a decision to implement some self-assessment activities inside and outside class for students in my three EFL classrooms in Foreign Trade University to enhance their ability to study independently.

4. A brief overview of the course

The objectives of my study are 2nd year students in my three English classes at FTU. These classes are predominantly comprised of Vietnamese students, except for one or two from Laos, Mongolia, or Korea. There were 97 students involved in the project and most were in their early twenties. All of them from three different classes but with the same curriculum were aiming to pass the exams with high marks and improve their listening and speaking skills. The students in these classes were mixed level, not very motivated, quite passive and need to be highly driven.

The students were enrolled in a 15-session learning program (each session lasts for 135 minutes) offered by the Faculty of English For Special Purposes at Foreign Trade University, Vietnam. For these students, they are required to complete their first year learning English at FTU (pre-intermediate level, equivalent to A2 CEFR, 400 TOEIC or 3.5 IELTS). Students enrolling in this program at that time used the book 'Skillful Listening and Speaking Student's Book 1' (Macmillan Publishing House, Lida Baker & Steven Gershon) as their main textbook and guidance. All of the topics designed for activities 2 were drawn from that book in order to make sure that students can apply suitable and appropriate vocabulary of certain topics into real situations when making their dramas.

The curriculum focuses on the academic language and study skills that students will need to acquire in their undergraduate programs. They are assessed on both individual and group performance as well as on numerous skill-based tasks. However, in this course, listening and speaking skills were focused on because these two skills top the agenda of the first two years' curriculum.

5. Activities and discussion

With the aim to facilitate student self-assessment of their listening and speaking skills, the author wanted to encourage them to become more independent learners and provided them with practical tasks where they could participate in a range of activities as well as contribute ideas for their involvement, and, thus, reflect on and evaluate their own performance.

When creating an assessment activity, to optimize its benefits, Gardner and Miller (1999) suggest that it contains the following: the purpose of the assessment, benefits to the students, a procedure for conducting and marking it, a suggested marking scale, and a choice of follow up actions related to the score achieved. Accordingly, in both the creation and implementation of the self-assessment activity, the instructor ensured that these criteria were taken into consideration and included in the activity. Additionally, Harris (1997) suggests that to be effective, self-assessment must be practical in terms of time and should be integrated with everyday classroom activities. As such, the self-assessment activity was used as part of the regular procedure during the feedback stages of discussions one and two.

I utilized three learning activities in my English classes basing on the theoretical framework of self- assessment by Andrade and Valtcheva (2009). At the end of the course, I conducted a brief survey to find out whether students appreciate the three activities or not.

The questionnaire is designed for students to rank the level of difficulty, the degree of practicality of the project, and the possibility of applying each activity on their own. The answers to all of those questions are designed based on the Likert scale which is considered as a commonly used psychometric scale in research that employs questionnaires. Applying this method, respondents are expected to express their level of agreement or disagreement on the proposed activities and statements. Above all, choosing this questionnaire design, I hoped to get the most trustful evaluation from students so that it would be more practical to draw some experiences and reflections for further improvement in the next application.

The questionnaires were distributed to 3 sample classes with 97 students in total. The number of received questionnaires then was 97, it means that all of the students participated in completing the survey and there was not any questionnaire that was left blank or incomplete. Thus, the process of analyzing data is going to base on these to come up with final findings.

This is the way I implemented the activities in my English classes.

<u>Activity 1</u>

Due to the requirements of subject curriculum, listening practice in the classroom mainly concentrates on the completion of listening tasks in the textbook. This means that students have little chance to access different types of listening materials in the classroom; therefore, they were encouraged to listen to as many kinds of listening sources as possible. Every week in the first 7 weeks of the course, students were required to listen to at least one piece of news (flexible sources chosen by them) and fill in the listening log after that. This task was done as a self-study activity out of the class with the teacher's guides. For example, the teacher supplied students with listening logs at the beginning of each week. Students reviewed the tasks from the week before, discussed and reflected on their progress. At the end of week 7, students needed to choose and rewrite 3 pieces of news among them, record and attach the transcript in the listening Portfolio. The audio length is from 2 to 3 minutes. The sources of their own report should be provided as well for further reference.

LISTENING LOG
Task: Listening to news
Name: ____________________
Here is your task:
Keep this listening log in your portfolio. Fill it out each time that you finish listening to a piece of news.

Date	Title of news	Source	Main ideas	Comment

The passage that I found the easiest to understand was ____________________
because____________________

The hardest passage to understand was ____________________
because____________________

In order to listen better next time, I think I should:
____
____
____

Figure 1. Listening log for students' weekly practice

When I checked students' listening logs on the first two weeks, I found out that some students were weak at summarizing the main ideas as well as giving comments on listening articles. Some students even left it blank in the comment column. I, then, provided them with some guides to getting main ideas such as catching up key words and repeated words or paying attention to the structure of the listening pieces. In the following weeks, I could see the improvement in students' logs with the information fulfilled.

According to the data collected, there was a large number of students thinking that activity 1 was helpful or somewhat helpful for their listening practice at home and the majority of students agreed that they could do this activity independently outside the class. As well, many students confirmed that it was possible to use the activity in future by themselves to further improve their listening skill. Although there is not much evidence of students' listening skill improvement during the 7-week project, I suppose that this activity can be repeated to enhance learner autonomy because students can use listening logs as a tool to practice regularly and improve listening skill gradually.

Activity 2

Because of the large number of students in each English class (normally from 30 to 40), each student had a little time practicing speaking skill in the class. As a result, many students felt unconfident when communicating in English with their peers and teachers. This bought me to the design of the second activity to improve their speaking skill as well as the ability to learn independently outside the classroom.

From week 9 to week 13, students were divided into groups of 3 to 5 and asked to role-play with given topics in the textbook. Topics, task requirements such as duration and submission and the assessment criteria were given to students in advance so that they had enough preparation time before the teacher's assessment in the class on the final week of the course. Students were also required to hand in the transcript of the drama as well as evidences for group work before the performance such as pictures, schedule, etc. From my own observation and evaluation, most of performances were well-prepared. According to the survey at the end of the course, I found out that although it was seen as a helpful activity by many students for their improvement of speaking skill, this task was difficult to conduct. Therefore, except for some students feeling positive about the future implication of this activity, the rest was uncertain about the possibility of implementing this activity themselves. When I interviewed some groups informally, I discovered that one of the difficulties for this activity was the inconvenience of long distance among group members, which hindered them from gathering to practice together.

Activity 3

With the aim to speed up students' ability to speak English fluently and naturally, students were asked to video record a conversation from 3 to 5 minutes with foreigners. Each individual could choose topics randomly on their own (the teacher highly recommend such Vietnam-related topics as traditional cultures, food, or Vietnames people in comparison with other foreign countries). Task requirements and the assessment criteria were given to them at the beginning of the course. At the end of the course, students had to submit the transcript of the talk and video recording. With this kind of activity, students themselves had to decide when, where, who to talk to and what topic as well as how to initiate the conversation with foreigners.

As outcomes, when ranking the effectiveness of this out-of-class activity, the majority of students thought that it was helpful to their speaking skill. However, they also considered it as a hard task to complete. Surprisingly, despite the difficulty, most of the students claimed that they would further improve their speaking skill by continuing with this activity.

According to what students revealed when being surveyed, I can make sure that the students were provided with some strategies such as doing weekly listening logs, role-play on certain topics and initiating conversations with foreigners to learn independently. It means it is important for the teachers to ensure that they give their students enough instructions and tips or strategies to help them in self-study; consequently, their autonomy can be improved and reinforced.

It is also advisable for the teacher to spend more time explaining the activity and its objectives and perhaps a change in instructional language may be required to ensure that students fully understand the activity. It is likely that using self-assessment activities with lower level learners would be particularly beneficial in helping them self-reflect and monitor their progress while helping them focus on course objectives by allowing students to set meaningful and achievable goals.

Developing learner autonomy, however, is not a matter of one or two techniques; rather it needs a planned approach. Using the discussed techniques should be repeated and modified to ensure that they are suitable to learners.

6. Conclusion

In undertaking this research, the author's main aim was to provide students with strategies to enable autonomous learning in order to improve their listening and speaking performance for general use and future study. The implication of activities confirmed the author's initial assumption that students consider listening and speaking important life and/or skills but lack independent learning strategies to improve.

The study results showed that many students felt that they made progress in the target skills and they intended to continue spend some of the strategies independently in their university study. That was certainly an encouraging outcome for the research. The author hopes to make the outcomes of this project a regular part of the EFL classes at FTU in future, with the findings used as a foundation for further development of the curriculum.

References

Andrade, H. G. (1999). Student Self-Assessment: At the Intersection of Metacognition and Authentic Assessment. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Montreal, Quebec, Canada, April 19-23, 1999).

Andrade, H., & Valtcheva, A. (2009). Promoting learning and achievement through self-assessment. *Theory into Practice*, *48*(1), 12-19. https://doi.org/10.1080/00405840802577544

Burns, A (2010). *Doing Action Research in English Language Teaching: A Guide for Practitioners*, New York: Routledge.

Burns, A. & Joyce, H. (1999) *Focus on Speaking*, Sydney: Macquarie University

Cotterall, S. (2000). Promoting learner autonomy through the curriculum: Principles for designing language courses, *ELT Journal, 54*(2), 109-117.

Council of Europe (2001) *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment,* available online: www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Cadre 1_en.asp

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Introduction: The Discipline and Practice of Qualitative Research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 1-32). Thousand Oaks, CA,: Sage Publications Ltd.

Diana, C. B., & Eberstein, A. (2013) *Developing learner self-assessment skills in speaking fluency,* Cambridge: Cambridge University Express.

Gardner, D. (2000) Self-assessment for autonomous language learner. *Links and Letters 7*, 49-60.

Gardner, D. & Miller, L. (1997). *Establishing Self-assess: From Theory to Practice*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Express.

Harris, M. (1997) Self-assessment of language learning in formal settings, *ELT Journal, 51*(1), 12-20.

Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy and foreign language learning*. Oxford: PergamonTudor, I (1996) *Learner-centerness as Language Education,* Cambridge: Cambridge University Express.

Little, D. (2002). Learner autonomy and second/foreign language learning. In *The guide to good practice for learning and teaching in languages, linguistics and area studies.* LTSN Subject Centre for Languages, Linguistics and Area Studies. Retrieved from http://www.lang.ltsn.ac.uk/resources/guidecontents.aspx on 7/20/2014.

Olivares, R. A. (2002). Communication, constructivism and transfer of knowledge in the education of bilingual learners. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *5*(1), 4-19.

Ross, J. (2006). The reliability, validity, and utility of self-assessment. *Practical Assessment, Research, and Evaluation, 11*(10). Retrieved January 11, 2007, from http://pareonline.net/getvn.asp?vD11& nD10

Nguyen, H.H.T., & Tran, T. T. N. (2018). An investigation into EFL teachers' perceptions of in-class English speaking assessment, *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies, 34*(2), 125-139.

Tudor, I (1996). *Learner-centredness as language education*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Warchulski, D. (2015). Promoting learner autonomy through self-assessment and goal-setting. *New Directions in Teaching and Learning English Discussion*, *3*, 214-222.

THÚC ĐẨY SỰ TỰ CHỦ CỦA NGƯỜI HỌC THÔNG QUA VIỆC TỰ ĐÁNH GIÁ VÀ PHẢN ÁNH

Ngô Thị Thanh

Khoa Tiếng Anh chuyên ngành, Đại học Ngoại thương,
91 Chùa Láng, Hà Nội

Tóm tắt: Bài viết mô tả cách thức thúc đẩy việc tự chủ của người học thông qua các hoạt động tự đánh giá và phản ánh. Nghiên cứu nhằm mục đích giúp sinh viên khám phá sức mạnh bên trong của họ khi học tập một cách độc lập bên ngoài lớp học và tự đánh giá các kỹ năng của bản thân, với mục đích cuối cùng là cải thiện hiệu suất của hai kỹ năng nghe và nói. Dựa trên khung lý thuyết về tự đánh giá và phản ánh của Andrade và Valtcheva (2009), và lý thuyết về sự tự chủ của người học của Holec (1981), tác giả đã thực hiện một nghiên cứu đối với các sinh viên năm thứ hai trong ba lớp học không chuyên tiếng Anh tại một trường đại học trong 15 tuần học. Những sinh viên này được trang bị các cách tự đánh giá kỹ năng nghe và nói thông qua các nhiệm vụ thực tế ngoài lớp học để giúp họ trở thành những người học độc lập hơn biết tự suy ngẫm và đánh giá hiệu suất của chính họ. Từ kết quả nghiên cứu, nghiên cứu cho thấy sự phản ánh và đánh giá có thể là công cụ hữu ích để khuyến khích sinh viên trở thành người học độc lập.

Từ khóa: người học tự chủ, tự phản ánh, tự đánh giá

INFORMATION

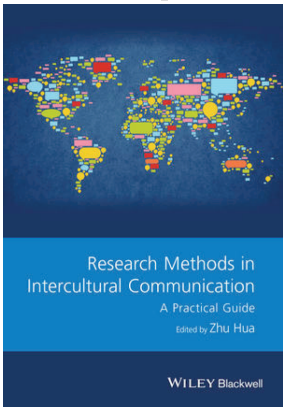
RESEARCH METHODS IN INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION. A PRACTICAL GUIDE

Edited by Zhu Hua
Wiley Blackwell, 2015

Nguyen Thi Thuy Linh

Department of English, VNU University of Languages and International Studies, Pham Van Dong, Cau Giay, Hanoi, Vietnam

Received 24 May 2019
Revised 7 June 2019; Accepted 22 December 2019



1. Introduction

As the latest one in the Wiley Blackwell series "Guides to research methods in language and linguistics", "Research methods in intercultural communication", edited by Zhu Hua, is described on their website as "the most comprehensive volume on research methods in intercultural communication research in the last 30 years" (Wiley, 2016). This book is the contributory collection of a global team of experienced scholars and researchers from intercultural communication, anthropology, education, applied linguistics, and communication, explain both established and emerging research methods and analytical tools. It seeks to provide an introduction to the key methodological issues and concerns in the study of Intercultural Communication for students on advanced undergraduate and postgraduate programs in Intercultural Communication, language and linguistics, applied linguistics, TESOL, education, translation, communication studies and other related subjects.

2. Contents of the book

The volume does not start with describing methods right away. Rather, it opens with two parts that often receive little attention in research training but have significant bearings on the validity of research questions and the interpretation of results. In brief, the core contents of the book are divided into three main sections, which are I. Linking themes, paradigms, and methods, II. Key issues and challenges and III. Methods.

Part 1 forwards key concepts in understanding intercultural communication. In the first place, an overview of the five key research paradigms in Intercultural studies are provided. Zhu Hua, the editor of this volume starts with confirming the multidisciplinary nature of Intercultural Communication as a field of enquiry. Then, she continues to discuss what a paradigm is and why it is essential to understand paradigms before carrying on research designs. Five paradigms, namely positivist, interpretative, critical, constructivist, and realist are introduced afterwards in terms of their main assumptions, research themes, and disciplinary connections. The next three chapters deals with three key topics in the study of Intercultural Communication: culture, identity and discourse.

In "Studying culture" chapter, Adrian Holliday comes up with a social action "grammar" of culture to indicate the different and interconnected forces that act on culture and Intercultural Communication and provide different foci for research. He concludes, underlying universal cultural processes imply that all of us are equally engaged in the everyday construction of and engagement with culture wherever it is found.

Following is the chapter discussing identity. In this, a brief overview of some key theoretical issued related to the study of identity in the context of different schools of thought, particularly positive and constructivism is provided. Jo Angouri in the end, comes to the conclusion that the term "identity" has become so extended that it can stand for a range of other more or less notion, similarly to culture.

The next chapter brings about the topic of studying discourse. It aims to explore the history of academic fields that focus on analyzing these complex communicative interactions. The second half of the chapter looks at four different methods of discourse analysis: Dell Hymes's SPEAKING model; Labov and Waletzky's Narrative Analysis method; Scollon, Scollon, and Jones's Discourse systems approach; and Leila Monaghan's HISTORY model. The strengths and limitations of each model are discussed, giving students and researchers insights into how these methods might be used in their own work.

After a brief theoretical discussion of key topics in Intercultural Communication, Part II discusses the key issues and challenges in research strategies, planning and implementation, including research questions, researching multilingually, interculturally, and ethically, myths and challenges in measuring intercultural competence, the researcher's role, and a step-by-step guide to developing a research proposal.

Identifying research questions has never been an easy job and indeed, it is a process that requires a series of actions and steps. The nine scenarios identified in the chapter range from "not knowing where to start" to "having too many ideas"; from "questions first", where one starts with a research question to "data first, theory or method first", where one knows what data, theory, or a data collection method they would like to work with prior to a search question.

In the next two chapters, the issues of how to research multilingually, culturally and ethically are elaborated on. They are aimed to develop researchers' awareness and understanding of the process of researching interculturally. The seventh chapter discusses the implications of taking what might be considered a cross-cultural as opposed to an intercultural approach. While the first involves a more concrete approach to culture as behavior which can be identified and described, the second involves an understanding of culture as created within interaction.

Chapter 8 explores guiding principles in using measures to assess intercultural competence. It also discusses other key issues in assessment of intercultural competence including the lifelong process of developing intercultural competence, the need to assess behavior, and using collected assessment information for further intercultural development.

In the following, chapter 9, "How to work with research participants: the researcher's role" proposes to "reeducate" the researcher of interculturality. In order to do so, Fred Dervin argues that critical reflexity is essential in all aspects of research.

The last chapter in the second part deals with "How to develop a research proposal". It begins by exploring ways to identify and shape a research idea or problem into a proposal for a project that can contribute to knowledge in this field of study. In the sections that follow, step-by-step guidance through the development of a project proposal is shown and discussed.

Ultimately, the third part delves into providing a concise summary and explain the key features of twelve most common methods in Intercultural Communication. Each chapter addresses the questions of what the method is about, why this method and why not (strengths and limitations), how to do it, what research themes this method is associated with, how it works with other methods, and what are the new and emerging data-collection and analysis methods and tools. The twelve most common research methods are: questionnaires and surveys, interviews, the matched-guise technique, discourse completion tasks, the critical incident technique, ethnography, virtual ethnography, multimodality, critical discourse analysis, conversation analysis, corpus analysis and narrative analysis.

3. Discussion

The journey of the book has brought along some useful understanding for the readers towards the topic of Intercultural communication studies. Within the length of approximately 350 pages, the book contains such a great deal of notable features that makes itself unique and worth reading.

First of all, it is a wealth of literature related to intercultural studies. Starting from the very first part in research paradigms, the authors have pulled near something far-reaching and always theoretical towards the readers by supplying the very up-to-date and concise summary of each paradigms. Issues are discussed in a thorough and enchanting way, then examples follow to clarify prior points. An interesting feature in this book is the "case in point", which provides reliable and exemplary research to illustrate a certain subject or topic. The key terms appearing during the discussion of every section are given and explained succinctly with an aim to make them more accessible and easier to remember. What is more, along with the great body of knowledge and theories, the list of references, further reading and resources are also impressive. Many important and prevailing research works have been mentioned and categorized so that the readers can find and read extensively.

Secondly, it is undeniable that the book has supplied the readers with a user-friendly and practical guide to approach the seemingly hard-to-digest research methods in Intercultural Communication. The act of conducting a research has been summarized in several key steps such as “How to identify research questions” or “How to develop a research proposal”. The authors choose to approach the issue from the perspective of an undergraduate student who is struggling with writing up an intercultural communication study. Many obstacles have been tackled and afterwards a great of advice from experts has been provided. Besides that, the list of twelve most common research methods dominating intercultural studies is of great use. The way authors present method by method and briefly discussing its strengths and weaknesses may assist the readers better choose their appropriate methods for their own study.

However, beside all the plus points that ZhuHua has managed to compile and deliver, there are still some recommendations to enhance the quality of this book.

In terms of the third part about twelve most common research methods in intercultural communication, it is agreed that the group of authors have presented a very clear, brief and easy to understand picture of each and every method. However, it is actually rather short and within the length of 20-30 pages per method, the authors just stop at explaining the key general points such as what the method is about, when it is appropriate to use it, and when it is not, some advice about good practice in applying the method, an analysis of strengths and weaknesses of the method, and finally some suggestions for areas in which the method could be applied to intercultural communication method. Perhaps the space is rather limited, thus only in some methods such as ethnography, virtual ethnography and multimodality the development of the research method is covered. This can be viewed as an inconsistency concerning the format and content of all the methods from questionnaires and surveys to narrative analysis. For the students who want to apply a certain method in their studies or theses, reading this book is not enough since it somehow presents the introductory parts of the research methods. Thus, they sure need a lot of time and hard work on delving into the list of recommended readings at the end of every chapter.

Another remark is on the fact that after every chapter in the book, the authors recap and review the discussed knowledge by a short conclusion. In this way, the readers can see the overall picture of what they have just read above and sometimes the conclusion helps trigger more ideas and better understanding of the issue in point. At the end of the third part on methods, it is expected one final conclusion that draws together the themes, key topics and purpose of the volume may come out. Contrary to that thought, none exists and the book is forced to stop in an abrupt way to move to appendixes and index.

Reflecting on the volume as a whole, I still highly regard it as a particularly distinguishing and in deed a must-have item for any students who wish to investigate into intercultural communication studies. The group of authors and especially Zhu Hua as the editor have done such a great job in succeeding to make the broad field of research become something practical, accessible and precise. It can be a useful tool for undergraduates in many fields of linguistics to gain deeper understanding in intercultural communication and dominant methods. Otherwise, research supervisors may find it as a handbook of great help in supplying their students with the appropriate method or approach in line with their research questions.

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:

+ Đối với các tài liệu là sách:

Nguyễn Thiện Giáp (2008). *Giáo trình Ngôn ngữ học*. Hà Nội: Nxb Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội.

Saussure, Ferdinand de (1959). *Course in General Linguistics.* Edited by Charles Bally and Albert Sechehaye in collaboration with Albert Reidlinger, translated by Wade Baskin. New York: Philosophical Library.

+ Đối với các tài liệu là bài báo, báo cáo hội nghị hội thảo:

Trần Thị Cúc, Đỗ Thị Thanh Hà (2015). Patterns of Code-Mixing of English in Hoa Hoc Tro Magazine in Vietnam. *VNU Journal of Science: Foreign Studies, 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.

7. Bản thảo xin gửi đến địa chỉ email của Tòa soạn (xem dưới đây). Tòa soạn không trả lại bản thảo nếu bài không được đăng.

Tác giả chịu hoàn toàn trách nhiệm trước pháp luật về nội dung bài viết và xuất xứ tài liệu trích dẫn.

Tạp chí *Nghiên cứu Nước ngoài*, Tầng 3, Nhà A1,
Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ - Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội, Phạm Văn Đồng, Cầu Giấy, Hà Nội, Việt Nam
Website: https://js.vnu.edu.vn/FS/index
Email: tapchincnn@gmail.com / tapchincnn@vnu.edu.vn
ĐT.: (84-24) 62532956

INSTRUCTIONS TO AUTHORS

1. As a natural development from its predecessor *VNU Journal of Science: Foreign Studies*, **VNU Journal of Foreign Studies** continues to be an official, independent peer-reviewed publication of the University of Languages and International Studies (ULIS) under Vietnam National University (VNU). *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies* publishes bimonthly (2 Vietnamese and 4 English editions p.a. from 2019 onward) with research articles in *linguistics, language/foreign language teaching, international studies, and related social sciences and humanities*. Only papers which have not been previously or elsewhere published can be accepted.

2. It is advisable that submitted articles cite AT LEAST one published article from this *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies.*

3. Manuscripts should be typed in Vietnamese or English (at least 10 pages, i.e. approx. 4,000 words for research article and 5 pages, i.e. approx. 2,000 words for discussion article), using A4 size, left margin 2.5cm, right margin 2.5cm, top margin 3.6cm, bottom margin 4.3cm, Times New Roman font at 11 with Single spacing.

4. All manuscripts must contain abstract (200 words maximum) and at most five (5) keywords in both Vietnamese and English. Article title should be bold and capitalized.

5. Manuscripts should be prepared according to the following order: Article title, Author(s), Workplace(s), Abstract, Keywords, Main text, Acknowledgements (if any), References, Appendix (if any). The corresponding author should be marked, with his/her postal address, e-mail, telephone provided on the first page of the manuscript.

6. References should be clarified in the main text. References are provided in their original (published) language, with each language arranged in a separate section in alphabetical order, with Vietnamese given first and foremost, e.g. Vietnamese, Arabic, Chinese, English, French, German, Japanese, Korean, Russian and Thai. References conform to APA standards, namely:

+ Books:

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.

+ Journal articles or conference papers:

Trần Thị Cúc, Đỗ Thị Thanh Hà (2015). Patterns of Code-Mixing of English in Hoa Hoc Tro Magazine in Vietnam. *VNU Journal of Science: Foreign Studies, 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.

+ 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.

7. Manuscripts should be sent to the editorial board at the email address below and will not be returned to the author(s) in case of rejection.

The author(s) must bear any legal responsibility for the article and references.

VNU Journal of Foreign Studies, 3rd Floor, Building A1,
VNU University of Languages and International Studies, Pham Van Dong, Cau Giay, Hanoi, Vietnam
Website: https://js.vnu.edu.vn/FS/index
Email: tapchincnn@gmail.com / tapchincnn@vnu.edu.vn
Tel.: (84-24) 62532956